AN EXAMINATION OF THE MARKETING EFFECTIVENESS OF SMALL WESTERN UNIVERSITIES / COLLEGES

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports the findings on the marketing effectiveness of small universities and colleges in the Western United States. The use of marketing techniques was found to be widespread in small institutions of higher education. It was also found that there exists a difference in the marketing effectiveness of institutions with declining versus non-declining enrollments. In comparing public versus independent institutions, it was also found that there is a difference in their enrollment status. This finding speaks to the larger difficulties faced by independent, small institutions due to their dependency on tuition.

INTRODUCTION

Institutions of higher education, like all other organizations, operate in a dynamic environment which directly affects their vitality and direction. Forces in the environment have created external and internal pressures on American colleges and universities whether large or small, public or independent. In responding to these pressures, some large institutions rushed to adopt or strengthen their marketing programs. Some small private institutions, caught in the squeeze of rising costs and shrinking enrollments, were forced to reduce programs and a few, to close their doors [McAdams 1975].

Prominent among the external pressures is the changing demographics which is most frequently mentioned in the literature on higher education. There are statistical projections of gloom and doom concerning the traditional college-age cohort. For example, Hodgkinson [1978] noted, "One of the given's in higher education these days is that we are about to face a decline in conventional student registrations of a most unprecedented sort." A U.S. government report [U.S. Department of Commerce 1983] tends to echo Hodgkinson's predictions.

On the other hand, Mathias [1982] indicated that the number of older students starting or returning to college may be sufficient to counteract predicted enrollment declines. Many of these newer and older students may be women. Schmeiler [1977] found learning groups are becoming more and more age-mixed.

There are internal pressures at work as well. The graying of faculty in American educational institutions is evident in the large portions of academic budgets locked in to pay tenured salaries, thereby reducing the degree of fiscal flexibility. Increased student consumerism and fear of litigation cause concern to many administrators. Faculty continue to push for lighter teaching loads combined with higher salaries.

Educational institutions have responded in varied ways to adapt to these pressures in order to attract students, funds, and overall support. Some two-year institutions expanded to offer four-year degrees. A great number of church-related institutions de-emphasized their church affiliation. Changing social values tempted many single-sex institutions to become coeducational. According to Maybey [1979], some that did so had remarkable success while others ended financially worse than before. Many post-secondary schools have turned to marketing as a strategy to maintain institutional vitality in a changing environment.

Declining enrollment is an acute problem among smaller, public and independent colleges and universities, particularly among those which are perceived as relatively less attractive and/or those which are tuition-dependent. These smaller institutions in dire need of effective marketing programs are also the most likely to have neither the expertise nor the resources to implement such programs. Little has been done, however, to study the marketing efforts of smaller institutions and, to examine the perceptions of administrators regarding effectiveness of their institutions' marketing efforts.

The purpose of this study was to find out the extent to which small institutions are effectively utilizing marketing programs to combat enrollment declines during a period of changing demographics.
HYPOTHESES

The research question addressed the relationship between the enrollment status, enrollment trends, the nature of the institution [public vs. independent], and the marketing effort and effectiveness. It should be noted that the focus of this research has been purposely kept to small institutions of higher education, because smaller institutions are perhaps the greater victims of environmental changes.

Nine testable hypotheses [H₀₁ through H₀₆] were developed for the purpose of this study. The null hypotheses were stated in terms of "no difference" because a review of relevant literature did not provide conclusive evidence to warrant stating the hypotheses in terms of any particular direction.

The first four hypotheses [H₀₁, H₀₂, H₀₃, and H₀₄] were developed to determine if there was a relationship between an institution’s marketing effort and its enrollment status. Together, these four hypotheses sought an answer to the following research question: Are the marketing efforts of institutions with non-declining enrollments the same as the marketing efforts of institutions with declining enrollments?

Hypothesis 1 (H₀₁): There is no difference in the marketing effort of institutions with declining enrollments and the marketing effort of institutions with non-declining enrollments.

Hypothesis 2 (H₀₂): There is no difference in the status of marketing plans of institutions with declining enrollments and the status of marketing plans of institutions with non-declining enrollments.

Hypothesis 3 (H₀₃): There is no difference in the ratings of marketing efforts by administrators of institutions with declining enrollments and the ratings of marketing efforts by administrators of institutions with non-declining enrollments.

Hypothesis 4 (H₀₄): There is no difference in the marketing effectiveness of institutions with declining enrollments and in the marketing effectiveness of institutions with non-declining enrollments.

Hypotheses H₀₅, H₀₆, H₀₇, H₀₈, and H₀₉ were developed to compare the marketing efforts of independent and public institutions. The literature on institutional marketing hinted that independent institutions have traditionally been more actively engaged in marketing due to their direct dependency on monies obtained through tuition. Therefore, independent institutions might be expected to be more willing to accept marketing and more adept at utilizing marketing techniques. Specifically, these hypotheses sought to answer the question: Are the marketing efforts of small public and small independent institutions equal? Hypothesis 9 was designed to test the theory that small public and small independent institutions have been equally hard hit by the decline in traditional student pools.

Hypothesis 5 (H₀₅): There is no difference in the marketing efforts of public and independent institutions.

Hypothesis 6 (H₀₆): There is no difference in the status of the marketing plans of public and independent institutions.

Hypothesis 7 (H₀₇): There is no difference in the ratings of marketing efforts by administrators of public institutions and the ratings of marketing efforts by administrators of independent institutions.

Hypothesis 8 (H₀₈): There is no difference in the marketing effectiveness of public and independent institutions.

Hypothesis 9 (H₀₉): There is no difference in the enrollment status of either declining or non-declining of public and independent institutions.

RESEARCH METHOD

Small institutions, both independent and public, in thirteen Western states were selected as targets for this study. This population consisted of approximately 43 public and 112 independent institutions. These were public and independent four-year, degree-granting institutions of higher learning which met the test of a small institution (i.e., less than 9,000 undergraduate students by headcount) and which were located in the following thirteen Western states: Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Nevada, New Mexico, Montana, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming.

Data was gathered through a survey instrument. Information was sought from two different levels within each institution. That is, questionnaires were sent to both the vice-president for academic affairs and the director of admissions at each college or university within the population parameter. The questionnaire was based on general marketing
concepts and on a marketing effectiveness rating instrument specifically developed by Kotler and Fox [1985] for use in higher educational institutions.

**ANALYSIS AND RESULTS**

Admissions directors and academic vice-presidents from 155 institutions were surveyed. Of this number, 110 institutions responded, yielding an overall response rate of 71 percent. The 136 completed questionnaires received from educational administrators across 13 Western states served as the sample of small institutions and provided sufficient data to test the hypotheses. Statistical analyses were performed utilizing both the t-test and analysis of variance, F-test procedures. Results of these tests are summarized in Table 1.

### Table 1

**t-TEST SUMMARY: DECLINING AND NON-DECLINING INSTITUTIONS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Computed t-value</th>
<th>Critical t-value</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H₀₁</td>
<td>-0.1616</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₂</td>
<td>-0.9058</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₃</td>
<td>-0.7351</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₄</td>
<td>1.3366 *</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₅</td>
<td>-0.8678</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₆</td>
<td>0.0662</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₇</td>
<td>0.0946</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₈</td>
<td>1.1712</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H₉</td>
<td>1.4576 *</td>
<td>1.282</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Level of Significance = .20

* d.f. = 134

* indicates statistical significance

### DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 could not be rejected based on the analysis. However, other important facts did emerge. Of the sample institutions studied, 20 percent indicated that their institutions were experiencing declines in enrollment, while 22 percent indicated no growth in enrollment. Other facts revealed that 20 percent of the administrators reported "little change" or a "substantial decrease" in the marketing effort of their institution over the last five years. While no statistical conclusions can be drawn from these facts, there are indications that a correlation may exist between a decrease in marketing effort and a subsequent decrease in enrollment.

A majority of the participants revealed that they were heavily engaged in the marketing of their institutions. Sixty-four percent of the respondents had either formalized a marketing plan or had an operational plan. However, only a scant 2 percent of the respondents rated their marketing efforts as superior. Thus, while heavily engaged in institutional marketing, most administrators felt that there is still room for improvement. In most of the areas examined, admissions directors and academic vice-presidents seemed to have similar opinions.

Hypothesis 4 tested the difference in marketing effectiveness of declining and non-declining institutions. As might be expected, a statistically significant difference was evident. While this test did not reveal where the difference lies, an inspection of the data does show that declining institutions have lower mean...
marketing effectiveness scores (220) when compared to the mean score (231) of non-declining institutions. This seems to suggest that declining institutions may not be as effective and/or as heavily engaged in their marketing efforts as are their non-declining counterparts.

Hypotheses 5, 6, 7, and 8 again could not be rejected based on statistical tests. Hypothesis 9 was rejected, i.e., a statistically significant difference was found in the status of enrollment of independent and public institutions. This could be expected in a time of decreasing student financial aid and a diminishing pool of traditional students. While this test did not indicate direction of difference, close examination of the data revealed that the difference might be expected to exist in the decline of enrollments in independent institutions. Twenty-two percent of the independent institutions surveyed indicated a decline in enrollment over the last five years, whereas only 19 percent of public institutions indicated a decline in enrollment.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this investigation was to determine whether small institutions, thought to be most in need of utilizing marketing techniques in this period of general decline in the traditional college age pool, were, in fact, effectively utilizing marketing techniques. Few studies have been done to measure the marketing role in higher education, and no published study has measured the effectiveness of marketing programs, whose focus was on smaller institutions. Thus, this study sought to bridge a gap in the literature.

Several important findings resulted from this study. First, the realization that the use of marketing techniques in higher education, even among small institutions, is an extremely widespread—if not a universally accepted concept. Considering the reluctance (and even repugnance) with which many in higher education viewed the use of marketing a few short years ago, this is indeed a remarkable finding.

A second finding is that there is a difference in marketing effectiveness of institutions with declining and non-declining enrollments. From the perspective of a marketing scholar, this is probably the most important finding. It provides a rationale for the increased adoption of marketing as a weapon to combat external environmental pressures on institutions of higher learning.

A third, and final, finding is that there is a difference in the enrollment status of public vs. independent institutions. The fact that so many small institutions have already experienced a decline in enrollments speaks eloquently to unique problems that small institutions face in this period of decreasing student pools. Furthermore, while both public and independent institutions have experienced declines in enrollment, the tuition dependency of small independents places them in a doubly vulnerable position.

This study highlights the need for longitudinal evaluation of marketing programs of educational institutions. Longitudinal studies will shed more light on the cause-effect relationships between marketing programs and enrollments. The present study is simply a beginning.

REFERENCES


CORPORATE FUND RAISING AS AN EXCHANGE PROCESS:
DESIRED PRODUCTS AND BENEFITS

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Courtney Corner, University of San Diego, San Diego, CA 92110, 619-260-4690

ABSTRACT

A survey of corporate donors was conducted for a small private university in southern California. Seventy-eight respondents chose philanthropy and a desire for special recognition as two important reasons for giving. Important benefits that the university could offer in return for donations were business forums with expert panels, access to research facilities, internship programs, and access to top students at recruiting functions. Benefits of lowest interest were access to undergraduate and graduate resume books, tickets to theater events, and faculty working papers.

INTRODUCTION

Although more than 90% of all philanthropic giving is by individuals [Forbes 1989], corporate giving to higher education is an essential component of most universities' fund-raising efforts. Potential corporate donors face a plethora of giving options, and many large corporations that have been traditionally heavy donors to higher education are starting to shift their focus to lower grades [Kuhn 1990]. In 1988, the top contributor to education was IBM at $81 million. Besides unrestricted funds IBM provides curriculum development grants and equipment to foster research in particular areas of interest to the corporation [IBM Directions 1990-91]. Other major 1988 contributors to education included Proctor & Gamble at $19 million, and General Electric and AT&T, each of whom contributed $18 million [Kuhn 1990]. The largest donations go overwhelmingly to established universities and to cultural and medical institutions. These gifts can bring the giver social status as well as provide an asset that will outlive the donor [Forbes 1989].

In a survey of Fortune 500 and Service 500 firms, 41% of the 305 respondents give less than $100,000 annually to education, 28% donate from $100,000 to $500,000 and 18% contribute $1 million or more annually. Interestingly, 70% of the top executives are actively involved in their companies' giving efforts [Kuhn 1990].

Corporate giving is not a one-sided altruistic activity; the lean corporation of the nineties often expects more exchange of value in return for its philanthropic activity. Symbiotic relationships are emerging where education and enterprise both benefit. Many schools have a perpetual problem of maintaining state of the art facilities in the face of rapidly changing technologies, and business has a need to draw on the rich intellectual resources available in a university climate. Schools can benefit by receiving monetary grants or equipment donations from high technology suppliers as well as from the formation of alliances with companies. Students have the opportunity to gain practical knowledge and experience as interns in particular industries they may be interested in. They provide a resource to firms and in exchange receive hands on understanding of actual industrial challenges without having to sacrifice the learning environment of school [Leinfuss 1990].

A SURVEY OF CORPORATE DONORS

In an attempt to better understand the specific products and benefits corporate donors would appreciate in return for contributions, a survey was sent to the current corporate donors whose annual gifts exceeded $1000 at a small (6000 students) southern California private university.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business Categories of Current Corporate Donors</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Banking &amp; Finance</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-Tech</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail Trade</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale Trade</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defense</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation, Communication &amp; Utilities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Total exceeds 100% due to rounding.

A mail survey was fielded during 1990 and, of the 200 surveys distributed, 78 were returned representing a response rate of 39%. Table 1 indicates the categories of businesses responding to the survey.
Reasons for Giving

Respondents were asked to rank order their reasons for giving to the university. The two highest ranked reasons were (1) philanthropy followed closely by (2) the desire for special recognition. For each reason for giving, the percentage of responses for a ranking of one or two is shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Most Important Reasons For Giving

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Philanthropy</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition for Community Support</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Top Students</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax Benefits</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Research Facilities</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many universities accept both restricted and unrestricted funds. Restricted funds are those donated under conditional terms; the donor organization decides for what purpose the funds will be used. Common uses of restricted funds include the construction of new facilities, donations to specific schools, or donations to a specific area of research. Unrestricted funds have no strings attached and may be used in whatever manner deemed necessary by the university. There is concern by university development personnel that corporate donors are asking for a greater percentage of their funds to be for restricted purposes. Almost a third (32%) of the respondents suggested they would prefer to donate restricted funds. There was not a significant relationship between the business category of the corporate donor and a propensity to want to give restricted funds. Table 3 indicates how these respondents who wish to donate restricted funds would like to allocate their monies. By far the most popular choice was being able to determine to which school the funds would be donated.

Table 3
Allocations for Restricted Funds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Allocation</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specific School (e.g., business school)</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholarships (identified by company name)</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital Campaign for New Facilities</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endowed Chairs</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Program</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Corporate Giving As Exchange

Table 4 enumerates the means associated with a bundle of potential products the university could provide as benefits for corporate donors. Respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point Likert scale their interest in a series of product and benefits they might receive in exchange for corporate donations. Five indicated they were very interested in a product and one indicated they were not interested in the product.

The most valuable product the university could offer appears to be the dissemination of pertinent information through the offering of business forums with panels of experts who would discuss issues of interest to local business. An example of this type of product that is currently offered on campus, but independently of the corporate giving program, is a well attended business update breakfast series. This program is a monthly breakfast meeting for middle managers that features university professors lecturing on topics of interest for that group. Attendance at this type of program could be offered as part of a package of benefits to the corporate donor.

Other products of interest were those that most closely cater to perceived business needs such as access to research facilities, student internship programs, special recognition for the firm, and access to top students at recruiting functions. Interestingly, the businesses showed the least interest in faculty working papers, perhaps they are viewed as too theoretical and of little pragmatic value for the firm.

Table 4
Mean Interest in Products or Benefits of Giving

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business Forums with Expert Panels</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Research Facilities</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internship Programs</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Recognition</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Top Students at Recruiting Functions</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Meeting Facilities</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consulting from Professors</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tickets to Sporting Events</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Undergraduate &amp; MBA Resume Books</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tickets to University Theater Events</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Working Papers</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Standard deviations range from 1.2 to 1.4
Principal components analysis with varimax rotation of the products suggested four factors or what might be interpreted as product classes: campus events; facilities and faculty; students; and recognition. The factor loadings are found in Table 5.

Table 5
Factor Scores for Product Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1 - Campus Events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tickets to University Theater Events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tickets to Sporting Events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Forums with Expert Panels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2 - Facilities &amp; Faculty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty Working Papers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Research Facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consulting from Professors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Meeting Facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3 - Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Undergraduate &amp; MBA Resume Books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internship Programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to Top Students at Recruiting Functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 4 - Recognition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special Recognition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSIONS

Although philanthropy is cited as the most important reason for giving, firms have a desire to receive products in exchange for their donation. The most desirable products are those that can have a tangible impact on the well being of the firm. Providing recognition is a key element in creating a satisfying relationship with a corporate donor. Additionally, other important benefits that are desired include the use of the university as a resource for information through business forums, special opportunities to recruit students, and, to a lesser extent, the use of university facilities. Developing specific products with the appropriate attributes for corporate donor segments will become an opportunity and a challenge for university development groups as competition for corporate donations continues to increase during the last decade of the century.

REFERENCES


WHERE ARE OUR MARKETING GRADUATES GOING? A SURVEY OF UNDERGRADUATE MAJORS

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Abstract

In June 1991, the Marketing Department of CSUH conducted a survey of recent graduates. All 643 under-graduate students who had received a B.S. degree in Business Administration with a marketing option within the past four years were sent a questionnaire. The survey asked graduates to describe their career paths since leaving school and to assess the quality of the education they had received while at CSUH in preparing them for their careers. One hundred and ten students responded, a rate of 17% return. The following report summarizes the results of this survey. A complete copy of the report is available from the author upon request.

Question #1: When did you complete your undergraduate degree at CSUH?

Responses varied from August 1987 to March 1991. From the distribution, we see a strong tendency for students to graduate in the traditional pattern—48% graduated in June—with the remainder equally distributed among the other three quarters.

Question #2: What was age at graduation?

Question #3: Please circle male/female.

CSUH graduates in Marketing report the following demographics:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>30 (27%)</td>
<td>48 (44%)</td>
<td>78 (71%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>10 (9%)</td>
<td>7 (6%)</td>
<td>17 (15%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>5 (5%)</td>
<td>4 (4%)</td>
<td>9 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36+</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>4 (4%)</td>
<td>6 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47 (43%)</td>
<td>63 (57%)</td>
<td>110 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From these statistics, we see that female students outnumber male graduates in Marketing by 57% to 43%, and that by far the most highly represented age at time of graduation is under 25.

Question #4: Please describe the type of employment you had/took immediately after graduation by checking one of the following:

From these figures we see two important trends. Male graduates are more likely to take a new position with a new company at time of graduation: 66% of males compared with 49% of females. Similarly, female graduates are more likely to stay with the same company, either in an old position, by promotion, or in a new position: 41% of females compared with 28% of males.

Secondly, female students are more likely to become or remain unemployed after graduation: 8% of females compared to no males. 2 male students went to graduate school immediately after graduation, while one each male and female graduates operated their own businesses.

Question #5: What was the entry salary range of the first job you took after graduation?

Marketing graduates reported the following average starting salaries upon graduation (reported in thousands of dollars per year):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>(Averages)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>$25.4</td>
<td>$21.4</td>
<td>$22.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>$30.6</td>
<td>$25.1</td>
<td>$28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>$29</td>
<td>$42</td>
<td>$35.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36+</td>
<td>$32.5</td>
<td>$48.5</td>
<td>$43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Averages)</td>
<td>$27.25</td>
<td>$24.96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graduates' starting salaries upon graduation ranged from a low of $10K to a high of $100K per year. The means for the graduates who reported incomes, however, reveal some startling trends. These statistics illustrate that women can expect to earn less upon graduation than their male counterparts. This is especially true for younger women, where there is a 20% difference in starting salaries: for the 20-25 year old graduate, men averaged $25.4K while women averaged $21.4K per year in starting salary.

The statistics are a bit misleading for the two older age categories since the number of students in each cell was small, and one woman's reported salary of $100,000 distorted the average for the 36+ age group. When linked with the above finding on type of employment after graduation, it appears that older women are more likely than men to complete the
undergraduate degree while holding a high-paying job and return to that position after graduation.

**Question #5: Please describe your employment history after graduation.**

**Question #7: Please describe briefly the title and tasks of the job you now hold.**

The purpose of these two questions was to ascertain the types of jobs that CSUH Marketing majors take after graduation and to plot the first three years of progress in their careers. Responses from graduates are divided into sales and non-sales positions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Sales</th>
<th>Non-Sales</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-25 Male</td>
<td>20 (66%)</td>
<td>10 (33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22 (46%)</td>
<td>26 (54%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30 Male</td>
<td>8 (80%)</td>
<td>2 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5 (71%)</td>
<td>2 (29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35 Male</td>
<td>2 (40%)</td>
<td>3 (60%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3 (75%)</td>
<td>1 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36+ Male</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2 (50%)</td>
<td>2 (50%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Male 30 (64%) 17 (36%)
Female 32 (51%) 31 (49%)

Sales positions included the following job titles:

- sales
- product sales manager
- retail management and sales
- outside sales representative
- account representative
- sales account coordinator
- sales team
- marketing sales coordinator
- assistant sales manager
- local account sales rep
- consumer sales representative
- specialist
- sales system analyst
- sales support
- marketing assistant in incentives and promotions

Non-sales positions included the following job titles:

- collection correspondent
- customer service rep
- communication specialist
- asst. manager retail store
- business owner
- temporary/part-time clerical
- retail store manager
- guest service rep (hotel)
- car rental rep
- health care management
- information services director
- district head manager
- tour guide/manager
- regional recruiter
- computer operations manager
- information services support
- supervisor
- public relations rep
- paralegal
- operations manager
- branch manager
- restaurant manager
- computer programmer
- credit collector
- tax consultant
- business union rep
- flight attendant

These results reveal the importance of sales in career opportunities for Marketing graduates, particularly early in their careers. Male graduates are more likely than females to take sales positions, by 64% of males to 51% of females. In later age groups, females seem more likely than males to take sales positions, but this finding may be suspect due to the small number of respondents in each cell.

The wide variety of non-sales positions which graduates have taken illustrates the benefit of a broadly-based professional business education, and several respondents noted the particular value of the breadth of training they received from the CSUH business program.

Many respondents recorded steady progress in advancement through job titles after graduation. The most consistent pattern was an entry position as trainee or assistant for three to six months, an initial line position as sales rep for one to two years, and a promotion to assistant or area manager in the third year.

**Question #8: What were the strengths of the CSUH Marketing Department in preparing you for your job after graduation?**

Graduates recorded the following elements of the Marketing Program as most beneficial to their careers:

- well-rounded business program (12% of respondents)
- excellent teachers (12%)
- communication skills training (12%)
- practical/real-life preparation for work (10%)
- oral presentation skills training (5%)
- independent/group projects (6%)
- sales training (6%)
- career search preparation (4%)
- case study activities (3%)
- AMA activities (2%)
- creativity development (2%)
- problem-solving development (2%)
- management skills development (2%)

Responses to this question revealed an overwhelming degree of satisfaction with the quality of the under-
graduate education received by respondents. Only three responders of the 110 gave a negative response to this question.

The breadth and thoroughness of the business education curriculum was the first of the three major strengths as perceived by respondents. Graduates felt that the program gave a good overview of marketing as a profession and that the breadth of the curriculum provided them with many career insights and opportunities.

Training in communication skills, both written and oral, were perceived as the third of the three most important strengths of the program. Eighteen percent of respondents mentioned either one or both of these areas as strengths.

Finally, there was a strong perception of the practical, real-life, and hands-on as most beneficial in education. This preference surfaced in both perceptions of teachers and in attitudes towards classes and assignments in courses.

**Question #9: What were your favorite and least favorite classes in Marketing?**

There were no clear trends in the responses to this question. It appears that student preferences were based more on personal reactions than on job-related value of course contents. Additionally, several comments were made that it was the instructor, and not the content of a course, that made a class valuable.

**Question #10: How might the Marketing Department have prepared you better for your first job after graduation?**

In response to this open-ended question, graduates identified seven major themes for improvement within the CSUH Marketing program:

1) more focus on career preparation, including interviewing skills, career options, internships, and co-op education: 22 respondents (20%)

2) more emphasis on sales skills: 15 (13%)

3) more communication skills training, both written and oral: 9 (8%)

4) more marketing classes and fewer classes in economics and accounting for business majors: 9 (8%)

5) more real-world management skills training and less emphasis on theoretical information, including skills in negotiation, interpersonal communications, customer relations, and ethics: 8 (7%)

6) more hands-on computer instruction, including word-processing and spread-sheet: 4 (4%)

7) more information about realistic job expectations and preparation for a "fall back" position when job hunting: 4 (4%)

Graduates perceive practical skills training and a deeper coverage of marketing as desirable. Likewise, more realistic career preparation is perceived as valuable.

**Question #11: How important are the following skills to the position you now hold?**

On a scale of 1 (very important), 2 (some importance), 3(neutral), to 4 (unimportant), respondents ranked the following skills in the following order of importance:

- Oral communication skills: 1.11
- Written communication skills: 1.33
- Management skills: 1.50
- Selling skills: 1.70
- Knowledge of marketing concepts: 1.79
- Knowledge of promotional activities: 2.10
- Wordprocessing/data entry: 2.14
- Knowledge of economics: 2.33
- Marketing research skills: 2.47
- Accounting/bookkeeping: 2.51

There were no appreciable differences between male and female respondents. These findings are consistent with the elements desired for improvement of the CSUH program as expressed in responses to Question 10 above.

**Question #12: Have you considered getting an MBA?**

Graduates were overwhelming positive in response to this question. 82% of males and 72% of females answered that they had considered pursuing the MBA degree. This findings should hold significance for recruiting of MBA students. It appears that the best prospect pool consists of the graduates of CSUH.

Reasons for pursuing the MBA degree were reported to include the following:

- Career advancement
- Enjoy learning
- Self development
- Increase knowledge
- Opens more opportunities
- Professional growth
- Branch into related career
- Gain credibility
- Enjoy the college experience
- Advance in company

Reasons for not pursuing the MBA were reported to include the following:
too much competition at MBA level
do not need it for advancement in present company
too many MBA’s in market now
tight schedule
too old

Recommendations

Based on the above findings, the author makes the following recommendations and proposes that they be discussed for action by the Marketing Department.

1) Since almost one half of undergraduate students are graduating in the June quarter, the Marketing Department should continue to organize classes in a progression towards the traditional June graduation date.

2) Since most undergraduates are graduating under the age of 25, the program should reflect a career exploratory emphasis and expect less actual work experience or applications of class material to actual work settings from students.

3) Since the employment paths of male and female graduates are markedly different, women students should be encouraged to explore the issue of returning to current or prior employers as opposed to taking new positions with new companies upon graduation. This is a complex issue, since the reasons for this behavior have not yet been explored. Women students, however, may need more encouragement and advising to take this riskier and more competitive step. As faculty we may need to work more proactively to make equal opportunity a workable reality.

4) Because of the disparity between salaries for male and female graduates, faculty should advise women students of salary expectations and be more proactive in preparing women who wish to compete on a par with men in securing equal employment and compensation.

5) Because sales is the greatest area of employment for Marketing graduates, the Marketing Department should position and develop sales as the central employment opportunity for its students. More training in sales skills should be included in the Marketing program, and students should be advised to prepare for sales as a strong career possibility.

6) Because sales is not the only avenue of career employment, however, the Marketing Department should develop clear and specific employment alternatives besides sales for its graduates to assist students in clarifying career goals and seeing the applications of a Marketing option in the work place.

7) Because of its perceived areas of strength, the Marketing Department should maintain its concern for excellent teaching, a broad overview approach to marketing as a field, emphasis on practical skills, group and individual projects, and communication skills training.

8) Because graduates perceive a need for subject depth, the Marketing Department should strive to include more Marketing course work in the option in order to create depth knowledge for students in one area of concentration within the Marketing field. This expansion of Marketing course work may have to be at the expense of fewer courses in accounting and economics in the core requirements.

9) Because of the strong concern in graduates for career preparation, the Marketing Department should develop a more proactive program for educating its majors in career planning, interviewing skills, career options, internships, and co-operative education opportunities.

10) Because of the prominence of oral and written communication skills as necessities in the work place, the Marketing Department should expand its emphasis on training in these areas.

11) Because of the strong positive consideration of continuing for the MBA among CSUH graduates, the Marketing Department should more actively introduce students to the idea of graduate study and encourage students to pursue the MBA when appropriate.

Conclusion

This survey will be extremely useful to the CSUH Marketing Department in future program planning. Graduates indicate preferences for certain types of training and note their needs in the jobs they are taking after graduation. Additionally, useful information for career planning and expectations can be shared with currently enrolled undergraduates that may be helpful to them in their course selection and class planning.

Other institutions wishing to use a similar survey should conduct a careful needs analysis to determine exactly the type of information that will be most useful. Additional measures that ask for quantifiable satisfaction level might be useful. Likewise, specific courses could be measured to determine their appeal and effectiveness in career planning for marketing graduates. A more in-depth analysis of specific sales skills might be useful for developing course contents in the sales area.
TEACHING SALES: A WMEA 1990-91 CONFERENCE IDEA EXPANDED

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ABSTRACT

At the April 1991 Western Marketing Educator's Association (WMEA) conference held in San Diego, California, an innovative pedagogical method for teaching sales was presented in a special session by Gaulard, Majors and Soares (1991). Their idea was to have a class of university sales students fold paper into the form of a man's necktie, then put color and design on it using crayons, colored pencils or markers. These neckties were then used for a one-class period customer/salesperson role-play. Through this experience students applied the principles of effective retail selling.

Expected benefits of the expanded project included the students' awareness of how easy it is to fail if good managerial techniques are not practiced, 2) students' awareness of how ineffective managerial decisions affect personal lives of employees through failed businesses, 3) how the domino effect of increasing numbers of failed businesses could invite government intervention and possibly threaten our free enterprise system, and 4) the extent of product diversity possible when creativity is exercised using a given amount of raw material. Discussion of the project led students to make suggestions on how the government could control the domino effect of failed businesses. These suggestions included: 1) pre-testing before business permits are issued, 2) required business management courses, 3) increased fees, permits, etc. and 4) governmental monitoring of continuous profitability.

Samples of work are included as well as results of pre- and post-project testing.
A PEDAGOGY IN THE SALES MANAGEMENT COURSE
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In the Sales Management course as taught here, a sufficient and proper understanding of the job of managing a sales force requires, fundamentally, a good grasp of what sales work is actually like, and of what it means to actually be a salesperson. Instruction on this usually occurs early in the course, and it is usually an early part of most Sales Management textbooks.

In this part of the course, the stereotyping of salespeople and sales work is addressed and examined. The causes are identified as ignorance, projected fear, covert envy, personal negative experiences, hearsay, and media images.

Toward The Spectrum

It is in dealing with ignorance that the Spectrum of Sales Creativity is developed and presented. In serving to counteract the stereotype, the Spectrum also displays and demonstrates the immense variety in types of sales work, with implications for selecting, training, motivating and evaluating salespeople.

The Spectrum is set up and presented (in reduced form for this abstract) in four steps or stages. The first is shown thusly:

```
        100
       /  
      /    
```

SPECTRUM OF SALES CREATIVITY

The old acronym of "AIDA" is used to show that the "Creativity" refers to creating interest and desire on the part of the customer.

In step two, two sales occupations are entered, as shown below, a low-creativity position on the left, a high-creativity job on the right:

```
        100
       /  
      /    
```

SPECTRUM OF SALES CREATIVITY

In step three, more positions are appropriately placed:

```
0         Route Sales  Textbooks  Automobiles  Insurance
         /  
        /    
```

SPECTRUM OF SALES CREATIVITY

Step four displays a final variety of sales work:

```
0         Route Sales  Pharmaceuticals  Commercial Computers  Commercial Real Estate  Insurance
         /  
        /    
```

SPECTRUM OF SALES CREATIVITY

Inferences

Briefly, a least five general inferences can be made (The terms, when explained, are listed on the chalkboard, flip-chart, or projector's image sheet.):

1. "Creativity" increases in the work as one proceeds from left to right on the Spectrum;
2. "Intangibility" increases as well. It does not only refer to that which is being sold or the perceived "benefits" in the mind of the customer. Here, it refers to the extent to which the salesperson, to effect a sale, increasingly depends less on the product and more on his or her personal ability to inspire confidence.
3. Complexity, Rejectibility, and Incomes tend to increase as one proceeds to the right.

The Spectrum of Sales Creativity provides a visual image showing that sales work is highly varied. It is useful in helping to dismiss stereotypical generalizations about sales work, by showing how the work of the salesperson in each field is task-specific.
CHANNEL POWER: A STRAIGHTFORWARD MARKETING CHANNEL GAME

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ABSTRACT

Although a large number of marketing simulation games have been introduced, little empirical support for their effectiveness has been reported. A literature review concerning game effectiveness suggests that targeting behavioral learning and an emphasis on simplicity are required. A classroom marketing channel game is described which addresses these requirements and also provides a vehicle for continuing research in game effectiveness. Research implications of the game design are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Since 1957, games and simulations have been used as means for advancing learning where limited experience exists (Watson 1981). One area of study for which games can be seen as a useful enhancement is marketing channel management. Although many undergraduate students possess experiences in direct exchange interactions, few have seriously considered the implications of either channel structure or channel interactions on firm strategy. Typically, teachers and textbooks employ theory from conflict resolution, communication, and marketing functions to develop understanding in this field. A common response by undergradautes to these approaches is that they are too theoretical and therefore impractical. Some means for increasing the perceived relevance of these theories would be useful.

This paper details the development of a straightforward marketing channel game for use as a supplement to standard course components. We purposely employ the term straightforward rather than simple. Though the game may initially appear simple, it offers students opportunities to gain complex insights into the nature of channel interaction. Use of a straightforward game is supported by Raia (1966). He found that groups involved in game-playing performed better on an examination than those engaged in case study but that there was no significant difference between groups using complex or simple games.

The remainder of this paper is organized in three sections. First, the previous use and effectiveness of games and simulations in business education will be briefly reviewed. Included are considerations employed in the game design addressing shortcomings cited in game and simulation research. Next, the game design will be developed including the structure, roles, and process of game play. Finally, implications for future research regarding game effectiveness will be discussed.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Since business simulation games were introduced 35 years ago, they have gained "widespread use" (Watson 1981, Whiteley and Faria 1989). Although a significant body of research has developed, there remains insufficient evidence to suggest that games and simulations are more effective as teaching tools than other methods such as case study (Whiteley and Faria 1989, Greenlaw and Wyman 1973).

Whiteley and Faria (1989) recognize three areas of research in game and simulation use. These are: 1) examination of factors which influence the game environment and game performance, 2) study of the types of learning promoted by games, and 3) assessment of the pedagogical value of games relative to other teaching methods. These authors refer to four reviews of game and simulation research - Greenlaw and Wyman (1973), Keys (1976), Wolfe (1985), and Miles et al. (1986). Rather than replicate earlier reviews, attention is given here to the summary
finding that research is inconclusive concerning the teaching effectiveness of games.

