MARKETING STRATEGIES FOR THE NEW EUROPE

James P. Beagham, Central Washington University

ABSTRACT

As U.S. Business firms and business schools gear up for the 1990's one factor that must be considered is the probable effect of the European Communities progress toward becoming a single market of 320 million affluent consumers. After centuries of squabbling, and 30 years of trying, it now appears that the European Economic Community will finally become a single common market.

The implications for U.S. firms and businesses from other non-European countries is staggering—one border, one set of product standards, one banking system, one set of tariffs and customs regulations, and more. The prospect facing U.S. business is a Europe where the exportation of U.S. products will be as uncomplicated as European Imports are to the U.S. today. The possibilities for cost savings through economies of scale and reductions of red-tape are making companies all over the world salivate with anticipation.

The basic premise of this paper therefore, is that the 'Europe 1992' process and the changes that it will bring about could mean unparalleled marketing opportunities for U.S. firms if they understand these changes and are prepared to move quickly, not only to offset the change process that is currently underway in Europe, but also to be in position to take full advantage of the tremendous opportunities that Europe 1992 will present.

BACKGROUND

History of the European Community

After WWII, with the encouragement of the United States the European Community was formed. Due in part to the strategic importance of Europe, the U.S. believed that an economically strong Europe would also be a strong ally as well as large market for U.S. goods.

With the recent experience of the depression, the U.S. believed that a Europe without protectionist trade barriers would soon evolve into a stronger trading partner and political ally. As a result, in 1957, the six original countries (France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg) signed the Treaty of Rome and the European Economic Community (EEC) was born.

Originally the objective of the EEC was the elimination of all tariff barriers between the six countries. Additionally the six member countries expressed the wish of ultimately becoming both an economic and political community of states.

Some early successes in the EEC included The
Common Agriculture Policy (CAP) which established a structure of stabilized commodity prices, a common fisheries policy, and the elimination of quotas and tariffs among EC member states. In 1967 the EEC and the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) joined to form the European Community (EC).

In 1973, the original six member states of the EC were joined by Denmark, Ireland, and Britain, followed by Greece in 1981, with Spain and Portugal in 1986.

With the oil crisis of 1973 and 1979, and the dramatic economic growth in the U.S. & Japan in the 1980's, Europe quickly returned to the idea of economic union. This resulted in an exhaustive three year study by the European Commission and the issuance of its "White Paper" (1985) on completion of the European Internal Market with nearly 300 directives on the removal of physical, technical, and fiscal barriers along with a timetable for their implementation by 1992.

The following year (1986), The Single European Act (SEA) was enacted by the European Council of Ministers calling for the EC to adopt measures with the aim of progressively establishing the internal market over a period extending to Dec. 31, 1992. In its simplest form the internal market was to comprise a 12 nation area without internal frontiers that would permit the free movement of people, goods, services, and capital.

The 1992 process is believed by many observers to be primarily the result of a European deregulatory movement, mirroring a similar shift in political attitudes in the U.S. favoring less government interference in the economic lives of its citizens.

As quoted in the Economist, (1988), the White Paper was "an adventure in deregulation" that would create a stronger and more dynamic economy. The Cecchini study (1988) concluded that "EC market integration would add an average 4.5% to the EC's GDP, improve the EC's balance of payments by approximately 1% of GDP, deflate prices by 6.1%, and reduce unemployment by about 1.5%".

The 1992 Process

With publication of the White Paper in 1985, the proponents of the 1992 process now had a program and a timetable for the completion of the internal market. With the guidance of the 279 (scaled down from nearly 300 in 1988) directives, the various governments of the EC now had a plan of action that involved the removal of three types of non-tariff barriers:

1) **Physical barriers** are the controls that each country has at its borders to control its borders. These barriers include customs and immigration procedures set up with the specific purpose of regulating people and goods entering and leaving each countries sovereign territory.

Physical barriers inevitably result in tremendous costs in time and money. It has been estimated that delays due to physical barriers and their resulting red tape cost business about $6 billion dollars per year.

To reduce the cost of doing business in Europe the European council has proposed measures to standardize freight documentation and to computerize cargo information. Additionally people will be able to move from one country to another by simply displaying a Europassport when crossing borders.

With the elimination of physical barriers will come the need for each country to standardize their policies on security, immigration, visas, gun control, drug policies, and political asylum, which were the basic issues that made physical barriers necessary in the first place.

2) **Technical Barriers** to trade primarily involve differences in product regulations and standards from one country to another. While the original purpose of standards was to protect consumers health & welfare, in reality they have been used as non-tariff barriers to protect domestic industry.

With 12 different sets of standards and regulations to contend with, many manufacturers would quite simply decide not to do business on a continental scale, opting instead for one or two primary markets in Europe.

The European Community now fully realizes that these technical barriers have been a serious impediment to each countries economic development and that to compete in a global economy it will be necessary to replace each member state's system of standards and regulations with one standardized system for the European Community.
Rather than trying to harmonize standards for each of the thousands of products and industries involved, the EC has focused on the principle of "mutual recognition" where if a product meets the national standards of one EC country, it will in effect meet the minimum standards of all EC countries. The adoption of the "mutual recognition" principle greatly simplifies the process of removing technical barriers throughout Europe.

3) Fiscal barriers involve impediments to the free movement of capital within the EC and between the EC and the rest of the world. It is generally believed that the removal of fiscal barriers will ultimately revolve around two issues: tax collection and differences in tax rates between EC countries.

A. The Tax Collection issue involves questions of how excise duties and value added taxes (VAT) will be collected after completion of the 1992 process. With the removal of border controls there will be a need for some type of new system to collect each country's taxes.

One system that has been proposed is the creation of a new "central clearing system" through which each member state will draw or pay money depending on whether they are net importers or exporters (vis a vis the EC) during the reporting period. One potential problem with this system is the possibility of tax fraud due to the fact that each country would be responsible to police its own central clearing account.

B. The second major problem affecting the removal of fiscal barriers is the disparity of tax rates between EC countries. Under the current system, value added tax rates within the EC vary from 12% to 25% between member states.

Without physical barriers in place, trade patterns would be distorted to the extent that low VAT countries would experience significant increases in demand for their goods while high VAT countries would experience decreases in demand.

A possible solution to this problem that has been suggested would be the harmonization of VAT rates between countries to a range of approximately 5%-6% in the hope of eliminating the economic incentive for unnatural patterns of trade between high and low VAT states.