Two weaknesses have been identified in attempting to evaluate research in game effectiveness. First, research efforts have varied significantly regarding factors influencing performance (Whiteley and Faria 1989). Second, the type of learning evaluated has varied between studies. Most studies emphasize the relationship between teaching technique and levels of theoretical learning. Recognition that learning varies by type is important because it suggests that researchers may not be measuring the type of learning provided in experiential exercises.

Of significance to the design of business games is the finding by Whiteley and Faria (1989) that game play did not affect performance on either theory or applied exam questions, but did significantly affect student ability "with respect to quantitative questions...". This is consistent with an hypothesis that game play is helpful in promoting behavioral learning. Students who had made calculations for game decisions were more adept at reproducing those behaviors. This suggests that game play is appropriate for instruction in such areas as group problem solving, negotiation, personal selling, and the present case of channel communication behavior.

A review of channel games (Gentry and Pickett 1982) reveals that primary differences between previous games and Channel Power are the level of complexity, and the time required. The computer game, Drock World, requires 6 hours for 6 play periods whereas in Channel Power, 25 play periods are simulated in 3 hours (1 hour for the 1st period and 5 minutes for the next 24 classes).

In response to the review, three considerations are employed in game design. First, the game is targeted toward development of communication behavior skill and interorganizational determination of channel strategy. These objectives are supplemented by the game's contribution to conceptual learning of such topics as channel functions, separation of channel flows, conflict resolution, and interdependence. Second, the game is straightforward yet challenging. Finally, the game is designed to require minimum time both inside and outside the classroom.

**GAME DESCRIPTION**

The object of the game for each participant is to contribute as much of their assigned function as possible in the timely satisfaction of orders. This is accomplished through participation in a simulated channel system consisting of manufacturers, upstream and downstream carriers, wholesalers, and brokers. Initially, the channel is unorganized. As students attempt to procure or supply material needed to complete orders, informal channel relationships are established. Those students that theorize or discover that formalization and maintenance of channel relationships results in improved performance tend to do well in the game. Reflection on outcomes associated with various strategies assists students in developing marketing channel concepts.

Students are assigned one of five roles listed above. Various class sizes can be accommodated by varying the number of products and potential channels. Each potential channel consists of manufacturers (one for each different product), two upstream carriers, one wholesaler, two downstream carriers, and one broker. A minimum of three different products and two potential channels are required. For this reason, the minimum number of participants is 18. With a two-channel game, however, affiliations may be too obvious unless demand for a given product is radically different between the brokers.

Optimum game size appears to be 30 to 40 players. This allows introduction of three or four potential channels and four different products. This arrangement provides sufficient ambiguity regarding channel organization strategy while not being so large as to be administratively unwieldy.

Play of the game involves communication and strategic moves by players performing limited channel functions. The instructor serves as customer by providing each broker with a list of orders. All orders may be provided at the beginning, or for a more complex game, the instructor may choose to release orders gradually. This more advanced game is useful for introducing demand estimation techniques and the concepts of speculation and postponement. Consistent with Raia's (1966) research regarding complexity, it is not recommended for
initial participation. In the following section, the functions and decisions of the various roles will be discussed. Following these outlines, a description of the administration of game moves is provided.

Manufacturers

Players assigned the role of manufacturer are responsible for producing, storing, and releasing one product to the distribution system. In the original game, the products were given the names widgets, gadgets, spongs, and boings and consisted of a 3x5 card with locations for recording the manufacturer, carriers, wholesaler, and broker. Manufacturers are assigned a production capacity of two units per week. Other than determining production levels, the only other strategic decision given to the manufacturer is determination of which upstream carriers are authorized to carry their products.

Carriers

Players assigned the role of carrier are responsible for moving material in the channel system. Upstream carriers may move only among manufacturers and wholesalers. Downstream carriers may move only among wholesalers and brokers. The instructor should explain that typically, brokers neither take possession of nor assume title to goods. Therefore, the downstream carriers are actually making a "drop-shipment" directly to customers. Two constraints affect the strategy of carriers. First, it takes a week to move from one location to another. Second, each carrier has a load capacity of 10 units unless a downstream order exceeds 10 units. In that case, the complete order may be carried.

Wholesalers

Players assigned the role of wholesaler are responsible for receiving, storing, and assorting materials provided by upstream carriers in concert with order requirements. The only strategic means for affecting channel performance by the wholesaler is by selecting those carriers, both upstream and downstream, with whom they are willing to do business. Wholesalers must receive any return material from brokers that they originally shipped. This material may be sent upstream or held for future orders.

Brokers

Brokers in the game simply receive completed orders. Only orders delivered on or prior to the due date are accepted. Late orders are canceled. The primary responsibility of the broker is to communicate orders to other channel members. Gaining commitment of channel participants is important to broker success. It is hoped that they experiment to find a number of ways for establishing commitment.

Scoring and Record Keeping

Each participant is evaluated based on orders delivered against other participants at the same channel level. Manufacturers are compared with manufacturers, upstream carriers with upstream carriers, and so on. In this way, channel members recognize interdependence in competing at their channel level. It has been suggested that contribution of games to overall course performance be modest to prevent conservative play (McKenney and Dill 1966).

The game is designed to require minimum time inputs on the part of both students and instructor. Plywood and nails or a series of baskets, can be used to locate and move material. Each completed order consists of a set of product cards which includes a record of who performed each function. Scoring is performed at the end of the game simply by keeping completed orders and tallying them. It is recommended that interim tallies be provided.

Conducting the Game

Students are assigned roles and given a copy of rules one week prior to the start of the game. It is recommended that the initial session consist of a one hour period in which students communicate freely and begin to construct advantageous channel arrangements. Brokers are given customer orders at the beginning of this period. They are advised that order information is their primary source of power and should be used wisely. The only restriction on communication is that collusion among members at the same channel level is prohibited.

At the end of one hour, initial week moves are conducted. The sequence of moves is important for
maintaining game constraints and minimizing time required for play. First, wholesalers organize materials received in the prior week. Second, downstream carriers make their moves. Third, upstream carriers make their moves. Finally, manufacturers place material manufactured for the week on the board. Any material delivered to the broker by downstream carriers can be reviewed against order requirements any time following this sequence.

Debriefing is a crucial element in the experiential learning process (Thatcher 1986). Channel Power is designed to enhance reflection. Since only five minutes are used each period for game play, discussion during the remainder of the class can be used to investigate game implications of theory topics.

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

Although a number of channel games have been developed, no research examining the effectiveness of this class of games was uncovered. Inconclusive findings regarding the educational value of games cannot be generalized to the channel setting. For this reason, a systematic research program for assessing the effectiveness of games for teaching channels is recommended. Channel Power is an appropriate beginning research tool because of its simplicity and the ability to relate it to various kinds of learning - theoretical, applied, and behavioral.

Research findings regarding game effectiveness can be interpreted in two ways. One explanation is that learning provided in experiential exercises has been improperly measured. An alternative explanation is that game complexity has inhibited learning. Channel Power is a vehicle for testing both hypotheses.

In the first case, learning in a class using Channel Power can be compared to that of a group using another method. In the second case, comparison of groups employing Channel Power and a more complex channel game should be made with respect to various types of learning. The second hypothesis can be tested in detail by systematically introducing complexity to the Channel Power game and measuring the impact on learning between groups. Systematic evaluation using a single game is complementary to the cross-sectional approach employed to date.

REFERENCES


VALIDITY OF STUDENT RATINGS OF MARKETING RESEARCH INSTRUCTORS

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ABSTRACT

Student evaluations of professors are very common at AACSB business schools and are used for several purposes. Perhaps the most common is for comparison of professors with their colleagues in the tenure/promotion process. This paper focuses on a source of bias in that evaluation; a bias based on students' background and type of course. The concern is that this bias may adversely affect instructors in marketing research courses. The potential bias cannot be measured directly in the marketing research class because all the students are marketing majors.

To measure this bias the authors added a question to the student evaluation form concerning the student's concentration within the business major. This altered form was administered in two required business major courses: operations management (a quantitatively oriented course) and social, political environment of business (a non-quantitatively oriented course).

Marketing and management students were grouped together in the analysis and are referred to as nonquantitative students. Accounting, finance, business analysis, and computing systems students were grouped separately and are referred to as quantitative students. The design of this study allows the comparison of the ratings by quantitative and nonquantitative students of instructors in quantitative and nonquantitative courses.

Twenty different instructors of the two courses and 300 students participated in this study. The data were analyzed so that the differences between individual instructors did not affect the results. The effect of instructor was controlled for by averaging over many instructors.

RESULTS

On 13 out of 14 items on the rating form, the nonquantitative students rated the instructor better in the nonquantitative course than did the quantitative students. T-tests on these differences show that five are significant at the 95 percent level.

On all 14 items on the rating form, the nonquantitative students rated the instructor worse in the quantitative course than did the quantitative students. T-tests on these differences show that six are significant at the 95 percent level.

The hypothesis that instructor ratings vary by the concentration of the student and the subject matter of the course is supported by these data.

IMPLICATIONS

The implication of these results for marketing research instructors is that their average ratings may be lower than those of other instructors simply because they are teaching a quantitatively oriented course to students who are likely to be nonquantitatively oriented.

The amount of the bias is estimated by comparing the average instructor ratings by the nonquantitative students in the quantitative and the nonquantitative courses. Ratings are 1 through 5 with 1 being the best. The average rating over the 14 questions in the quantitative course was found to be 1.86. This is 0.41 worse than the 1.45 average rating given to instructors in the nonquantitative course. This is a significant difference in the author's department where the overall mean rating in 1989-90 was 1.76. If a marketing research instructor were to receive a 2.10 average rating, it would be interpreted as a notably poorer than average rating. Yet with an adjustment of 0.41 the rating changes to a better than average rating of 1.69, a very desirable score.

If these findings are confirmed by further studies, perhaps the instructor ratings in marketing research courses should be compared only to those of other marketing research instructors. Or, alternatively, the ratings could be adjusted as shown above to make them comparable to instructors not teaching marketing research. These findings may also be applied in other fields such as psychology or sociology where possibly nonquantitatively oriented students are required to take a quantitatively oriented course such as statistics.
STUDENT EVALUATIONS: HOW VALID AND HOW RELIABLE?

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ABSTRACT

A pilot study of the effects of anonymity on student evaluations combined with a review of literature of student evaluations reveals major concerns regarding their validity and reliability. The authors suggest that if teaching effectiveness is to be measured, measurement must be obtained from relevant populations that are in a position to measure what has been learned and its relationship to the work world.

INTRODUCTION

Student evaluations have become widely used during the past two decades since students first exerted pressure on administrators to have greater input into university decisions. Now, student ratings are usually either required or highly encouraged by most institutions as a major criteria for faculty evaluation for salary, tenure, and promotion.

While many writers have studied student evaluations, evidence of their validity and reliability remain inconclusive. Investigators have studied such areas as instrument and sampling design, student characteristics and background, students' attitudes toward evaluation, instructor behavioral traits, and student grade point average. At best, the research has shown inconsistent results. Several studies report a negative or low correlation between student learning and the students' evaluation of the instructor. Rodin and Rodin [1972] found a negative correlation of .75 between these factors and Shamanske [1988] reported a low correlation in a longitudinal study of the same students enrolled in a subsequent class with the same instructor. Yet, the validity of student evaluations is claimed by Sullivan and Skaes [1974], Baird [1987], Marlin and Niss [1980], and Marsh [1977]. These studies report positive correlations between student learning and the student evaluations.

Other studies suggest that student evaluations do not measure what is sought to be measured, i.e., teaching effectiveness for student learning. Findings from these studies suggest that the evaluation process is influenced by outside variables [Dowell and Neal 1982] and that the evaluation instruments are ambiguous [Wheeler and Geurts 1988]. Therefore, an evaluation process does not reliably distinguish one departmental faculty from another. Sherman and Blackburn [1975] suggest the problem is enhanced by a lack of agreement on the criteria used for measuring teacher effectiveness.

A number of studies have revealed that students enter a class with opinions already formed or that they develop opinions of a class and the instructor very early in the term and that the subsequent learning has little influence upon that opinion [Sauber and Ludlow 1988] [Ortinau and Bush 1987] [Dowell and Neal 1982]. Orsini [1988] determined the presence of a halo effect suggesting that the questions on an evaluation form may not be taken at face value. He also states that faculty may be at a loss to improve a lowly rated teaching characteristic such as "fairness" or "ability to communicate clearly" as the students' perception is heavily influenced by other unmeasured factors.

One recent study involved the ranking of attributes students cited as most important for learning. Students ranked at the top such factors as "ability to motivate me," "an awareness of what students want to learn," "shows personal interest in me," "is a fun person," and "available outside of class." Ironically, a professor's "in-depth knowledge" ranked 10th and "evidence of scholarly accomplishment" ranked 15th, while "competitive grades" was at the very bottom [Eckrich 1990]. In another study of student evaluations, top concerns all centered upon exams, i.e., "tests related to course material," "fair test," and "indicates importance for exams," which suggest more concern about grading than about learning [Eagle & Catalanello 1987].

Studies showing a high positive correlation between "personality" and "teaching effectiveness" suggest that a professor wishing to improve his/her perceived effectiveness may do well to concentrate on personal attributes rather than on the course itself as students rate "warm" personalities as more effective instructors than "cold" personalities [Widmeyer and Loy 1988].
Another study revealed that the rigor of a course had a large and negative impact on students’ perception of fairness [Clayson & Haley 1990]. In turn, students did not relate this fairness to the instructor’s knowledge nor interest but rather to the instructor’s personality. Thus, according to the study personality was an overwhelming determinate of a student’s total evaluation. The presence of personal factors is further extended to gender as Baslow and Silbergl [1987] found that students rate women differently than men.

The amount of literature on this subject is almost endless and the majority of it suggests low validity and reliability. It does, however, portray the presence of “many unknown factors.” And for some time, researchers have believed these to be highly related to the personality of the instructor.

PILOT STUDY

While the numerous studies regarding student evaluations have investigated many factors, anonymity has not been addressed. To administer without accountability a process that has grown to have such impact on one’s career seems to be a pursuit more for ease and convenience than for valid and reliable measurement of teaching effectiveness. Limiting judgement of teaching effectiveness to students whose immediate interests are self-oriented and void of accountability does not provide an accurate nor credible evaluation of the teaching process [Eckrich 1990]. This is an important factor since policies concerning whether unsigned evaluations will count in assessing an instructor’s teaching effectiveness differ from college to college. At some universities, all evaluations are used; at others, only signed evaluations are considered; and at some, signed evaluations are given more weight than unsigned evaluations.

Thus, a pilot project was undertaken during Spring Semester 1991 by one of the authors to examine how manipulating this factor in the process of administering student evaluations would affect the evaluation results. Each of three classes taught by the instructor (two sections of professional selling and one of sales management) was administered class evaluations twice during one class period. The first time the regular university procedure was followed. The second time the students completed the evaluation form, they were instructed to sign their name. They were assured that the results of the evaluations would not be seen by the instructor until after grades were submitted to the registrar’s office. This was to minimize any positive effects on the signed evaluations due simply to students’ fears that grades would be affected by the responses to the evaluations.

There are several hypotheses regarding the differences between the signed evaluations and the unsigned evaluations. Systematic differences may occur in the results so that the signed evaluations show either overall higher or lower scores than the unsigned evaluations. According to the study done by Eckrich [1990], 17% of students reported consciously using evaluations as a means of revenge on a professor. If students are held accountable to their evaluations, this tendency to seek revenge through evaluations is likely to be less, and thus, signed evaluations would, on average, be higher than the unsigned evaluations. This would be especially true for those evaluation items that pertain mainly to the professor, not specifically to the course.

In addition, students may consider their responses more carefully when they are held accountable to their evaluations, thus considering a larger set of evidence from the course in making their evaluations. This hypothesis suggests that experiences in the class that are more likely to affect an unsigned evaluation are those that are salient to the student. At the end of a semester, many specific class experiences will be forgotten. On the other hand, grades are soon to come. Salient experiences at the end are then likely to be those associated with grades in the class. If a professor is a “tough” grader, these salient experiences are more likely to be negative. On the other hand, if the professor is an “easy” grader, these salient experiences are more likely to be positive. A positive effect from signing the evaluations would be more likely in this study since the professor has a reputation for “toughness” and typically has the lowest grade average for his classes in the department. In addition, signing the evaluation may negate some of the tendency found by Dowell and Neal [1982] whereby students only consider early opinions toward the instructor in evaluating that instructor. Signing the evaluation may motivate students into considering their overall learning experience in the class causing the signed evaluations to differ from the unsigned evaluations.

Second, random errors may occur if students are not involved while filling out the evaluations.
Eckrich [1990] found that 62% of students believe that evaluations are not used by the professor or the department in evaluating the professor. Therefore, there is little effort expended on them. Although students were given the evaluations during the same class period, little effort was expended on them and if there are enough items on the evaluation so that the prior evaluation of each item will be difficult to remember, then some random differences between the two evaluations may occur.

Mean scores for the experimental and control groups (based upon a 16-item evaluation) of each class are presented in Table 1. The highest possible score for a single item is a 5 which indicates a strong agreement with a positive statement. In all but 4 cases (8%), the mean score for the signed evaluations is higher than that for the unsigned evaluations. T-tests to test for significant differences between the control and experimental groups is not possible since the samples are not independent and a match between each individual’s signed and unsigned evaluations is impossible. Regression analysis is used, instead, to test for systematic and random differences between the signed and unsigned evaluations.

| TABLE 1 |
| Mean Scores From Student Evaluations |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Unsigned</th>
<th>Signed</th>
<th>Unsigned</th>
<th>Signed</th>
<th>Unsigned</th>
<th>Signed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>4.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>4.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.25</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.78</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>2.96</td>
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<td>3.32</td>
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<td>12</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The model used is

\[ \text{DIFF} = a + b^\text{INSTRUCT} + c^\text{LOW} \]  \hspace{1cm} (1)

DIFF is the difference between the mean score for an item from the unsigned evaluations and the corresponding mean score from the signed evaluations. Thus, DIFF is negative for 92% of the observations. INSTRUCT equals 1 if the evaluation item pertains to the instructor, and it equals zero if the item pertains to the course. LOW equals 1 for those evaluation items where the mean score for the control group was less than 3.5, and it equals zero if the mean value for the control group was greater than 3.5. LOW was included since a greater jump in the scores might be observed for those items receiving the lowest scores; these scores have more room to increase than do the scores that are above 3.5.

A regression was first run for each of the three classes separately. Results appear in columns (1), (2), and (3) of Table 2. The signs are consistent across all regressions except for the positive constant term for section two of the professional selling class. However, this coefficient is not significantly different from zero at any reasonable level of confidence. For two of the classes, there is an overall significant increase in evaluation scores when students were asked to sign their evaluations. This is indicated by the negative constant terms that are significantly different from zero at the .06 level or better. Likewise, for these two classes when the evaluation scores are less than 3.5, the increase in evaluation scores that comes from signing the evaluations is greater. Finally, only in the second section of the professional selling class does there appear to be an effect due to whether the question pertains to the course or to the instructor. When the evaluation item pertains to the instructor, signing the evaluation results in a greater increase in the mean score than if the item concerns the course.

| TABLE 2 |
| Regression Results* |

| CONSTANT | .039 | -.062 | .061 |
|          | (.10) | (.07) | (.06) |

| LOW | .041 | .102 | .122 |
|     | (.41) | (.77) | (.87) |

| INSTRUCT | .062 | .050 | .097 |
|          | (.36) | (.04) | (.32) |

| SALES1 | .206 |
|        | (.14) |

| SALES2 | .061 |
|        | (1.00) |

\[ R^2 = .35 \hspace{1cm} .31 \hspace{1cm} .20 \hspace{1cm} .47 \]
\[ n = 16 \hspace{1cm} 16 \hspace{1cm} 16 \hspace{1cm} 48 \]

\*: T-statistics are in parentheses
\!*: Indicates significance at the .06 level
\!*! Indicates significance at the .10 level

To increase the degrees of freedom, the data from the three classes were pooled, and two dummy variables were included to check for differences between classes as suggested from
the initial regression results. SALES1 equals 1 if the observation is from the first section of the professional selling course; otherwise, it is zero. SALESM is a 1 if the observation is from the sales management course; otherwise, it equals zero. Results are in column (4) of Table 2. Again, the constant term is negative, indicating an overall increase in mean evaluation scores when the evaluations are signed. However, it is only significant at about the .15 level. Second, the coefficient on LOW is negative and significantly different from zero, indicating that signing the evaluations brought a greater increase in mean scores for those items with lower unsigned scores. The coefficient on INSTRUCT is also negative and significantly different from zero, indicating a greater increase in mean score for items pertaining to the instructor. Finally, the difference in signed and unsigned evaluation scores was greater for section one of the professional selling course.

The R² of the pooled regression is .47, indicating that only 47% of the difference in the sets of evaluation scores is explained by the model. This may indicate that some variables have been left out of the model. On the other hand, this low R² might simply indicate a large degree of random variance in the difference between the scores. If this is the case, the reliability of the evaluation is called into question.

This pilot study, though certainly not without its faults, points to problems of both validity and reliability in the evaluations administered to students. Although the motivations behind the difference in the signed scores and unsigned scores cannot be explained here, the regressions do show systematic differences in scores. In addition, the increase in scores from signing the evaluations is related to the type of evaluation asked for (course or instructor) and the level of the initial unsigned score. The low R² also suggests random variations in the differences between scores that cannot be explained by the regression model.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This pilot study combined with the extensive literature on previous studies reveals major concerns regarding the use of student evaluations. First, the results suggest that the validity and reliability of student evaluations are questionable in terms of measuring teacher effectiveness. What does appear to be measured more accurately is the personality of an instructor. This would suggest that students are more focused upon "short-term wants" than upon "long-term needs," i.e., they evaluate their current "experience" in a particular course rather than what they "need to learn" for future job success. This is not abnormal, particularly for the majority of traditional students (which most of us encounter) as they have a very limited understanding of requirements for successful job performance. It remains the responsibility of professors to address "needs" rather than "wants."

The authors suggest, therefore, that the problem is not in the area of the evaluation instrument nor with the instructors being evaluated. The current practice of having students evaluate does measure a professor's skill in delivering the "learning process" as an interesting and enjoyable experience. That may be acceptable to those that subscribe to the philosophy that education is a process of marketing.

On the other hand, if there is interest in measuring "teaching effectiveness," academicians must focus upon what has been learned and its relationship to the work world. To do so, measurement must be obtained from relevant populations that are in a position to measure teaching effectiveness with validity and reliability. The authors suggest that such populations include former students now in the workplace and the employers of those students. Surveying students that have been working for a year or more can be meaningful as they possess sufficient experience to which they can relate previous learning. Similarly, immediate supervisors of those former students can evaluate specific job performance and any accompanying strengths and/or weaknesses that have been observed.

While these additional sources of evaluation are more cumbersome to obtain, they are a necessity if teaching effectiveness is to be measured with a degree of accuracy. The present practice of using "in-house" students appears to meet only the criteria of "ease and convenience"—criteria that is inadequate when it may significantly impact a professor's career.

REFERENCES

Due to space limitations for printing and the authors' desire to retain the entire body of this article, the 29 references have not been included in this printing but are available upon request.
THE USE OF EXAMS IN MARKETING EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports the results of a study on the attitudes of marketing professors toward the use of exams in the classroom. The study found that the average number of exams given in undergraduate marketing classes is 2.4, while the average percent of the grade based on exams is 51%. Respondents varied in their attitudes toward use of exams, although respondents generally disagreed with the statement, "Exams should be the primary determinant of student assessment." Marketing professors seem to support the use of exams, yet not as a sole determinant of grades.

INTRODUCTION

Assessment of student knowledge and skills represents a major focus of institutions of higher learning today. Many marketing departments of colleges and universities are now required to develop formal assessment programs for all marketing majors. Once a set of educational goals is established (see Table 1), an assessment methodology must be developed. Frequently, some type of comprehensive exam will test both the student's knowledge level in marketing and their ability to use this knowledge in decision-making. Although other methods of assessment are useful, exams are the most used.

While overall assessment of student performance is important, a marketing professor's main concern is the assessment of student learning in individual courses. Historically, the accepted standard measure of assessment in the marketing classroom is the examination. Although marketing education literature points to greater emphasis on experiential learning [Caidis and Andrews 1990; Henke, et al 1988], the traditional exam remains the mainstay assessment of student learning.

In their article surveying 144 master teachers in marketing, Conant, Smart, and Kelley [1988] suggested many attributes that set apart these elite marketing educators. Of their many attributes, master teachers have a sincere appreciation for the important role tests and test feedback play in enhancing student learning. These professors work hard to issue challenging and fair exams. Clearly, master teachers acknowledge the important role of exams in student assessment.

From the students perspective, exams are perceived as a major source of stress in their lives. In one study, mid-term exams and final exams were ranked number one and two, respectively, as the main sources of student stress [Bell 1991]. Other sources of stress for students were time pressure, school costs, and in-class factors such as being called on. "Test anxiety " is a serious problem for many college students today. From weekly spelling and math tests to the SAT and ACT college entrance exams, students feel pressure to perform.

Not only do exams create student stress, they are often a major source of frustration for professors. Writing and grading exams consumes valuable time. Also, student complaints and exam discussions can cause conflict. Exams may be seen by professors and students as a "necessary evil."

- 23 -
TABLE 1

Sample Educational Goals for Marketing Students (Consistent with criteria published by AACSB)

Marketing students will be expected to:
1. Understand and use marketing terminology, principles, and concepts.
2. Understand the role of marketing in corporate policy and strategy development.
3. Understand and use market opportunity analysis, consumer behavior analysis, market targeting and product positioning analysis.
4. Understand decision-making, strategy development, and strategic integration of the four elements (product, price, place, and promotion) of the marketing mix.
5. Understand and apply the principles and concepts of marketing to consumer, business-to-business, services, and international marketing.
6. Understand strategic market planning, implementation, and control.
7. Demonstrate the ability to conduct professional communications and presentations.
8. Demonstrate the ability to develop professional written communications.
9. Demonstrate the ability to critically think and analyze.
10. Demonstrate the ability to exercise strategic decision-making.
11. Demonstrate the ability to use computers in data analysis and decision-making.

Since the major goal of marketing education is learning, the question is proposed: In the evaluation of marketing student performance, are exams really necessary? This research examines the use of exams in marketing education.

The Use of Exams in Marketing Education

Although most marketing educators would agree that exams represent a major part of measurement and student evaluation [Razzouk and Masters 1989], little research exists on the value of exams in the student learning process. Weaver [1985] presented a classification scheme for exams which marketing educators may use. Exams may be classified as essay versus objective, oral versus written, norm-referenced versus criterion-referenced, achievement versus performance, or formative evaluation versus summative evaluation. (See Table 2 for a summary of the various types of exams.) The conclusion from Weaver's study is that no one type of exam is superior.

Increasing test frequency may produce significant improvement in student performance [Miller 1987]. The student learning process can also be improved by changing the process of giving final exams [Razzouk and Masters 1989]. In order for the student learning process to work effectively, students need "feedback" following an exam. Typically, the student never communicates with the professor once the final exam is given on the last day of class or during a final exam week. The authors suggest a "next-to-final final" to resolve this lack of feedback problem. In order to assist student learning from exams, Ratz and Perrachione [1986] suggested a formal appeals procedure for students to use following a multiple-choice exam. Both students and professors benefitted from this recommended policy. Another study also analyzing the importance of a productive learning experience for students considered testing following guest speaker presentations [Hite, et al 1985]. They found that when students expected to be tested on a guest speaker's presentation, they paid closer attention, took more notes, performed better on a written exam (learned more), and evaluated the speaker more favorably.

Objectives

The primary purpose of this study was to assess marketing professor's perceptions of the role of exams in marketing education, in particular, several research objectives were set. They were to determine: 1) the number of exams given and percent of the grade based on exams for
those courses taught most frequently; 2) other activities required in the courses taught most frequently and percent of grade for those activities; 3) the use and degree of successfulness in offering a course where no exams were given; 4) circumstances that would allow them to teach a course without exams; 5) attitudes toward exams; and 6) basic categorization variables.

Methodology

A questionnaire was designed to measure the extent of marketing professors' use of exams and grading criteria. Also, attitudes toward various aspects of exams were solicited. Responses to the attitudinal questions were measured with a five-point Likert-type scale. Basic categorization questions were also included, such as academic rank, years of teaching marketing and the number of sections taught per year.

The respondents for this exploratory pilot study consisted of a convenience sample of marketing professors from six colleges or universities located in the western United States. A total of 55 questionnaires along with a cover letter explaining the survey was mailed to all marketing professors at the six schools. Responses were received from 41 professors. However, six responding professors taught only graduate classes and were not included in the following analysis.

Results

Table 3 shows the marketing classes, the average number of examinations, and the average percent of student grades which was based on exams for undergraduate courses taught during the past year by the respondents. The numbers in parentheses next to the class give the number of respondents who reported having taught the class. Eleven of the 35 respondents (31%) reported teaching only one undergraduate class.

Of the total of 64 classes taught, the grades were based entirely on exams in only three classes (Principles, Advertising, and Marketing Research). On the other hand, three classes placed no reliance on exams (Advertising (2) and Strategy/Policy (1)).

TABLE 2

Test Classification

ITEM FORMAT:

Essay
Open-ended questions
Objective
Multiple Choice
True-False
Matching
Fill-in-the-Blank

HOW THE TEST IS PRESENTED:

Oral
Professor asks individual student questions in face-to-face approach.
Written
Exams are made up of objective and/or essay questions.

PURPOSE OF THE TEST AND USE OF THE RESULTS:

Criterion-referenced
Individual student performance is compared to a specified criterion or proficiency level.
Norm-referenced
Test score of individual student is compared to score of other students (curve used to grade).
Achievement Test
Procedure for determining the amount a student has learned.
Performance Test
Student is graded based on a performance, such as a sales presentation or a case analysis.

Formative Evaluation
Tests show mastery of a given learning task (i.e. short, weekly quizzes).
Summative Evaluation
Overall, cumulative assessment (i.e. comprehensive final exam).

The average number of examinations across all undergraduate classes was 2.4. The average percent of the grade based on exams across all classes was 51%, while 49% of the grade was based on other activities. Thus, substantial
emphasis was placed on other required activities to determine the course grade for students.

TABLE 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marketing Classes</th>
<th>Average Number of Exams</th>
<th>Percent Grade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principles (16)</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer/Buyer</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior (7)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising/</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion (9)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Research (9)</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International (5)</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy/Policy (6)</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Others (12)</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As expected, there were many different responses to an open ended question which asked the respondents to list those required activities, and the percent of the grade assigned to each activity, for each course taught. Table 4 shows the other activities used in the grading process, the number of times each activity was mentioned, and the "typical" ranges of grade percents assigned to the activities. The word typical is used because there were five classes in which case analysis or projects/papers were heavily weighted. These cases were not included when determining the ranges. Also, it should be pointed out that there is some double counting of the activities shown in Table 4. For example, there were a few responses such as "Term paper and oral presentation" or "Class participation in the discussion of cases." This type of response was counted as "mentions" in both categories. This, of course, had no effect on the calculation of the average percent of a student's grade based on the total of these activities.

An interesting finding from the analysis of exams and other grading activities is that, on average, students receive more than four grading exercises in the determination of their grades (Exams: 2.4; Other: approximately 2.2). Even with some double counting, the "other" figure is a very conservative estimate because most respondents grouped more than one exercise under one activity. For example, it was not unusual to have responses such as "Cases (3)" or "Computer assignments (5)." Presumably, each case or assignment is a separate grading exercise, but they were counted as one exercise in calculating the average number of other grading activities.

TABLE 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>% of Grade:</th>
<th>Number of Mentions</th>
<th>Typical Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Projects/Papers</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>20-50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Participation</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>10-20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cases</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15-35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homework Exercises</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10-30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Presentations</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10-20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Others</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5-20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interestingly, 10 of the 16 respondents who teach Principles use cases. Yet, with the exception of Strategy/Policy courses, mention of their use in other courses was practically non-existent. Why cases are used primarily at the beginning and the end of the marketing program is not explained by this study. Finally, it is noted that there were only seven specific mentions of group activities. However, this is probably greatly under-reported in the case and project categories.

In a response to the question as to whether they had ever taught a class where examinations were not used in the grading process, 40% of the respondents answered "yes." On a scale of one to five, where 1 = Unsuccessful and 5 = Successful, the courses taught without exams received a mean rating of 4.1. The courses mentioned most often were the Strategy/Policy course (5) and Advertising (5) from a total of 20 courses named by the respondents. Surprisingly, only three graduate courses were mentioned.
Interestingly, with a mean success rating of 4.1, only four of the 14 respondents who had offered courses with no exams listed more than one course. Apparently, offering courses without exams is infrequent even among those instructors who have found the practice to be successful.

Those respondents who answered "no" to the question were asked if they would consider offering a marketing course with no exams and under what circumstances they would do so. Seven of the 21 respondents indicated that they would not offer such a course under any circumstances. The remainder said that they would consider it, but under circumstances such as:
1. A Ph.D. seminar.
2. Very small class size with well-defined activity.
3. When you can find another way to get students to read the text.
4. When other forms of objective evaluation of student knowledge of the material becomes available.
5. If the course was designed around applications rather than content.
6. A pure case course.

Table 5 shows the mean, median, and modal responses to a limited number of perceptual statements regarding explanations. Responses to the statements were given on a Likert type scale where 1 = Agree and 5 = Disagree. As can be seen, the only statement with which there was overall disagreement was "Exams should be the primary determinant of student assessment" (H). This appears to be somewhat inconsistent with the findings shown in Table 3 and the fact that the average percent of the grades based on examinations was 51%. Further, when it is noted that there is agreement, though not strong, with statements D and F regarding the effect of exams on student learning and effort, one must wonder if there are motives for using exams besides student assessment. This may also be indicated by the neutrality toward statement G which addresses the objectivity of exams.

Table 6 shows the basic classification variables used in this pilot study. No particular differences were found in the courses taught, the grading percentages for examinations or other grading activities, or the attitudes toward exams according to any of the classification variables. This is probably due to the small sample size.

TABLE 5

Statement
A. In some marketing courses less reliance on exams is appropriate.
   Mean: 1.46; Median: 1; Mode: 1
B. Grading exams is time consuming.
   Mean: 1.51; Median: 1; Mode: 1
C. Making up exams is time consuming.
   Mean: 1.83; Median: 2; Mode: 1
D. Without exams, my students wouldn't work as hard.
   Mean: 2.36; Median: 2; Mode: 2
E. Most professors give exams because it is a "tradition" in teaching.
   Mean: 2.53; Median: 3; Mode: 3
F. Without exams, my students wouldn't learn as much.
   Mean: 2.73; Median: 2; Mode: 2
G. The most objective way to grade is by the use of exams.
   Mean: 2.89; Median: 3; Mode: 2
H. Exams should be the primary determinant of student assessment.
   Mean: 3.46; Median: 4; Mode: 4

Conclusion

Professors in this study used examinations in nearly all of the undergraduate marketing classes taught. However, exams are not the only method of assessment in marketing courses. On the average, 51% of the grades in an undergraduate course is based on exams. Professors used a variety of other activities in addition to exams to assess student learning.