Reducing the discrepancy in VAT rates between countries will be one of the most difficult obstacles to the removal of fiscal barriers since changing the tax structure within any country will inevitably involve giving up a degree of political and fiscal control within that country.

While some EC countries will naturally resist giving up part of their national sovereignty through loss of fiscal control, the potential rewards of the internal market, estimated to be an increase of EC GDP of 4.2% - 6.5% ($200 - $300 Billion) along with the creation of 2 million new jobs and lower prices for EC consumers, will be hard for any EC member state to ignore.

MARKETING STRATEGY/FOR THE NEW EUROPE

The EC 1992 initiative presents both a tremendous opportunity for U.S. firms and a real challenge for the future. It is assumed that the legal framework creating the internal market will be completed in 1993, or shortly thereafter. However, the reality of the single market will probably not be fully evident until sometime later in the decade.

Many of the differences in market conditions, such as culture and language will remain for the foreseeable future. There will however, be new marketing opportunity in Europe as national barriers continue to fall. As European companies develop new marketing strategies to move beyond their traditional national borders into new markets, U.S. firms should carefully assess these trends and respond accordingly. New distribution systems, new support systems, and new business alliances with or without mergers and acquisitions, will evolve to take advantage of the marketing opportunities that the "New Europe" presents.

The benefits of the new unified market will dramatically affect the lives of European consumers as they gain wider access to a broader range of products at lower prices.

As the European community continues to grow economically this will inevitably mean increased demand not only for European goods but also U.S. products. From the vantage point of a U.S. firm, Europe will be a much more attractive market after 1992 than it is today.
“Procedures & Standards will become more uniform, reducing many of the costs and difficulties which have characterized exporting to the EC countries in the past” (Linville 1990).

Several aspects of the 1992 process suggest that marketing in Europe after 1992 will involve in many cases, quite different marketing strategies from the ones used by U.S. firms today. One such area of change will be product standardization.

Product Strategy

Possibly the most important factor promoting more standardization of product design in Europe between member states has been the EC’s new attitude on product standards resulting in “harmonization” of product requirements to protect the health and safety of consumers and the environment. Compliance with the new EC health and environmental requirements will guarantee access for any product, European or American, to the Single European Market. This means that U.S. producers no longer have to comply with 12 different national product standards and regulations -- "if a product can be successfully sold in one EC member state market, it can be sold throughout the Single Market" (O’Connor 1990).

Distribution Strategy

As physical barriers continue to come down as a result of the 1992 process, a new distribution infrastructure is being created that will ultimately affect distribution strategy within Europe by making the physical distribution of goods much easier, much less complicated, and much less costly.

Two legal developments resulting from the 1992 process that directly affect the distribution of goods in Europe are the introduction of the EC’s Single Administration Document in 1988, and the relaxation of haulage quotas in transportation, with particular emphasis on trucking.

As a result of the Single Administration Document, one 13 page EC customs document will be the only requirement necessary to ship products throughout the EC replacing countless documents previously required to satisfy various bureaucratic rules for the shipment of intra-Europe goods:

“drivers hauling cargo from Amsterdam to Lisbon will be able to clear four border crossings by showing a single piece of paper. Today they need two pounds of documents” (WSJ 1990).

This change in documentation is no small matter. In Europe today, billions of dollars are wasted on needless bureaucratic red tape in the distribution system.

Another significant development is the projected completion of the “Channel Tunnel” in the early 1990’s. Products will then be able to travel from London to Paris in a few short hours instead of a complete work day. Additionally new highways are under construction linking Northern Europe with the European “Sunbelt” (Spain, Italy and Greece).

The implications that these changes have for U.S. firms marketing their products in Europe are dramatic:

“Shipments to Europe can be direct to a national market through a single gateway port in the U.K. or the Atlantic coast of the continent. Multiple warehouses can be consolidated in a single warehouse serving EC distributors throughout the marketplace. Efficiencies gained through lower EC transportation and inventory costs will make U.S. exporters more competitive in the Community market” (Linville 1990).

Promotions/Advertising Strategy

In the area of promotions and advertising, several significant changes brought about as a result of the single market have very important implications for U.S. marketing firms.

One such area of change involves the creation of uniform standards for T.V. commercials which would make it possible for U.S. firms to use the same T.V. commercial throughout Europe, instead of preparing 12 different versions of the same commercial for each of the EC member states.

Even though commercials would be dubbed for local language differences, the savings in production costs could be enormous to U.S. advertisers.

While many experts continue to feel that cultural
differences between countries must be taken into account when making decisions regarding the standardization of ads, many others feel that the lure of lower advertising costs will be too strong for advertisers to ignore.

Still another area of significance to U.S. firms is the deregulation of Europe’s state owned broadcasting monopolies brought about by the 1992 process. With deregulation of Europe's airwaves has come increased competition from private-funded trans-European satellite companies forcing EC member state governments to allow more privately owned broadcast channels. This will increase the availability of mass-media advertising to U.S. firms dramatically.

Patent, Trademark and Copyright Law

Another area of concern for U.S. marketing firms is patent, trademark and copyright law. The EC is presently moving toward a single patent system, but progress is slow. Currently U.S. exporters must still apply for patent protection from each member state they attempt to do business in.

As is the case with patent protection, firms must continue registering their trademark with each member state while the EC continues to move toward a standardized trademark system.

In the area of copyright protection, which is of extreme importance to U.S. computer software companies, the EC is also seeking stronger laws to combat piracy as it moves toward a more harmonious EC wide system. As was stated in a recent Wall St. Journal article: (WSJ 1990)

"The European Community submitted a detailed proposal to trade negotiators for new international rules to protect rights to intellectual property such as patents, copyrights and trademarks."

"The proposal presented in the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade talks in Geneva, aims to fight increasing counterfeiting and piracy. New accords on intellectual-property rights and other sectors of world trade are due to be signed by GATT's 96 members in December after four years of negotiations."

"The EC's draft would protect patents for 20 years. Copyrighting is protected for 25 to 50 years, and the initial registration of a trademark would be valid for 10 years under the proposal."

Standardization of Marketing Strategy

The last area of marketing strategy that may be of considerable importance to U.S. firms developing marketing strategies for Europe is the issue of "Standardization vs Localization" of marketing strategies in countries with differences in market conditions (i.e. customs, language, etc.).