Of those professors who had offered courses where exams were not used in the grading process (40% of the respondents), most perceived those courses to be quite successful (mean rating of 4.1 on a 5 point scale). The use of this
grading procedure was most often mentioned for either Advertising or Strategy/Policy courses. Given the level of success described, one wonders why this method of assessment is not used more frequently.

**TABLE 6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Four Year Undergraduate</td>
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<tr>
<td>Graduate &amp; Undergraduate</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
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<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>28.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>40.0</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Teaching</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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<tr>
<td>Less than one</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>17.1</td>
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<td>4-6</td>
<td>14.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>7-9</td>
<td>11.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 or more</td>
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<table>
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<th>Number of Sections Taught</th>
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<td>0-2</td>
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<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>42.9</td>
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<td>25.7</td>
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<td>7-8</td>
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<td>9 or more</td>
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<table>
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<th>Course Level Taught</th>
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<tr>
<td>Graduate &amp; Undergraduate</td>
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<table>
<thead>
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<th>Semester or Quarter System</th>
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<tr>
<td>Quarter</td>
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</table>

The majority of professors stated that they would consider offering a course without exams, but only under certain circumstances. Most did not agree that exams should be the primary determinant of student assessment. This is interesting in light of the finding that more than 50% of grades were based on exams.

Whether marketing professors continue to stress exams in measuring student performance or rely more on other activities for assessment, care must be taken to most accurately assess student learning. Further research is needed regarding the overall usefulness of exams in marketing education.

**REFERENCES**


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SCHOLARSHIP: WHAT REALLY OUGHT TO COUNT?
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ABSTRACT
Marketing education, among all university endeavors, faces serious challenges from within and outside academe regarding its vision of the scholarly activities of professors. Adoption of a broader and more effective conceptualization of scholarship including discovery, integration, application and teaching is proposed. The need to value a variety of scholarly contributions is discussed.

INTRODUCTION
Defining the central task of university education and, more specifically, of university professors has been the subject of a wide and long-standing debate. The catch-all categories of professorial life, namely teaching, research and service, do not share universal appeal in describing what we do, nor what we ought to be doing. There is considerable rancor among us about what counts as scholarship (research) and about the relative emphasis put on any one of the three aspects, seemingly at the expense of the other two. We are torn in very personal ways in this stressful role conflict issue.

Increasingly in recent times, some of us are being asked to do a better job of teaching and service with no offsetting reduction in research expectations. While simultaneously, those of us on more traditionally teaching-oriented campuses have been asked to do more research with no mitigation of teaching and service loads. In either case, we seem to be caught in the classic organizational problem of requiring A, while rewarding B.

The crux of the matter is what we and our interested-publics value. The question of what we ought to value and our need for mutual respect for diversity in scholarship is forcefully taken up in Boyer's Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate. This paper is a response to Boyer's call for a renewed vision. While the issues addressed here are not new to marketing educators, they are profoundly important and merit a revitalized enthusiasm for constructive interaction.

Differences of opinion exist among marketing educators, yet there seems to be a natural proclivity among us to be responsive to our publics, especially our students. On this basis we may be interested in adopting Boyer’s larger vision of the role of teaching, research and service in the academy. Hence, the purpose of this paper is to encourage us marketing educators to rethink the question: “What really ought to count?” It is indeed a call to arms.

PERSPECTIVES ON SCHOLARSHIP
There is a long-standing belief among marketing educators that active scholarship is necessary for being an effective educator, more specifically that research informs teaching. That important point is not in question here. The issue at hand is what to do about the apparent shift in the balance of emphasis toward a narrow conceptualization of scholarship, namely research, at the expense of teaching and service. Over time it appears that research, teaching and service have become increasingly disconnected from each other, resulting in conflicting professional pursuits and politically divided “camps” within the academy.

The Role of the Professoriate
Faculty have appropriately been viewed as the core of the academy. Current moves to improve educational quality, to globalize and to develop sensitivity to cultural diversity have largely focused on faculty development as examples of the centrality of faculty to the success of these endeavors.

The problem, as we are all probably too keenly aware, is that our role definition has shifted over time. Historically, faculty were considered effective when they were teaching and mentoring students well. In modern times, however, this relational model of faculty life has given way to an individualized, scholastic model. This shift in professorial role can also be seen in the shift from undergraduate education to specialized graduate education. Some have even been led to a view of the professorial role which excludes students altogether. This seems to be an unacceptable conceptualization for more than a handful of us. To "profess" suggests that there is
someone who will hear and is called to respond to the message.

The paradox in perspective on higher education and the professoriate is that we in academe have valued the discovery of new knowledge and the freedom to pursue personally interesting questions, while society has expected higher education to equip its members for productive lives. No doubt basic research is important, but educating a "mass" audience has been the social mandate.

The Role of Scholarship

Scholarship has similarly undergone a transformation. Historically, it was devoted to discovering and integrating new knowledge, making it useful for a broad spectrum of people in responding to social problems. Our definition of scholarship has narrowed to be refereed publications where the peer in peer review usually means other narrowly specialized academics. Being learned has become synonymous with being narrowly specialized as opposed to being capable of bringing a breadth of insights to bear on important problems and meaningfully communicating those insights with others. How many of us have heard the complaint that academic journals are filled with academic minutia that has meaning for only a handful of other academics?

We in business schools have generally followed this same path, while other professional schools, medicine for example, have kept a larger view of acceptable forms of scholarship valuing practical application and service as well as the creation of new knowledge. We have let ourselves become inwardly oriented and have reinforced this orientation in our reward systems.

Driving Forces for Change

There are many forces for change at work today. Boyer recounts strong evidence of rising job dissatisfaction among faculty noting strongly negative evaluations of the academic publishing requirements even at large, research universities. Countless articles and editorials in both the general and business press clearly show the swelling tide of dissatisfaction with higher education among business executives, politicians and students.

The new AACSB accreditation standards [Evans 1991] can also be counted as a force for change in that schools of business are being asked to value teaching more heavily and to ensure that teaching, research and service are interconnected and contributing to the accomplishment of the school's mission. As part of this shift in standards, we are being encouraged to move away from a solely functional or disciplinary worldview in curriculum structures. As a result, matrix organizations wherein the business disciplines are jointly brought to bear on contemporary business issues such as cultural diversity, globalization and technology are being adopted by many leading schools.

An Enlarged Perspective

Boyer proposes a reconstruction of our concept of scholarship in which four types of scholarly activity are identified and valued. The four types of scholarship are: discovery, integration, application and teaching.

The research activities of modern academics aimed at publication of new knowledge corresponds with the scholarship of discovery. Marketing educators' pushing the frontiers of knowledge about consumer behavior is an example of this type of scholarship. In the enlarged view of scholarship, such research is preserved as a highly important facet of university life. It is not singled out as the only source of valuable contributions, however.

Integration oriented scholarship seeks to attach meaning to research findings and place those results within a broader context. Drawing connections across streams of thought is the backbone of such scholarship. It is by nature inter-disciplinary. This form of scholarship is particularly appropriate for marketing educators. Indeed, much of our discipline's heritage is based on translating and integrating knowledge from other fields to construct insights into the problem of bringing suppliers and demanders together efficiently and effectively.

Bringing theory into practice and practice into theory constitutes the scholarship of application. The service of making knowledge useful for resolving the problems of life for individuals and organizations is the heart of application. Seen in this way, service is NOT synonymous with university committee obligations or civic activities. Marketing educators have many opportunities to address important problems and make a difference in the lives of people through this form of scholarship. Even consulting can be considered scholarship, following a medical school model of practicing the craft.
Teaching as scholarship is the active engagement of knowledge so that both student and teacher are transformed in some meaningful way for their development as persons. It is not just holding classes, but consciously developing ways to effectively communicate knowledge so that students, in particular, are challenged to be learned persons who can make a contribution to organizations and society. Writing texts, developing software, creating study guides and preparing effective lecture presentations are included in the scholarship of teaching. Peer review and sharing of these materials can validate their contribution.

Boyer calls for mutual respect for the contributions of each form of scholarship. Further, he argues that the decision to engage in any of these forms needs to be considered in light of an university’s mission. Certainly, none of us can do all these things equally well, nor are all institutions equally suited to all of them. Table 1 summarizes Boyer’s view of the mission match of these four types of scholarship with various types of higher education institutions.

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
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<td>Comprehensive University</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research University</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional School</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D = Discovery  
I = Integration  
A = Application  
T = Teaching

Teaching is proposed as being relevant to all institutions, while discovery is more appropriately (but not solely) the domain of the larger, research universities. Marketing educators in professional schools of business are encouraged to emphasize integration, application and teaching.

### Implications

We will have to overcome the considerable power of inertia to accomplish any meaningful reconstruction of our role as marketing educators. There are many barriers to change, not the least of which is the way we recognize each other and value our different contributions. We will have to give up our parochial views that researchers are covered with gilded ivy and that those who can’t, teach.

Our reward systems will have to reflect that a variety of scholarly activities are valued. We will have to come to grips with the tough question of defining quality work without resorting to a simple counting of articles placed in a select list of publications.

Our curricula will need to promote integration, application and teaching. We will have to genuinely believe that we are co-learners with colleagues and students.

### Conclusion

Can we afford a narrow understanding of scholarship, given the rapidly changing boundaries of knowledge domains and the interdependencies of peoples in a world filled with significant challenges to the human species? The answer must be an unequivocal NO. So, what can we do about it?

We can take a stand in favor of a more inclusive and mutually accepting view of scholarship. We can seek to address the really important questions of life among ourselves, our students and other constituencies. In doing so, we do not compromise our integrity, giving up our expectations for quality work. Indeed, we cannot tolerate shoddy work whether in discovery, integration, application or teaching. If our understanding of rigorous scholarship depends on a narrow definition of what really counts, then we have fallen prey to a professional myopia which may eventually lead us to personal despair and to a declining contribution to the well-being of our society.

### References


EXPLICIT MISSION ORIENTATIONS:
AN ASSESSMENT OF DIFFERENCES
AMONG DEANS OF AACSB
ACCREDITED SCHOOLS AS TO
ACADEMIC BELIEFS AND VALUES

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ABSTRACT

In an effort to develop insights into the newly developed AACSB accreditation criteria, this study is concerned with an assessment of differences between accredited business schools with research/teaching emphases versus those with teaching/research emphases. The dimensions over which such assessments will be made encompass the beliefs and values of deans on a number of variables which include curriculum, teaching and research issues; the business community; as well as the AACSB and a number of macro issues. Additionally, the effect of a number of institutional characteristics will be explored.

The study will assess whether the purported homogenization of accredited business schools has resulted in the unification of the beliefs and values of deans between the two categories; or whether there are natural differences which may indicate a precursory tendency for additional models of business education. This research is the first effort to reveal these potential differences and the development of such assessments has the potential to assist business schools in the development of mission statements and to reveal the extent of segmentation within business education today. Further, the study is occurring at a time of self-assessment and self-renewal for all of business education and the generated insights offer promise in revealing the extent that business schools may engage in unique mission modeling.
MARKETING FACULTY AWARENESS OF THE NEED TO PUBLISH OR PERISH

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Oregon State University, Bexell Hall 200
Corvallis, OR 97331-2603, (503) 737-3490

ABSTRACT

Three times during the past fifteen years, the authors have surveyed Marketing Departments of the AACSB accredited schools. The major results of the Browne and Becker surveys (1977, 1979, 1985, 1991, and 1991) have been published in various journals and proceedings. The intent of the studies have been to gain some insight into the perceived quality of journals publishing manuscripts written by marketing faculty residing in the AACSB accredited business schools. A copy of the most recent Browne and Becker (1991) findings are contained in Table 1 which compares both the journal familiarity (awareness) and journal ranking scores for the three years 1977, 1985 and 1991. While one section of the questionnaire addressed the awareness/familiarity and quality assessment questions another section of the questionnaire addressed the history, current policy, and recent publishing records of responding departments. This research note was prepared to report the changes that have taken place during the 1977-1991 period.

The authors observed, as a byproduct of other research, that there have been changes both in the output of the AACSB member schools and their policies regarding participation in scholarly activities. The data generated from the surveys shows that there has been a change in the appreciation of the need to participate in meaningful scholarly research and generation of scholarly work among the AACSB accredited schools. The impact of the continued reminder of the AACSB standards has had an effect on the intent and output of the member schools.

BACKGROUND

To qualify for initial AACSB accreditation and to be reaccredited, schools have had to demonstrate that their faculties are participating in the forefront of their respective fields. In marketing, this is usually demonstrated by showing that a majority of the faculty members participate in research programs generating results that either introduce new and meaningful marketing concepts or provides for the education or dissemination of proven and meaningful marketing concepts. The major intent of this requirement is to insure that a majority of the faculty in the school being accredited or reaccredited are up-to-date in their area of teaching responsibility. The AACSB and the member schools have been very aware of both the evolutionary and abrupt changes taking place in the business environment and want to assure the public that the teaching performances reflect the most current ideas.

The above may not have always been the case. When the business school entity became a major participant in undergraduate education, there was added need to translate the materials from the basic academic disciplines for use in the expanded business curricula. To do this, most business units hired practitioners and/or individuals with backgrounds in the supporting areas outside of business. Most of the faculty candidates at that time did not have PhDs in business, since such programs were very rare, as formal graduate majors in higher education. In many universities, marketing courses were taught in psychology, agriculture, home economics, business education, economics and other related areas. Thus, the initial faculties in business did not have a business or, better yet, a marketing degree. Many of those without business degrees who had research programs did not have results published in academic business journals (few existed).

As business schools and business curricula grew and matured, schools added PhD or DBA programs in business and many of the newer faculty did obtain terminal degrees in business. Initially, many of the universities offering PhDs in business did not emphasize research but rather the translation and application of the materials borrowed from the social sciences and sciences. In fact, the use of the DBA title was used, in part, to reflect a lesser demand on the research requirement of the final graduate study.
### TABLE 1

<table>
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<td>Psychology and Marketing</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
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<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Journal of Consumer Affairs</td>
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<td>2.57</td>
<td>2.59</td>
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<td>32</td>
<td>Business Horizons</td>
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<td>2.29</td>
<td>32</td>
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<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Int'l J. of Physical &amp; Materials Mgt.</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Journal of Product Innovation &amp; Mgt.</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Journal of Marketing Education</td>
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<td>2.95</td>
<td>*</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Journal of Services Marketing</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>36</td>
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<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Omega-Int'l of Management Science</td>
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<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.69</td>
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<td>38</td>
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<td>2.57</td>
<td>2.97</td>
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<td>26</td>
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<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>AMA Conference Proceedings</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>2.21</td>
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<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Journal of Consumer Marketing</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Quarterly Review of Marketing</td>
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<td>2.79</td>
<td>*</td>
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<td>34</td>
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<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Journal of Leisure Research</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>39</td>
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<tr>
<td>43</td>
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<td>3.13</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>43</td>
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<td>44</td>
<td>Business Topics</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>37</td>
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<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Marketing in Europe</td>
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<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>45</td>
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<td>3.34</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>42</td>
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<td>47</td>
<td>Direct Marketing</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Baylor Business Review</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>45</td>
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<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Advertising Age</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>43</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3.37</td>
<td>51</td>
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<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Marketing News</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Journal not present in that year's survey

Now, with most of the faculty trained in business and added interest in assuring a modern curriculum, there is an increased emphasis on the output of scholarly work. This message has taken some time to affect many of the faculty and business school administrators. In some cases it may have
reached the faculty but the resources were not available to retrain an individual to participate in more scholarly activities. The last generation of retirements included many faculty who were not interested in, committed to, or funded for the research activities associated with today’s comprehensive university.

METHOD

The original questionnaire was designed to measure the awareness and evaluation of journals publishing articles written by marketing faculty of AACSB-accredited schools. Fifty-four journal titles were listed and recipients were asked to indicate possible awareness or non-awareness of each title. They also rated, on a scale of 1 to 4, the perceived quality of each journal. At the end of the questionnaire each respondent was asked to answer questions associated with their department’s publishing traditions and current practices. The journal evaluation results for each of the years surveyed were used to develop a weighted index expressing the overall evaluation of each journal published earlier by Browne and Becker (1991). The second set of questionnaire material was used to develop Tables 2 and 3 reported for the first time in this manuscript.

The subjects for this research consisted of chairmen of departments in which Marketing is housed in institutions accredited by the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). A questionnaire was sent, addressed to "Chair of the Marketing Department," to the 263 AACSB-accredited schools in late September 1989. A cover letter explained the purpose of the study and stressed anonymity of all respondents. Respondents were given the option of identifying themselves, however, if they desired a summary of the findings; their identification was used for no other purpose.

RESULTS

Of the 263 questionnaires mailed out in 1989, a total of 154 completed and used in this analysis. The final response rate was 59%, comparable to the 64% and 53% reported by Browne and Becker in 1977 and 1984 (Table 2). This response rate is relatively high for mail surveys and indicates an ongoing interest in the topic of journal evaluations and publishing trends.

| TABLE 2 |
| Sample of Marketing Departments of AACSB Accredited Business Schools |
| Member Schools - AACSB | 513 | 628 | 863 |
| Accredited Schools - AACSB | 235 | 226 | 263 |
| Responses from Accredited Schools | 151 | 119 | 151 |
| % Response | 64% | 53% | 57% |

The four questions that are of interest in this report are listed, along with results of the three years, in Table 3. The responses speak for themselves. There has been a major impact on the views and policies at the departmental level in regard to the publishing record and departmental policy.

FINDINGS

There has been a noticeable increase of importance in publishing as a part of faculty evaluation (Table 3). This may be attributable in part to an increase in the number of chairs who have personally been involved in the research and publishing activity. It may also be a consequence of each school’s interest in retaining AACSB accreditation. To increase the likelihood of individual performances in the research domain, the activity would have to be added to and emphasized as part of the faculty member’s periodic evaluation. Thus, with the newer generation of experienced departmental leaders and the need to generate research results, participating in research programs becomes more universal.

The expanding number of publications should parallel changes in criteria discussed above. The number of publications, as reported by the chairs, has increased. Another factor causing this increase is the proliferation of journals printing academic articles in the marketing field. Many of these new journals have focused on specialized areas within marketing, while others have focused on new audiences. Of course some of the new audiences, and thus the journals, have been non-academic in nature.

The importance of publishing has not changed over the fourteen year span. Most marketing academics would agree that developing and disseminating new knowledge is both necessary and important. Many faculty and administration previously recognized the need but chose not to
TABLE 3

Profile of Publishing Interests of Marketing Departments
From AACSB Accredited Schools

A. Has publishing traditionally been important in faculty evaluation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1977 (n = 151)</th>
<th>1985 (n = 119)</th>
<th>1991 (n = 151)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Have a majority of your Marketing staff authored a journal article during the past year?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1977 (n = 151)</th>
<th>1985 (n = 119)</th>
<th>1991 (n = 151)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Is publishing becoming more important?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1977 (n = 151)</th>
<th>1985 (n = 119)</th>
<th>1991 (n = 151)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. Does the formal reward structure at your school differentiate between "peer" publications and "practitioner" publications?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1977 (n = 151)</th>
<th>1985 (n = 119)</th>
<th>1991 (n = 151)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

participate in the development of the knowledge.

The response to the last question is interesting, in that administrators are not only observing and evaluating the number of publications published by faculty members, but they are looking at the content. Their evaluation includes, in part, the audience of a publication; peer and practitioner journals clearly are differentiated and almost certainly assigned different weights in the evaluation process.

CONCLUSIONS

There are an estimated 2400 full-time marketing faculty members in the 263 AACSB accredited business schools. In most accredited business schools the faculty member is required (for purposes of annual review and promotion/tenure decisions) to provide evidence of scholarly work. This evidence is most commonly demonstrated through the activity of publishing. Our research suggests that: 1) more marketing chairmen believe that research/publication is important in faculty evaluation; 2) More marketing faculty are engaged in research/publication; and 3) a greater distinction is being made between publication in peer and practitioner journals.

REFERENCES


IMPACT OF LARGE SECTIONS ON AFFECTIVE LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

Financial and other resource constraints have caused many institutions to teach principles of marketing in large sections. Affective learning is associated with interest in the subject matter, and ultimate selection of a major. This paper describes the results of a study aimed at addressing this, and other affective learning issues. Based on the results of the study, recommendations are made to enhance the affective learning in large sections.

INTRODUCTION

Funding and resource limitations have forced business programs to handle demand for introductory courses in large mass-lecture settings. These factors, combined with the concerns of the business community regarding the quality and content of business education, require that the issue of large classes be reevaluated.

The question for many institutions is, given that large mass-lecture sections are necessary, how can these sections be taught in a manner that increases student interest in the subject area? Also of interest is the issue of how large lecture introductory sections might influence the probability that the students will choose the subject for their major area of study.

CLASS SIZE LITERATURE

Initial research into the effects of class size, conducted by Edmonson and Mulder [1924] found little difference, based on exam scores, in performance for large and small classes. Since that initial work, continuing research has produced mixed results for performance and learning in large vs. small classes. McKeeachie [1980] provides a thorough review of this literature.

More recently, Guseman [1985] conducted research to test the influence of class size on the types of learning which occurs; low level cognition (knowledge of concepts), high level cognition (ability to apply concepts) and affective learning (attitudinal change). The results showed that class size did not influence the amount of low level cognitive learning, with equivocal results for high level cognitive learning.

A significant result of the Guseman [1985] study showed that affective learning, as measured by the amount of attitude change, was greater for the smaller section. Interest in the course had declined for the large class, while it had increased for the small class. A greater percentage of students in the smaller class switched to marketing as their major field of study. Guseman concluded that based on the percentage of students changing to a marketing major, schools may be sacrificing long-term increases in marketing majors for short-term efficiency in the utilization of resources when implementing large mass-lecture sections in introductory courses.

Although there does not appear to be unequivocal support for differences in cognitive learning between large and small classes, the differences in affective learning and the probability of choosing a major is of significant interest. One possible explanation for the differences in affective learning is the theory the students stereotype classes on the basis of large versus small classes [King 1983].

King [1983] investigated the differences in beliefs regarding a list of twenty potential outcomes or returns associated with and introductory management course. The students were asked to state their belief that each outcome would be superior in a large or small class. The results suggested that stereotyping on the basis of class size may affect students' expectations about the class from the beginning. An inaccurate set of expectations may influence a student's overall evaluation of the course.

Past research suggests a number of other factors which may influence students' final declaration of a major. These factors include: personal interest in the subject matter; job opportunities and perceived relevance of the subject area [Kerin, Harvey and Rothe...
1978); course interest; long-term earning potential; job image and job orientation [Willenborg, Pitts and Lewinson 1978]; specific course offerings; perceptions of faculty and specific career opportunities [Gaertner, Terpening and Pitts 1982].

Gaertner et al. [1982] expanded these factors to include personal factors that might influence students' evaluation of an area of study. The researchers concluded that academic factors, such as workload, quality of the faculty and career perceptions, were of the greatest importance in the evaluation and choice of a major area of study. For marketing, career relevance and quality of the faculty had the greatest impact on the student's attitude toward a marketing major. Attitude, in turn, had the largest influence on the choice of a major.

THE STUDY

Previous research into the effects of class size, attitudes toward individual courses and selection of a major, indicates that introductory classes may have a substantial impact on the probability of a student choosing a major area of study. Based primarily on the work of Gusmano [1985] and King [1983], this study was designed to test the impact of general expectations regarding large sections, and the effects of expectations and affective learning during the course on the final course evaluation and probability of a marketing major.

Large section experiences and expectations where measured with questions regarding the number of large section classes taken, and the students' affective responses to these courses. Affective responses measured included: large sections as a learning experience; visual display of material during lecture portion; level of anxiety experienced relative to small sections; and the students' overall rating of their best and worst large section courses. These items provided a summary of general expectations regarding large section courses based on the students' past experience. Affective learning during the course was felt to be a function of these past experiences, and of course specific expectations and outcomes. Consequently, students were asked in the pre- and post-test to evaluate general feelings toward the course.

Research Design and Preliminary Analysis

The study was conducted in two large sections of the introductory course in marketing. Both sections were taught by the same instructor, using the same instructional techniques, on the same days of the week. The first section, Section 1, had an enrolment of 198, while the second section, Section 3, had an enrolment of 150. The questionnaire was administered as a pre-test during the first class period, and a post-test during the final class period. Student identification numbers were optional, as required by University regulations. Section 1 produced 114 usable responses to the pre-test and 137 response to the post-test. Section 3 provided 85 responses to the pre-test and 76 responses to the post-test.

The initial analysis determined the frequencies and means for responses to each question. Table 1 shows the mean results for the sections 1 and 3 combined. The mean scores were based on an average of 198 responses for the pre-test and 209 responses for the post-test. On a combined basis, 79.6% of the respondents were enrolled in the business school. The probability of a student choosing each major area of study was evaluated on a 10-point scale, ranging from 0 to 1 in .1 increments. Low probabilities associated with each major suggest that the students were very uncertain regarding their choice of major during their first semester of the business program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pre-Test Mean</th>
<th>Post-Test Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># Large Classes</td>
<td>6.705</td>
<td>6.962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of Large Classes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Experience (1-7)</td>
<td>4.025</td>
<td>4.232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual Material (1-7)</td>
<td>4.332</td>
<td>4.679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety: Large vs Small (1-7)</td>
<td>5.520</td>
<td>5.756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rating Best Large Class (1-7)</td>
<td>7.454</td>
<td>7.637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extend Looking Forward to Course (1-7)</td>
<td>5.432</td>
<td>5.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of Large vs. Small Classes (1-7)</td>
<td>3.426</td>
<td>3.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety: This Course (1-7)</td>
<td>3.472</td>
<td>2.406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in Course (1-7)</td>
<td>5.372</td>
<td>5.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Importance to Career</td>
<td>5.040</td>
<td>4.910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rating of Course (1-7)</td>
<td>7.188</td>
<td>7.213</td>
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<tr>
<td>Probability of Major (1-1.0)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Marketing</td>
<td>.2492</td>
<td>.2885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting</td>
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<td>.2759</td>
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<td>Finance</td>
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<td>Information Systems</td>
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<td>.511</td>
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<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>.1467</td>
<td>.0725</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responding students had taken an average of 6.7 large classes. The determination of what constitutes a large classes was left to the respondents. However, most lecture halls on the university campus held more than 100 students. Other classrooms had an average capacity of 50 students. An informal poll of students indicated that this criterion was normal to make the distinction between "regular" and "large" sections.

For the pre-test, students were asked to respond to
several questions regarding their past experiences in large classes. Overall, the students rated the lecture portion of their large classes poorly. The respondents appeared to have relatively low expectation for a large class, and were more anxious regarding large classes. Questions specifically addressing the introductory marketing course showed the students’ expectations for the course were tempered with their concern over the quality of large vs. small classes.

The post-test means showed that their initial expectations had been met. The level of interest and feeling regarding the importance of the class had changed very little. However, the feelings that the course would be better in a small class had been moderated \((x = 3.871)\), and their anxiety had declined substantially (pre-test \(x = 3.472\), post-test \(x = 2.406\)). Anxiety may be viewed as relating to the predisposition toward affective learning.

Results of the Regression Analysis

Since the study combined factors from a variety of previous work, no specific hypotheses were delineated. Stepwise regression was used to evaluate the relative importance of various factors. Analysis was conducted for the pre-test and post-test in order to determine the relative influence of the variables on the level of affective learning and probability of declaring marketing as a major.

Pre-test results were analyzed to provide an evaluation of students’ expectations and attitudes coming into the course. Results of the pre-test regression are outlined in Table 2. The analysis investigated generalized expectations for large sections, along with specific expectations for the course.

The students’ evaluation of how the course in a large section would compare to a course in a small section was negatively related to their evaluation of how large classes compared to small sections as a learning experience \((R^2 = .1493, \text{sign} = .000)\). Although this analysis suggests that past experience does not have a great deal of influence on current expectations, further analysis suggested that was not the case.

General affective responses to the course were consistently influenced by past experiences. The level of anxiety experienced for the course was positively related to the overall level of anxiety that the students experienced in large versus small class \((R^2 = .0533, \text{sign} = .002)\). The level of expected interest in the course was a function of the students’ expected rating of the course \((b = .443)\), their rating of their best large course \((b = .130)\), and attitude about how important the course would be to their career \((b = -.999)\). These factors accounted for 55% of the variation in the students’ expected interest in the course \((R^2 = .549, \text{sign} = .000)\).

It appeared that past experiences had a significant impact on general affective responses prior to beginning the course.

Investigation of the relationship between expected outcomes, affect and experience told a different story. The extent to which the students were looking forward to this class was related to their expected interest in the class \((b = .613)\), was higher for non-business students \((b = -.543)\), and positively related to their expected overall rating of the course \((b = .332)\). The regression equation showed that 59% of the variation in the extent to which the students were looking forward to the class was explained by these three factors \((R^2 = .5904, \text{sign} = .000)\).

The anticipated rating of the course was a positively related to the level of interest \((b = .467)\), being a business student \((b = .560)\), and the extent to which the student was looking forward to the course \((b = .402)\). However, anticipated rating was negatively related to students’ evaluation of the course’s importance to their career \((b = -.1554)\). The regression equation explained 67% of the variance in the anticipated rating of the course \((R^2 = .6749, \text{sign} = .000)\). From these results, it was apparent that student anticipation was related to their degree of interest in the subject coming into the course, whether the course was optional or required, and their expectations for the course.

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent</th>
<th>Independent</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Partial Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lrg vs Small</td>
<td>Large/Learning</td>
<td>-.476</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R^2 = .1493)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety Felt</td>
<td>Anxiety Lg/Sm</td>
<td>.2263</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R^2 = .0533)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Rating</td>
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<td>.6075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R^2 = .5499)</td>
<td>Best Lg Class</td>
<td>.1296</td>
<td>.2477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Career Import</td>
<td>-.0992</td>
<td>-.1834</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extent Look</td>
<td>Interest</td>
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<td>.3369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Major</td>
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<tr>
<td>(R^2 = .5904)</td>
<td>Rating</td>
<td>.3321</td>
<td>.3606</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.061</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rating of</td>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>.4687</td>
<td>.3164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Course Major</td>
<td>.5599</td>
<td>.3468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R^2 = .6749)</td>
<td>Look Forward</td>
<td>.4020</td>
<td>.3662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Career Import.</td>
<td>-.1554</td>
<td>-.2169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prob. of Marketing</td>
<td>Anxiety Lg/Sm</td>
<td>-.8324</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R^2 = .0579)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance of F Change above .05 level
Overall, the pre-test results were consistent with the expectations theory outlined by King (1983). The results suggested that students' who had been exposed to relatively fewer large classes, and whose experiences in these classes had not been positive, tended to project these experiences in their expectations for the introductory marketing course taught in large sections.

Results of the post-test analysis, contained in Table 3, followed the pattern established by the pre-test. Post-test attitudes appeared to be the result of previous experience with large sections, and the degree to which the students' expectations were met during the course.

The students' post-test evaluation of the introductory marketing course in a large versus small section was related to a number of affective factors. There was a positive relationship between the students' pre-test evaluation of the course in large vs. small sections \((b=.937)\). The relationship was negative for other affective variables; post-test importance of the course \((b=.490)\) and post-test level of anxiety \((b=-.441)\). The three variables explained 72% of the variance in evaluation of the course in a large vs. small section \((R^2=.7242, \text{sign}=.000)\). These results suggested that students who were positively inclined toward large courses, continued this attitude after the course.

However, students' who rated the course as more important (possible marketing majors?), and those who experienced more anxiety were more likely to rate the large section poorly.

The post-test level of anxiety experienced by the students' was higher for those of stated a higher probability of information systems as a major \((b=.577)\) and negatively related to their actual grade in the course \((b=-.395)\). These factors explained 72% of the variation in the level of anxiety experienced by the students at the end of the course \((R^2=.7193, \text{sign}=.000)\).

Whether the students felt the course to be interesting was a negative function of a variety of factors. Most importantly, the level of interest was negatively related to the extent to which the student was looking forward to the course \((b=-.614)\), the expected rating of the course \((b=-.483)\). It appears from this analysis that the course did not live up to the students' expectations. The initial mean score analysis may have masked student dissatisfaction. This result then had an impact on the students' stated probability of marketing as a major.

The final analysis for the post-test investigated the probability of marketing as a major. Only the students' pre-test probability of marketing as a major was significant in the regression equation \((R^2=.7692, \text{sign}=.000)\). It appeared these students were not inclined to change their major area.

**TABLE 3**

**Post-test Stepwise Regression Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent</th>
<th>Independent**</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Partial Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lrg vs Small Pre-test LgSm</td>
<td>.937</td>
<td>.733</td>
<td>.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R² = .7242 Importance</td>
<td>-.490</td>
<td>-.545</td>
<td>.232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety LgSm</td>
<td>-.441</td>
<td>-.324</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>Look Forward</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R² = .9606 Rating</td>
<td>-.483</td>
<td>-.357</td>
<td>.185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prob. of Mgmt Major</td>
<td>-.144</td>
<td>-.201</td>
<td>.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test Rating of Worst Class</td>
<td>-.314</td>
<td>-.322</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worst Class</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prob. of Mktg Major</td>
<td>.076</td>
<td>-.189</td>
<td>.041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major</td>
<td>College of Bus.</td>
<td>-.527</td>
<td>-.198</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significance of F Change above .05 level
** All are Post-Test responses unless indicated

The post-test results provided tentative support for King's (1983) expectations theory. For most of the relationships investigated, past experiences appeared to produce expectations about large classes. The results suggest that if expectations were not met in the course, then the students' attitudes about the course became more negative.

**CONCLUSIONS**

The results of this study are relatively consistent with the results and major hypotheses of past research [King 1983] [Kerin, Harvey and Rothe 1978] [Gaertner, Terpening and Pitts 1982]. Student expectations coming into the course are influenced by the number of large classes taken in the past, and their experiences in these classes. These expectations, in turn, influence the students' post-test evaluation of the course.

Past research results by King [1983] and Gaertner, Terpening and Pitts [1982] suggest that the probability of declaring marketing as a major should be influenced by the students' level of interest in the course, and the perception of how important this course will be to their career. Our research did not find these factors to be significant in the choice of major. However, our results do indicate that the students' evaluation of their
interest in the course, and their evaluation of the course's importance to their careers did influence their final rating of the course. The lack of results regarding the probability of marketing as a major may have been related the slightly negative evaluation of the course and low level of commitment the students had made to specific majors. In the post-test results, the highest mean probability for a major area was marketing, with a probability of .288. Therefore it appears that the majority of the students' had not made a firm decision regarding a major.

Overall, the study demonstrated the importance of three factors to the success of large mass-lecture sections. First, the instructor must set realistic expectations regarding the course to overcome the influence of past experience and to avoid disappointment at a later date. Second, the instructor should attempt to reduce the level of anxiety regarding the course, and the large class size. It appears that high levels of anxiety tends to have a negative impact on the final assessment of the course. Finally, in order to build interest in marketing during the course, institutions should have their best instructors teaching the course. These instructors are better able to create the level of enthusiasm and interest needed to move students toward declaring marketing as a major.

The study had several limitations which might be overcome in future research. Required student identification would ensure that valid difference scores were available for individual level analysis. The response to the probability of marketing as a major item might be substantially increased by requiring only the probability of the marketing major. The survey item in this study required the student to estimate probabilities for ten potential majors. Finally, it would be of interest to compare the results of a similar study to the actual student evaluations of the instructor.

More research is needed to address this important issue. Continuing research efforts should be designed to gauge the impact of large sections on the subsequent success of marketing students in their careers. This research should be longitudinal in nature, perhaps observing groups of students over multiple semesters.

REFERENCES


USE OF A MARKETING PLAN TEAM PROJECT TO ENHANCE STUDENT INVOLVEMENT IN A MARKETING PRINCIPLES CLASS

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ABSTRACT

In this article, the authors describe a marketing plan team project that can be utilized to increase the level of involvement and active learning for students enrolled in a Marketing Principles course.

Project Design and Development

Students typically work in groups of no less than four and no more than six, depending on total class size. In order to increase student involvement with the project and to instill a sense of ownership, students are allowed to: (1) choose those with whom they would like to work, (2) create/select and design the company and product of their choice, and (3) make a number of "reasonable" assumptions, subject to instructor approval, regarding their current situation.

The written portion of the assignment requires each team to develop a comprehensive marketing plan for a product or service that their created company will be responsible for manufacturing and marketing. Toward the end of their work on the written marketing plan, students are required to make a formal oral presentation to the class with the objective of persuading the audience that the proposed product/service represents a venture that should be supported.

The project was developed over a four-year period in a combined total of 17 sections of Marketing Principles. Over 130 teams of students participated in the project (665 students) during that time frame. Overall, student major composition was fairly typical with a broad range of business majors, as well as a smaller percentage of majors from other areas.

Student Evaluations of the Project

In order to measure the effectiveness of the project, a questionnaire was designed and used to assess student perceptions of its value. The sample consisted of 43 students enrolled in a Marketing Principles course. In addition to the classification questions of major and sex, the remainder of the questionnaire consisted of 11 five-point, Likert statements ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Each statement was designed to assess the extent to which the student perceived that a given "process," "outcome," or "overall" benefit had been derived from completion of the project.

In general, the results of the student evaluations were very favorable. The majority (83.3%) of the students agreed that the assignment helped them to better understand marketing. In addition, 83.7% agreed that the assignment made them aware of how the course material applied to the real world, and 86% felt that completing the assignment helped them to learn more about marketing than they would have learned without it.

Most of the students (69.8%) felt that completing the project helped them to improve their ability to work with others. As for whether completion of the project was felt to have enhanced oral presentation skills, 72.1% of the students felt that such skills had been improved. A majority (72.1%) also agreed that assignment completion had helped them to improve their creative skills. Results concerning the final outcome benefit assessed were less desirable than expected. Only 32.6% of the students felt that their writing skills had been improved. The majority (60.5%) reported that they did enjoy completing the assignment, and slightly more than a majority (59.5%) reported that being involved in the project helped increase their class participation.

Conclusions and Recommendations

As stated earlier, a general objective for implementing the project was to motivate students to increase their levels of active learning as opposed to passive learning. Although the current student evaluation procedures were not designed to thoroughly assess this goal, the feedback obtained from the written forms, along with numerous student comments to the instructor did seem to indicate that students were learning more actively. Students: (1) spent more time with each other outside of class discussing things they had read in their texts and heard discussed in class, (2) asked more questions about the course material during class sessions, (3) made more visits to the instructor's office to seek additional advice on how to apply course concepts to their projects, and (4) found themselves integrating much of the material learned in other business courses (e.g., financial accounting, business law).
A COMPUTER BASED EXERCISE TO FACILITATE LEARNING TERMS IN
THE MARKETING PRINCIPLES COURSE

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ABSTRACT
The marketing principles course requires that students learn the definitions of a
number of terms which provide a common vocabulary for communication. One method of
stimulating students to learn marketing terminology is to use the computer as a
learning tool.

This paper discusses results of a pilot study which used a shareware program called
Professional Crossword Creator (PCC) allowing students to use the computer in
creating a crossword puzzle using marketing terminology. A questionnaire was
administered to those students who used PCC in an effort to determine their perceptions of
the experience.

Two sections of the principles course taught by the authors were used in the study. The
Spring section taught by Kellam was tested on terminology from Chapters 4 and 11 of
MARKETING by Boone and Kurtz. These students did not use PCC. The same test was
administered to the Summer section taught by Wynd AFTER the students had used PCC to
prepare a crossword using the selected terminology in Chapters 4 and 11. These
students were then administered a questionnaire to determine their perceptions of the
experience.

For Chapter 4, there was no statistical
difference between the mean test scores of
the two class sections. However, for Chapter
11, students using PCC had significantly
better mean scores (beyond the .05 level).
There is also considerable difference in the
standard deviations for Chapter 11 (.456 for
those using PCC, 1.014 without PCC).

It appears that the lower tail of the curve
was eliminated when PCC was used. This
indicates that the weaker students improved
their scores when using PCC. Perhaps
using PCC provides structure to the learning
experience which is needed by the weaker
students.

Students who had used PCC agreed or strongly
agreed (81%) that the process of creating a
puzzle was enjoyable and it took less time to
learn the terms than the way in which they
normally learn. They felt that they would
remember the terms longer when using PCC.
Students overwhelmingly recommended that
the PCC exercise be continued.

Further testing is in progress to determine if
PCC really does improve student learning of
terminology. The pilot study involved only
two chapters, was inconclusive and some
changes in the study design need to be made
(i.e. summer quarter may not be comparable
to other quarters since it is so short, different instructors may make a difference,
etc.).

More details are available in the complete
paper which is available from the authors.
INTEGRATING STRATEGIC MARKETING AND ENGINEERING: AN MBA COURSE ON CONCURRENT PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

In this paper we propose a course on “concurrent product development.” The course premise is to integrate strategic marketing (thinking) and strategic engineering (thinking) through an interdisciplinary focus. This would prepare marketing students to be more effective in high technology environments.

THE BUSINESS EDUCATIONAL CHALLENGE

Recently graduate business education has seen substantial criticism. [c.f. Deutschman 1991] [Stanton 1988] [Behrman & Levin 1984]. Some argue that business instruction has become irrelevant to business practice. As a result, calls have been made for major overhaul of curricula, change in faculty focus, content of courses, approach to learning and revamping of schools’ incentive and reward structures. Recently, the American Assembly For Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSBO) revised its accreditation guidelines to facilitate response to this challenge.

Based on the authors’ experiences, it appears that “curriculum innovation” might best be achieved through a bottom up process where individual faculty (or small groups of faculty) would create innovative courses. It is in this spirit that this paper on an interdisciplinary course on “concurrent product development” is conceived.

COURSE BUSINESS CONTEXT: TWO KEY TRENDS IN THE 1990’S

The following is an effort to establish a relevant context for this proposed course. To accomplish this two important trends facing managers in the 1990’s will be outlined briefly.

More Technology

First, world-wide, enterprises are creating new technology at an increasing rate. In some segments of industry, technology is changing how business is conducted. It is changing the nature of competition. It is changing the product introduction process by shortening the time firms have to bring products to market. It is shortening product life cycles. More firms are introducing new products with greater technology content more often than ever before. Management of these changes is getting increased attention from practitioners as well as academics [c.f. Mckenna 1991] [Spencer & Trian 1989] [Gupta et. al. 1987]. The product design and development process must be enhanced.

More And Better Marketing Involvement

A second trend is the emerging validation of the "marketing concept" (c.f. Kotler 1984) [Levitt 1960] [Webster 1988]. For decades the "marketing concept" has been hailed as an effective business philosophy (c.f. Houston 1986) [Peters & Waterman 1985], but only recently has a prescription on how to implement the concept been made [Kohli & Jaworski 1990]. Also in 1990 came the first solid empirical research validating the concept’s positive impact on business performance [Narver & Slater 1990].

Managerial Integration is Lacking

One would expect then, that managers would move swiftly to align their R&D, engineering and manufacturing organizations with marketing, or, that marketing would expend fresh efforts to become more involved in R&D and engineering. One would also expect that business schools would capitalize on this opportunity and initiate dialogues with engineering colleges and vice-versa. This appears not to be happening¹. Although business context and market

¹ A review of 46 articles on concurrent and simultaneous engineering revealed only fleeting attention to marketing. A series of 27 indepth interviews with engineering managers in the high technology field reflected only incidental marketing and customer inputs into the product development process.
ing are high on the list in engineering schools [Dixon 1991], the reality is that marketing is almost invisible in the debate related to concurrent design and simultaneous engineering. And, concurrent engineering issues appear not yet to have reached the marketing literature.

Concurrent Development

Concurrent and simultaneous engineering are currently among the most popular topics within the engineering management discipline. Essentially what concurrent engineering facilitates is that it shifts a major portion of product design changes to the left (earlier) in the design process. A conceptual graph of this is shown in Figure 1.

**FIGURE 1**

Concurrent Engineering Approach vs. Traditionally Design Approach

In spite of these advances, there is one serious problem. Without marketing concurrent engineering tends to be an incestuous activity. It is a process through which one tends to generate the same old products faster, better, or at lower cost; but one often fails to integrate important customer value criteria into the new products. What is needed is an expanded concept labeled "concurrent product development", a process that integrates strategic marketing (thinking) and strategic engineering (thinking) throughout all phases of product development. This process should de-emphasize the sequential approach of conventional development models and promote the development, commercialization of products as an integrated, cross-functional process, rather than two independent parallel (engineering & marketing) series of stage-like events.

**MARKETPLACE REALITIES**

The two trends outlined above pose substantial challenges to both technology (engineering) oriented and market oriented organizations. The technology oriented organization must incorporate increased market, customer and marketing considerations into its innovation and development process. Traditional marketing oriented organizations may face significant challenges in encouraging increased technological innovation in company culture and strategy. A recent study conducted by McKinsey [Nevens et. al. 1990] concludes that the process of bringing products with higher technology content to market is increasingly becoming an important success criteria. Another much larger and more recent study of 311 CEO’s, presidents and general managers ranked “time-to-market”, second only to design quality as the most important factors for success in high-tech markets [Jorgensen 1991]. This implies that incremental increases in resource allocation to development and commercialization may be well worth it. A better integrated process of strategic marketing (thinking) and strategic engineering (thinking) assures that the right product “value” is delivered.

**MARKETING EDUCATION AND PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT**

In spite of the intuitive appeal of integrating technology and marketing few business schools have incorporated the technology-marketing combination well. There are at least three reasons for this:

First, the marketing discipline has not yet conceptualized well what technology is, how it can be made operational in an organizational sense, and how individual elements of the technology [Capon & Glazer 1987] relate to each other and to key marketing concepts.

Second, business schools have traditionally integrated product development issues into courses such as "principles of marketing" and "marketing strategy".

Third, marketing and technology managements (engineering) have traditionally, from fundamental educational training in business schools and engineering colleges through to the practical management and organization, perceived their respective roles as being mutually exclusive. These causes explain partially the presence of major barriers to enhancing product development education which directly influences product design, development and commercialization practice.
THE PROPOSED COURSE

In light of the important trends outlined above, calls for integration, and the inherent weaknesses in organizing product design and development education, we propose a "new" interdisciplinary course on product development. This course is a hybrid of a traditional product development concepts and an engineering design management concepts. In Figure 2 we outline briefly some of the potential topics to be covered in such a course. It is important to note that we try to emphasize the combined strengths of the conventional market oriented thinking with strategic engineering thinking. The course should start with a context session on strategic marketing engineering. This could include traditional marketing topics such as appraising needs and requirements from the market, opportunity analysis, and product management issues, but it should also include discussions on the role of science, technology and engineering as they relate to (sustainable) competitive issues. This is to make students think about technology scope and development parameters which may reach beyond the scope of their existing marketing thinking.

To the left in Figure 2 we show some of the major modules or course sections while in the middle two columns we indicate marketing and engineering concepts such as benchmarking, cost and price constraints, input from customers, and market research; in addition to science, technology and engineering related topics. In the right-hand column we suggest analytical frameworks and/or methods which may be appropriate to use at each phase of the development process. The course sequence is meant to follow the flow of a product development program. Organizing the course in this way has several advantages.

First, students will appreciate how important it is for marketing to get scientific know-how early in the process. This knowledge can be used to obtain refined market intelligence and product conceptualization which are of value to R&D, designers and manufacturing engineers.

Second, by incorporating marketing-technology parameters early, project goals and priorities are likely to become more congruous among marketing and technical teams.

Third, early incorporation of engineering data and process technology parameters is likely to give the students an appreciation for the importance of clear technical guidance from engineering to marketing.

Fourth, by appreciating this early and enhanced definition of technology and market prospects students will understand how likely this is to influence an organization's allocation of resources for marketing, engineering development and manufacturing. Consequently, this prevents under-funding and delays in time-to-market.

Fifth, in line with contemporary thoughts on simultaneous engineering, the course should facilitate discussion on integration of process technology considerations before product design and development are initiated. The clear advantage of this is that manufacturing and engineering may furnish constraints and/or initiate manufacturing engineering studies early in the project.

Sixth, when product R&D is initiated, a complete base of market and scientific know-how will exist. This comprehensive understanding is likely to maintain top management commitment to the project. It will keep development teams focused on creating value to customers and on adhering to time tables.

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**FIGURE 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MODULE</th>
<th>MARKETING CONCEPTS</th>
<th>ENGINEERING CONCEPTS</th>
<th>FRAMEWORK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>Strategic Market Context</td>
<td>Strategic Engineering Context</td>
<td>Market Driven Strategy Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONCEPT GENERATION</td>
<td>Customer Requirements Engineering</td>
<td>Conceptual Design Engineering</td>
<td>Customer-Driven Technology Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DESIGN DEVELOPMENT</td>
<td>Concept Testing Prototyping</td>
<td>Concept Testing Process Testing</td>
<td>Design-Driven Prototype Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROTOTYPING</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Value Engineering</td>
<td>Design for Manufacturing and Assembly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMERCIALIZATION</td>
<td>Business Case Analysis</td>
<td>Design for Manufacturability</td>
<td>Process Design Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARKET LAUNCH</td>
<td>Market Timing</td>
<td>Market Timing</td>
<td>Market Timing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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MODUS OPERANDI

Many will argue that it is very difficult to implement such a course because it requires the instructor to have knowledge about engineering as well as marketing. This difficulty can be easily overcome by making it possible for business and engineering professors to plan and team such a course together. Perhaps by dividing in half the contribution from each professor and by teaching one course section in the engineering school and one in the business school, bureaucratic road-blocks can be overcome. In any case, given present business school culture in this country, assertive efforts from individual faculty are probably required.

This type of course lends itself very well to have invited outside experts speakers on some of the more technological topics such as CAD/CAM. It is also possible to use case studies dealing with manufacturing, quality, technology as well as product management and marketing. This gives the course the appropriate concurrent interdisciplinary.

Finally, a good mix of engineering and marketing oriented students in each class section would facilitate refreshing confrontation between technical and commercial points-of-view. This may facilitate shared use of terminology and empathy for each discipline’s point of view.

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THE ROLE OF MARKETING FACULTY IN
THE TECHNOLOGY TRANSFER PROCESS

Rapidly Changing Global Markets

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ABSTRACT

Global markets are changing at an accelerated rate. U.S. domestic markets are no longer isolated from global changes. The future business manager must understand these forces of change to be successful. Keeping pace with this fast changing environment is the key issue facing business faculty for several reasons:

- Even in the latest textbooks, the material covered is at least 2-3 years old.
- Articles published in scholarly journals often have narrow focus, lack practical application, and sometimes do not reach concrete conclusions to merit classroom discussions.
- Current issues facing U.S. business are covered by publications such as the Wall Street Journal, Business Week, Fortune, Forbes, and other magazines. However, the material pertaining to marketing is too fragmented.

A general criticism of business schools by the business community and students alike suggests that the present course material is inadequate to prepare the students to face intense competition from foreign companies both domestically and internationally. The first step in removing this inadequacy is for faculty members to recognize and deal with it in a challenging way. This paper suggests that marketing faculty should take a lead in this area by accepting this challenge.

THE CHALLENGE OF REGAINING U.S.
COMPETITIVENESS

A major problem in the United States today is remaining competitive with emerging industrial powers overseas. Everyone is aware of the inroads the Japanese have made into the U.S. economy. The automotive, steel and electronic industries have all suffered significant reductions in domestic and foreign sales to international competitors, particularly the Japanese. In addition, the U.S. now faces increasing competition from other rapidly developing countries along the Pacific rim such as Taiwan, Hong Kong, South Korea and Singapore.

The U.S. has been falling behind other nations in their ability to transfer the results of their technology to the market place. In many instances U.S. inventions have been taken overseas and turned into products which are then imported into the U.S.

One example is videotape recorders. An American company, Ampex, introduced this product in the U.S. in 1956, but failed to see its market potential. Japanese companies recognized the potential for VCRs, licensed the technology from the U.S. company, and today the Japanese control a $10 billion world wide market [Cundiff 1988]. Robotics, automation and statistical quality control are other techniques developed first in the U.S. but they are being applied more effectively in other countries.

A process that offers hope for reversing this trend is to develop better and newer ways to transfer and commercialize science and technology. This process is known as technology transfer.

Technology transfer involves a sharing of knowledge between two or more parties. It also includes the application of research findings to the marketplace. For the discussion in this paper, the authors will define it as a sharing of knowledge between two or more businesses or between government research organizations and business for the purpose of turning an invention or idea into a marketable product.
Historically in the U.S. there has been a reluctance on the part of business to become involved with government in developing new products. Business has attempted, for the most part, to remain separate from government. In the twenty-five year period between 1945 and 1970, the Golden Age of American manufacturing, this was not a problem. However with the resurgence of other major economic powers after World War II this strategy is no longer feasible. In Japan and Europe the government works much more closely with industry often helping to finance business so that it can be competitive in world markets.

An example of a successful government sponsored consortium is Airbus. It receives part of its funding from the governments of France, Great Britain, West Germany and Spain. This has enabled the aircraft manufacturer to become competitive in the commercial airliner market—a market which has been dominated in the past by American airliner manufacturers like Boeing and McDonnell Douglas. These two companies and other American manufacturers have cried foul but the fact remains that Airbus now has over 25% of the world market and is still growing (Rudolph 1987).

If U.S. industry wants to regain at least a portion of the sales it has lost to foreign competition, a more effective process of technology transfer is needed. To compete successfully American industry must improve its ability to transform inventions and technology to marketable products and processes.

Technology transfer can take place between other partners besides business and government. Companies in different industries, competitors in the same industry, and even universities can engage in it. Universities can provide new technology through their research labs and management and marketing guidance through their business faculty. The great resources of knowledge that exist in the academic field can be blended with the fruits of private and governmental research.

For example, “Today, the concept of ‘technology exchange’ is taking on a larger role. Those words now describe the process by which an entire nation harnesses its creativity and innovation in one realm—technology research—and translates that into leadership in a different realm: the competitive world of international business” [Rogers 1988].

Technology transfer can also be viewed as a process of harnessing our nation’s research and development activities in science and technology and then transforming them into increased productivity for economic growth.

George Kozmetsky (1990) identifies five important factors regarding the nature of technology and its commercialization in a modern economy:

- Technology is a constantly replenishable national resource,
- Technology generates wealth, which in turn is the key to economic, social, and political power,
- Technology is a prime factor for domestic productivity and competitiveness,
- Technology is the driving force for new alliances among academia, business, and government,
- Technology requires new managerial philosophy and practice.

It is this new managerial philosophy and practice of technology transfer that the marketing faculty should become aware of, conduct additional research on, and include in the marketing curriculum.

Technology Transfer and Marketing Faculty

Presently there is a lack of awareness among business schools about the subject of technology transfer. Few colleges or universities have courses in this area. There is some work being done on a consulting basis at universities but the number of faculty involved is very small. It is not, however, a subject area that business students are exposed to in any detail. Only a limited amount of research has been conducted in this field. The result is that most marketing faculty are not even considering this area as a part of the marketing curriculum. Marketing faculty need to be alerted to the importance of this subject.

There are several means by which technology transfer can be made an integral part of a marketing curriculum. A starting point is to add a course in this area to marketing curricula. At some schools it might be appropriate to even formulate a concentration or major in technology transfer.

The closest course to this subject area presently being taught is Industrial Marketing. However, technology transfer receives only limited coverage in this course. Even the International Marketing courses being taught are in most cases barely alerting students to the acute problem of foreign competition and the need for better implementation of American technology. Many marketing students, however, do not take either of these courses and thus miss even this limited exposure to technology transfer.
Another means by which technology transfer can be promoted is to present the concept both formally and informally at professional meetings such as the American Marketing Association, Southern Marketing Association, Western Marketing Association and other regional marketing conferences. In this way faculty who are often most active in research will be reached. Also special attention can be paid to deans who would be most influential in having a course or concentration in technology transfer adopted.

Marketing faculty could also conduct seminars on technology transfer for the business community. These seminars would encourage interaction between academia and business which is needed to make technology transfer successful.

To create awareness among students technology transfer can be integrated into several courses in a marketing curriculum. It would involve updating courses to reflect the need for technology transfer. This would be similar to the concept advocated by the AACSB to incorporate international marketing concepts throughout the business curriculum.

A technique that offers significant advantages is an internship course in technology transfer for outstanding students at the senior level in undergraduate schools or graduate business students. An internship would provide students with practical experience on how to market new technology.

**Experiments In Creating Technology Transfer Awareness In University Systems in South Carolina**

The S.C. Universities Education and Research Foundation (SCUREF) was incorporated in 1988 by the four major state supported academic institutions: The University of South Carolina, Clemson University, the Medical University of South Carolina, and South Carolina State College. The objective of SCUREF is to pool their resources and talents to develop special programs, technologies, and expertise to conduct research and enhance educational opportunities in the State of South Carolina.

One of the goals of SCUREF is to transfer technologies (inventions) from the Savannah River Laboratory, located near Aiken, SC, and owned by the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE). The support for such activities comes from the highest levels in DOE, the White House, and the legislative branch of the U.S. Government.

Under the direction of SCUREF, the first "Summer Institute for Technology Transfer (SITT)" was held in the summer of 1990 at the University of South Carolina at Aiken Campus. Fifteen students and six faculty members from SCUREF institutions spent ten weeks of their summer learning about technology transfer. After two weeks of orientation the students were assigned to three different work groups, each group supervised by two faculty members. The students selected for the program came from engineering, medical, and business schools including graduate and under-graduate programs.

About seventy documented inventions from Savannah River Laboratory (SRL) were selected for evaluation. The students conducted research to answer questions such as:

- Could the invention be used by the private sector to improve processes, increase efficiency, or to develop a new product which has unique advantages over existing technology?
- Is the invention (technology) patentable?
- What is the market potential for the new product/process based on the invention?
- Who are the potential customers? Will they pay the price of the new product based on current cost estimates?
- Who are the potential licensees who may be interested in manufacturing or marketing the product/process based on the invention?

The research included (a) students and faculty interaction with inventors at SRL, (b) evaluating samples/prototype products built by SRL based on inventions, (c) studying the test data/results developed by the researchers on the subject and (d) talking to potential customers and licensees in the U.S. domestic markets. Each group evaluated fifteen inventions and prepared detailed reports for each which included recommendations for further action.

In addition, a series of weekly public lectures was held relating to technology transfer. The speakers included nationally known experts in the field of technology transfer, patenting procedures, and seed capital. The lectures also included a panel of entrepreneurs who started new companies based on inventions from researchers in different fields.

The feedback received from students, faculty members, researchers at SRL and the quality of reports prepared suggests that the SITT program was very successful. The program achieved several goals:
1. Provided training in the technology transfer process for the participants.

2. Local business executives, small business owners, entrepreneurs, students, faculty members, and administrators from SCUREF institutions and researchers from SRL were invited to the public lecture series. This created awareness about technology transfer among business, academia, and the personnel from SRL. Through this awareness process a spirit of cooperation is developing among these three groups in S.C.

3. The experience during the SITT program for each participant is creating a chain reaction. Each participant is acting as an ambassador of technology transfer at their respective institutions.

The success of the 1990 Summer program led to the 1991 summer program during which about 80 additional inventions were evaluated by participating students. In both seminars marketing faculty took a leading role. The student reports were used by a special task force created by SCUREF and the S.C. Development Board to market and license the new technologies to the private sector.

The importance of technology transfer is recognized at the highest levels in the SCUREF institutions. A special curriculum committee has been established which includes faculty members from business, law and engineering schools from four universities in South Carolina. The goal is to include the topic of technology transfer in each of the core courses offered by these schools. In addition, an elective course on technology transfer will be offered both at the undergraduate and graduate level. The course material is being compiled at this time.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In any business organization, the marketing department is an integrating force. It is time that marketing faculty play such a role in business schools. One way to achieve this is to take a lead and carry out such an integration process in marketing courses. Figure 1 depicts the leadership role envisioned by the authors for the marketing faculty to integrate the process of technology transfer. Let us learn about the process of technology transfer: arrange seminars, create a new track on the subject, conduct more research, inform the AACSB of our efforts and ask their support for the integration process. We could encourage and conduct more re-

search on the subject and publish the results. Also we should inform the authors of marketing textbooks to cover the topic of technology transfer and examine the research results. With such coordinated efforts our product -- the future marketing manager--will be much more effective in regaining U.S. competitiveness domestically and in world markets.

REFERENCES


Marketing Faculty "Leadership Role" Suggested by Authors to Create Awareness and Commitment for "Technology Transfer Process" among Business Community, Academia, and Business Students
INTEGRATION OF A MARKETING DEPARTMENT-BASED
EUROPEAN TRAVEL ABROAD COURSE: A DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL.

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ABSTRACT

Both educators and students must prepare for the changes
and challenges of the global market environment. The
authors describe and explain how to develop a four-week
study abroad course in Eastern, Central, and Western
Europe, and discuss the promotional and pricing issues.
They conclude with cautions and recommendations.

OVERVIEW

As we near the end of the 20th century, international study
abroad experiences and student education have become
inextricably related, as academicians look for additional
programs that prepare the university student for global
competition. The world is growing global and business is
under tremendous pressure to become global. Recent
studies indicate that only 10-15 percent of college students
"can be presumed to have adequate understanding of the
world [Haglund 1990]." Marketing students must be
exposed to this as part of their business education.

Currently, many colleges offer quality study abroad courses
with business applications. These programs usually require
semester/year residency, feature classroom type environ-
ments, and often command some foreign language skills
[Transitions Abroad, Mar/Apr 1991]. These types of
programs do provide solid learning. In fact, the AACSB
has long supported the incorporation of international
courses that better prepare students for a global business
environment [Chattopadhyay 1991]. However, the
university or marketing department that is deficient in this
type of program creates an environment where the student
is not afforded the opportunity to explore the international
business market. Since some academics feel all students

should be required to study abroad with the opportunity to
discuss "real world" issues with business people in all
aspects of the global arena, an International Comparative
Management Travel Abroad course offers students this
alternative. Such a course is the focus of this paper.

The objective of this paper is to illustrate an "in-house"
program development. The dual marketing plan will be
discussed including how to develop international contacts,
bid out the travel arrangements, and secure a permanent
course status. In addition, pricing concerns, promotional
issues, and student evaluation will be addressed.

THE MODEL

The International Comparative Management Travel
Abroad experience, which was completely developed and
implemented via the marketing department, is a study tour
presented in English to learn about Eastern, Central, and
Western European marketing and management techniques.
This course is a marketing department-based program, but
carries a generic College of Business course designation
and incorporates all the functional areas of business.
The program was developed internally within the business
school and not from an international study abroad office,
although one may chose to work in conjunction with
university study abroad officials.

The core program remains essentially the same year to
year, but changes slightly as companies and countries are
added or deleted. Typically, during this four week trip the
students visit 12 businesses, 2 multi-national agencies, and
eight countries. A full-time, multilingual tour specialist
assists the students and professor adding to the cultural
learning and basic language skills. Additionally, a full time
bus driver transports the students throughout the tour.
The course we have developed includes visits to local firms that do business internationally and are located near our university prior to leaving for Europe. This allows the students to prepare for the comparison part of the class and allows the professor to distribute news announcements, study material, and any paper work. During the four week trip the students visit both U.S. businesses operating in Europe [Hewlett Packard, Caterpillar, EDS (Electronic Data Systems) and Citibank] and indigenous European businesses [BMW (Bayerische Motoren Werke), Opel and BSE (Badische Steelworks)] are just a few. Each participating business invites the class to their facilities for an in-depth presentation on international marketing and business. Issues regarding the implications and/or opportunities as a result of the European Community, 1992; the unification of Germany; and the opening of Eastern Europe are explored. In addition, the speakers address their role and company's role in the emerging global economy, and, if it is a manufacturing firm, a tour of the production facilities is included.

Between companies, the students are educated by local tour guides, learning about history and culture. These tours complement the business elements resulting in a well-balanced travel abroad course. The following course objectives reflect both ingredients revealing the vitality of the International Comparative Management Study Abroad program.

1. To study first-hand European management and marketing techniques within the context of operating European businesses.
2. To meet and learn from European managers within the context of their operational environment.
3. To observe and compare distribution, retailing, and advertising systems.
4. To have an overseas academic and cultural experience.

The Dual Marketing Plan

With respect to program development, the professor should use a dual marketing plan (note: a teaching assistant could perform many of these duties). The first part of the plan involves administrative duties which include contacting domestic and international companies, bidding out the itinerary to travel agents, and securing permanent course status. Additionally, when selecting the businesses one can chose to be either focused or diverse. A focused tour or specialty tour can profile certain industries, such as automobile, textile or advertising. A diverse program, such as we have chosen to conduct, would present many different industries and offer students a cross-section. A list of both American companies doing business internationally or global companies can be developed through many sources including those illustrated in exhibit #1:

EXHIBIT 1

- Directory of American Firms Operating in Foreign Countries
- Directory of Foreign Manufacturers in the United States
- Directory of United States Importers
- State International Trade Directories
- United States Department of Commerce
- Embassies and Consulates
- International Handbook of Universities and other Institutions of Higher Education
- Local business contacts
- University professors
- Student's parents/relatives

EXHIBIT 1. Selected list of international business sources.

Soon after developing a contact list, a tentative schedule needs to be prepared and letters sent to the potential businesses. This should be done at least 6-10 months in advance of the arrival date. Keep in mind that not only in Europe but also other parts of the world, different holidays will affect the schedule. Usually your travel agents can provide you with the holiday schedule.

The travel program probably needs to be at least two weeks in length to yield enough exposure to be of value. We have found that travel beyond four weeks tends to be very draining and students become jaded. We have also discovered that the dates to schedule the class is crucial for success. Many schools have a three or four week recess period between spring and summer classes. This is an ideal time for the trip allowing the school to capitalize on better pricing, warmer weather, and fewer tourist.

When approaching European businesses either by letter or fax (we recommend sending a letter first, then, subsequently faxes), be sure to include the tentative date and time of arrival. In the correspondence explain the purpose of the class, how many will be attending, and what areas of interest you would like presented. A specific contact name can make the task easier. Exhibit #2 lists important information required in the letter.
EXHIBIT 2

✓ Who you are and the school
✓ The goals of the class and trip
✓ Date and time of arrival and departure
✓ How many students will attend
✓ Request for maps and/or directions
✓ Your address and contact numbers including fax

EXHIBIT 2. Include the who, what, where, when and why type information.

We have found that at least 20 business students are needed to make the trip affordable. We have set our maximum number at 26 students since most tour companies give a quantity price break at 25 or 26, and this number is easy to manage and easily accommodated by participating businesses. However, ultimately the student numbers reflect how many individuals the various businesses can accommodate, the size of the touring bus, and how many students the professor wishes to handle.

Which travel agents to solicit creates additional concerns. Most state run universities require at least three vendor bids; however, this could prove advantageous from a financial savings or improved service viewpoint. Each travel agent will provide tentative itineraries which are important to facilitate the second part of the market plan, which will be addressed later.

The third issue is permanent class status and the university curriculum committees. Each school will vary, but pursuing permanent status can be a long, involved process of justification and repeated resubmissions with refinements. There is often a feeling from curriculum committees that these types of programs are simply a "boondoggle" and, therefore, it is incumbent to make sure that the academic program is complete and that the pedagogy is stressed in all submitted material. The authors' program demanded two years before complete university approval was granted.

Part two of the dual marketing plan is directed towards the student and involves the promotional aspects. Class announcements; promotional flyers and brochures; informational classes and videos; and guest speakers all provide maximum exposure and impact. Be sure and include in the promotion material an application and liability release form. The application will provide administrative information and, if more than your maximum apply, will be useful as a screening device. Exhibit #3 lists important information required on the application.

EXHIBIT 3

✓ Personal data
  * name
  * local/permanent address & phone
  * student identification number
✓ Passport number
✓ International experience
✓ Business courses completed
✓ Application and supporting material
  * deposit check
  * signed liability release form
  * photo of applicant
  * where to send application
  * one page essay "Why this class will benefit me"

EXHIBIT 3. A good application is required for both administration duties and screening.

To maximize the promotion impact, your travel agents can provide you with commercial brochures and videos. Ultimately, word-of-mouth will carry the program as students from previous trips spread the international word. The promotion duties can be delegated to a teaching assistant or a student desiring independent study. Our studies indicate that the majority of students heard about the program through class announcements.

A key ingredient, and the most often asked question, is "what is the cost?" Price is the most challenging to predict, especially in the fall before airlines have committed to next year's pricing and before the vendor bids have been returned. However, with the help of your travel agent, a tentative price can be predicted early allowing promotional pieces to be disseminated in the beginning of the fall semester. When forecasting price, several associated costs are fixed allowing some price preparation. Additionally, price your package 10% higher than your tentative forecast to allow for volatile market conditions. Besides a rebate of overestimated charges can act as a surprise bonus to both students and parents, and is much easier than having to charge an extra fee immediately before the departing date. The following exhibit represents the basic pricing concerns.

EXHIBIT 4

✓ Fixed Costs:
  * Professor salary
  * Administrative fees i.e. bookkeeping and handling of papers
  * In-state/out-of-state tuition fees
  * Contingency fees
  * Additional costs

✓ Forecasted costs:
  * Ground expenses i.e. Bus transportation, hotel rooms, meals, tips
  * R/T air

EXHIBIT 4. Pricing issues and concerns.
In respect to the price, many schools offer continuing education classes. To minimize your cost to the students for academic credits, you may wish to register the class through continuing education. The class can be listed in the official catalog but usually at a savings to both in-state and out-of-state students. Obviously, price is a sensitive issue, however, the difference between a $3700 trip and a $4000 dollar trip is relatively insignificant when students and parents make the final purchase decision, especially if a payment schedule is set up over a number of months. However, be sure to collect an initial deposit. This gives you operating capital plus commits the student/parents to the program.