For decades the debate on this issue has produced a wide array of divergent viewpoints, including a considerable body of literature, not the least of which is a 1983 article by Levitt (1983) in which he cautions that companies must learn to operate as if the world were one large market -- ignoring superficial regional and national differences, and that technology is driving the world toward commonality and that this is resulting in global markets for standardized consumer products.

In a second article focusing specifically on the standardization issue within a European context, Sorenson and Weichmann (1975) surveyed 27 leading multinational consumer good firms who were doing business in Europe. They found that despite strong differences in market conditions between countries a significant number of firms engaged in cross-border standardization of marketing strategy.

While my intent is not to argue for or against standardization of marketing strategies in Europe, I think most marketing strategists would agree that with the formation of the single market in Europe, there will be considerable opportunity and cost pressures pointing in the direction of standardization of various elements of marketing strategies by U.S. firms in the future. The question remains, however, how much standardization and under what conditions.

Caution is still advised in this area of marketing strategy development. We are still dealing with 12 countries with different, languages, customs and cultures. We continue to market in a Europe of 12
distinctly different identities. Anyone who thinks that thousands of years of European History based on national differences between countries can be swept aside in a few short years is probably not thinking like a European.

At the same time one cannot deny that Europe after 1992 will in no way resemble the Europe of today. As Europe continues to evolve into a single market, marketing strategies will change. Most of these changes should be positive ones for U.S. firms. The key is to analyze these changes and to plot marketing strategy within this changing environment accordingly. There may be opportunities for standardization with the resulting savings in cost as Europe continues to "harmonize" and "standardize" its marketing environment.

Implications for U.S. Firms

With the prospect of the single market in 1992, U.S. firms should be thinking of ways to position themselves to take full advantage of the tremendous opportunities that are likely to result. Many U.S. firms are taking a much closer look at Europe and are considering the ramifications of the 1992 process on their present marketing strategies.

In the past many U.S. exporters would export to one or two major markets in Europe while by-passing other potentially lucrative markets due to the technical, physical and fiscal barriers that we have previously discussed.

In the future, with the elimination of trade barriers U.S. firms should look at the entire EC as a single market with regional differences. The first areas to experience the fruits of the single market will probably be those areas that are already advanced economically. It is expected that initially the South of France will join with Northern Italy and will evolve into a single high growth area, while similar economic growth will take place in an area from Rotterdam in the north to Munich in the south. It is expected that these two growth areas will expand to become one large market and eventually expand outward through the entire European Continent. As these two areas continue to grow economically, unlimited opportunity will be available to those U.S. firms that are prepared to take full advantage of these developments as they unfold:

American exporters should treat Europe as a market which will evolve in stages from a cross-border market into a single continental market. A key to marketing success for American business will be a careful analysis of the timing for this transition (Linville 1990).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion I have listed several general observations and strategies that have been suggested for U.S. firms who are contemplating either initiating or expanding business operations in Europe (Higgins and Saltalainen 1989):

EC Based Companies

1) Move to a service-oriented strategy that will provide the product to the customer anywhere in Europe within 24 hours.
2) Reorganize logistics operations, cutting the number of distribution warehouses from one for each country to five regional warehouses.
3) Reduce inventories
4) Reduce transportation costs
5) Reduce administrative costs
6) Move to an integrated data network
7) Increase emphasis on quality
8) Eliminate non-value adding work
9) Track common product laws to ascertain characteristics of products needed in 1992.
10) Reexamine price and quality competitiveness of firm.

Non EEC Based Companies

1) Mergers, acquisitions, alliances - joint ventures, licensing, etc., must be arranged as quickly as possible. Positioning for the conditions of 1992 must begin immediately if it has not already begun.
2) The business intelligence function must be strengthened, and it must include the political environment, especially EEC headquarters in Brussels.
3) Innovative product differentiation strategies and relative low-cost strategies must be pursued.
4) Firms must offer standardized product lines, with market segmentation when necessary and build a Europe 1992 distribution system.

5) The organization should be structured to minimize labor costs and decentralize authority.

6) The company must re-educate consumers, and educate its own employees.

Finally, regardless of the strategy adopted, U.S. business firms must realize that Europe 1992 is a "process" that is subject to influence both from inside and outside the continent. To take full advantage of the tremendous opportunity that 1992 presents, U.S. firms must be fully engaged in the process as quickly as possible.

Taken as a whole, Europe 1992 and beyond, is the biggest economic and political change that the world has seen since World War II. U.S. business must continue to assess these changes carefully and to adapt their marketing strategies accordingly.

REFERENCES


Business Week, Dec. 12, 1988, p. 49.


ABSTRACT

EUROPE 1992 AND BEYOND: A NEW CLASS IN INTERNATIONAL MARKETING?

Katrin R. Harich, California State University, Fullerton

In 1992 Europe will become a "Single Market", a "Fortress" facing the U.S. and Japan. Yet U.S. managers and businessmen have done very little to prepare themselves against the potential erection of external barriers to outside trading partners. At the same time, not much is undertaken to prepare American students for Europe 1992 and beyond.

This paper suggests that the advent of Europe 1992 justifies the creation of a specific course (special topic class) on the European Community. This class can provide students with a deeper understanding of 1) the history of the EEC, 2) its organizational structure, 3) the goals and barriers with respect to the "Single Market", 4) the twelve member countries, their historical, economic, and cultural background, as well as of 5) the implications of Europe 1992 and beyond for U.S. business and U.S. policy.

Students will have ample opportunity to familiarize themselves with the different member countries, to assess market opportunities in a unified Europe, and to devise entry strategies for specific European countries. They will learn about "special topics" such as the "Euro-Consumer" and "Pan-European Advertising". Both topics lie at the heart of the globalization versus standardization issue which seems worthwhile to discuss.

The paper presents a complete syllabus and class schedule as well as a list of references that can be helpful when considering teaching or lecturing on Europe 1992 and its implications for U.S. business and policy.
ABSTRACT

CAN WE TEACH SOVIET STUDENTS WESTERN BUSINESS METHODS?

William R. Wynd, Eastern Washington University
Arthur G. Reitsch, Eastern Washington University

Universities in the U.S.S.R. have been given permission to enter into agreements with academic institutions outside their borders without supervision by the Soviet Ministry of Education. During the eight month period following the policy, 14 institutions in the U.S. had signed agreements with Soviet universities. Because the U.S.S.R. has been closed for so long little is known about their educational system except what is published officially by the Soviet government. Soviet universities will seek business professors who can teach business on their campuses. If business educators are to teach Soviet university students on the U.S.S.R. they will need answers to two questions: 1. Are Soviet business students any different from U.S. business students? 2. Can U.S. business educators teaching in the U.S.S.R. use the same teaching methods they use in the U.S.? We found no current literature which provided insights to either of these two questions.