Providing students with a minimum price can be gained by developing and evaluating several alternative trip schedules. The International Comparative Management Study Abroad program offers both breakfasts and dinners. To provide yet lower prices, another university's International Seminar provides less travel days, fewer meals, and hostels rather than hotels. The point is to be flexible and creative.

Grading and Evaluation

Grading and evaluation issues are not only concerns of the curriculum committees, but also concerns of the students. We suggest that two written papers be submitted by the undergraduate students two weeks after the conclusion of the class. The first paper the student shares his/her cultural experiences and observations. The second paper has the students compare American management styles with those of European management. An additional paper with more focus is submitted by graduate students; however, the third paper is collected at a later, predetermined date. Participation, conduct, and discussion by each student during the trip are also noted by the professor and used to further evaluate the students.

"This class offers an experience which cannot be taught from a text...It's clearly, without a doubt, the best course on campus!"

Finally, we wish to submit recommendations and cautions. Recommendations
1. Require some level of prior business course work/experience by the student to be eligible.
2. Achieve your minimum student number at least four months before departure.
3. Some countries and participating businesses require visas or passport numbers prior to the visit. So maintain accurate records. (Lotus 1-2-3/Excel spreadsheet)
4. Develop your own textbook featuring current and relative articles. i.e. include articles about the individual businesses and countries - foreign phrases and customs.
5. Create a solid bookkeeping program. (We pay an individual to handle these duties.)
6. Both the students and professor represent the United States and should exhibit the highest, professional standards.
7. Both casual and professional attire should be packed.
8. Work closely with financial aid officials. (Often a minimum of six credit hours is needed for students to qualify for financial aid during summer sessions.)

Cautions
1. Many university insurance programs are voided when travelling abroad. One may want to purchase additional insurance (often available through tour operator).
2. Since many students may be under 21, the legal drinking age is considerably lower or nonexistent in Europe. Prepare the students to be responsible individuals.
3. Do business with reputable travel agents both domestically and internationally.

REFERENCES


AN EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN ON THE
SERVICES CHARACTERISTIC-CONSUMER BEHAVIOR RELATIONSHIP

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ABSTRACT

While the services literature widely contends that the unique characteristics of services cause consumers to behave differently in their service purchase than their purchase of goods, little empirical substantiation of this contention is found. This study explores the use of a single service class, in an experimental design, to examine the relationship between two service characteristics and several aspects of consumer behavior. Support for the contention is found for one of the characteristics, with partial support for the other. Recommendations are made for extensions of this research approach.

INTRODUCTION

Whether measured by proportion of the GNP or size of the work force, services now constitute over two-thirds of the American economy. This economic importance is reflected in the marketing, consumer behavior, and management literature: Fisk, Tansuhjaj and Crosby (1987) list 3500 works on this topic, the majority of which were written since 1981.

If services were simply intangible goods, then despite their economic importance little unique theory would be applicable. The substantial attention now being paid to services is largely based on the contention that consumers differ in their purchase behavior for services, as compared to goods, because of their reaction to unique services characteristics (e.g., Zeithaml 1981). While a majority of the literature supports this "important differences" concept, a minority does not, contending that any differences which do exist are of degree rather than kind (e.g., Enis and Roering 1981). As Bateson (1985) observes:

The debate over the differences between goods and services has been going on now for many years. There is no simple answer to the question... Whether the differences are of degree or kind may never be resolved. (p. 60)

Unfortunately for the differences contention, the majority of the services literature is conceptual; the lack of empirical verification of the many hypotheses which exist is an acknowledged problem in this literature (e.g., Dubinsky and Levy 1981). The few empirical studies which do exist tend to be correlational (e.g., Orsini 1982) or, if experimental, use different product classes to represent different levels of the characteristics of study (e.g., Davis, et al., 1979), thus confounding the characteristic of concern with other characteristics possessed by the product (e.g., Perdue and Summers 1986).

The purpose of this study is twofold: to test the contention that "unique" characteristics of services effect consumer behavior, and to explore the utilization of a concept test-based experimental design which manipulates service characteristic levels for a single service class. A questionnaire, asking stated intentions, is used to test subject response to consumer behavior activities related to purchase willingness and information seeking.

The following section briefly reviews the literature on the two service characteristics tested, participation and variability, and the literature on the responses evaluated: service purchase willingness, provider loyalty, information search effort, and professional and word of mouth information helpfulness. The subsequent section details the methodology, followed by a findings section. Finally a conclusions section discusses the implications of the results and suggestions for further research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The following discussions focus on the particular perceived characteristics of services and types of consumer behavior investigated in this study. The two service characteristics studied, consumer participation in the service production and service variability, were selected based on their importance in the literature and their appearance as being fundamental to services. The types of consumer behavior selected were based on their consideration in the literature, and their applicability to the service characteristics being investigated.
Service Characteristics

The most important unique service characteristic is acknowledged to be intangibility (e.g., Batson 1979). However, insofar as intangibility is "the lack of a corporeal existence", then levels of intangibility seem conceptually infeasible; i.e., an item either has corporeal existence or it doesn’t. While a consumer purchase may be composed of both goods and services (e.g., a meal in a restaurant), the service component of the purchase is still an intangible act rather than a tangible manufactured item (Shostack 1977). Given this situation, two other important service characteristics were investigated: participation by the consumer in the service production, and service variability (heterogeneity).

Consumer participation in the production of the service offering has been contended to be a fundamental characteristic for some time (e.g., Cooke 1970, Elgiver and Langeard 1979). The consumer does not usually participate in the production of goods. Even the purchase of "do-it-yourself" goods, such as unfinished furniture, does not involve the customer in the production of the item purchased. The basic cause of the service participation characteristic is the hypothesized perishability of services, which typically require simultaneous production and consumption (e.g., Zelthaml 1981).

Variability (also labeled heterogeneity), defined as the inability of a particular service provider to produce consistent performance and quality, is a characteristic long held to be fundamental to services (e.g., Rathmell 1966). The basic cause is inconsistent human performance, exacerbated when there is interaction between individuals. The combination of labor intensiveness of services, the participation of the consumer in the production process, and service complexity, yields the conceptualized inconsistency of outcome (e.g., Leighty and Churchill 1979, Zelthaml 1981).

Purchase-Related Variables

A major item of interest in consumer behavior is the willingness of consumers to try a new brand. Trial likelihood will be increased as a function of the new brand’s relative advantage, compatibility with consumer needs, attitudes, and experiences, observability, simplicity, and ability to be experienced on a trial or sample basis (Rogers and Shoemaker 1971). A brand’s (or product form’s) relative advantage would be a function of existing levels of dissatisfaction with the current service, as well as the ability of the consumer to perceive the relative advantages of the new brand. Studies have been inconsistent in their finding of consumer demographic characteristics related to this willingness (Summers 1971).

A related item of interest is brand loyalty, defined as "fidelity or tenacious adherence to a brand on the part of buyers" (Elrod 1987). While typically measured as repeat purchase behavior (e.g., Jacoby and Kyner 1973), the literature suggests that loyalists consciously resist other brands’ influence attempts, selectively perceive information which is consistent with their existing preferences, and assimilate their pre-trial expectations into their post-trial evaluations (e.g., Crosby and Taylor 1983). Rothschild (1986) contends that attempts to reduce loyalty by offering a high level of sales promotions, price discounts, coupons, and other incentives have led to a declining level of loyalty in many product classes, particularly where there are few brand differences.

Information-Related Variables

Willingness to expend effort on searching for information to make a brand choice decision has been an item of interest in consumer behavior for some time. In his review of the literature, however, Newman (1977) concluded that many of the early findings were dubious, largely for methodological reasons. Some of the more recent findings have indicated that product class price, perceived differences among available alternatives, and the ability to judge product attributes are all related to willingness to search for product information, while the influence of demographic characteristics resulted in mixed findings (e.g., Duncan and Olshavsky 1982, Jacoby, Chestnut and Fisher 1978).

Many of these findings support the contention that prior knowledge is an important variable, and one exhibiting a more complex relationship with search effort (e.g., Brucks 1985). Consumers with little prior product class knowledge find processing information difficult, and are thereby discouraged from doing so. Consumers with a moderate amount of knowledge are able to process information more efficiently, and are therefore encouraged to do so, while those with a high level of knowledge see little need to obtain more, therefore perform little search. The result is an inverted U-shape to the relationship between search effort and prior product class knowledge.
The helpfulness of word of mouth (WOM) information to consumer purchase decisions received a substantial amount of study in the 1960’s and early 1970’s. The almost universal finding has been that WOM sources are decisive in the decision process of purchasers (e.g., Robertson 1971). WOM is helpful because of the knowledge and experience of the information provider, as well as the concern of the provider with the welfare of the consumer (e.g., Dichter 1966, Wiener and Mowen 1986). Conditions for greater WOM helpfulness include product newness and visibility, and consumer inability to judge product attributes (Robertson 1971). With respect to consumer attributes, most of the literature has focused on psychological behavior (e.g., Reynolds and Darden 1971), with little indication that demographic characteristics are significant (Arndt 1967).

The use of expert opinion in the purchase of some product classes is widely employed by consumers. Beales, et al. (1981) state that information experts are frequently available for high priced, complex, and infrequently purchased products. For example, homebuyers may use a variety of information brokers, such as architects, house inspectors, and attorneys. Third-party consultants (those not directly participating in the exchange) are most often used for product quality information, general advantages and disadvantages of purchase, or how a particular consumer goal is best attained.

The primary attraction of using the advice of experts in purchase decisions, in addition to their expertise, is their perceived trustworthiness (e.g., Beales, et al., 1981, Wiener and Mowen 1986). Insofar as they are typically paid by the buyer, and their business credibility is based on their trustworthiness, they are perceived to have little incentive to distort the facts or steer the consumer to a particular brand or product (Beales, et al., 1981).

**HYPOTHESES**

The research cited above indicates that the two characteristics of services, participation and variability, ought to work in similar directions on several consumer variables: willingness to try a new service class and a different brand of that service class, information search effort, and expert and WOM information usage. Because higher participation is more personally involving, it ought to decrease service brand trial willingness, and increase information search and the helpfulness of expert and WOM information sources.

Similarly, high levels of service variability mean that there will be a high level of uncertainty regarding the effectiveness of the use of the service. It will thereby decrease the willingness to try a new product form or new product provider. Similarly, variability should result in decreasing the helpfulness of additional sources of general information and WOM non-expert) sources, and decrease the helpfulness of expert sources. These hypotheses are summarized in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Participation</th>
<th>Variability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Likelihood - Usual Provider</td>
<td>Decrease(a)</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Likelihood - New Provider</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Search Efforts</td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpfulness of WOM Information Sources</td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpfulness of Expert Information Sources</td>
<td>Increase</td>
<td>Decrease</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) To be read as: increasing participation leads to decreasing purchase likelihood.

**METHODOLOGY**

Research Design

The purpose of this research is to address the problem of the lack of establishment of a causal relationship between services characteristics and consumer behavior. In order to accomplish this, development of a single service 2 x 2 experimental design was undertaken to test the relationship between two widely acknowledged fundamental characteristics of services and several aspects of consumer behavior of interest to researchers.

The purpose of the design was to create a desirable product which would be unfamiliar to consumers, so as to avoid the effects of prior knowledge and experience. The participation and variability characteristics of the product would then be experimentally manipulated into high and low levels, and consumer responses in these four treatment conditions compared to see their effects on statements of anticipated behavior.
A concept testing approach (e.g., Moore 1982, Shocker and Srinivasan 1979) was used to create the treatment conditions. A particular innovative service, a dentist-administered cavity prevention treatment process, was described in a fictitious dental journal article. Four different article versions were written to include the four variations of the two service characteristic variables: high/low participation, and high/low variability.

A new dental procedure setting was employed for several reasons. First, dental services are almost universally used by the age of adulthood, thereby insuring familiarity with the setting and need for the general product class on the part of respondents. Second, recent innovations in the dental industry offered examples of plausible new services (e.g., Engelman 1982, Litke 1988), but assured that all respondents would have no experience with the particular service form examined. Thus, a credible cover story was developed; in fact, debriefing sessions indicated disappointment on the part of many respondents when they found that the described cavity prevention process was fictitious.

Subjects

The subjects were 114 MBA students at a large urban campus of a Western university, who participated on a voluntary basis. They were told that their help was needed in a study being done for the California Dental Association by the School of Business Administration. After random assignment to the treatment condition, they read the article, completed the survey, and were then debriefed on the purpose of the study.

MBA students are widely used in experimental designs (e.g., Park and Smith 1989). In addition to the accessibility advantages of any student group, they possess the maturity and purchase experience of adults. Further, their generally consistent socioeconomic status reduces variability from that source, thus allowing greater testing significance to be observed.

Questionnaire

The first page of the questionnaire contained what was purported to be a reprint from a journal, the American Dentist, describing a new cavity prevention procedure; in actuality, both the article and the journal were fictitious. As conceptualized in the article, a chemical process had been developed which would harden the tooth so as to prevent new cavities. Immediately after reading the article, the students filled out a questionnaire, which asked their anticipated responses pertaining to the cavity prevention procedure, as well as demographic and other relevant information.

Anticipated responses to the product were measured on six point semantic differential scales, for both hypothesized variables and manipulation checks. In order to include covariates in the analysis, i.e., non-treatment variables potentially effecting purchase and information decisions, additional questions were asked. The respondent's age, gender, frequency of treatment for cavities, availability of dental insurance, and attitudes toward their dentist were included. Several versions of the cover story and treatments were pretested in an attempt to be concise while achieving the desired manipulations.

RESULTS

Manipulation Checks

Scale measures of the subjects' perceived level of participation and variability were used as the dependent variable in ANOVA manipulation checks of the four treatment variables. For participation, the effects of the participation treatment were significant (p = .000), while the effects of variability and the interaction of participation and variability were not significant. The variability manipulation check produced similar results: significance of variability (p = .002), and insignificance of participation and their interaction.

Hypotheses Tests

The results of the ANCOVA hypotheses tests are indicated in Table 2, where three of the ten hypotheses yielded significant findings. The significant results are indicated graphically in Figure 1. It will be observed that variability did tend to generally reduce all purchase factors: alternative provider purchase likelihood, desire for more information, and the helpfulness of WOM information. Also, while there are only the main effects of variability for the information variables, there is a participation-variability interaction effecting alternative provider purchase willingness.

Not indicated in Table 2 are the significance of several covariates in the analysis. The availability of dental insurance to the respondent was significant in the analysis of both the likelihood of using another dentist for treatment (p = .023) and helpfulness of WOM information (p = .011). Size of the respondent's household and the 'bedside manner' of the respon-
dent’s dentist were significant (p = .052 and .002, respectively) in the desire for more information prior to purchase.

**TABLE 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses Results</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Likelihood - Usual Provider</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Likelihood - New Provider</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Search Effort</td>
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<tr>
<td>Helpfulness of WOM Information Sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helpfulness of Expert Information Sources</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS**

The purpose of this study was to examine the causal relationship between service characteristics and consumer behavior, as well as the feasibility of using a true experimental design for this investigation. The findings supported both purposes by indicating service variability was significant in effecting three of the five behaviors studied, while service participation had a significant interactive effect on one behavior, with no significant main effects. This study thus lends support to both the basic hypothesis in that "unique" service characteristics do affect behavior, and it is feasible to use the concept testing method in experimental design to investigate the effects of service characteristics.

The "differences" hypothesis actually received stronger support than indicated from the ANCOVA results. Further analysis, using the manipulation checks as the independent variables (rather than the treatments themselves) with the dependent variables, revealed some relevant results. In correlating willingness to undertake the dental treatment, for example, significance was found for both participation (p = .027) and variability (p = .000). Similar findings were uncovered for the helpfulness of expert information sources (p = .042 and .012, respectively). These differences in results, between the experimental treatment variables (which were not significant) and their perceptual measures, appears to indicate the need for more extensive pretesting of all measures and treatments.

In summary, this study indicates a moderate level of empirical support for the "services are different" contention in the services literature, and indicates the viability of using of a concept test approach of experimental design in service characteristic investigation. Understandably, the concept test approach does appear to be strongly sensitive to specific wording, and a substantial amount of pretesting may be required prior to instituting a full study.

**REFERENCES**


EFFECTS OF WIFE'S EMPLOYMENT ON PURCHASES OF DURABLES: A TEACHING NOTE

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ABSTRACT

While most Principles of Marketing texts label the increased participation of married women in the labor force during the 1980s as one of the most significant changes affecting household purchasing behavior, Consumer Behavior texts often a) devote less attention than expected on this topic and b) reveal conflicting views regarding the effects of such employment. The coverage of the effects of wife's employment on purchases of durables in Consumer Behavior texts is contrasted to research findings based on a national sample of 11,832 married women. Our research findings point to the need of continuously updating marketing texts and the utility of syndicated data bases in providing guidance to students and marketing practitioners in areas not covered by marketing texts.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most dramatic changes in women's roles in the past twenty years has been the greater participation of married women in the labor force. According to the U.S. Bureau of the Census, the labor force participation rate for wives with husbands present in the household, has gone from 44.5% in 1975 to 50.2% in 1980, 54.3% in 1985, and 56.7% in 1988. The labor force participation rate is even higher for women under age 45, especially for those ages 35-44 (72.7% in labor force), than for women ages 45 to 64 (52.7% in labor force, U.S. Bureau of Census, 1990).

Most Principles of Marketing texts point to the importance of the increased participation of married women in the workplace for marketers. McCarthy and Perreault state "when a wife works outside the home, it affects the family's spending habits. This fact must be considered when analyzing markets and planning marketing strategies" (1987:166). McDaniel and Darden report "a third major social phenomenon that has had a profound effect on marketing is the changing role of families. The most important aspect from a marketing perspective is the huge growth in the number of working women" (1987:35). Similar coverage is found in Bennett (1988), Evans and Berman (1990), Schoell and Guiltinan (1990), and Stanton, Etzel and Walker (1991).

An examination, however, of the coverage given to the effects of wife's employment on family purchases in Consumer Behavior texts reveals little uniformity. Hawkins, Best and Coney (1992), Mowen (1990), Schiffman and Kanuk (1991), and Wilkie (1990) provide fairly limited coverage to the topic and focus primarily on the greater need for convenience related products. Assael (1987) gives very extensive coverage to the effects of wife's employment and focuses on time-saving products, the need for differences in positioning, working women's reduced time for shopping, and the media strategies needed to reach working women. Very extensive coverage is also provided by Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1990). These authors cite several studies and caution readers not to oversimplify the effects of wife's employment on family purchases. The greatest level of caution in determining the effects of wife's employment on purchases is advocated by Peter and Olson who state that "Although it has been speculated that one result of women's employment would be an increase in the number of convenience foods and time-saving durables, such as microwave ovens, the majority of studies that investigated this idea have found no support for it" (1990:390).

SURVEY OF LITERATURE

Why do we find these differences in the conclusions drawn in Consumer Behavior texts? A survey of the literature regarding the effects of wife's employment on purchases of durables (one of the major categories of purchases discussed in these texts) reveals some contradictory findings. Some of the early studies conducted on this subject hypothesized that income from married women's employment is viewed as a supplement to the family's regular income and is used to a large extent to purchase durables needed by the household (Mincer 1962; Agarwala and Drinkwater 1972). Later research (Reilly 1982; Strober and Weinberg 1977, 1980; Weinberg and Winer 1983), however, indicates that families where the wife works outside the home are not different from families with similar incomes where the wife does not work outside the
home in terms of the purchases of durables such as dishwashers, dryers, refrigerators, stoves and washers. Thus, wife’s employment outside the home only has an effect on major appliance purchases in that the employment contributes additional income to the family. Weinberg and Winer (1983) also note that there are some categories of durables, such as furniture, where wife’s employment appears to have a significant effect even after controlling for income.

When Bryant (1988) analyzed data from the Michigan Survey Research Center’s 1977-78 Survey of Consumer Credit, he found that when controlling for income, wife’s employment outside the home resulted in fewer expenditures for durables in total. Bryant accounts for this finding by noting that household durables and the time the wife spends inside the home are complements not substitutes. Thus, the less time a married woman spends doing housework, the lower her need for newer or more household durables.

In summary, most of the studies examining the effect of wife’s employment outside the home found that such employment has a significant impact on the purchase of durables only because of the additional income added to the household. If one controls for the effects of this added income, research studies on the effect of wife’s employment on purchases of durables do not always point in the same direction.

Thus, the contradictory conclusions drawn in Consumer Behavior texts are due to the research findings in this area. Our goal in conducting this research, however, is not just to point out to the contradictions in these texts, but to see if we can find an explanation that could account for these findings. Since we had a syndicated data base at our disposal that contained detailed information on women’s employment status and household purchases of durables, we wondered if an analysis of the data would reveal a significant interaction between the effects of wife’s employment and other demographic variables. Wife’s employment status may have a significant effect on purchases of durables only under certain conditions. We believe that it is worthwhile to examine the conditions under which wife’s employment has a significant effect on purchases of other durables such as major appliances, furniture and floor coverings.

Also, while a large number of studies have been conducted to determine the effect of wife’s employment on purchases of time-saving durables or major appliances, and on total spending for durables, there have been no research studies that have focused on purchases of consumer electronics, such as televisions, VCRs, stereos, PCs, etc. Such durables are not linked to housekeeping or time-saving, thus they are not meant to reduce the working-wife’s role overload. Instead, consumer electronics are used to enhance the quality of one’s leisure.

RESEARCH METHOD

In this study we will analyze the relationship between wife’s work status, household income and the presence of dependent children on purchases of several categories of consumer durables such as major appliances, furniture, floorcoverings, home electronics, audio equipment, television sets, VCRs, and PCs. The durables included in our study were dictated by information available in the data base provided for us by Leigh Stowell and Company. Although they do not exhaust all the categories of durables purchased by consumers, they represent an adequate number for the purposes of this study. Our analysis controls for the effects of wife’s age and education because these variables are associated with wife’s employment status and have been shown to have a significant effect on family purchases in previous studies.

The data for this study are drawn from a database of 68,900 interviews collected by Leigh Stowell & Co. in 1989. The telephone interviews were collected in sixty metropolitan areas in the United States, representing all geographic regions with the exception of Alaska and Hawaii. The sample in each metropolitan area was drawn using randomly generated numbers so that both unlisted telephone numbers and new listings would also be contacted.

For each market, we selected married women respondents whose spouses worked. This procedure resulted in a nationally based sample of 11,832 married women on which to perform our analyses. It should be noted, however, that all respondents were not asked every question in the questionnaire. As a result, the number included in the analyses of covariance ranged from a sample of 1615 respondents who had purchased home electronics during the previous twelve months to a sample of 5874 respondents who had purchased a major appliance in the same time period.

FINDINGS

The data were analyzed using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Wife’s employment status, the presence of dependent children, and household income were entered as factors. To control for the effects of age and education, these variables were used as covariates in the analysis.
Significant interactions between the variables were plotted in order to understand the relationships between the variables involved.

**Wife’s Employment and Purchases of Major Appliances**

In order to examine the effect of wife’s employment status on major appliance purchases, we used purchases made during the past year as our dependent variable. As expected, wife’s participation in the labor force has no significant effect on major appliance purchases independent of household income (see Table 1). Household income, on the other hand, has a significant effect on major appliance purchases. A significant interaction, however, was observed between household income and wife’s employment. This interaction is illustrated in Figure 1. The differences in the proportion of households who bought a major appliance during the past year is more pronounced in those households earning between $25,000 and $40,000 a year. Households with non-working wives have the lowest rate of major appliance purchases at that income level. The employment status of the wife appears to make little difference at all other income levels.

**Wife’s Employment and Purchases of Furniture**

In contrast to the findings of Weinberg and Winer (1983), wife’s employment does not have a significant effect on the proportion of households purchasing furniture (see Table 1). This difference may be due to the fact that in our analysis we used the proportion of households purchasing furniture during the previous year rather than total household spending on furnishings. Household income and wife’s age, however, are statistically significant. There is also a statistically significant interaction term between household income and the presence of dependent children.

**Wife’s Employment and Purchases of Floorcoverings**

We were particularly interested in the category of floorcoverings because these are often purchases dictated by a desire to achieve a certain decor in a house rather than the need to replace a carpet or to purchase a carpet for a brand new home. The ANCOVA results indicate that wife’s employment, her education, and household income all have a significant effect on floorcovering purchases (see Table 1). There is also a statistically significant interaction between wife’s employment and household income (see Figure 2). Middle income ($25,000-$40,000) and high income households (over $75,000) with a non-working wife are the most likely to have purchased floorcoverings during the previous year. The effect is most pronounced among affluent households where 46% of the households with homemakers purchased floorcoverings compared to 26% of the households where the wife works full-time.

**Wife’s Employment and Consumer Electronics Purchases**

Five categories of consumer electronics were available in our data set (audio equipment, TV, VCR, PC, and a general category of consumer electronics). Households where the wife worked either full-time or part-time were significantly more likely to have made purchases of audio equipment, TVs, PCs, and consumer electronics during the previous twelve months (see Table 1). The proportion of households who had purchased each type of consumer electronics is illustrated in Figure 3. The differences in the proportion of households purchasing some of these products is not only statistically significant, but also substantial even within same income categories. For example, over 40% of the households with incomes under $40,000 and with wives working full-time had purchased consumer electronics; while only 30% of the households with homemakers in the same income category had made such purchases.

With regard to PC purchases, the effects of wife’s employment, her education, and an interaction between wife’s employment and household income are significant (see Table 1). Figure 4 depicts the interaction between wife’s employment and income. Interestingly, wife’s full-time employment status appears to result in higher purchases of PCs only for families earning over $75,000. Overall, wife’s employment appears to have a significant effect on purchases of most types of consumer electronics. The only category of consumer electronics not affected by wife’s employment are purchases of VCRs.

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

On the one hand, the results of our research support earlier findings with regard to purchases of furniture and major household appliances (labelled time-saving durables by some researchers). For those types of durables, it appears that wife’s employment is only important in that it contributes to household income. Unfortunately, this information is not adequately conveyed in many Consumer Behavior texts.

We also found, however, that wife’s employment status is a significant predictor of purchases of floorcoverings. With regard to consumer electronics, again our findings point to the importance of wife’s employment status in predicting household purchases. Even after controlling for the effects
of household income, presence of dependent children, wife's age and education, we found that households with working wives tend to make more purchases of television sets, audio equipment, general consumer electronics, and PCs. This study also documents the presence of significant interaction effects between wife's employment and other demographic variables. These interaction effects indicate that the effect of wife's employment on family purchases is more complex than had been previously thought and that it needs to be further elaborated. Most frequently wife's employment interacts with household income. Consumer Behavior texts, however, do not include this type of information.

Obviously, the products examined in this study represent a small proportion of the types of durables purchased by households. Additional research is needed to identify other products for which the wife's employment status is an important predictor. More importantly, our findings point to the need of continuously updating the information available in marketing texts. As change is the rule rather than the exception in the marketing environment, marketing educators may need to consider integrating information about syndicated data bases in classroom teaching. Marketing students need to be introduced to all the tools available in order to obtain the most updated information possible with regard to consumer purchases.

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Effects of</th>
<th>Covariates</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factors</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wife's Employ.</td>
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<td>Dependent Children</td>
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<td>Household Income</td>
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<td>Interaction</td>
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<td>Educ.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Furniture</td>
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<tr>
<td>Major Appliances</td>
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<td>b</td>
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<tr>
<td>Floor coverings</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>b</td>
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<tr>
<td>Electronics</td>
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<td>Audio Equipment</td>
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<td>Television Set</td>
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<tr>
<td>VCR</td>
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<tr>
<td>PC</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>b</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Levels of significance for factors:
- * F probability < .05
- ** F probability < .01
- *** F probability < .001

Levels of significance for covariates:
- * t probability < .05
- ** t probability < .01
- *** t probability < .001

Interaction effect significant at least at .05

a: presence of dependent children with household income
b: wife's employment with household income
REFERENCES


CAN MAIL SURVEY RECIPIENTS BE TEASED INTO RESPONDING?

ABSTRACT

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Doris Elganayan (Alumna), California State University at Northridge, Department of Marketing, School of Business Administration and Economics, Northridge, CA 91330, (818) 885-2458.

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INTRODUCTION

The outer envelope of a mail survey is the first item noticed by a mail survey recipient. If the messages conveyed by the outer envelope do not arouse the interest of the recipient, the mailing may be discarded unopened.

Research on the outer envelope of a mail survey has focused primarily on form of postage, addressing procedures, the sponsor listed in the return address, and envelope size. No attention, however, has been given to the use of a teaser on the outer envelope of a mail survey.

A teaser is typically a short question printed on the outer envelope that is designed to lure the recipient into examining the contents of the envelope. While direct marketers claim that a well-designed envelope teaser can significantly increase the response to a promotional mailing, it is not clear how an envelope teaser would affect the response to a mail survey. It, on the one hand, could stimulate survey response by arousing the curiosity of potential respondents. On the other hand, it could dampen survey response by causing the survey envelope to look too much like direct mail.

The purpose of the present study is to examine how an envelope teaser affects the response to a mail survey.

RESEARCH METHOD

Subjects

Some U.S. homeowners who paid a one-time mortgage insurance premium to the Federal Housing Administration (FHA) were eligible for a refund of the unused portion of the prepaid premium. A list of all California residents who were entitled to a refund (N = 13,000) was obtained from the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). A systematic random sampling procedure was used to select 200 people from this list for a mail survey.

Experimental procedures

Persons selected for the study were randomly assigned to either a control group or treatment group. Both groups were mailed a questionnaire, cover letter, and return envelope in a plain white outer envelope that used a first class postage stamp, had the return home address of one of the authors, and had the addressee’s name and address typed directly on the envelope. Only the treatment group had the following teaser hand stamped in black ink on the outer envelope: DID YOU KNOW YOU ARE ENTITLED TO MORE MONEY?

RESULTS

The envelope teaser increased the response rate almost three-fold (from 8% to 21%), and it dramatically increased the speed of response: 47% of the treatment group responded within the first week of the survey while none of the control group responded within that period. While the two groups did not exhibit any significant difference on the item omission rate, they did differ when sample bias was examined. Median tests revealed that those responding to the envelope teaser were younger (p < .03) and had less income (p < .08) than those responding to the control appeal.
ENVIRONMENTAL CONCERNS AND MARKET PLANNING

Sharyne Merritt, California State Polytechnic University
Pomona, California, 91768, (714) 869-2442

ABSTRACT

This study describes marketing managers’ attitudes toward environmental issues and the place of environmental issues in their marketing strategies. The data come from a survey of marketing managers conducted in Spring, 1991. The results indicate that marketing managers view environmental issues as an important concern and that marketing departments have integrated environmental issues into their strategies. These perceptions and actions seem to be in part a response to public concern about the environment.

INTRODUCTION

Green marketing has received considerable attention in the popular business press (see for example [Bertrand and Lawler 1990] [Bird 1990] [Borroughs and Carpenter 1991] [Brenner 1989] [Chase 1991] [Dignoli 1990] [Eisenhart 1990] [Fierman 1991] [Kirkpatrick 1990] [Quint 1990] [Schiller 1990] [Schwartz et al 1990] [Smith et al. 1990] [Tucker 1991] [Winters 1990]). Yet these reports are anecdotal and qualitative, focusing on the experiences of individual companies or offering impressions from particular industries. No documentation has been offered of the extent to which marketing professionals are concerned with environmental issues or the degree to which environmental policies are being integrated into marketing strategies.

The purpose of this study is to provide such descriptive data by empirically examining marketing managers’ attitudes toward environmental issues and the place of environmental issues in their marketing strategy.

METHODOLOGY

Data

The data for this study come from a self-administered questionnaire mailed to a sample of marketing professionals. A systematic random sample was drawn of members of the American Marketing Association who identified “Marketing Management/Sales Management” as one of their three main areas of interest or who, in the absence of self-identified areas of interest, were by title in marketing management or sales management. The 1988 Association Directory was used as the sampling frame (the most current directory available in Spring 1991). The questionnaire including a stamped self-addressed envelope was mailed in April, 1991. No follow up mailings were conducted. A total of 1445 deliverable questionnaires were sent out and 496 usable responses were received; a response rate of 34%. This response rate is somewhat higher than those achieved by other samples drawn from this sampling frame [Akaah and Riordan 1989] [Chonko and Hunt 1985] [Hunt, Wood, and Chonko 1989].

Measures

Attitudes toward environmental issues were measured by a 9 item adjective checklist (see Table 1) and 6 likert scale items designed to identify personal views of the role of environmental concerns in marketing strategy (see Table 2). Each of these items was drawn from the popular business literature.

The integration of marketing issues into marketing strategy was measured by three items. First, respondents were asked what percent of their personal work time, if any, was spent working on environmental issues (see Table 3). Next, respondents were asked to check which, if any, of 10 environmental considerations were
among the goals of their marketing strategy (see Table 4). Finally respondents were asked to what extent their departments’ inclusion of environmental considerations was based on 6 factors (see Table 5). Again, these were drawn from the popular business literature.

**FINDINGS**

Table 1 presents the percent of respondents who checked each of 9 words or phrases as being apt descriptions of their personal views of the role of environmental concerns in marketing strategy.

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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Public concern about the</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>environment is affecting</td>
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<td>my industry</td>
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<td>Claims about threats to</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>24</td>
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<td>the environment have been</td>
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<td>exaggerated</td>
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<td>Environmental considera-</td>
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<td>tions should be part of</td>
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<td>every marketing decision</td>
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<td>Buyers of my product/</td>
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<td>39</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>service would</td>
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<td>be willing to pay more for</td>
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<td>environmentally sound</td>
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<td>goods/services</td>
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<td>be resistant to pur-</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>23</td>
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<tr>
<td>chasing goods with</td>
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<tr>
<td>recycled materials</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>not trust environmental</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>claims of products/services</td>
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Respondents view environmental concerns as affecting their industry, as not exaggerated, and
as relevant to every marketing decision. Respondents report being neutral in their
perception of buyers’ likelihood to pay more for environmentally sound goods/services, but do not
feel that buyers would be resistant to purchasing goods with recycled materials or that buyers
would mistrust environmental claims.

Table 2 presents respondents’ views of the current status of environmental issues in their industry.

Marketing professionals surveyed spend on the average about one eighth of their time on
environmental issues, the largest portion of which goes to identifying ways to reduce waste.
Table 3
Percent of Personal Work Time Spent on Environmental Issues (Means)
(n = 496)
Identifying ways to lessen use, including limiting use of raw materials, recycling, and energy conservation 2.8%
Working on new, "environmentally friendly" ingredients/procedures 2.6%
Identifying ways to reduce waste 4.3%
Other environmental considerations 2.9%
Total 12.6%

Table 4 presents the percent of respondents who noted each of 10 environmental considerations were among the goals of their marketing strategy.