The purpose of this paper is to report the results of a survey of the attitudes of "business" students at Kalinin State University in the Soviet Union and those of "business" students at Eastern Washington University and to suggest appropriate considerations in teaching business to the Russians.

Are Soviet business students any "different" from their American counterparts? Based upon our survey the answer is yes. The level of agreement on 11 of the 14 statements differed significantly between the two groups of students. American university business educators must be mindful of these differences if they are to anticipate the reaction of Soviet students.

In the U.S. business educators are often accustomed to giving frequent examinations. In the Soviet Union examinations are less frequent in most courses because duplicating facilities are nearly non-existent. In a closed society what few printing and duplicating facilities are available are generally under tight control. Consequently, American university business educators teaching in the U.S.S.R. will have to adapt to this system. When multiple copies of anything are needed much time must be allowed. This lack of frequent examinations may explain why Soviet students do not feel as much pressure for good grades as their U.S. counterparts. But because there are so few examinations the Soviets recognize the importance of each grade and feel more pressure to cheat to get good grades.

Students in the U.S. seek a University education for a variety of reasons. Over half the respondents to our survey indicated that an increase in one's earning power was a primary benefit. Far fewer Soviet students felt that way, probably because of the egalitarian nature of the U.S.S.R. Once in the university system the Soviet students must maintain reasonable grades to graduate. After graduation they are assigned a job consequently the drive to excel in hopes of landing a better position characteristic of many American business students is not as pronounced in the U.S.S.R. Furthermore, far fewer Soviet students in our sample felt optimistic about their future when compared with American students. This is probably true because Soviet young people are less capable of controlling their own future. Consequently, motivating Soviet business students may be more difficult. Business educators will have to show Soviet students how their education can benefit them both financially and otherwise as their once rigid system moves toward a market driven economy.

Far fewer Soviet students believe that an individual can bring about changes in society or that the education they are receiving will leave them well prepared for life. We believe this attitude is the product of the system. In a free society individuals have the right to vote and to protest when they disagree. In a tightly controlled system these freedoms are suppressed. In addition, education in the most U.S. business schools has direct relevance to the real world and frequently examples and cases are used to illustrate the application of principles to practice. U.S. business educators teaching Soviet students must steadfastly encourage students to question things and help them relate what they are learning to the real world.
A COMPARISON OF COMPETENCIES NECESSARY FOR EMPLOYMENT OF FIRST-TIME COLLEGE BUSINESS MAJOR, UNDERGRADUATES

James R. Ogden, Kutztown University
Rafael Weston, Adams State College
Okan Akeay, Kutztown University

ABSTRACT

This study was developed and designed to assess the relative importance of employment acquisition characteristics for first-time business, college graduates. Nine job acquisition dimensions were identified. Those dimensions included: (a) Communication Skills, (b) Personal Appearance, (c) Recommendations, (d) Scholastic Record, (e) Co-curricular activities, (f) Related Work Experience, (g) Non-related Work Experience, (h) Knowledge of the Company and/or Industry, and (i) Career Goals. Employers of first-time college graduates in the fields of marketing, management and accounting relied upon the dimensions of communication skills, scholastic record, personal appearance, and recommendations to the greatest extent.

INTRODUCTION

There is a wide array of information that deals with the 'tools' a student needs in order to secure that first job out of college. These data are important to both the student and college (or university) for purposes of increased placement. The study objective of this research is to assimilate and rank this information in order to assist the marketing student with job acquisition.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In order to secure a job, the student needs basic tools. In a recent research project, these tools were categorized into nine dimensions: communication skills, co-curricular activities, non-related work experience, related work experience, career goals, knowledge of the company and/or industry, personal appearance, recommendations, and scholastic record (Ogden 1987). Within each of these dimensions large amounts of research have been published emphasizing particular operational skills. Wyant and Vice (1979) discuss the importance of a well written resume. Other authors echo the importance of a well written resume (McDaniel 1978; Figler 1979; Coxford 1982; Eure and Halatin 1981). Additional research emphasizing communication skills include areas such as cover letters, personal interviews, thank-you notes, phone calls and social settings (Shart 1982; Beaumont 1980; Porter 1981; and Tucker and Rowe 1979). The importance of personal appearance has been well documented through various studies (Carlson 1979; Douglas and Soloman 1983; Malloy 1977; Lydon 1981 and Holman 1980). Tinsley (1978) and others have studied the impact of nonverbal communication. Overall, there have been hundreds of articles written (in the past twenty years) dealing with the "problem" of securing post-undergraduate employment (Manning and Reece 1984; Hafer and Hoth 1981; Downs and Tanner 1982; The College Placement Annual 1982; 1983, Ogden 1987, etc.).

METHODOLOGY

Based upon an earlier work (Ogden 1987), the nine major employment dimensions of communication skills, co-curricular activities, non-related work experience, work experience, career goals, knowledge of the company and/or industry, personal appearance, recommendations and scholastic record, were utilized as a basis for comparison purposes.

For this research, twenty-two personnel recruiters representing twenty-two randomly selected Fortune 500 companies, and eight personnel recruiters representing each of the 'Big Eight' accounting firms were utilized. "The N that forms the basis for (this) research has traditionally been the number of decisions that must be judged" rather than the total number of 'judges' utilized (Thornton, 1974, p. 20; Postmand and Tolman, 1959).

The representatives were selected based upon the generation of a random number table. This table was then applied to the Fortune 500 companies and 22 representative companies were selected. The remaining eight judges were representatives of the top eight accounting firms.
For this study, forty-five bar graphs were developed. Each of the graphs depicts a hypothetical job applicant. On each graph there are nine bars. The nine bars represent the nine defined employment dimensions. Each bar depicts the relative strengths or weaknesses of that particular job applicant for the given dimension(s). A random number table was used to generate the ratings for each dimension (depicted in bar lengths). Thus, the hypothetical applicant depicted in Figure 2 would be generated by the random numbers of 6, 9, 3, 9, 3, 2, 9, 9, 1. The ratings are based on a nine-point continuum ranging from "among the lowest" to "among the highest". No attempt was made to develop any particular set of combinations for each profile. Each bar graph, thus, represented a particular hypothetical profile for a job applicant. The forty-five bar graphs (or job applicant profiles) were placed in plastic page covers. The plastic pages were put in a looseleaf binder. All profiles were randomly assigned using a random number table.

Thirty participants were used in this study. Eight participants were from accounting firms and twenty-two participants were from a random sample of Fortune 500 firms. These subjects were asked to respond to 45 profiles. For each of these subjects, a separate response was used as a method of acquiring the needed judgements. Of those thirty participants, ten were from each of the disciplines under study (marketing, management, and accounting) and were used for comparison purposes.

During a personal interview, each of the employers were given the forty-five (45) profiles of potential (hypothetical) candidates for employment. After looking through the profiles, the employers were asked to record their judgements of the forty-five hypothetical applicants on a response sheet containing a nine-point continuum ranging from "worst possible candidate" to "best possible candidate".

Correlations were calculated for each of the subjects’ judgements utilizing Pearson’s Product-moment Correlation (r), to show the extent the employers relied upon each of the nine dimensions. The results are reported immediately following this section. After the correlations were computed, and the output ranked, the rankings were shown to ten different Fortune 500 executives to further establish the importance of these rankings. The employers concurred with the rankings.

RESULTS

The correlations showed both positive and inverse relationships of varying strengths. Of the 270 correlations (9 dimensions multiplied by 30 participants) 190 were positive 79 were inverse and 1 showed no correlation (0.00). Tables one and two graphically depict the overall correlation means and rankings for marketing and the overall correlation. Most of the correlations range for +.000 to .360 (83 percent), showing only a slight relationship; ten percent range form +.361 to .550, indicating a moderate but significant relationship; six percent range form +.550 to .775, indicating a dependable and significant relationship. Less than one percent range from +.775 to 1.00, which indicates an extremely dependable relationship. These results indicate the heaviest reliance on the dimensions of communication skills, scholastic record, recommendations and personal appearance.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The employers (utilized in this body of research) do rely on some employment dimensions, or characteristics, more than others. The dimensions or characteristics, more than others. The dimension of communication skills is extremely important for the marketing student, as is personal appearance.

Perhaps seminars could be utilized to educate marketing faculty on the importance of these dimensions. The faculty could then give this information to their marketing students. Faculty should emphasize, in class, the importance of each of these dimensions for students who want to secure employment upon graduation.

The results of this research should be made available to the students, as well as faculty and staff, earlier in the students’ collegiate career to help them prepare for their job search challenge. Perhaps workshops or seminars could be established that utilize these findings. Emphasis in course selection and placement should reflect the importance of communication skills. Additional research to replicate these findings should be undertaken. Perhaps comparisons of large versus medium versus small employers could be undertaken to further segment important dimensions for types of employers.
FIGURE 1
JOB APPLICANT'S PROFILE

When comparing this job applicant with other job applicants, this job applicant is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Dimension</th>
<th>Among</th>
<th>About</th>
<th>Among</th>
<th>the Lowest</th>
<th>the Highest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication Skills</td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Appearance</td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>xxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td>xxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholastic Record</td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-Curricular Activities</td>
<td>xxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td>xxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Related Work Experience</td>
<td>xxx</td>
<td></td>
<td>xxx</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Related Work Experience</td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of the Company and the Industry</td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Goals</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 1
RANKING OF OVERALL EMPLOYMENT ACQUISITION DIMENSIONS FROM THE PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION (r)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank*</th>
<th>Dimension Name</th>
<th>Overall Correlation Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Communication Skills</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Scholastic Record</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Personal Appearance</td>
<td>.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>.192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Career Goals</td>
<td>.169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Non-related Work Experience</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Knowledge of the Company and/or Industry</td>
<td>-.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Co-curricular Activities</td>
<td>-.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Related Work Experience</td>
<td>-.072</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Arranged from most important (1) to least important (9).

NOTE: Overall importance is indicated after the dimension within parentheses.

REFERENCES


Thornton, C. L. *The Use of the Brunswik Lens Model in Personnel Selection*. (Doctoral Dissertation, the University of Akron) Xerox University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan, #75-9374, 1974.


PREPARATION FOR A CAREER IN MARKETING: 
A COMPARISON OF STUDENTS' AND EMPLOYERS' PERCEPTIONS

Brian van der Westhuizen, California State University, Northridge

The demand for marketing education is, like the demand for many products, derived. In the first instance, students 'demand' marketing education, however, the reason is simply to prepare themselves for careers in marketing. This is a subtle manifestation of marketing at work, with students reacting to the laws of supply and demand. There is a demand for qualified marketing personnel and students are preparing themselves to meet that demand.

1. The Problem

Marketing students need to know specifically what prospective employers require. They should also be aware of the job opportunities available, since their expectations are frequently not in line with the reality of the marketplace. In this regard, the demand for salespeople is as strong as ever. Unfortunately, many college students have a negative perception towards selling as a career, or even as an entry level job in marketing. An empirical study conducted in October 1990 confirmed that the majority of entry level jobs, as well as the more senior jobs in marketing are in sales and sales management. It therefore behooves the teaching faculty of marketing departments in business schools to change the negative perception towards personal selling by ensuring that the courses in the curriculum for marketing majors are appropriate and that their own attitude is right.

2. The Study

There were three main objectives of the study, although the first, to convince teaching faculty of the importance of personal selling and sales management, could only be accomplished by using the results of the study. The second objective was to compare the perception of students and employers of the course offered in a typical undergraduate degree course offering a marketing major in terms of their importance in preparing students for a career in marketing. The third objective was to compare students' expectations of and aspirations to entry and senior level marketing jobs with actual job availability in the market. The four questions addressed by the study were: how students and employers ranked the courses offered; which potential course topics were considered beneficial; the entry level jobs expected by students and the entry level jobs actually available; and the senior level jobs aspired to by students and the senior level jobs actually available.

3. Methodology

Two questionnaires were developed, one for students and one for prospective employers. The sample frame used for students was the 276 declared marketing majors in their junior and senior years enrolled at California State University, Northridge, (CSUN), in the Fall semester of 1990. A total of 129 usable questionnaires was obtained, a response rate of 46.7%. The sample frame for prospective employers was provided by the Career Center at CSUN. From it, a systematic, random sample of 475 firms was selected and 88 usable questionnaires were returned, a response rate of 18.5%.