Table 4
Environmental Considerations Among Goals of Current Marketing Strategy (percent checking "yes")
(n = 496)
Reduce packaging 26%
Introduce new "environmentally safe" product/service 26%
Use recycled materials in packaging 42%
Reduce waste/emissions 42%
Use recycled materials in products/services (including paper) 57%
Consult or donate to environmental groups 31%
Research buyer attitudes toward environmental issues 29%
Conduct buyer education programs 13%
Conserve energy 53%
Evaluate environmental impact of product/service from manufacturing thru disposal 25%

The most frequently cited ways in which environmental concerns are actually integrated into marketing strategy are (1) using recycled materials in products/services, (2) conserving energy, (3) using recycled materials in packaging, and (4) reducing waste/emissions.

Table 5 presents the respondents' perceptions of the factors motivating their departments' inclusion of environmental considerations in marketing plans.

Table 5
Reasons for Including Environmental Considerations in Marketing Plans
(n = 435*)
(in percentages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Great Deal</th>
<th>Not at All</th>
<th>Not Part of Plans</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reduce costs</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19 10 15 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protect/preserve the environment</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>17 8 5 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gain competitive advantage over competition</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16 9 13 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build positive image</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>10 2 4 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepare for/avoid future regulation</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14 10 14 20</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* missing data = 61 cases

The most frequently cited reason for including environmental considerations in marketing plans is to build a positive image. The second most frequently cited reason is to preserve/protection the environment.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Overall, the marketing managers in this study perceive environmental concerns to be an important issue in marketing strategy. They acknowledge environmental marketing to be a growing trend. They also view environmental concerns as a marketing opportunity which is
affecting their industry and toward which their buyers are favorably disposed.

These managers are not merely paying lip service to environmental concerns. While they do not view environmental concerns as a top priority for marketing strategy, they do, on the average, spend over ten percent of their personal time on environmental issues. Over half note that using recycled materials in products/services and conserving energy have been integrated into their marketing strategy. The motivation for integrating these and other environmental concerns into marketing strategy is in part good business (building a positive image) and in part altruistic (preserving/protecting the environment).

Marketing managers, then, both take seriously and are actively working on environmental issues. They seem to be responding, at least in part, to public concern about the environment. It is possible that in order to move environmental issues to a top priority, there must be increased demonstrations of public commitment to and support of environmental issues.

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMPARATIVE ADVERTISING
ON THE ADVERTISED BRAND AND ON THE COMPARED BRAND

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ABSTRACT

Previous research on the persuasive impact of comparative advertising has produced inconsistent results. In general, comparative advertising is considered to be an effective method of communicating the benefits of a new brand, while its effect is understood to be a limited one in promoting established brands of convenience goods. It can be expected that comparative advertising claims may influence both the advertised brand and the compared brand. However, little research has examined whether the comparative advertising claims influence the compared brand(s). Experimental results reveal that not only the advertised brand but also the compared brand were influenced by the use of comparative claims. Study findings suggest that the use of comparative advertising may be not only ineffective but also negative in that it may contribute to lending positive attitudes toward the compared brand. It is important to note that the effectiveness of comparative advertising should be measured in relation to the competing brand(s) in the market.

INTRODUCTION

Advertising practitioners have shown increased interest in using comparative advertising [Phillips 1983]. Some estimates indicate 35 to 40 percent of all ads are comparative in some sense [Nielson 1987], and some firms are returning to comparative strategies in the belief that they are more effective than non-comparative approaches [Winters, 1987]. In a recent survey of advertisers conducted by Muehlung, Stein, and Raven (1989) "allowing a small unknown firm to successfully compete with much larger firms" was often mentioned as one of the greater values of comparative advertising.

Yet academic research provides little evidence to encourage such extensive use of comparative advertising. In fact, the effectiveness of comparative advertising has been the subject of heated debates in the literature for nearly two decades [Turgeon and Barnaby 1988]. Some view that comparative advertising is an effective method of communicating benefits of new brands [Droge and Darmon 1987]. Others indicate that comparative and noncomparative ads do not differ in their impact [Ash and Wee 1983]. Still others suggest that comparative advertising is ineffective for an established brand [Roger and Williams 1989].

It seems logical to expect that comparative claims may influence the consumers' attitudes toward the compared brand as well as the advertised brand. However, little research has examined whether and how the comparative claims influence consumers' attitudes toward the compared brand(s). It is believed that if the comparative advertising claims are intended to be used as a way of positioning the brand vis a vis competition, the effectiveness of such efforts should be evaluated in relation to the competition.

This paper reports the results of an exploratory experiment that was conducted to examine the persuasive effectiveness of comparative advertising for a specific convenience product brand on
potential consumers. As an exploratory study, this research is confined to measuring the effectiveness of the experimental products' advertising strategy as it might affect the perception of compared brands and of the experimental brand itself.

Information obtained in this study will aid in understanding the consumers' responses to comparative advertising. Furthermore, it is expected that information on the potential impact of comparative advertising on the compared brand will contribute a valuable input for managerial decisions facing advertising managers.

BACKGROUND STUDY

The majority of research findings available are inconsistent. They indicate that while comparative advertising is generally perceived less favorably than non-comparative advertising [Swinyard 1981], it nevertheless is generally regarded as being more involving and useful in the decision-making process [Earl and Pride 1980] [Goodwin and Etgar 1980].

In general, the literature suggests that the effectiveness of comparative advertising varies depending on product category [Assael 1981] and on the competing brand's market position [Iyer 1988] [Rogers and Williams 1989].

Comparative advertising is expected to have a more limited role for consumer packaged goods compared to shopping goods for the reason that the convenience goods do not usually advertise differences in quality, style, price, or other features between brands [Ogilvy and Mather 1976]. Shopping goods, such as major appliances and automobiles, could find comparative advertising to represent a potentially powerful alternative because it presents consumers with key differences in product attributes [Prasad 1976].

Other studies suggest that the effectiveness of comparative advertising varies depending on the competing brand's market position. Most evidences indicate that comparative advertising is particularly beneficial for new brands; when a comparative format is used there seems to be greater purchase intentions [Iyer 1988], more favorable attitudes toward the new brand [Iyer 1988], and greater perceived similarity between the challenger and market leader brands [Droge and Darnon 1987]. However, for products other than new brands, brand attitude and brand preference suffer from the use of comparative advertising [Rogers and Williams 1989].

The literature therefore seems to find comparative advertising message for an existing convenience product brand to be a limited one. There has been no empirical study investigating the effectiveness of comparative advertising in brand comparison. It is viewed that if comparative advertising is to be used for competitive brand positioning, evaluation of such strategy should also be in relation to other competing brands.

Based on previous literature, a set of hypotheses are developed reflecting the limited role of comparative advertising: There will be no significant difference among the ranks of three competitive brands' scores on evaluation of (H1), attitudes toward (H2), and on intentions to purchase (H3) those brands prior to and after the treatments.

The hypotheses testing and methodology are presented in the following section.

METHODOLOGY

The exploratory research design used is a before and after experiment using a control group. The study sample consisted of two groups of students recruited from two sections of an introductory advertising class. Each group was assigned into either an experimental group or a control group. College students are not representative of average consumers, but the exploratory nature of
the study and the fact that only before and after measurements of the promotional effects are investigated allow more latitude of sample choice, provided that results are not generalized but rather serve as a starting point for future research. As indicated in Table 1, more than 90% of the respondents reported that they used the product. The table also shows that there was not significant difference among the two groups in terms of sex, frequency of shave, experience with disposable razors and the use of different brands of razors. Furthermore, the two experimental groups did not differ as to their use, knowledge and preference for different types of disposable razors. Therefore, it was considered that the two subsamples were comparable and would be adequate to measure, within an exploratory study, the effects of comparative advertising on consumers' attitudes toward a specific product brand.

The product chosen for use in the experiment is a disposable personal care product (i.e., disposable razors). The product category can be characterized as a relatively mature market with a slow market growth dominated by a few established brands. A specific brand of disposable razors was selected among the few most popular brands in the market. Mediamark Research Incorporated's studies (1989) estimated that the testing brand holds the second largest share of volume with approximately 10% difference from that of the market leader in the disposable razor market.

In the study, the control group received no treatment. The experimental group was exposed to a comparative television commercial in which direct comparison was made in relation to the leading competitor's brand. In the commercial, two brands were compared through blind testing of quality of shave in a barber shop setting. It advocates that the quality of the advertised brand is as good as that of the compared brand, while offering a much lower price. A total period of two weeks was used to conduct the experiment. Shortly after the before measurement was taken, the experimental treatment was conducted. One week after the first treatment, another experimental treatment was conducted. A week later, the after measurement was taken following the third treatment.

The data were collected using self-reporting questionnaires. The questionnaire was designed to measure the overall evaluation of competing brands, global attitude toward brands and the subjects' intentions to buy. Likert-type scales, using adjective ratings, were selected as the instruments for attitude measurement. The bipolar adjective ratings were chosen because such scales have been widely used in attitude studies and are resistant to influences caused by the method of administration [Hawkins, Albaum and Gerald 1974]. A five-point scale was selected to avoid the habitual random responses [Peabody
Therefore, the data generated from the questionnaire are measured on five-point intervals, ranging from the lowest 1 to the highest 5. In the study, the subjects were asked to compare three brands on a scale; the testing brand's scores are considered to be meaningful in relationship to those of other brands. A portion of the study instrument is presented in Appendix I.

The effectiveness of comparative advertising on attitude change was judged by the pre-post comparison of consumers' preferences of three competing brands regarding their evaluation of, attitudes toward, and intentions to purchase three brands. The data were transformed to ordinal measures for the purpose of the analysis. A rank order statistics, the Friedman Two-Way Analysis of Variance, was used to test the aforementioned hypotheses.

The following discussion of the results of the study provides valuable insights for the evaluation of the comparative advertising claim under investigation.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Table 2 illustrates the results of Friedman Two-Way ANOVA tests. It shows that prior to the treatments, there was no significant difference among the ranks of three brands' scores on all three dependent measures, and that the control group showed no significant difference both in pre and post measurements. However, the comparative advertising group showed some significant differences among three brands in the post-treatment measures: the comparative advertising group showed significant differences in overall attitudes toward the three brands (p < .05).

As a result, one of the three null hypotheses regarding the post-treatment measures (i.e., in each of two experimental groups, there is no significant difference among the ranks of three brands in terms of overall attitudes in post-measurements), was rejected. The comparative advertising treatments showed a change in the groups' ranking of the three disposable razor brands in terms of overall attitudes toward the brand. Table 2 also indicates that the comparative advertising used in the experiment contributed positively to attitudes toward the compared brand's but negatively to the testing brand. The following section discusses the implication of such findings.

TABLE 2

The Results of the Friedman Two-Way ANOVA: The Pre-Post Comparison of the Rank of Three Brands in Evaluation, Attitude and Buying Intention in Each Experimental Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Before Mean Rank</th>
<th>Before Chi-Square</th>
<th>After Mean Rank</th>
<th>After Chi-Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>Brand A 2.90</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>1.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand B 2.63</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>1.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand C 1.97</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>2.412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising Group</td>
<td>Brand A 2.99</td>
<td>.574</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>2.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand B 2.54</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand C 1.58</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>2.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorable/Unfavorable (Attitude)</td>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>Brand A 2.87</td>
<td>.643</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand B 1.91</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand C 1.72</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advertising Group</td>
<td>Brand A 2.94</td>
<td>1.680</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand B 2.20</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand C 1.84</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probable/Improbable (Intention to Buy)</td>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>Brand A 2.10</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>2.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand B 1.94</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand C 1.70</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advertising Group</td>
<td>Brand A 2.00</td>
<td>1.640</td>
<td>2.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand B 2.14</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brand C 1.78</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Degrees of Freedom = 2

Significant at .05 level

Data: The smaller the rank, the better the brand’s rank. Brand A was the testing brand and Brand C, the compared brand.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

The results of brand comparison indicate that significant change was found in the attitudes toward the brands in the case of comparative advertising group. As
can be noted from Table 2, although the testing brand's position remained somewhat stable, brand C's (the leading brand which was compared in the ad) position was noticeably improved from pre-measures to post-measures in the experimental group. This seems to indicate that the testing brands' comparative advertising efforts were ineffective in two ways: First, it failed to improve the consumers' attitudes toward the advertised brand; second, it generated more positive attitudes toward the compared brand.

The result of this study is contrary to the expectations of advertisers. A possible explanation for such an outcome may be that given the product category, (i.e., convenience good) and the testing brand's market position (i.e., established minor brand), the comparative advertising message might have improved the consumers' image of the compared brand rather than that of the advertised brand.

It is important to note that while the comparative advertising message influenced the brand comparison in terms of overall attitudes (i.e., favorability), it did not influence the brand comparison in terms of evaluations (i.e., goodness) and buying intentions. The reason for this result might be such that in the operationalization, the product evaluation was related more to the quality of the product while attitude was related to the emotional attachment to the product. This result tends to suggest that the negative emotional impact of comparative advertising can be detrimental to the advertiser's brand franchise-building efforts.

The study findings caution advertisers against the blind adoption of comparative advertising message. Rather, comparative advertising claims should be carefully evaluated, especially when the product is a convenience good (such as disposable razors) and when the brand is already established with a minor position in the market. It is also important to point out several limitations of the research. The study was exploratory in nature, the subjects were college students, the study examined only one product category with treatments on one specific brand, and the effectiveness of the treatments were measured only for the short term. Future research should deal with a broader range of target consumers, with various product categories, and measure the long term effectiveness of comparative claims as well as non-comparative claims. In addition, the effectiveness of the alternative comparative claims should be measured and evaluated in relation to the competing brands(s).

APPENDIX

Questions Used to Measure Evaluation of, Attitudes Toward, and Intentions to Purchase Three Competing Brands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The following questions are dealing with your overall attitude toward each brand of disposable razors. Please indicate the position of each brand on the given five point scale.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Example: I believe that Brand A performs the best one in terms of Very Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that Brand A, Brand B, Brand C disposable razors are:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My attitude toward Brand A, Brand B, Brand C disposable razors is:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Favorable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The following questions concern your intention to buy disposable razors. Read through each statement and mark the blank that best represents your intention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intend to buy Brand A disposable razors when I need them for razors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Probable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intend to buy Brand B disposable razors when I need them for razors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Probable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intend to buy Brand C disposable razors when I need them for razors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Probable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex of respondent: (1) Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your age?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you very much for your cooperation!
REFERENCES


THE ATTITUDES OF TRADITIONAL STUDENTS TOWARDS CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to assess the attitudes and perceptions of 200 traditional college students towards classroom instruction. The "product" in higher education is supposedly produced and delivered by well-trained professors who are assumed to "know" what is the best "product" to produce, and how best to communicate it. Given the paucity of research on what students consider to be good instruction, this present research was conducted. Overall, the research revealed that these traditional students have definite ideas of what they consider desirable classroom experience.

INTRODUCTION

The 1980s brought about a new and challenging environment for institutions of higher learning in the United States. According to the projections of the Carnegie Council on Higher Education and the Bureau of the Census declining enrollments in higher education were projected throughout the 1980s and are expected to continue in the 1990s [Carnegie Council 1980] [U.S. Dept. of Education 1982].

In response to the challenges of a dwindling market and intense competition, most colleges and universities began their experimentation with the marketing approach. These institutions embarked on extensive market research programs and increased their reliance on generated information to formulate strategy and communicate more effectively with their publics.

Almost a decade since the marketing philosophy was first introduced to higher learning, the concept remains of little use in higher education. Much of the market research conducted by the industry has so far focused on identifying approaches to attract more students to a particular school or major. "Enrollment strategies" are what marketing seems to boil down to in higher education. Several researchers have conducted proprietary as well as academic research on factors influencing the student's choice of a specific career or university [Williams 1980] [Prasad and Murphy 1989] [Chapman 1981] [Hosler and Gallagher 1987] [Kellaris and Kellaris 1988] [Razzouk, et al. 1985]. This information is then used in developing segmentation and positioning strategies for a specific institution.

Beyond their involvement in enrollment management and institutional positioning, most colleges and universities operate with a profound "product orientation." The concept of customer retention and satisfaction appears totally neglected. The "product" in higher education is supposedly produced and delivered by well-trained professors who are assumed to "know" what is the best "product" to produce, and how best to communicate it. Given the paucity of research on what students consider to be good instruction, this present research was conducted. More specifically, the study sought to assess the needs and perceptions of a sample of traditional students towards various aspects of classroom instruction.

Traditional college students are those 24 years old and younger who are enrolled full-time and have had no interruption in their schooling since graduating from high school [Stewart and Rue 1983]. The focus on traditional students in this study is warranted due to the existing potential in this segment if the dropout rate among high school graduates is reduced. Also, because of the increased interest in non-traditional students due to their growing numbers, traditional students have been understudied in recent years.

THE STUDY

A self-administered questionnaire was developed and distributed to 375 students enrolled at a State supported Southern California university. Daytime and nighttime classes were randomly selected from the departments of mathematics, English, history, business administration, communication, and science. Instructors were asked to allow their students to complete the questionnaire either at home or during class time.

The questionnaire consisted of six sections. Section one contained five open-ended questions designed to elicit "top of the mind" responses to questions related to the effectiveness of professors, favorite format of classroom instruction, effective exams, course assignments, and overall effective classroom instruction. Their responses were grouped into either affective, cognitive, or a combination of affective and cognitive categories. Sections two and three asked students to respond to various characteristics of professors and instructional methods using a five point Likert scale ranging from "extremely desirable" to "not desirable." Sections four and five asked students to respond to statements about assignments and exams using a five point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The last section asked questions pertaining to demographics and factors used to categorize nontraditional and traditional students.

Two hundred responses were characterized as those of traditional students (under 25 years old, full-time enrollment, and continuous schooling) and these were included in the study. The majority of these respondents were single (60.5%) and white (61.5%). The median income range of the group was
$15,000-$24,999, with 15% reporting earning $50,000 and above. Approximately 85% were undergraduate students.

THE RESULTS

The first part of the questionnaire was aimed at measuring salient attributes of five aspects of classroom instruction. Table 1 shows the distribution of the general types of qualifiers used by the respondents in describing an effective professor, favorite format of classroom instruction, an effective exam, preferred course assignments, and overall classroom instruction. Affective attributes were significantly more associated with an effective teacher than cognitive or combined attributes. Qualifiers such as "believes in his/her students," "open for suggestions from students," "welcomes student questions," "willing to work with students," "takes time to get to know students," "teaches without prejudice," and "relates to students' needs" were very dominant among the attributes of an effective professor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
<th>Salient Attributes of Classroom Instruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Affective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An effective professor</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorite format of instruction</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An effective exam</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preferred assignments</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall effective instruction</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the favored format of classroom instruction, cognitive qualifiers were the most dominant (58.5%). Responses such as "a question and answer session," "one in which the teacher lectures but is open for questions," and "lecture and discussion" were frequently cited. The affective responses included "relaxed, not overly structured," "small groups working together," and "one that involves interaction between professor and student to student." Moreover, cognitive qualifiers were more frequently cited for an effective exam, course assignments and overall effective classroom instruction.

Next the students rated 23 professor-related characteristics. The students were asked to indicate how desirable they felt each of the characteristics is on a scale of one (Extremely Desirable) to five (Not Desirable). The highest desirability rating (Extremely Desirable) was given to a professor who "knows the subject matter well" (65%; Mean=1.1), followed by those who have "ability to stimulate interest in the subject" (76%; Mean=1.2) and who "allow questions during lecture" (58.5%; Mean=1.5) and who "are friendly with students" (53.5%; Mean=1.6). On the other hand, the least desirable characteristics (Not Desirable) were "calling on specific students to answer questions in class" (22%; Mean=3.7), "do not require attendance" (20.5%; Mean=3.2), "not bothered by students' tardiness" (16.5%; Mean=3.2), "are involved in consulting and other business" (15.5%; Mean=3.2), "involved in academic research and publishing" (7.5%; Mean=3.2), and "have a Doctorate degree" (9%; Mean=3.1). The last two here are of significant interest since most colleges and universities often list them as major selling points to prospective students.

On the subject of course assignments, students rated 12 course-related characteristics on a scale of one (Strongly Agree) to five (Strongly Disagree). They favor (Strongly Agree/Agree) selecting their own topic for their term projects (81%; Mean=1.8), and definitely agree that "professors should provide students with samples of major assignments" (78.5%; Mean=1.9) and that "professors provide answers to all homework assignments" (83%; Mean=1.8). A strong rejection (Disagree/Very Disagree) was reported for the two statements: "it is not necessary for a professor to return my graded term project" (91%; Mean=4.6) and "it is not necessary for a professor to return my homework" (87.5%; Mean=4.3). Students also registered their relative displeasure with oral class presentation (45.5%; Mean=3.4) and with participation in group projects (31.5%; Mean=2.8).

What do these traditional students desire in the area of instructional methods? Students rated 12 instruction method-related characteristics on a scale of one (Extremely Desirable) to five (Not Desirable). They have high desirability (Extremely Desirable/Very Desirable) for "review sessions before exams" (88%; Mean=1.5) and "use of a combination of instructional methods" (83.5%; Mean=1.7). However, the least desirable (Not Desirable) characteristics of instructional methods were "limiting lectures to textbook material only" (29.5%; Mean=3.7), "regular use of overhead transparencies" (28%; Mean=3.8), and "requiring students to use computers as instructional aids" (22%; Mean=3.3). This group of respondents appreciate a variety of instructional methods and any assistance they can receive in the course. They are not, however, very excited about the rigidity of overhead transparencies or the inconvenience that some associated with a required use of computers in any particular course.

Lastly, students were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement on a scale of one (Strongly Agree) to five (Strongly Disagree) with 15 additional statements on exams and grading. They were in strong agreement with the statement that "review sessions are necessary before exams" (88.5%; Mean=1.6). Other statements that received support by over 50% of the respondents were "results of mid-term exams should be discussed in the classroom" (67.5%; Mean=2.2), "professors should have some latitude for subjective grading" (71%; Mean=2.1), "class participation should factor into the final grade" (55.5%; Mean=2.5), and "I believe that occasional unannounced quizzes force students to keep up on class material" (56.5%; Mean=2.7).

While none of the statements received 50% disagreement, several statements had a disagreement ratio of 35% and over. Close to 49% disagreed with the statement that "No student circumstances warrant special grading consideration" (48.5%;
Mean=3.4), suggesting that teachers should show some flexibility and consideration for a student's circumstances. Also, over 45% rejected the idea that "grades should be based on a straight percentage" (45.5%; Mean=3.3). Interestingly enough, over 40% disagreed with the statement that "final exams should be optional" (47%; Mean=3.2), and rejected the idea of a comprehensive final exam (41.5%; Mean=3.4). Many students (47%; Mean=2.8) were neutral regarding take-home exams, with slightly over one third of the students favoring take-home exams (34%; Mean=2.8).

**SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This study sought to assess the attitudes and perceptions of traditional college students towards classroom instruction. Overall, the research revealed that these traditional students have definite ideas of what they consider desirable classroom experience.

As expected they desire an effective professor who knows his/her subject matter well and can stimulate interest in the subject. Beyond these two cognitive characteristics, the students desired a flexible, friendly and caring teacher who listens to students' thoughts and comments and counsels students outside of class. These exhortative characteristics should appear more often in university bulletin and promotional material. Ironically, such attributes as having a Doctorate degree or being involved in academic research or consulting, which are often heralded in promotional material, appear to be of less desirability for these traditional students. Obviously, it is not only the minority students who expressed their desire for "affective" attributes of professors. The majority of respondents who were White Caucasians were just as expressive in their desire for more friendly and caring professors.

Since most instructional experiences incorporate course assignments of one type or another, the respondents were asked to assess their attitudes towards a variety of assignment-related characteristics. Students once again favored a flexible system in which they are allowed to select their own term projects. The majority also expect professors to provide examples of course assignments and to return graded assignments. These students are not excited about either oral presentations or group projects. If such group projects are to be assigned, the students recommend that they be optional.

It may be rather impossible to design course assignments that would please everyone; however, it is obvious that some flexibility is definitely called for in this regard. This age group may be somewhat shy and thus does not appreciate required oral presentations or rigid group projects. However, there is a need for students to develop their oral presentation skills, despite their shyness or not wanting to do so. Teachers could score points with such professional practices as returning graded homework and assignments, providing samples of good and bad assignments and allowing students to choose from among a variety of assignment alternatives that could satisfy the objectives of the course. Where oral exams are deemed necessary, it is important that the professor recognizes the emotional stress the practice may cause students, and thus give students clear instructions on what is expected of them, and allow them ample time to prepare.

In the area of actual instruction, professors should experiment with a variety of options. Most students favor the lecture format especially if it is combined with a class discussion. Also, occasional use of videos and guest lectures was considered desirable, but not the regular use of overhead transparencies. While the regular use of overheads may add to the organization ratings of instruction, it tends to limit the professor's flexibility and ability to interact with students. Of significance, also, is the relatively large number (29.5%) who find as undesirable the practice of limiting lectures to textbook material only.

The implications of these results to classroom instruction are significant. Variety and flexibility must be maintained. Professors who get carried away with their use of audio, video and computerized aids may not be winning many students' hearts or minds. Course syllabi should be reviewed to ensure that some of the desirable instructional characteristics are incorporated in the learning experience in both words and deeds.

Last, in the area of exams and grading, students do not find exams totally useless. In fact, a large number of students admit that unannounced exams or quizzes force students to keep up on the material, and that final exams are necessary for evaluating students. Accepting this fact, these students go on to suggest that final exams need not be comprehensive, yet preferably, they should not be optional. On grading, the students are willing to allow professors some degree of subjectivity and flexibility in assigning grades. Consideration for student circumstances is desirable and so is feedback from the evaluation process.

In summary, the group of traditional students surveyed in this research appear very logical and fair in their assessment of a desirable educational experience. Institutions of higher learning could benefit from this research by selecting professors who could develop delivery, communication, and evaluation systems that are in line with the expectation of their customers—the students. It is obvious that students demand more than a professor having a great knowledge of the subject matter. Teachers must learn, whether at school or through special training, about the needs and perceptions of their customers, the students. Doctoral programs in the U.S. have traditionally prepared their graduates for the laboratory and not the classroom [Jackson and Razzouk 1981]. Some changes must be made in this area to enhance the marketing activities of higher education.

Traditional students are becoming an extinct species as the number of nontraditionals keep invading today's classrooms. As small as their numbers may become, these traditional students remain the backbone of undergraduate education, and accordingly, their interests must be assessed and attended to. This research was one attempt at achieving this goal. More research in this area is useful. Also comparative studies between
traditional and nontraditional students could be of great benefit to any institution of higher learning.

REFERENCES


PHD OR MARKETING EXPERIENCE: WHAT DO THE STUDENTS WANT?

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Cedar Falls, IA. 50614-0126 (319) 273-6015

ABSTRACT

Over the last decade, there has been a movement towards requiring the PhD in marketing as a minimal criteria for teaching, irrespective of a prospective teacher's work experience. As reflected by AACSB preferences, there has also been a shift towards regarding research more important than vocational experience. In the past, business schools and colleges would hire MBAs with practical experience as instructors. This is seldom done today. It is now assumed that even a professor at a college level should have the same PhD as a professor training advanced graduate students. Historically, many, including William James, have expressed their opposition to using the PhD as a "union card" needed for college teachers. It was felt that the pressures to publish would only result in "junk" research, while time constraints would weaken classroom performances. What has been missing in these discussions is what the students think. Do students want their marketing professors to have the appropriate degree, or do they want professors with the appropriate experience? If given a choice, which would they choose?

Methodology
There were 149 students (76 or 51% women) that participated in the study. The participants were all students in four sections of consumer behavior. The major factors of interest were the work experience of a faculty member and the degree held (MBA, PhD in Sociology, PhD in Marketing). The sex and the major of the respondent were added to the analysis as a control for additional variation. These were combined in a 3 X 3 X 2 X 2 factorial design. Each student was presented with a description of a marketing faculty member in one of the nine instructor conditions.

Results and Conclusions
Work experience was highly significant for both the perception of teacher effectiveness and teacher knowledge. There were no significant interaction effects, implying that both sexes and differing majors had the same perceptions, and that they saw the effects of work experience independent of the degree their professor held.

The results strongly imply that given a choice between appropriate academic degrees and work experience, the students prefer work experience. Almost unanimously, they would choose an MBA with work experience over a PhD in marketing with little work experience. This response was overwhelming. It is also directly at odds with current administrative and hiring practices. Whether students hold these perceptions because of experience in the classroom or through a sense of the ironic (imagine hiring a flight instructor who had never flown a plane), was not investigated. Some have suggested that using the marketing PhD as the one criteria for teaching may be a mistake that limits students' exposure to working professionals, and at the same time limits the cross-fertilization that may come from instructors with other terminal degrees. The author argues that the criteria for teachers should not be a terminal degree but marketing related work experience and a degree relevant to marketing education.
STUDENT STRESS AND BURNOUT
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ABSTRACT

Stress is the physical, mental, or emotional strain or tension that students experience as a response to perceived pressures placed upon them. The level of stress experienced as a result of these pressures may have either positive or negative effects. Stress can have a positive effect on learning if students experience it in response to what they consider to be a challenge. However, positive stress is transitory, and, unfortunately, all student experiences are not perceived as a challenge, but as being distressful and producing negative effects. When students experience negative stress over prolonged periods, burnout may occur. Burnout is a feeling of emotional exhaustion that occurs as a result of repeated stressful experiences.

Feelings associated with burnout that are most prevalent are tiredness, emotional and physical exhaustion, and anxiety. However, these feelings appear to be counter-balanced by the fact that students often feel happy, optimistic, and energetic. This shows that most students are resilient enough to avoid long periods of negative stress. Also, the more serious indicators of burnout such as feeling depressed or disillusioned are experienced relatively infrequently by the students surveyed.

Findings

Examinations, maintaining grade point averages, time pressures and cost factors are the most stressful items among the students surveyed. It was somewhat surprising to find that at least 20 percent of the respondents answered either "Often" or "Always" to 13 of the 16 stress variables used in the study. This may be indicative or repeated stressful experiences that may lead to student burnout.

The correlation coefficient between the sums of the responses to the stressor and burnout items was .56 (p < .01). If burnout is a function of stress, then approximately 31 percent of the variation in the burnout scores is explained by the variation in the academic stress variables. This indicates that academic

Objectives and Methodology

The purpose of this exploratory study was to determine the extent to which selected academic factors are perceived by students to be stressful and the frequency of occurrence of burnout symptoms. A review of the literature was used to determine the factors which have been shown to contribute to student stress and to identify the states of mind associated with burnout. Only those factors judged to be directly related to school were included in the study. Responses to the stress and burnout variables were measured on 5-point itemized rating scales, where 1=Never, 2= Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, and 5=Always. A convenience sample of 219 students completed a self-report questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered on campus over a five day period at randomly selected locations and times of day. The survey was conducted approximately three weeks before final examination week.
stressors make a substantial contribution to the overall burnout symptoms felt by students.

Factor analysis was used to group the stress and burnout variables and to assess the possibility of multidimensionality in the concepts. It was concluded that both scales used in the study are basically one dimensional. However, it is important to note that more than one factor was extracted for each scale. While the additional factors explain little of the total variance, the loadings on these factors are very significant and help to interpret the sources of stress and burnout feelings.

Conclusions

Instructors can affect the frequency and level of stress in the way they conduct their classes, their grading methods, and the time pressures they place upon students. While it is obvious that teachers cannot and should not eliminate these sources of stress, it may be possible for them to alleviate some of the pressures and guard against their possible negative effects. For example, professors might consider giving enough grading exercises that no one exercise has an undue impact on the final grade.

Also, since stress can lead to burnout, teachers can assess the level of stress that students are experiencing by observing some of the symptoms of burnout such as declining scores on graded exercises, absenteeism, procrastination, assignments handed in late, and inattentiveness. When these types of behavior are prevalent, little, if any, learning is taking place.
NEW METHOD OF FACULTY EVALUATION

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ABSTRACT

This article introduces a simple screening tool that can help school administrators select, retain and compensate faculty. This tool is the grid model. The grid model is not new. It is a gauge that measures together two different qualifying dimensions, such as academic credentials and business accomplishments. The model draws its strengths from its simplicity.

This article is driven by an example that assesses the relative merits of a person's academic credentials and his or her business accomplishments. The model weighs the two against a norm (which depicts an ideal candidate) that supports the school's mission.

HOW THE MODEL WORKS

Conventional screening models test qualifications in just one dimension, usually academic credentials. A balanced outcome of multiple selection criteria can be a better predictor for successful screening.

The model has other advantages. First, it produces a picture that clearly identifies faculty who best match the school's desired credentials. Second, it is simple, quick, and straightforward. The grid model makes it easy to shift the focus of credentials from academic to business and back. It also makes it easy to shift the norm when the school's mission changes. Next, it is easy to build the model without a computer, although you can use a spreadsheet or a data base if you so desire.

To top it all off, the model is an excellent communication tool. You can use it as a graphic aid when discussing faculty credentials and compensation.

How To Build The Model

Your first step is to prepare an evaluation work paper. In the work paper you select up to four factors to measure academic credentials and up to four more factors to test business accomplishments. You then place the factors as headings in a table. To complete this step, you define the universe of all your faculty (please see figure 1).

The reason to select few factors is to keep the model simple and manageable. A small number of factors, well thought out, will give you the results you want. The predictive value of the model rests entirely on your choice of factors. In my example each group of factors contains three objective factors and one subjective factor. The latter lets you add a subjective dimension to the screening process.

If the faculty universe is so large that handling it all on one model is not convenient, you can divide the faculty into groups. For example, you can build one model for your engineering school, and another for your business school. You can also use a different set of factors in each model.

In the second step you rate the faculty. Always use a simple scale of just 0 to 5 and no factions to keep the model simple and manageable. After rating the faculty, you compute two totals (weighted averages) for each person. One total is for the Academic Factors and the other one for the Business Factors. To compute each total, multiply each score by its appropriate weight shown in the headings, then sum for a total.

The Results

The last step is to plot the results on a five-by-five grid (please see Figure 2). To perform your analysis, place the cross hairs on the grid so they intersect both axes in the middle. This starting alignment strikes an even balance between the academic and business credentials.

Now you can see the results in front of you. The most qualified faculty are in quadrant I (Q/I). They have both rich academic background and ample business experience. These are your first hiring priority.

You will find your second choice hires in Q/II or Q/IV. In Q/II are faculty who have stronger business experience. These are your second choice hires if you want to stress business experience in your hiring.
FIGURE 1: EVALUATION WORK PAPER

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FACULTY</th>
<th>BUSINESS FACTORS</th>
<th>ACADEMIC FACTORS</th>
<th>TOTAL SCORE B.F.</th>
<th>TOTAL SCORE A.F.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A ANNE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B BRUCE</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C CARLA</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X XAVIER</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y YOUSSEF</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z ZOHAR</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 2: GRID MODEL FOR FACULTY EVALUATION

- 89 -
In Q/IV are the persons with better academic qualifications. If you prefer to stress academic qualifications in your hiring, these will become your second choice hires.

Finally, all the weak candidates whom you should not consider at all are in Q/III. They have neither adequate academic credentials nor sufficient business experience.