4. Results of the Study

Both students and employers ranked Introduction to Marketing Management the most important course in preparing for a career in marketing. Students ranked Marketing Communications second, whereas employers chose Sales Management. Although both students and employers ranked Marketing Communications third, a much higher percentage of employers chose this course. Marketing Research was ranked fourth by both groups, although more students chose it than employers. Students ranked Marketing Management Seminar fifth, whereas employers ranked Marketing Communications fifth. Students ranked Introduction to Marketing Management sixth, but employers ranked Marketing Management Seminar sixth. The conclusion is that there is very significant divergence of perception as to the relative importance of the various courses.

Regarding the perception of the two groups of the relative importance of potential course topics, 80.3% of employers considered a course in Business Communication important and ranked it first. Only 55.8% of students considered it third most important. Employers thought a course in Professional Selling was second most important, but
students only ranked it fourth. Again, there were significant differences between both groups.

This study found that there are very serious differences between students' expectations and the availability of jobs in the market. The overwhelming majority of marketing jobs, both at the entry level (81.8%) and at the senior level (59.1%), are in the sales area. The implications for marketing educators are thus clear.
A COMPARISON OF COMPETENCIES NECESSARY FOR EMPLOYMENT OF FIRST-TIME COLLEGE, BUSINESS MAJOR, UNDERGRADUATES

James R. Ogden, Kutztown University
Rafael Weston, Adams State College
Okan Akcay, Kutztown University

ABSTRACT

This study was developed and designed to assess the relative importance of employment acquisition characteristics for first-time business, college graduates. Nine job acquisition dimensions were identified. These dimensions included: (a) Communication Skills, (b) Personal Appearance, (c) Recommendations, (d) Scholastic Record, (e) Co-curricular activities, (f) Related Work Experience, (g) Non-related Work Experience, (h) Knowledge of the Company and/or Industry, and (i) Career Goals. Employers of first-time college graduates in the fields of marketing, management and accounting relied upon the dimensions of communication skills, scholastic record, personal appearance, and recommendations to the greatest extent.

INTRODUCTION

There is a wide array of information that deals with the "tools" a student needs in order to secure that first job out of college. These data are important to both the student and college (or university) for purposes of increased placement. The study objective of this research is to assimilate and rank this information in order to assist the marketing student with job acquisition.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In order to secure a job, the student needs basic tools. In a recent research project, these tools were categorized into nine dimensions: communication skills, co-curricular activities, non-related work experience, related work experience, career goals, knowledge of the company and/or industry, personal appearance, recommendations, and scholastic record (Ogden 1987). Within each of these dimensions large amounts of research have been published emphasizing particular operational skills. Wyant and Vice (1979) discuss the importance of a well written resume. Other authors echo the importance of a well written resume (McDaniel 1978; Figler 1979; Coxford 1982; Eure and Halatin 1981). Additional research emphasizing communication skills include areas such as cover letters, personal interviews, thank-you notes, phone calls and social settings (Shart 1982; Beaumont 1980; Porter 1981; and Tucker and Rowe 1979). The importance of personal appearance has been well documented through various studies (Carlson 1979; Douglas and Soloman 1983; Malloy 1977; Lydon 1981 and Holman 1980). Tinsley (1978) and others have studied the impact of nonverbal communication. Overall, there have been hundreds of articles written (in the past twenty years) dealing with the "problem" of securing post-undergraduate employment (Manning and Reece 1984; Hafer and Hoth 1981; Downs and Tanner 1982; The College Placement Annual 1982; 1983, Ogden 1987, etc.).

METHODOLOGY

Based upon an earlier work (Ogden 1987), the nine major employment dimensions of communication skills, co-curricular activities, non-related work experience, work experience, career goals, knowledge of the company and/or industry, personal appearance, recommendations and scholastic record, were utilized as a basis for comparison purposes.

For this research, twenty-two personnel recruiters representing twenty-two randomly selected Fortune 500 companies, and eight personnel recruiters representing each of the "Big Eight" accounting firms were utilized. "The N that forms the basis for (this) research has traditionally been the number of decisions that must be judged" rather than the total number of "judges" utilized (Thornton, 1974, p. 20; Postmand and Tolman, 1959).

The representatives were selected based upon the generation of a random number table. This table was then applied to the Fortune 500 companies and 22 representative companies were selected. The remaining eight judges were representatives of the top eight accounting firms.
For this study, forty-five bar graphs were developed. Each of the graphs depicts a hypothetical job applicant. On each graph there are nine bars. The nine bars represent the nine defined employment dimensions. Each bar depicts the relative strengths or weaknesses of that particular job applicant for the given dimension(s). A random number table was used to generate the ratings for each dimension (depicted in bar lengths). Thus, the hypothetical applicant depicted in Figure 2 would be generated by the random numbers of 6, 9, 3, 9, 3, 2, 9, 9, 1. The ratings are based on a nine-point continuum ranging from “among the lowest” to “among the highest.” No attempt was made to develop any particular set of combinations for each profile. Each bar graph, thus, represented a particular hypothetical profile to a job applicant. The forty-five bar graphs (or job applicant profiles) were placed in plastic page covers. The plastic pages were put in a looseleaf binder. All profiles were randomly assigned using a random number table.

Thirty participants were used in this study. Eight participants were from accounting firms and twenty-two participants were from a random sample of Fortune 500 firms. These subjects were asked to respond to 45 profiles. For each of these subjects, a separate response was used as a method of acquiring the needed judgements. Of those thirty participants, ten were from each of the disciplines under study (marketing, management, and accounting) and were used for comparison purposes.

During a personal interview, each of the employers were given the forty-five (45) profiles of potential (hypothetical) candidates for employment. After looking through the profiles, the employers were asked to record their judgements of the forty-five hypothetical applicants on a response sheet containing a nine-point continuum ranging from "worst possible candidate" to "best possible candidate".

Correlations were calculated for each of the subjects’ judgements utilizing Pearson’s Product-moment Correlation (r), to show the extent the employers relied upon each of the nine dimensions. The results are reported immediately following this section. After the correlations were computed, and the output ranked, the rankings were shown to ten different Fortune 500 executives to further establish the importance of these rankings. The employers concurred with the rankings.

RESULTS

The correlations showed both positive and inverse relationships of varying strengths. Of the 270 correlations (9 dimensions multiplied by 30 participants) 190 were positive 79 were inverse and 1 showed no correlation (0.00). Tables one and two graphically depict the overall correlation means and rankings for marketing and the overall correlation. Most of the correlations range for + .000 to .360 (83 percent), showing only a slight relationship; ten percent range form + .361 to .550, indicating a moderate but significant relationship; six percent range form + .550 to .775, indicating a dependable and significant relationship. Less than one percent range from + .775 to 1.00, which indicates an extremely dependable relationship. These results indicate the heaviest reliance on the dimensions of communication skills, scholastic record, recommendations and personal appearance.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The employers (utilized in this body of research) do rely on some employment dimensions, or characteristics, more than others. The dimensions or characteristics, more than others. The dimension of communication skills is extremely important for the marketing student, as is personal appearance.

Perhaps seminars could be utilized to educate marketing faculty on the importance of these dimensions. The faculty could then give this information to their marketing students. Faculty should emphasize, in class, the importance of each of these dimensions for students who want to secure employment upon graduation.

The results of this research should be made available to the students, as well as faculty and staff, earlier in the students’ collegiate career to help them prepare for their job search challenge. Perhaps workshops or seminars could be established that utilize these findings. Emphasis in course selection and placement should reflect the importance of communication skills. Additional research to replicate these findings should be undertaken. Perhaps comparisons of large versus medium versus small employers could be undertaken to further segment important dimensions for types of employers.
FIGURE 1
JOB APPLICANT'S PROFILE

When comparing this job applicant with other job applicants, this job applicant is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Dimension</th>
<th>Among the</th>
<th>About</th>
<th>Among the</th>
<th>Lowest</th>
<th>Highest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication Skills</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Appearance</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scholastic Record</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-Curricular Activities</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Related Work Experience</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Related Work Experience</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of the Company and the Industry</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Goals</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 1
RANKING OF OVERALL EMPLOYMENT ACQUISITION DIMENSIONS FROM THE PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION (r)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Dimension Name</th>
<th>Overall Correlation Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Communication Skills</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Scholastic Record</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Personal Appearance</td>
<td>.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>.192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Career Goals</td>
<td>.169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Non-related Work Experience</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Knowledge of the Company and/or Industry</td>
<td>-.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Co-curricular Activities</td>
<td>-.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Related Work Experience</td>
<td>-.072</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Arranged from most important (1) to least important (9).

NOTE: Overall importance is indicated after the dimension within parentheses.

REFERENCES


Eure, J. D. & Halatin T. J. Reading Between the Lines of Employment Correspondence. Journal of College Placement, Summer, 1981.


Thornton, C. L. The Use of the Brunswik Lens Model in Personnel Selection. (Doctoral Dissertation, the University of Akron) Xerox University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan, #75-9374, 1974.


PREPARATION FOR A CAREER IN MARKETING:  
A COMPARISON OF STUDENTS' AND EMPLOYERS' PERCEPTIONS

Brian van der Westhuizen, California State University, Northridge

The demand for marketing education is, like the demand for many products, derived. In the first instance, students "demand" marketing education, however, the reason is simply to prepare themselves for careers in marketing. This is a subtle manifestation of marketing at work, with students reacting to the laws of supply and demand. There is a demand for qualified marketing personnel and students are preparing themselves to meet that demand.

1. The Problem

Marketing students need to know specifically what prospective employers require. They should also be aware of the job opportunities available, since their expectations are frequently not in line with the reality of the marketplace. In this regard, the demand for salespeople is as strong as ever. Unfortunately, many college students have a negative perception towards selling as a career, or even as an entry level job in marketing. An empirical study conducted in October 1990 confirmed that the majority of entry level jobs, as well as the more senior jobs in marketing are in sales and sales management. It therefore behooves the teaching faculty of marketing departments in business schools to change the negative perception towards personal selling by ensuring that the courses in the curriculum for marketing majors are appropriate and that their own attitude is right.

2. The Study

There were three main objectives of the study, although the first, to convince teaching faculty of the importance of personal selling and sales management, could only be accomplished by using the results of the study. The second objective was to compare the perception of students and employers of the course offered in a typical undergraduate degree course offering a marketing major in terms of their importance in preparing students for a career in marketing. The third objective was to compare students’ expectations of and aspirations to entry and senior level marketing jobs with actual job availability in the market. The four questions addressed by the study were: how students and employers ranked the courses offered; which potential course topics were considered beneficial; the entry level jobs expected by students and the entry level jobs actually available; and the senior level jobs aspired to by students and the senior level jobs actually available.

3. Methodology

Two questionnaires were developed, one for students and one for prospective employers. The sample frame used for students was the 276 declared marketing majors in their junior and senior years enrolled at California State University, Northridge, (CSUN), in the Fall semester of 1990. A total of 129 usable questionnaires was obtained, a response rate of 46.7%. The sample frame for prospective employers was provided by the Career Center at CSUN. From it, a systematic, random sample of 475 firms was selected and 88 usable questionnaires were returned, a response rate of 18.5%.

4. Results of the Study

Both students and employers ranked Introduction to Marketing Management the most important course in preparing for a career in marketing. Students ranked Marketing Communications second, whereas employers chose Sales Management. Although both students and employers ranked Marketing Communications third, a much higher percentage of employers chose this course. Marketing Research was ranked fourth by both groups, although more students chose it than employers. Students ranked Marketing Management Seminar fifth, whereas employers ranked Marketing Communications fifth. Students ranked Introduction to Marketing Management sixth, but employers ranked Marketing Management Seminar sixth. The conclusion is that there is very significant divergence of perception as to the relative importance of the various courses.

Regarding the perception of the two groups of the relative importance of potential course topics, 80.3% of employers considered a course in Business Communication important and ranked it first. Only 55.8% of students considered it third most important. Employers thought a course in Professional Selling was second most important, but
students only ranked it fourth. Again, there were significant differences between both groups.

This study found that there are very serious differences between students' expectations and the availability of jobs in the market. The overwhelming majority of marketing jobs, both at the entry level (81.8%) and at the senior level (59.1%), are in the sales area. The implications for marketing educators are thus clear.
THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP CLASS AND THE BUSINESS PROPOSAL:
AN APPLICATION OF MARKETING THEORY AND RESEARCH

Debra A. Haley, University of New Mexico

OVERVIEW

Entrepreneurship classes that integrate the aspects of primary research in the creation of a business plan improve the potential funding of that project and provide a "realism" that students both want and need. In addition, improving the quality of business proposals is in the best interests of the students, faculty, and local business community. A "viable" plan can create new business and provide additional employment opportunities.