Adjusting the Sensitivity

To adjust the sensitivity of the results, simply move the cross hairs around the grid model.

For example, if more faculty are in Q/I than you have vacancies, move the cross hairs evenly up and right. This, in effect, reduces the size of Q/I equally in both dimensions. You thus capture the superstar candidates only.

If you move the cross hairs down and to the right, you emphasize academic credentials. If you move the cross hairs to the left and up, you zero in on persons with stronger business experience. Moving the cross hairs on the grid puts you in control, not the model. It lets you decide which faculty you want to target in your hiring effort.

You can also fine-tune the model by adjusting the weight of each factor. Or you could drop a factor such as Academic Administration altogether, and replace it, say, with Number of Successful Doctoral Candidates Coached.

Select factors that have discrete levels that you can valuate with a score ranging from 0 to 5, without fractions. The progression from one level to the next should be geometric and not linear. A value of "5" should be considerably stronger than a value of "4," and on down.

Select your factors and their scores so anyone who performs the evaluation can apply them with consistency. There should also be no question about the evaluation in the mind of anyone who audits it.

There is one more thought I would like to share. Once you decide on your most germane factors and how to valuate them, you should freeze your model for an extended period. It will then provide you with consistent results over time.

EXAMPLES OF ACADEMIC FACTORS

Academic Achievement Scores

5 - The person has earned multiple doctoral degrees, or international recognition, in a suitable field.
4 - The person has earned a doctoral degree, or national recognition.
3 - The person has earned a Master's degree, or local recognition.
2 - The person has earned a Bachelor's degree.
1 - The person has earned an Associate's degree.
0 - The person has not earned a suitable academic degree.

Research Achievement Scores

5 - The person has published two or more text books in a suitable field that have been adopted by schools he or she are not associated with. Or the person was responsible for obtaining research grants of $2 million or more.
4 - The person has published a text book that has been adopted by schools he or she are not associated with. Or the person serves on the editorial board of a suitable professional or trade publication. Or the person was responsible for obtaining research grants of $1 million or more.
3 - The person has published three or more papers in professional or trade publications of suitable nature. Or the person was responsible for obtaining research grants of $100,000 or more.
2 - The person has published a text book and the book has not yet been adopted by a school. Or the person was responsible for obtaining research grants of $10,000 or more.
1 - The person has published one or two papers in professional or trade publications of suitable nature.
0 - The person has no suitable publication or research credits.

Pedagogical Achievement Scores

5 - The person has teaching experience at the post-graduate or graduate levels that includes at least 7 years teaching and at least 5 course subjects.
4 - The person has teaching experience at the graduate or undergraduate levels that includes at least 5 years teaching and at least 3 course subjects.
3 - The person has teaching experience at the graduate or undergraduate levels that includes at least 3 years teaching and at least 2 course subjects, or consulting experience on at least three different
engagements.
2 - The person has teaching experience at the undergraduate level that includes at least 1 year teaching, or teaching at least 24 hours of professional seminars in the past three years.
1 - The person has other teaching experience.
0 - The person has no teaching experience.

Approval Rating Scores

5 - The person has a student approval rating of 9 or higher, on a scale of 10, as average for the five most recent class evaluations.
4 - The person has a student approval rating of 8 or higher as average for the five most recent class evaluations.
3 - The person has a student approval rating of 7 or higher as average for the five most recent class evaluations.
2 - The person has a student approval rating of 6 or higher as average for the five most recent class evaluations.
1 - The person has a student approval rating of 5 or higher as average for the five most recent class evaluations.
0 - The person has a student approval rating of less than 5 as average for the five most recent class evaluations.

EXAMPLES OF BUSINESS FACTORS

Professional Achievement Scores

5 - The person has three or more professional certifications or licenses, such as CPA, PE, licensed broker, etc. In addition, the person has been in the past three years an officer, board member or a committee chair of at least one professional organization.
4 - The person has two or more professional certifications or licenses
3 - The person has at least one professional certification or license.
2 - The person has passed the professional certification or licensing examination, and is completing other requirements for the certificate or license.
1 - The person has no professional certifications or licenses.
0 - The person had a professional certification or license revoked for cause (except for nonpayment of maintenance fees).

Note: a condition of certification or license requires continuing educational training.

Career Achievement Scores

5 - The person is an entrepreneur (or a professional practitioner) with annual revenues of $1 million or more, or is an executive officer in a large corporation.
4 - The person is an entrepreneur (or a professional practitioner) with annual revenues of $250,000 or more, or is an officer in a large corporation.
3 - The person is an entrepreneur (or a professional practitioner) with annual revenues of $100,000 or more, or holds a supervisory or professional staff position in the corporate environment.
2 - The person has some work experience, but less than above.
1 - The person has no work experience related to your school’s curriculum.
0 - The person has no work experience.

Academic Administration Achievement Scores

5 - The person has served on an accreditation board or a state regents board.
4 - The person has served in an academic administration capacity (academic dean, academic program director, etc.) for more than 3 years.
3 - The person has served on academic committees within a school for more than 3 years.
2 - The person has served in an academic administration capacity (academic dean, academic program director, etc.), or on academic committees within a school, for more than 1 year.
1 - The person has minimal (less than 1 year) academic administration experience.
0 - The person has no academic administration experience.

Personal Image Scores

Assign a 5 if you feel that the person has a presence that is conducive to your classroom image needs. This subjective factor lets you influence the screening outcome for any other reason that’s hard to quantify. Assign a 5 on down to a 0, according to your own intuitive feelings.

Personal image includes a person’s enthusiasm and attitude, dress, manners and behavior, personal and political outlook, and other factors that are hard to measure. Exclude factors which you already scored, and categories that conflict with the law. This factor is the tie breaker for otherwise tied scores.

• • • • •
THE WMEA PROCEEDINGS: AN ELEVEN YEAR RETROSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

This study provides a content analysis of the Western Marketing Educators' Association's eleven volumes of Proceedings from 1981 to 1991. The frequency of contributions by individual authors and by institutions is noted along with insights into topical coverage and type of article.

INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

Since 1977 the Western Marketing Educators' Association (WMEA) has held conferences annually for the purpose of sharing pedagogical insights and current research. Beginning in 1981 the best of the papers submitted for competitive review were published in the form of a Proceedings. Until now there has not been a comprehensive analysis of the content of these Proceedings and its contributors.

Such an analysis can provide a number of benefits to the WMEA and its members. First, and foremost, it can provide a historical document which can be periodically updated. This document will identify the prominent contributing institutions and authors and, in doing so, point out which are most active and which might be targeted to increase their future participation. By determining the kinds of articles which have been published (i.e.: conceptual vs. empirical) and the subject areas covered, members will have a better idea of what topical territory has already been traversed and the prevailing types of papers that have been accepted.

Given that the WMEA is the only regional or national association in the United States that focuses primarily on marketing education issues, an analysis of its contributions could assist new professors with pedagogical insights along with providing veteran professors with new ideas to improve classroom performance. Possibly even more importantly, such an analysis can show the association leadership where WMEA has been--which is always essential before planning for one's future.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A number of studies have been conducted in several disciplines which focus on the historical contributions from journals and proceedings. This literature review will focus on a sample of those retrospective efforts in business administration.

Studies of Non-Marketing Literature

Henry and Burch (1974) conducted an analysis of general business and management research productivity. They investigated writing productivity by authors in a number of business subjects.

In a research effort focusing on solely the accounting literature, Dyl and Lilly (1985) profiled the institutional contributors to the literature in their discipline. A few years later Heck and Cooley (1988) itemized the author and institutional contributions which appeared in 15 finance journals.

Studies Focusing on the Advertising Literature

An investigation of what advertising research was published in six marketing-oriented journals from 1976-1985 was conducted by Yale and Gilly (1988). They analyzed the volume of literature by journal and topic and detailed what empirical methods were used, the type of sample unit employed, and the type of statistical analysis utilized.

Shortly thereafter, Barry (1990) evaluated the contributions contained in three major advertising journals from their dates of inception through the 1980's. His study detailed those contributions by journal and frequency of appearances by school, author, and academic rank of authors.

Studies Focusing on Marketing Literature

In a more focused effort, Clark, Hancock, and Kaminski (1987) examined contributions to one journal, the Journal of Marketing Research, from 1964-1985. Their article detailed author and institutional productivity and whether the article was authored by professors or businesspersons.

A few years earlier, Clarke (1985) content analyzed articles from eight leading marketing journals. He was able to measure and rank the productivity of the top 40 institutional contributors while also developing an active faculty index.
Noting the contributions in the 1980's, Wheatley and Wilson (1987) analyzed the content of five marketing journals and two Proceedings during the majority of that decade. They identified the most frequently published authors, their institutions, and where the authors were trained.

In a sampling of retrospective efforts several studies have been identified which focus on the areas of business and marketing. The scope of this manuscript is to conduct similar research noting the contributions and contributors in the WMEA Proceedings—which is dedicated to the many pedagogical issues impacting marketing education.

METHOD OF RESEARCH

All eleven issues of the WMEA Proceedings from 1981-1991 constituted the population of this study. A group of trained, impartial judges examined the volumes noting data on author and institutional identity, and type and subject of article. Most of the judges' decisions involved little judgment (i.e.: author name, institution, etc.), but a few variables (i.e.: subject of article) involved examination of the article content to be able to make a judgment. In the event that a team of two judges did not agree on any of the classifications, a third judge would then reconcile any differences.

For the variables examining the frequency of appearance by author and institution, two measures are offered. The first involves the raw number of appearances. As an example, if an article was co-authored by two persons from the same school each person would be listed with a frequency of one. The school's raw frequency, however, would be two. Adjusted scores are also offered to provide an additional perspective. If an author or school is part of a co-authorship venture, each author (and school) is given a .5 adjusted score. If they are part of a three author work, each would have a .33 adjusted score. The same divisionalization applies for four author papers. This adjusted score for frequency of appearance was earlier utilized by Clarke (1985) and Barry (1990).

RESULTS

Contributions by Author

A listing of authors with four or more appearances in the Proceedings is detailed in Table 1. There were 26 individuals who appeared as an author 4 or more times in the 11 years of the Proceedings' existence. This figure represents 7.9 percent of the total number of authors appearing over the years. Eighteen individuals appeared 3 times, 57 appeared twice, and 228 individuals appeared once as an author in the Proceedings. It is interesting to note that the top contributor is from outside of the western region, which is the domain of the WMEA.

Analysis of the number of authors per article reflected that the average WMEA Proceedings article had between one and two authors (mean = 1.57). In total, 55.3 percent of the articles were single authored, about one-third (34.3 percent) were co-authored, and 10.4 percent had three or four authors. No significant variability was found over time, although the year 1982 produced a much higher proportion of single authorships and 1983 and 1985 produced higher than normal multiple authorships.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Number of Appearances</th>
<th>Adjusted Score</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Morgan, Fred</td>
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<td>Orsini, Joseph</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>Cohen, William</td>
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<td>Ghym, Kyung-II</td>
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<td>Kelley, Craig</td>
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<td>Gottko, John</td>
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<td>Boedecker, Karl</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sherwood, Charles</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Contributions by Institution

The authors' institutions are presented and ranked by number of appearances in Table 2. Twenty-three of the 115 different schools represented by contributing authors had 8 or more appearances in WMEA's Proceedings. These same 23 schools represented 57 percent of the total number of author appearances. This leads to the conclusion that about one-fifth of the schools are contributing about three-fifths of the article authors in the WMEA Proceedings. This may assist WMEA in defining who their real market is and where the unmet potential for future participation lays.

The three west coast states of California, Oregon, and Washington produce the most WMEA authors. California, by far the largest contributing state, also represents over two-thirds of WMEA's membership.

TABLE 2
Institutions Ranked In Order of Appearance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Institution</th>
<th>Number of Appearances</th>
<th>Adjusted Score</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>26</td>
<td>16.00</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>12.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>21</td>
<td>10.92</td>
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<td>Calif. State Univ., Fullerton</td>
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<td>10.83</td>
</tr>
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<td>Wayne State Univ.</td>
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<td>Univ. of Nevada, Reno</td>
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<td>Univ. of Calgary</td>
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<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Univ. of New Mexico</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conceptual Vs. Empirical Emphasis

To better understand the type of articles which have been published in WMEA Proceedings, the judges classified them into two broad categories. For an article to be considered empirical, it had to report results obtained first hand by the authors. Articles which were not empirical in nature were classified as conceptual, although a few actually were explanations of theoretical mathematical models. Given this classification, the majority (59.6 percent) of WMEA Proceeding articles were conceptual in nature, with the balance (40.4 percent) being empirical. Only in one year, 1983, were there more empirical than conceptual articles.

Contribution by Article Length

Article length was classified either as abbreviated if it was one or two pages or full if it was three pages or longer. During the first two years of the Proceedings' existence only abstracts of accepted articles were published, and, as such, all 44 of those articles were categorized as abbreviated. From 1983 until the present authors had the option of publishing full-length articles or abbreviated abstracts. Since 1983 the majority (59.1 percent) of articles appearing in the WMEA Proceedings were full length, leaving the remaining 40.9 percent as abbreviated abstracts. In each of the last nine years there have been a greater number of full articles than abbreviated ones.

Contributions by Subject Matter

As one might expect in over 300 articles in 11 volumes, there is a very broad representation of topics impacting marketing education. Table 3 details the most frequently occurring article topics. Nearly one third of the total number of articles are tied directly to the theme of marketing education by focusing on courses, curriculum issues, and teaching techniques. A number of articles, though, deal with more specific courses or issues. From the very beginning, as an example, there have been a steady stream of articles most every year which focus on computer applications, international marketing, and legal issues in marketing.
TABLE 3
Frequency of Topics Mentioned in Proceedings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Number of Appearances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Courses and Curriculum</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Techniques</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Marketing</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Techniques and Results</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microcomputers and Software</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Behavior</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal Issues in Marketing</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advertising Research</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision-Making Techniques</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes of Students</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Strategy</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing of Services</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Issues in Marketing</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Theory and Practice</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of Marketing Educators</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution Channels</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges for Marketing Depts.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation of Students</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Topics</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This study provides a foundation for understanding where WMEA has been during its eleven years of publishing its Proceedings. The answers to the fundamental questions of "who, what, where, and when" were explored in this study. As to the question of "why," after looking back over the contributions the answer becomes fairly clear. People who contribute to the WMEA Proceedings do so because of their love of marketing education. This is not to imply that the major contributors are more interested in teaching than research--on the contrary, most of the contributors are also prolific researchers. What this says about WMEA is that teaching is important too.

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*The author would like to thank Kurt Van Orden, Raman Nayar, Micky Sukiman, Rudy Sandjaja, Liang Ang, and Karen Wasserzieher for their assistance in this project.
TEACHING THE PROMOTION MIX: 
ARE WE GIVING OUR STUDENTS THE "RIGHT" MIX?

Brian van der Westhuizen
California State University, Northridge

ABSTRACT

Arguably, the part of the marketing curriculum which has seen the greatest proliferation of courses is promotion. The reason for this is probably that promotion, one of the four elements of the marketing mix, itself comprises five elements — advertising, direct marketing, personal selling, sales promotion, and public relations. These elements each have advantages and disadvantages, and marketers have to learn how to “blend” them into an effective combination. There is no one “right” blend of these factors. While many people think that most promotion money is spent on advertising — no doubt because of its high visibility — the fact is that, in total, less money is spent on advertising than on personal selling or sales promotion. And growing in importance is direct marketing.

Much media attention has been focussed on the declining importance of advertising in the USA in recent years. The reasons given for this are that many Americans, brought up on a steady diet of commercials, view advertising with cynicism or indifference. In an increasingly competitive business environment, marketers are looking for more “measurable” returns on their promotion expenditures. Advertising typically relies on long-term image building to influence consumers and it is consequently very difficult to measure its impact on sales accurately. On the other hand, the return on expenditure on personal selling, sales promotion and direct marketing can be determined fairly accurately. Given this changing business environment and its impact on firms’ promotion mix expenditures, it was deemed appropriate to establish how marketing educators are preparing their students to deal with the new realities of the marketplace.

Data for the survey was collected by means of a questionnaire mailed to all 330 current members of the Western Marketing Educators’ Association residing in the USA. A total of 88 usable questionnaires was returned, a response rate of 26.7%. The first question asked respondents which undergraduate promotion courses are currently offered by their marketing departments. At both Junior and Senior level, Advertising is offered by more of the respondents’ marketing departments than any other course — 46.6% and 38.6% respectively.

The second question asked respondents which promotion courses are required for undergraduate marketing majors. At the Junior level, the most frequently required course for marketing majors is Advertising (18.20%), whereas at the Senior level it is Marketing Communications (9.1%). What is perhaps of most significance is the very low percentages recorded in response to this question. It could quite legitimately be asked if a marketing major could, in truth, be considered to have an adequate knowledge of the marketing discipline without having taken at least one of the promotion courses!

The third question asked respondents to estimate the percentage weight they allocated to each component in the course if promotion is taught as an integrated Marketing Communications course. The overwhelming percentage weight was reported to be allocated to Advertising (53.3%). Trailing very far behind was Sales Promotion (14%) and Personal Selling (13.5%). Even further behind was Public Relations (10.5%) and last was Direct Marketing (8.7%).

The percentage weight allocated by respondents to each component in terms of total time spent on teaching the promotion mix in the Principles of Marketing or Introduction to Marketing Management course was Advertising (44.1%), Personal Selling (23.3%), Sales Promotion (15.0%), Public Relations (9.8%), and Direct Marketing (7.8%).

This survey reveals an overwhelming focus by the marketing educators polled on advertising which, for a number of reasons, is becoming far less important in the overall promotion activities of marketers today. Despite the fact that marketing academics generally concede the importance of personal selling and sales management, this is not reflected in the emphasis given these courses by the respondents to this survey. Marketing students will inevitably infer that the amount of attention given to the various elements of the promotion mix by marketing educators must indicate the relative importance of each element. It therefore behooves us to ensure that we are not giving our students the “wrong” mix when teaching promotion, and to ensure that they are receiving a balanced and realistic perspective of this all-important element of the marketing mix.
The Marketing Communications Course: A New Interdisciplinary Course with Multiple Dimensions.

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Department of Journalism & Mass Communications
San Jose CA 95192-0055  (408) 924-7555

ABSTRACT

Marketing Communications is rapidly becoming a "hot" area for both advertising and marketing departments. This article emphasizes the difference between the marketing and communications perspectives on the course, advocating a crisp delineation between the disciplines even though the lines are often blurred in practice. Five content/course/curriculum decisions must be made before a course can be appropriately designed. The author offers a sample course outline and term project for one model.

THE NEW ADVERTISING—OLD HAT

"The New Advertising" isn't. Application of time-tested integration techniques to consumer advertising may be a new concept for many; but the close integration and coordination of all four marketing communications disciplines—advertising, public relations, sales promotion, and personal selling—is old hat in business-to-business marketing communications (Jordan 1982). Nonetheless, advertising and the related marketing communications disciplines are undergoing significant changes (Clancy 1990; Landler, et al 1991, Light 1990). As the appeal of these "new" integration techniques spreads from business-to-business to the consumer marketing, academicians can be expected to introduce courses that cover marketing communications (marcom) comprehensively. In this paper, I will suggest some divisions and definitions based on my personal experience as a practitioner and having taught this course for the last ten years in two different divisions (marketing and journalism) at two universities at both the graduate and undergraduate levels.

Four fundamental issues must be addressed:

- What Content should be included;
- Where the Content fits in the Context of the course;
- Where the Course fits in the Curriculum;
- Where the Curriculum fits in the students' overall education (Figure 1).

FIGURE 1

Integrating Marketing Communications into the Curriculum

CONTENT

When I arrived at my current teaching post, the business to business communications course was being taught by practitioners and other "non-traditional" faculty (Plumley, 1990). Each was well qualified in his or her own specialty—trade shows, brochure production, product publicity, advertising, direct mail, etc.—and each did and excellent job explaining the content of the discipline. Yet the course was failing, drawing on the average only 10 to 15 students in a department with 600 advertising majors. (We now draw more than 40 students per semester.) In talking with students and visiting the class, it soon became apparent that the missing ingredient was a roadmap, a context for the material that they were being given. The practitioners were advocates of their particular disciplines, and worthy advocates. But the students were bombarded with content and unable to give it a context.
CONTEXT

The content had to be given a meaningful context—integrated into a course that made sense to the students, a course that related to their other courses and to the curriculum as a whole. I use a marcom plan outline both as a term project and to provide context for the entire course. Based on my experience, this is a good model, though not the only one. The plan outline shows students the similarities and differences among objectives, strategies and tactics for the four disciplines. Indeed, my experience has been that many students understand, for the first time, how these disciplines interact. The course content and outline decisions should be made by the individual instructor, in light of the overall course requirements and the requirements of the curriculum. The context of the course also includes the marketing concept. Since advertising students today should be well grounded in marketing, a large part of the context of my course in relating the marketing communications disciplines to the marketing mix model. (Blotnick 1991).

COURSE

The structure of a course with a beginning, middle, and end, a course with clear objectives and outcomes, is clearly necessary. This would be difficult for any practitioner, no matter how skilled. Even the head of a major advertising agency, familiar with research, planning, and all the strategic as well as tactical elements involved in the complex undertaking of marketing communications, could not be expected to create a course that relates to the student’s needs and the curriculum’s needs. Indeed, when I first taught this course as an adjunct professor, I was more of a practitioner than a teacher. It has taken me more than 13 years of teaching marketing, advertising, and public relations courses, and working on department and school curriculum committees, to appreciate the discipline of integrating content into the context of a course, and a course into a curriculum.

CURRICULUM

At this level, each marketing communications course must be designed to complement the curriculum in which it is to be offered. The position of the course in the curriculum, from introduction to capstone, should be made clear to students as well as faculty. It is beyond the scope of this paper to examine all the issues for all situations but I suggest that decisions must be made in five dimensions to successfully integrate the marketing communications course in the curriculum: the level at which the course is taught, the core discipline, the desired emphasis, the scope, and the student profile (Fig. 2):

![Fundamental Course Design Decisions](image)

**Graduate/Undergraduate**

This decision is the most clear cut. When I cover media optimization strategies at the undergraduate level I tell my students, “in graduate school, we call this the iterative method; for our purposes, it’s just trial and error.” Of course the differences are much deeper than terminology, but assumption of knowledge among students is one critical difference. If the course in being taught at the graduate level, the focus will be more strategic than tactical, and will assume greater knowledge and ability from the students. Course work can be more theoretical and advanced.

The undergraduate course will cover more basics and, perhaps, less of the strategic viewpoint, though I believe the strategic perspective should always be a key part of the course and, as you’ll see, is a foundation for my course. At this level, we should impart some specific “hands on” skills appropriate to those who may soon be implementing sales promotion programs, making sales calls, or writing sales brochures.
Marketing/Communications

This decision would at first seem to be easy, but the lines are blurry. Logically, if the course resides in the marketing department, as my graduate course did, the emphasis should be more on the marketing/management side; if the course resides in the journalism or communications department, as my current course does, the emphasis should be on communications. Students need a crisp definition of the marketing component and the communications component, along with examples of when we are doing each. The reality is that people will be involved in both, and should know when they are crossing lines into areas that, though intimately related, are truly the areas of expertise of others with whom we work.

I believe so strongly in marketing as the basis for marketing communications that I make the marketing introduction course a prerequisite for my marketing communications course, and I spend the first week or two of the course reviewing marketing fundamentals. (Figure 3.)

FIGURE 3

Relationship of Marcom to Marketing

The Marketing Mix

- Product
- Place (Distribution)
- Price
- Promotion (The Marketing Communications Mix)
  - Advertising
  - Public Relations
  - Sales Promotion
  - Personal Selling

Clear delineation among the different marketing communications disciplines as well as between marketing and marketing communications disciplines is imperative. I use the Hierarchy of Plans (Fig 4) to illustrate the relative position of the various plans (and their functions) within the corporation. I point out that each function, by achieving its objectives, allows the higher functions to fulfill their objectives and, eventually, the corporation to achieve its long-term business objectives. People should understand exactly what discipline they're working in, and know where they are in the hierarchy. In this schema, I point out that the Marketing Communication plan is often the missing ingredient.

FIGURE 4

The Hierarchy of Plans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Business Plans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operational Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1-year)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>Marketing Plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Op Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(long-term)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3</td>
<td>Marketing Communications Plan*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Op Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ad Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sales Promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Level 4</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>PR Plan</td>
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<td>(long-term)</td>
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<td>Sales Plan</td>
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<td>(1-year)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(5-years)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The Marketing Communications Plan is the missing link... what is needed to make marcom work.

At a tactical level, some of the worst product publicity I have ever seen was done by very good advertising copywriters who knew nothing of the subtle (or even the obvious) differences between public relations and advertising. Conversely, I have seen truly awful sales brochures and ads written by PR people who are most likely quite good at public relations writing, but not acquainted with the different requirements and dynamics of ad copy and sales promotion copy. For another common example, the term "promotion" is often used imprecisely to describe some public relations functions, such as product publicity. While we understand that it is indeed part of the promotional process—when seen from the broader, marketing perspective—students need lines drawn for them to differentiate between the process of promotion that comprises all the marcom disciplines, and specific sales promotion functions such as direct mail campaigns or sales seminars.

Similarly, students typically need specific examples to help them differentiate between the out-and-out persuasive style of advertising and the mock-objective but still persuasive style of product publicity. This difference seems apparent to those of us who are in the field but, particularly at the undergraduate level, students benefit enormously from examples. In fact, with my current emphasis on the tactical matters of actually executing marcom, I often have students write both an ad and a press release on a new product.
As I mentioned above, as academics, we may emphasize the strategic or management viewpoint, sometimes to the exclusion of the tactical, assuming, perhaps, that our students will learn the details in the real world. Or maybe we want to avoid the “trade school” stigma and resist the “hands-on” approach to anything at a lower level than the planning of campaigns. Clearly, this is the trend today even though 98% of the courses are taught in journalism rather than marketing divisions (Ross 1991).

My current perspective is different. I teach in the Department of Journalism and Mass Communications within the College of Applied Sciences and Arts, so I feel not only free but compelled to teach—as much as constraints of time will allow—the nitty-gritty nuts and bolts of direct mail, creating a brochure, writing a press release, etc. This is the tactical, bottom-up approach, but it mirrors logical career growth for most people who enter marketing communications: they must write brochures and press releases and execute the details of trade shows before they are elevated in the organization to a position in which they plan and integrate these functions for others to implement.

**Consumer/BTB**

When I taught the marcom course at the graduate level my emphasis was on consumer marketing communications. We concentrated on the strategic, management perspective. In consumer advertising, the integrated model is more difficult to implement and not always as clearly beneficial. Nonetheless, this is the primary area of growth. Mainstream advertising agencies are smarting under their loss of revenues as advertisers move out of the traditional media and into the more measurable and currently more profitable direct marketing and sales promotion disciplines (Gosden 1985, O’Neil 1991, Patterson 1991, Wylie 1991). So many have decided to declare themselves experts in these areas as well, to claim the revenues back. The analogy to the typewriter repair shop that hired an electronics technician and changed its name to word processing repair shop is tempting. These will be interesting times.

Today, I teach the marcom course at the undergraduate level. My perspective is more tactical (although the strategic framework is always present), more business-to-business—to reflect the geographic reality of being in a high tech center. Both courses, as I have done them, have emphasized the inter-related nature of the marcom disciplines and the key role of planning to accomplish this smooth integration. The business-to-business course is nearest to the real world. Business-to-business is where marcom was born and where it thrives. The close integration was not a brilliant strategic move but the result of budgetary realities. Very often a start-up company allocated very little to its marketing communications function, and all skills and budget responsibilities resided with one person. If one person must manage all functions from one budget, they will, by default, be integrated. As the firms grew, the integration remained (if they were smart, lucky, or both), and marcom managers became experts in their field before many people even recognized it as a legitimate field.

**Business-to-Business Advertising/Marcom**

I have often encountered, among practitioners as well as academics, the fuzzy notion that if one is doing business-to-business advertising, one is doing marcom. We must be absolutely clear with students that advertising, whether business-to-business or consumer, is merely one of the four basic marketing communications disciplines, just as marketing communications is merely one of the four basic components in the marketing mix.

In my opinion, the terms industrial advertising, and business-to-business advertising should be eliminated. Both terms imply that advertising happens independent of the other disciplines. While this may be accurate in some companies—indeed, in many companies—it is not the model or the mindset we should pass along to students. The integrated model of marcom is the one being emulated by consumer advertisers; it is the one which should be taught. In discussions of contemporary advertising, advertising should always be seen as part of an integrated, coordinated marcom program.

Here in the high tech center where I live, work, and teach, very few people work exclusively with BTB advertising. By far the more common model is the marcom manager, running advertising, trade shows, brochures, A/V presentations for sales people, direct mail programs, the public relations functions (at least the product publicity part of PR), and virtually anything having to do with...
communications support for the marketing function. And, though people may specialize in one discipline or another as individual contributors before they become managers, crossover and generalized skills and abilities are the rule rather than the exception in marcom today.

**Student/Practitioner**

As a final dimension, we should understand that, depending on where and when the course will be held, we will draw a different kind of student. At the graduate level in some institutions, particularly in MBA programs or evening sessions, one may expect more practitioners and fewer pure students. Given the more substantial base of experience that may exist in such a group, one may assume a greater level of knowledge, and raise the standards in the course accordingly. Naturally, one must exercise caution here so as not to leave the less experienced students behind, but generally, the class can operate at a strategic level, often incorporating students' experiences and problems into course material. On the negative side of this, many students with limited experience—having worked in one function in one company, for example, no matter how many years—bring inaccurate or false conceptions of the entire field to the class. Some may, for example, be fortunate enough to work with a company marketing a successful product. Often, the people in every function in that company feel they are doing excellent work, and it is difficult to convince them that their particular function could be improved. So, with some practitioners, some corrections or alterations may have to take place.

On the other hand, inexperienced students possess no base of knowledge in the field. This can be both negative and positive. On the down side, fundamental concepts such as push and pull marketing strategies, product life cycles, and writing of effective strategies and tactics must be covered or at least reviewed. On the up side, the student may present the classic *tabula rasa*, and be more accepting of theory since they don't have experiences that seem to prove the exception.

**The Strategic Imperative**

Finally, having closely considered the content, context, course and curriculum, and decided on at least the five dimensions I've outlined here, it is imperative that we communicate the strategic, or top-down, view of marketing communications to everyone who takes this course, at any level and from any perspective. That is, we should bring some focus to the marcom disciplines by placing them in their logical position within the marketing mix (Figure 1). I suggest the first few sessions of any course be devoted to setting this roadmap out for students, and that the roadmap be referred to often throughout the course.

**FIGURE 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marketing Communications Course Outline</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Week 1 Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 2 Marketing &amp; Marketing Communications Mixes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 3 Communications for Business to Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 4 Hierarchy of Plans/Planning Basics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 5 Research for Marcom - Term Project Assigned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 6 BTB Creative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 7 BTB Media (Trade Magazine)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 8 Collateral/Ad Specialties/Premiums</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 9 Sales Promotion/Direct Mail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 10 Public Relations for BTB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 11 Personal Selling in BTB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 12 Sales Support Material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 13 Trade Shows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 14 Presentation of Term Projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 15 Integrating Marcom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 16 Review</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, to establish this strategic view, I emphasize the planning function (Figure 2) as central to the marketing communications process... in fact, I model the entire course to follow the plan, (Fig 5) and have each student write a marcom plan as the course project.

**Team Teaching and Interdisciplinary Efforts**

In a recent article, Alden, Laxton, Patzer & Howard (1991) advocate fostering connections between marketing and other disciplines. I suggest that marketing communications would be an excellent course to bring together the communications expertise from the journalism division and the marketing expertise from the marketing or business division. The course also lends itself to team teaching within the journalism department between advertising and public relations specialists. And at every level, it makes a great deal of sense to involve members of the local marketing communications community—not only as guest lecturers but in the planning of the course and outcome assessment. Whether team teaching or simply trading guest lectures, the experience is almost certain to benefit faculty and students.
Marcom is a true interdisciplinary course with many dimensions. I suggest that marketing departments emphasize the MAR part of the course, journalism departments emphasize the COM, and both clearly distinguish among the disciplines and between consumer and B2B MARCOM. This is an engaging course to teach and student feedback tells me they benefit enormously from it, often seeing, for the first time, how all the pieces fit together.

###

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COMBINING LITERARY AND MARKETING THEORY: AUTHORS AS PRODUCT ENDORSERS

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ABSTRACT

Many posit that the celebrity can aid with influencing purchase if he or she is a credible source and is relevant to the advertised product. However, many advertisers are questioning the value of using these celebrities. Not only do many spokespeople become lost in the "clutter" of celebrity use, but these expensive people have the potential to embarrass the company. Most studies evaluate the effectiveness of entertainers and athletes as endorsers. No discussion takes place regarding the effectiveness of using literary figures as endorsers even though we are aware of the fact that they are extremely important celebrities in our popular culture. This paper discusses the rationale for using authors in modern advertising, incorporating theory from the field of literature. One author, Ernest Hemingway, is used as an example. Not only does this avenue of investigation have enormous interdisciplinary research potential, but classroom applications exist as well.

REVIEW OF PAST RESEARCH

A variety of scholars and marketing practitioners are concerned about the effectiveness of using celebrities as product endorsers. In all previous studies, the types of celebrities have been either athletes, entertainers, or executives of the companies they are trying to promote. In an extensive review of literature, not one study has been found which investigates the use of celebrity authors to promote products, even though it is well accepted that both present-day and deceased authors have celebrity advertising potential and are used in modern day advertising. However, no systematic theory exists surrounding their use. If an understanding of the use of literary figures in advertising is to be accomplished, we must embark on a truly interdisciplinary endeavor—investigating not only relevant advertising literature, but authors' writing, biographies, and works pertaining to literary criticism as well. The result could be joint efforts with colleagues across campus in both research projects and discussions in the classroom.

Celebrities as Product Endorsers

A recent recommendation from the Wall Street Journal [1990, p. B1] was "lay off celebrity commercials." Kestnbaum [1991] recently suggested that Coke and Pepsi should release their CPM (cost per thousand) figures of consumers correctly identifying celebrity spokespeople with their brand. He predicts that the costs would be astronomical. A serious question is just how effective are these celebrities. Any research endeavor which attempts to answer this question and to suggest alternatives to the traditional athlete/entertainer celebrity or company executive endorser could be valuable.

Use of cartoon characters is popular around the world. In France, over 2,000 companies have used the comic book hero Asterix to promote a variety of products [Arboise 1981]. The popularity of cartoon and comic book characters appears to be a reaction to human celebrities embarrassing their employers. Recently, Bruce Willis was seeking help for an alcohol problem as he was a spokesman for Seagram's Wine Coolers and Cybill Shepherd admitted that she rarely eats meat while appearing in ads for the National Beef Council. In contrast, cartoon characters can be controlled by the advertiser. Furthermore, any well-known character who is not alive can be more easily controlled than can real people. Famous literary figures who are no longer alive would fall into this category of celebrity endorsers as well. McCracken [1989] suggests that future researchers should address the issue of what happens to celebrities and their effectiveness as endorsers after they are disgraced.

Perhaps the concern in the academic literature investigated most often is the "match-up" hypothesis [Kamins 1990] which states that celebrities will only be effective if some intrinsic relationship exists between product characteristics and the celebrity image. Recent findings [Kahle and Homer 1985] [Kamins 1990] indicate that a match-up with the product influences whether a physically attractive actor influences various dependent measures of effectiveness, such as spokesperson believability and

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1This is an abbreviated version of the manuscript. For the complete paper, please contact the author.
credibility, advertiser believability and credibility, ad recall, attitudes toward the ad, and purchase intention.

Recently, Ohanian [1990 and 1991] summarized the relevant literature and concludes that three components of source credibility exist: expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness. The three dimensions can either make combined or independent determinations as to how effective a spokesperson is. She found that celebrities were perceived as significantly different in terms of the three dimensions, but no differences exist due to a consumer’s gender or age. Physical attractiveness and trust-worthiness of a celebrity do not relate significantly to the intent to purchase a product but a celebrity’s perceived expertise with the product was significant. She concludes, “For celebrity spokespeople to be truly effective, they should be knowledgeable, experienced, and qualified to talk about the product” [Ohanian 1991, p. 52].

Interdisciplinary Theory Which Examines the Effectiveness of Celebrity Endorsers

The Literature field and certain areas within Business are being joined together in many ways. Clemens and Mayer [1987] use excerpts from literary classics to teach leadership skills in management. More and more, marketers are turning to past research in the fields of literary criticism and semiotics in order to understand marketing phenomena. Mick [1986] emphasizes the importance of investigating the meanings of signs and symbols as embedded in their cultural environment as a way of understanding consumer behavior. Bertrand [1988] applies the concept of “narrative schema” to the analysis of specific advertising campaigns. This theory holds that the organization of the discourse of any text will utilize only a small fragment of an overall schema, but meaning will be produced only by integrating it with an overall “ensemble” in the consumer’s mind. Stem [1989] proposes literary criticism as a way of “knowing the consumer, and a way of shedding light on little explored areas of interest.” It can provide a point of entry into advertising words, sounds, and shapes as a mirror of consumer values and behavior” (p. 332). Speck, Schumann, and Thompson [1988] were the first to apply the concept of “schema” to the investigation of the effectiveness of celebrity endorsers. As McCracken [1989] mentions, the field of social psychology has been used to explain the source credibility and source attractiveness models.

Booth’s [1983] classic description of the different roles narrators have in fiction can aid us in understanding the role that endorsers play in modern day advertising. He is one of the first to point out how narrators can manipulate readers. Davis [1987, p. 193] describes the development of narratology during the last twenty years. He claims that the field has been regarded as a “linguistic or semiological structure with a grammar to be analyzed” and that narratives have been treated independently from the medium in which they occur. Thus, many scholars argue not only that literature deserves narrative analysis, but other writing such as journalism does as well. The writing of advertising copy could also fall into this analysis.

There are varying degrees of involvement, sympathy, and identification that we have for the narrator, and these variables may overlap. For example, Booth states that “the deeper our plunge, the more unreliability we will accept without loss of sympathy” [Booth 1983, p. 164]. In an advertising context, this may suggest that if the product is a “high involvement” (i.e., the product is expensive, the purchase can have serious social consequences, or it could reflect on one’s social image [Berkowitz, Kerin, and Rudelius 1989]) one, then maybe the celebrity does not have to be a reliable source in order for us to feel an intimate relationship with that celebrity. Maybe this last assertion does not seem intuitive, but its reverse (if the product is low-involvement, the celebrity must be a reliable source in order to be effective) is not true either. Ohanian [1991] found that celebrity spokespeople showed similar impact on consumers for both high and low-involvement products.

RATIONALE FOR THE USE OF LITERARY FIGURES AS CELEBRITY ENDORSERS

Exxon once ran an ad which showed a likeness of Mark Twain running away from home as a boy. Interestingly, Exxon was relying on the likeness to attract attention, because Twain’s name was never mentioned. General Electric presented a “folksy” anniversary gala for itself in a commercial. The only real-life characters shown were Will Rogers and Mark Twain [Budd 1983]. Both Twain and Hemingway have had movies made about their lives and both have been the main characters of fiction novels. As with some other authors of the past two centuries, Hemingway was a “culture hero to millions of his countrymen, not all of them intellectuals or even readers of books” [Raeburn 1984, p. 1]. When the author died, his death was considered “the most difficult death in America since Roosevelt” [Raeburn 1984, p. 167].
CONCLUSION

Many advertising experts are questioning the value of the continued use of celebrities to promote their products, and more research concerning celebrities' effectiveness is necessary. However, researchers have ignored an entire category of celebrity endorser even though advertisers have used this type of famous person to promote products—the literary figure. A variety of theoretical explanations exist concerning how authors might be appropriate product promoters and it is time that they be included along with athletes, entertainers, and well known company executives in future research.

Ernest Hemingway was considered as a potential advertising celebrity and a preliminary analysis of his perceived success as an endorser was discussed in the complete paper. It was proposed that most of his effectiveness (credibility) might lie with his perceived expertise of certain types of products during his lifetime. Using one of the validated measures available to determine celebrity effectiveness is the next step to determine how important any author might be in this field of promotion. Marketers will certainly benefit from the knowledge leading to a possible expansion of advertising opportunities, and those associated with authors and their estates will have clearer indications of some of the benefits of licensing the author's name and works for marketing purposes. Those involved with the teaching and research of literature could benefit from future empirical studies concerned with the application of the Source Credibility Scale. These studies could help to indicate whether a writer's popular reputation is a function of his or her literary works, public personality, use as a product endorser, or a combination of all three variables.

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STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF ETHICAL SITUATIONS USING MULTIDIMENSIONAL SCALING

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Michael J. Swenson, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602, (801) 378-2799

ABSTRACT

Thirty two senior, business undergraduate students at a large university in the Northwest compared case studies of ten organizations in an attempt to uncover the dimensions that were used in evaluating the ethical decision-making of those organizations. The use of multidimensional scaling was found to provide insights into the way ethical situations are perceived and evaluated. This research supports the marketing ethics theory proposed by Hunt and Vitell [1986] that both deontological and teleological dimensions are used to evaluate ethical situations. For this student group, the deontological dimension dominated the ethical evaluations and was four times the relative importance of the teleological dimension.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research is to ascertain the dimensions that students use in evaluating ethical situations. The nature of the business curriculum and its effect on the ethical standards of business students has been in question for a number of years [Geib and Brien 1971, Hawkins and Cocanougher 1972, Hasty, Bellizzi, and Losser 1980, Harris and Guffey 1991, Noah 1987, Burton, et al 1991]. Ethics as a curriculum topic has received significant coverage at over 90% of AACSB member institutions, with 53% indicating interest in increasing coverage of the subject [Schoenfeldt, McDonald, and Youngblood 1991].

It has been suggested that different groups might evaluate ethical situations using different frameworks. Several studies have suggested differences in the ethical orientations of these groups [Hunt and Vitell 1986, Trevino 1986]. Chonko and Hunt [1985] found that presidents and vice presidents were less likely to perceive ethical problems than their lower-level associates, men less than women, large firms more than small firms, technically trained less than those with business backgrounds. Hawkins and Cocanougher [1972] found more tolerance for unethical business practices with business students (versus non-business students) and for senior class students (versus juniors). An evaluation of student's ethical frameworks as compared to recent findings about "real world" managers [Mayo and Marks 1990] might provide insights into the relevance of instruction in ethics and the differences students might expect to encounter with initial employment.

DEONTOLOGICAL AND TELEOLOGICAL ETHICAL DIMENSIONS

Hunt and Vitell [1986] introduced a "general theory of marketing ethics" which attempts to explain the marketing manager's decision-making process in evaluating ethical situations. Central to this model is the suggestion that both deontological evaluation and teleological evaluation together would explain ethical judgments than either evaluation taken alone.

A deontological evaluation considers the inherent righteousness of each alternative. This is assessed by applying personal norms to each alternative. According to a set of rules or standards, is the action right or wrong? Deontological evaluation focuses on the specific actions or behaviors of an individual. For the deontologist, the key issue is developing a complete and appropriate set of rules with which to live.

A teleological evaluation, on the other hand, considers the consequences that may result from the actions or behaviors. This is assessed by evaluating the goodness or badness of all the consequences of the action to relevant stakeholders. Did the behavior produce a greater balance of good than any other available alternative? Teleological theories differ on who is to receive the good, from ethical egoism (individuals should promote their own greatest good) to ethical universalism (where the greatest good is promoted for all). Cost-benefit analysis (utilitarianism) is an evaluation technique based on the teleological evaluation. For the teleologist, the key issue is determining whose good is to be maximized and how it is to be measured.

Although teleological and deontological evaluations would appear to be at odds with each other, Hunt and Vitell [1986] suggest that any positive theory of marketing ethics should include both evaluations because the degree to which either or both ethical evaluations are used by an individual might vary across situations. In other words, in some situations an individual might apply rules of conduct (deontological evaluation), while in other situations the individual might judge the possible consequences of the behavior (teleological evaluation). Hensel and Dubinsky [1986] indicate that during periods of stress teleological evaluations may dominate. A third possibility is that individuals apply both evaluations to an ethical situation. Robin and Reidenbach [1987, pg. 50] proposed two codes
that blend the two philosophies: "Marketing activities that have a foreseeable and potentially serious impact on individuals ought to be regulated by the values of deontological reasoning. For all marketing exchanges that do not have foreseeable serious consequences for individuals, the arguments of utilitarianism seem appropriate within capitalist democracies."

Using a scenario technique, Mayo and Marks [1990] found that ethical judgments of marketing managers were jointly determined by both deontological and teleological evaluations. Although the adjusted r-square indicated that the two evaluations taken collectively accounted for a larger percentage of variation in ethical judgments than either one taken alone, the addition of the deontological evaluation only resulted in a small change in the r-square. This indicates that the teleological evaluation had the strongest influence on ethical judgments, suggesting a strongly utilitarian orientation.

STUDENT ETHICAL EVALUATIONS

Interest and debate on the efficacy of student instruction in business ethics has increased markedly in recent years. Critics suggest that the discipline lacks clearly understood objectives [DeGeorge 1987], that ethical values are completely formed by adolescence [Miller and Miller 1978], and that instruction occurs before a student has sufficient exposure to business practice [Pamental 1989]. However, there has also been academic support for the positive effects of ethics instruction on moral reasoning [Penn and Collier 1985] as well as its effect on reducing tolerance towards questionable business practices [Harris and Guffey 1991].

The purpose of this study is to discover what dimensions students use in evaluating ethical situations at the conclusion of a senior level course in business ethics. Consistent with the Hunt and Vitell [1986] model and the empirical work of Marks and Mayo [1991], it is hypothesized that students will use both deontological and teleological dimensions in evaluating ethical situations:

H1: Students will use both deontological and teleological evaluations in assessing ethical situations.

Of greater interest is how the students might weight these ethical dimensions. Trevino [1986] suggested the manager's level of moral development might influence the decision process used. As managers move to higher, more principled stages of moral development, they move from a more situational (teleological) orientation to an orientation in which they "behave consistently with their internally held determinations of right and wrong" [Trevino 1988, pg.608]. That is, they move to a more deontological orientation.

For students, many of them have either not experienced ethical situations in a "real world" business setting and/or have not been exposed enough ethical situations until the business ethics class to form a framework for evaluating them. There are several reasons to hypothesize why students might weight the deontological dimensions more heavily than the teleological dimension. First, with lack of experience, students might rely on ideal standards of behavior to resolve ethical conflicts. Students may find it easier to decide on rules of conduct and follow them. Students might also be considered more "idealistic" before the "real world" moderates that idealism. Secondly, students are also not under the duress that the actual managers of these situations were. Hensel and Dubinsky [1986] found that during periods of duress the limits of acceptable behavior might be expanded. Thirdly, students may rely on an intuitive or feeling decision style. Mayo and Marks [1990] hypothesize that managers that adopt this style are likely to form ideal standards that are deontological in nature. Fourthly, students may look at ethical situations from a more "individual" viewpoint.

H2: Students will weight the deontological evaluation more heavily than the teleological evaluation in assessing ethical conduct.

MULTIDIMENSIONAL SCALING

A useful series of techniques which enable analysts to identify key dimensions underlying respondents' evaluations of objects is multidimensional scaling (MDS). This tool enables researchers to determine: (1) what dimensions respondents use when evaluating objects, (2) how many dimensions they may use in a particular situation, (3) the relative importance of each of the dimensions, and (4) how the objects are related perceptually" [Hair, Anderson, and Tatham 1987, p. 349].

Marketing research practitioners and academicians have found MDS techniques to be worthwhile. Indeed, the significant number of academic and practitioner articles using these techniques over the past twenty years attests to their usefulness [Green, Carmone and Smith 1989]. MDS applications in marketing research include market segmentation [Wind 1978], product planning [Roberts and Taylor 1975; Silk and Urban 1978], pricing decisions [Hauser and Simmie 1981], personal selling [Green and McMennamin 1973], and the effect of advertising in research [Smith and Lusch 1976, Clarke 1978].
THE STUDY

Thirty two senior business undergraduate students at a large university in the Northwest participated in the study as part of a Business and Society class. The class was taught as a case class in which the students were encouraged to develop their own "decision template" or framework for analyzing the cases. Ten relatively extensive cases from the class were chosen to be evaluated by the students at the end of the term in an attempt to uncover the dimensions that the students used in evaluating the ethical decision-making of the organization. Each case involved a particular ethical situation for the organization.

Dissimilarities data were collected using a 7 point scale for all possible pairs of the ten organizations resulting in 45 paired comparisons. Multidimensional Scaling using the INDSCAL program [Carroll and Chang, 1970] was used to analyze the data because of its ability to handle individual differences as part of a larger study. INDSCAL assumes that all subjects share a common space, but that each individual is allowed to weight the dimensions of this space. There was no "elbow" in the dimensionality fit r [see Table 1].

The two dimensional solution of the ten organizations is shown in Figure 1. The horizontal axis is dimensionally described as "actions" (the deontological dimension) while the vertical axis is labeled "consequences" (the teleological dimension). Student debriefing (Question: What dimensions did you use in evaluating the ethics of their conduct?) suggests the use of both actions and consequences dimensions. This was also subjectively confirmed by a marketing professor, a business law professor, and several of the students by interpreting the perceptual maps. Quadrant I represents those organizations that are perceived as demonstrating both good actions and good consequences; Quadrant II represents bad actions but good consequences; Quadrant III represents good actions but bad consequences; and Quadrant IV represents those organizations that are perceived as demonstrating both bad actions and bad consequences. These dimensions support H1.

The individual weights given to these dimensions are displayed in Table 2. For 28 of the 32 students (87.5%), the actions (deontological) dimension was weighted most heavily. In three cases the consequences dimensions was weighted close to zero, indicating only the use of the deontological dimension in evaluating the ethical conduct of the managers of the organizations. The sums of products for matrix 1 is displayed in Table 3. By squaring the diagonals and dividing by the number of subjects, the relative importance of each dimension can be calculated [Green, Carmone, and Smith 1989, pg. 299]. The relative importance of the deontological dimension (.3773) was four times the relative importance of the teleological dimension (.0933) for these students, thus, supporting Hypothesis 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
<th>Dimensionality Statistics</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dims.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.78586</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>.74875</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>.68783</td>
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<tr>
<th>TABLE 2</th>
<th>Subject Weights for Deontological/Teleological Dimensions</th>
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<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Deontological</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.67774</td>
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<tr>
<th>TABLE 3</th>
<th>Matrix 1: Sum of Products</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>Teleological</td>
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Fritzsche and Becker (1984) found that business managers were disproportionately utilitarian in their decision-making. More recently, Ferrell and Fraedrich [1991] found that marketing managers were more deontological in orientation by a factor of 2:1, and that the utilitarian philosophy may not be the main philosophy of managers. From this point of view, these student subjects did not vary in their philosophical orientation, although they appear to be even more deontological in nature.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study represents the composite perceptual maps of a small study (n=32) of college business seniors and may not be representative of all students. This research represents an informed viewpoint of study of these organizations over a ten week period of time. This was a case class where a great deal of emphasis was placed on the individual developing their own ethical “template” for evaluating the cases. There were very few lectures, and a majority of the learning was designed to take place through student interaction with their peers. The use of case scenarios has been recently shown to be more effective in raising ethical awareness than the philosophical lecture approach [Burton, Johnston, and Wilson 1991].

The cause of the student emphasis on the deontological orientation is not entirely clear. An informal review of the cases does not suggest that they were decidedly deontological or teleological in orientation. Future research could attempt to explain this orientation. Research could be conducted of individuals over time to see whether ethical frameworks change or develop over time. A second approach would be to administer a similar instrument to groups at different career stages (e.g. student, young manager, middle manager, and executive).

Although deontological and teleological dimensions, both separately and in combinations, have dominated the current marketing ethics thought, other multidimensional solutions should be investigated. Recently, the dimensions of moral equity, relativism, and contractualism have been suggested as a useful multidimensional ethics scale for evaluating ethical situations [Reidenbach, Robin, and Dawson 1991, Reidenbach and Robin 1990]. These dimensions are the result of a factor analysis of multiple measures from several normative moral philosophies including, but not limited to, deontology and teleology.

REFERENCES

References, the research instrument, and a more detailed version of the paper are available from the authors.
CONSISTENCY BETWEEN PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL ETHICS
OF FUTURE BUSINESS MANAGERS

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ABSTRACT

Breaches in professional ethics reported in the financial news have become commonplace creating a call among educators and professional organizations for more teaching of ethics. The American Assembly of Colleges and Schools of Business (AACSB) Accreditation Board and the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (AICPA Special Committee on Standards of Professional Conduct for Certified Public Accounts (The Anderson Commission, 1986) and The National Commission on Fraudulent Financial Reporting (The Treadway Commission, 1987) have all emphasized the importance of ethics education in the business curriculum.

Some knowledge of the current status of students' ethics is needed before changes can be made. A review of literature revealed that the current state of students' ethics has not been explored. Information about how these future business leaders handle personal ethical dilemmas now may give some indication about how they will deal with professional dilemmas in the such information will provide a base upon which topics in professional ethics can be developed.

This study compared the acceptability of behavior of college students in two settings: as the individual consumers they are now and as the business professionals they plan to be in the future. A survey was conducted among 191 juniors and seniors of various departments in the School of Business of a state university in the southwest. Fourteen realistic personal and business situations were presented in vignette form scenarios. The scenarios depicted personal situations in which errors were made in the customers' favor by banks and grocery stores. Business scenarios included situations such as tax evasion and the sale of potentially hazardous products. The subjects were asked to indicate their agreement/disagreement with the decision made by the individual described in each ethical dilemma.

Findings showed that students' responses to ethical dilemmas in simple business settings indicated they have a good grasp of a professional code of ethics. Interestingly, those same students' response to ethical dilemmas in personal settings revealed a more lenient standard. This dual standard is troubling because it suggests that students understand the ethically appropriate choice in the abstract, but it is unclear if this is the choice they will make in the future when faced with financial and psychological inducements.
TEACHING ETHICAL DECISION MAKING IN MARKETING

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ABSTRACT

Many questions are being discussed today about teaching ethics in marketing. The questions include how to do it, in what courses, with what pedagogical techniques, and even whether it should be attempted at all. This paper looks at only one aspect of the total issue -- the process of ethical decision making. Whether we can, or should attempt to, teach our students what is ethically right or wrong is debatable. But helping our students to become sensitive to the incorporation of ethical and moral factors in their future decision making is an objective being strongly pursued in our curriculum planning, and the subject of these comments.

This paper presents a framework for structuring the teaching of ethical decision making in marketing courses. The framework, based on a model of moral behavior by James R. Rest, includes four components: (1) recognizing alternative actions and affected parties; (2) determining the morally best alternative; (3) giving priority to moral values and intending to do what is right; and (4) converting intentions into action. These steps are described, relevant teaching suggestions are recounted, and references are provided for more detailed source materials.

Copies of the full paper, together with the list of references, are available from the author in the Marketing Department, San Diego State University.
BRINGING CULTURAL DIVERSITY INTO THE MARKETING CLASSROOM: A MODEL TO ENHANCE FACULTY SENSITIVITY

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ABSTRACT

Universities are recognizing the need to address diversity within their cultural boundaries. Discussed is a model which was used to sensitize faculty in order to allow them to incorporate a multicultural perspective in their classroom. Specific issues of the model include focusing on the concept of diversity from an historic, current and future sense. Learning styles of students are addressed and the importance of teaching in a variety of ways discussed.

BACKGROUND ON CULTURAL DIVERSITY

The racial and ethnic make up of the United States is rapidly changing. By the beginning of the 21st century it is predicted that minorities will outnumber the white majority for the first time in history. In some parts of the country, that is already true, especially in the western regions (Henry 1990).

With this changing population profile, colleges and universities are recognizing the need to focus on diversity. This commitment to address ethnic multiplicity is particularly important in light of marked increases of racism on campuses in the United States over the past few years (Schnell 1990). Research has found that by incorporating cultural diversity into the classroom, the education of all students is enhanced and understanding among groups increased (Davidman 1990; Schnell 1990; Woolbright 1989). Because of these findings, many institutions of higher education are mandating that diversity and equal opportunities be part of the curriculum. Not only are the demographics of students in higher education transforming but also those of the work force with whom students will interact upon graduation. A culturally diverse education is necessary for everyone who is going to work and be active in this pluralistic society (Hughes 1990).

A potential problem with the mandate for diversity on college and university campuses, however, is that many professors are not prepared to bring a multicultural component into the classroom. Most faculty matriculated in curricula which reflected a homogeneous view of society descended from northern European ancestry (Oltjenbruns and Baez 1990).

Because of this, the first stage necessary to encompass cultural diversity within a classroom is to sensitize faculty regarding the topic. Faculty must be provided an opportunity to acquire knowledge and tools to identify their own cultural biases in order to heighten their cultural awareness (Abi-Nader 1991; Hughes 1990).
A MODEL FOR FACULTY INSTRUCTION

Faculty underwent intensive training activities for a year. The goal of the training was to enhance their knowledge regarding the ethnic past of the United States, current diversity issues, and the impact that demographic changes will have on the country's future. A variety of speakers provided expert information on topics of interest. Readings were disseminated and discussion groups held. Participants were encouraged to react to the topic at hand as well as address anxieties they might have at the prospect of bringing diversity into their classes. Concerns ranged from fears of stereotyping and alienating diverse students to dread of backlash from ultra conservative, ethnocentric students who might voice opposition to having diversity as part of the curriculum.

Introductory training sessions for faculty focused on background information addressing the essence of cultural diversity (Green 1982; Roosens 1989). Topics also included historical perspectives on race and racism in the country which affect the current climate (Model 1990; Takaki 1987). These initial readings and meetings set the stage for future issues which were more focused in their impact on teaching from a diverse point of view.

A paradigm was shared with the participants which delineated six stages of "intercultural sensitivity" progressing from "ethnocentrism" through "ethnorelativism" (Bennett 1986). Before a faculty member can gain insight into the importance of diversity he/she needs to be at some stage of ethnorelativism. By accepting and trying to understand differing values and ideals held by others, one can show a multicultural appreciation.

Faculty were encouraged to reflect on where they might fit along this continuum. Activities included in the discussion of this paradigm dealt with the diversity that all faculty bring into the classroom. This was an opportunity to identify personal strengths and weaknesses that could be addressed when incorporating diversity into courses. A first step in gaining a diverse perspective was for each faculty member to gain awareness of self (Locke 1988).

Another important topic covered was learning style. Research has shown that learning style is a personal attribute based on biological and developmental factors (Dunn, Beaudry and Klavas, 1989; Dunn and Griggs, 1988). Some people learn better by "doing" while others can learn by "hearing." Individuals process information much better if teaching style is complementary to their learning style.

If cultural diversity is being considered, learning styles must be a factor of interest. There is evidence that different cultural groups may emphasize one learning style over another (Cattey 1980; Dunn, Beaudry and Klavas 1989; Kolodny 1991). A variety of teaching methods and assignments which allow students the opportunity to excel where they are most comfortable is essential.
The last topic covered dealt with subtleties of racism and discrimination. Studies have shown that racism is often an unconscious act on the part of the perpetrator. It was noted that a faculty member should never focus attention on a minority student and/or assume that the student represents the entire race or culture to which he/she belongs. There is diversity within subcultures and these variations need to be valued and understood (DiGiacomo 1990). At the same time, it is essential that the faculty member not assume that the student has assimilated into the mainstream culture. This is a difficult line to walk but one that needs to be addressed in a sensitizing experience.

Project Goals

Four major goals were defined at the outset of the project. The first was for each faculty member to target a course into which he/she could bring a diverse component. Rather than try to encompass an entire course load initially, it was decided that one course on which to focus would be a more productive use of faculty time. It was stressed that one or two "lectures" on diversity issues would not, in most instances, be sufficient. The entire course should focus on diversity in some respect so students could be aided in perceiving themselves within a culturally diverse society (Hollins 1990).

The second goal was for each member of the project to contribute to an annotated bibliography. These sources are available to all members of the group as well as to others in the university and across the country.

Goal three was to share experiences and concepts with others in the department. By bringing the education back to the department, it is hoped that other faculty might also focus their attention on the importance of diversity within the classroom. The ultimate goal is to provide a diverse education to students in all classes.

The fourth goal was for each participant to disseminate information to faculty at other colleges and universities. This model is an excellent tool that can be used in any location. If diversity is an important consideration within a university system, training of faculty is a significant first step in the process. Sensitivity is necessary to raise faculty's awareness of cultural issues.

REFERENCES


Oltjenbruns, Kevin A. and Victor A. Baez (1990), Model for Multicultural Perspective in Home Economics Curriculum. USDA Challenge Grant. Washington, D.C.


THE CLIENT SIDE OF INTERNSHIPS: HOW VALUABLE ARE THEY?

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INTRODUCTION

Opportunities for students to gain experience and expertise through interactions outside the classroom offer a positive and exciting addition to classroom activity. Students typically welcome such opportunities and generally report high levels of satisfaction with the experiences. Outside classroom activities can include extra curricular activities such as membership in student clubs and professional societies, case study and research projects, and even part-time employment that is discipline related. An additional type of outside the classroom activity that has generated considerable interest is the internship.

WHAT IS AN INTERNSHIP?

The term internship has been loosely used to refer to many different types of activities. A common thread running through all is the placement of a student into a position with a company or organization for a finite period of time with the goal being, at a minimum, exposure for the student to some or all aspects of the organization. Beyond this commonality, internship programs vary considerably hence providing significant diversity in their scopes and the nature of the experience provided to the student participant.

Internships can be sponsored by a participating organization or company or by an academic institution. They may or may not involve financial compensation to the student. They may or may not be undertaken for academic credit. Some academic institutions and disciplines require students to complete an internship as a part of their degree requirements. The nature of the internship itself also may vary significantly between programs. Some internships provide exposure primarily to day-to-day operational activities while others focus on more strategic level, consultation activities. Internships may involve direct interaction with the organization's customers or clients or may relegate the intern to more "behind the scenes" activities. An intern may make many departmental moves during their tenure hence receiving exposure to the entire organization or they may focus on a single department or area. Figure One identifies some of these numerous factors on which internship program diversity lies. It is not meant to be comprehensive with respect to the potential variation in internship types.

The number of internship types (sixteen) generated by considering only these four variables emphasizes the diversity of experiences possible under the general term internship. (See Figure 1.)

Internships in Marketing are likely to provide almost as much variation within this single discipline as is possible across all fields as suggested above. Many firms, for example, sponsor compensated summer internships in sales as a means of introducing students to career opportunities in this field (preferably with their company). Other Marketing interns might find themselves assisting in the Marketing Research department, gaining valuable experience in the processes of collecting, coding, and analyzing data. Because of the vast range of differences in such programs, it is difficult to generalize as to the value of an internship program to its participants. While student participants generally report favorable reactions to their experiences, they may not be in a position to accurately evaluate the impact on their learning and their career until many months or even years after the experience culminates. Tracking students for such a period is difficult at best.

Additionally, since there are two participants to an internship exchange, evaluators should give consideration to both students and organizations in assessing the value of the programs. Organizational participants may have a variety of motives for participating. As suggested previously, they may hope to attract new employees. Conversely, the organization may be seeking help in carrying out operational activities. Provision of expert (albeit fledgling) aid in areas where the organization is weak is another potential motive. It is possible that an organization may feel a sense of responsibility to provide opportunities for students, even if they believe their own opportunity to benefit from the experience is limited. Such variation in motivation makes assessment of organizational benefit nearly as challenging as tracking former student participants in order to measure benefit. Control measures are critical, however, despite the challenge in obtaining them, if the on-going value of internship programs is to be fairly assessed. This paper reports the results of an effort to assess the longitudinal value of an internship program to organizational participants.
FIGURE 1
Internship Diversity Variables

Required

- Day-to-Day Operations
  - Client Interaction
    - Multi-Dept
    - Single Dept
  - Behind the Scenes
    - Multi-Dept
    - Single Dept

- Strategic Consultation
  - Client Interaction
    - Multi-Dept
    - Single Dept
  - Behind the Scenes
    - Multi-Dept
    - Single Dept

Elective

- Day-to-Day Operations
  - Client Interaction
    - Multi-Dept
    - Single Dept
  - Behind the Scenes
    - Multi-Dept
    - Single Dept

- Strategic Consultation
  - Client Interaction
    - Multi-Dept
    - Single Dept
  - Behind the Scenes
    - Multi-Dept
    - Single Dept
THE PROGRAM

The internship in question was an academically sponsored program that matched senior level, undergraduate Marketing students with local not-for-profit organizations. The student participants received academic credit in the form of a Marketing elective. Students did not receive financial compensation. From Figure One, the internship program would be viewed as a type sixteen. The program was initially funded through a seed grant provided by state lottery funds but evolved over a three year period into a self-sustaining program. Initial financial assistance provided for student assistance aid with administrative matters and release time for the faculty administrator. Student interest over the duration of the program subsequently provided sufficient FTE to maintain the internship. Student interns were matched, one-on-one, with not-for-profit organizations in a consultant/client type relationship. The objective, for the intern, was to produce a one year Marketing plan for their client organization. The plan typically focused on either client services or fundraising but not both. While many organizations required assistance in both areas, it was deemed beyond the scope of a one semester, undergraduate project to accomplish this. Organizations were asked to prioritize their needs in the two areas.

Organizational participants were schooled in the objective and focus of the program prior to a match being made. It was emphasized to the organizations that the interns would not be providing clerical or day-to-day administrative task aid. Furthermore, it was emphasized to participating organizations that interns would present them with a plan but would not be responsible for implementation. Implementation was the responsibility of the organization, following the intern’s tenure. As much as was possible then, organizations were screened for similarity in their motives for participating. By agreeing to participate in the program, as it was designed, the organizations were acknowledging that they sought outside expertise in an area (Marketing) that they recognized as important but in which they did not have adequate internal expertise. Most participating organizations were small, inadequately staffed, and with limited budgets. It was emphasized to student interns repeatedly throughout the program that their Marketing plan must be realistic and implementable given the constraints faced by their organizational client.

ASSESSING SUCCESS

Student participants evaluated the program via an extensive instrument within two weeks of their plan presentation to their organization. Students generally found the program to be educational, worthwhile, interesting, and challenging. These assessments did not change significantly over the three student groups that participated in the program between 1989 and 1991.

The focus of this report, however, is on the assessed value of the program to the organizational participants. Organizational participants evaluated the program within two weeks after being presented (both verbally and in written form) with their Marketing plan. In two of the three years that the program was administered, follow-up evaluations were also done by organizational participants six months after they received their plan.

Table One reports the results of client assessments of the program immediately (i.e. within two weeks) following program participation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
<th>Organizational Assessment, Two Week After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Response Rate</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How clearly did you understand the role and purpose of your intern?</td>
<td>1.8*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How valuable was your intern, overall, to your organization</td>
<td>1.5**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The time spent with the intern was fair, considering the value.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All things considered, would you do it again?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Scale was: 1=very clear; 2=somewhat clear; 3=somewhat unclear; 4=very unclear
**Scale was: 1=very valuable; 2=somewhat valuable; 3=slightly valuable; 4=not valuable at all

Table Two reports the results of the follow-up assessment that was completed six months after the program was completed. While sample sizes did not lend themselves to statistical comparisons of the groups, several interesting observations can be made.
TABLE TWO
Organizational Assessment, Six Months After

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Response Rate</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has the plan, or any part of it, been implemented?</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>Data</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have the objectives of the plan been met through implementation?</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was the plan realistic?</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>1990</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was the plan useful?</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>Very or</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>somewhat useful</td>
<td>somewhat useful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Would you do it again         | 100% | 100% |
|                                | Yes  | Yes  |

From Table One it can be seen that organizational participants clarity of understanding regarding the role and purpose of the program improved over the three years. This is no doubt attributable to the program administrator's ability to better explain the program to potential participants as experience with it was acquired. In general, organizational participants, immediately following the conclusion of the program, felt that their intern had been valuable and that the organization's time with the intern had been well spent. With only a single exception over the three years, the clients "would do it again".

Table Two considers the situation half a year later. Six months after receipt of their Marketing plans, an average of sixty-three percent of the organizations had implemented at least some of the plan with which they were presented. Considering the inadequate staffs and miniscule budgets of most of the organizations, this appears to be a considerable success! Of this sixty-three percent, eighty-three percent reported that the objectives of the plan were being achieved as a result of implementation. This figure speaks well to the quality of the plans developed by the student interns. The plans were generally viewed as realistic and useful by the clients. They still believed they "would do it again" if given the opportunity. These results would appear to support the thesis that clients, as well as students, benefit in a tangible way from participation in internship programs.

It is interesting to note some differences between the 1989 group and the 1991 group. Although the two week after assessment of the value of the intern improved (albeit not with statistical significance) from 1989 to 1991, the percent of participants that had implemented any part of the plan after six months declined. It may be that the slow economy has cut into organizational resources significantly enough over the past two years that the 1991 group is less able to expend the time or money needed to implement their plans. This result might, however, be altered in a one year follow-up to the 1991 group. An additional thirty-three percent of the 1991, six month respondents had plans to begin implementation in the following six months.

CONCLUSIONS

Did the internship program described here really represent a mutually beneficial exchange process? Based on the results of client assessments both immediately and six months following the program, the answer appears to be yes. In order to address this important issue for an internship program, an on-going control and feedback system must be in place. Follow-ups with clients should be done not only at the immediate conclusion of the relationship but also six months after the fact. Ideally, a one year follow-up should also be completed. Organizational participants would be in a better position, at this point, to assess what, if any, long term effects the intern's presence is likely to have on the organization.

Although time-consuming and labor-intensive to administrate, internships do appear to provide a valuable experience for not only student participants but for client participants as well. This result ultimately benefits the university by not only aiding in the advancement of their educational mission, but also through increased visibility and goodwill in the community.