PURPOSE

Although market research is a vital component of any business proposal, too often only secondary research is conducted due to the time constraints within a semester or academic quarter. In addition, as many ideas are "new," such research might not exist or might be proprietary. It is the purpose of this paper to share the many benefits to be derived from utilizing primary marketing research in an entrepreneurship class.

METHODOLOGY

Although the individual methodologies may vary somewhat, there is a common core to all projects that provide the structure for integrating primary market research in a business proposal.

1) Students define target markets, examine characteristics of that population, and develop an understanding of the population to be sampled.

2) The appropriate technique to sample the population is chosen and the research instrument is created.

3) In small groups of four or five with the instructor present, each instrument undergoes a rigorous peer review.

4) The newly revised instruments are pretested on a sample of the population. Then the instrument is revised again.

5) The final research instrument is then prepared and used to collect the data that will be analyzed.

6) Each student provides an in-depth, updated report to the group once a week and discusses obstacles encountered.

7) The results of the market research are briefly presented and the project is evaluated at length to discover whether or not it is doable. This is a critical juncture for some students who have now attained a realistic perspective they did not previously have.

8) Students must rank all completed projects (which they have critically reviewed) according to the quality of the project and whether it is worthy of being funded. (This introduces the realism of competing for scarce resources in a highly competitive environment.)

DISCUSSION

Perhaps this emphasis on primary research within a business proposal can best be implemented in a two-course sequence. It is very important that this course carry a Marketing Research course prerequisite so that all students have a similar analytical background that will allow them to help one another. Communication is certainly enhanced when all students speak the same language and have been exposed to the same topics, even if their command of an area varies considerably.

CONCLUSION

There are wide ranging benefits to be derived from applying market research techniques to the development of business proposals in Entrepreneurship. These benefits accrue to the students, the instructor, and the university/community at large.
Student Benefits

Perhaps the most important observed benefit was a significant change in the students' attitude and self-perceptions. Individuals stated that they had gained confidence in their abilities to initiate and carry out a major project. In addition, although they believe they had worked harder than other marketing majors and could have taken a much easier elective, they 'know that others who have not 'paid the price' are behind them...and feel ahead of the competition' as they face graduation. Knowing that they are better prepared to take on a challenging and comprehensive project from start to finish was a much desired and valued benefit. The fact that one class member was able to obtain bank financing for his business made others realize how far they progressed and enhanced the sense of accomplishment of that group considerably.

Instructor Benefits

The addition of a primary market research plan to the screening guide coupled with rigorous weekly peer review greatly improved the quality of the business proposal. Furthermore, weekly progress reports aided the students in progressing toward their goals in increments, and allowed for faculty input at critical junctures. Peers who were making good weekly progress provided a benchmark for others to measure themselves by and provide incentive to excel. Individual students within the informal groups became "business advisers" to one another and the instructor was able to observe significant growth in their decision making abilities.

University/Community Benefits

The utilization of primary market research in a business proposal provides an opportunity for the student to see a microcosm of the delicate interrelationships between the gathering and analysis of information to the implementation and decision making process. Understanding that process is crucial for the preparation of our students whether they launch their own businesses or choose to work for an established firm.

In addition, the needs of both the traditional student or the reentry student may be addressed simultaneously and their learning enhanced in this type of environment as the background of each provides a catalyst in the education process.

Finally, as state legislatures increasingly ask university administrators and faculty to be accountable for state appropriations, the relationship between "town and gown" will be scrutinized more closely than ever. The existence of this type of class within the business curriculum can provide visible assurance to state legislatures of the university's commitment to the state's economic health and long term well being.

Author's Note:
Special thanks to Dr. Kenneth Baker, Associate Professor at UNM, for his comments on this paper.
MODELING MARKETING INTERNSHIPS

Shirley M. Stretch, California State University, Los Angeles
Shelley S. Harp, Texas Tech University

ABSTRACT

Experiential learning has become an effective teaching technique to increase learning potential. Internship as an experiential learning technique is not as readily embraced by the academic community as are other experiential learning techniques. One of the reasons has been the effort necessary to provide academic legitimacy to internships through intellectual growth coupled with problem-solving, objective-setting and decision-making activities. A model is presented and discussed as a method for achieving legitimacy of marketing internships.

INTRODUCTION

Experiential learning techniques are currently being cited as a means for increasing teaching effectiveness and maximizing learning potential. Role playing, cases, simulation games, projects, and internships have all been documented as examples of experiential learning whereby the student learns primarily from personal experiences (Cohen, 1988; Dovel and Dayan, 1982). Relevant participant learning potential issues accorded to student readiness or preparedness at the undergraduate level indicate a diversity in maturity. Maturity levels are reflected in the students' perception and assessment of the realities associated with managerial and supervisory responsibilities germane to experiential learning. Thus, the real challenge associated with experiential learning is to structure experiences such that students at different maturity levels can maximize learning potential.

Experiential learning is not new or unique. However, it appears there has been a particularly significant increase in the adoption process at the university level within the past 5 to 10 years. Sigmon, Palmer and Heinemann (1981) noted more than 2,000 experiential learning programs in two- and four-year institutions across the country. In this paper, the specific experiential learning procedure of internships in the marketing discipline will be investigated. A model is proposed which empowers both student and faculty to create a successful marketing internship experience.

THE INTERNSHIP REVIEW

Terms like internship, practicum, field experience, and cooperative work study are utilized to describe situations where students receive on-the-job experience and academic credit. The components and benefits of collegiate on-the-job work experience programs have been well documented in the literature. Many authors in the early '70s discussed the values of internship programs (Tyler, 1971; Beinstein, 1976). Then articles began to focus on the faculty's role (Williams, 1976), how to integrate internships into the curriculum (Cowdin, 1978; Satariano & Rogers, 1979) and the role internships played in bridging theory and world practice (Groves, Howland, Headly, & Jimison, 1977).

The benefits discussion ranges from student benefits (Bales, 1979; Haviland, Weaver, & Taylor, 1983) to academic benefits (McCackey & Fedo, 1985; Zigli, 1981; LeTourneau & Summey, 1982) and some combination of the above (Perenich, 1978; Nevett, 1985; Dobandi & Schattle, 1984). Structured internship programs for academic units have been discussed (LeTourneau & Summey, 1982; Stretch and Harp, 1991). Student evaluations of internship programs before (Hite and Bellizzi, 1986) and after (Breslin, 1980; Marling, 1983) have been addressed as well.

Successful experiential learning programs have been evidenced in both professional and applied disciplines. While there is apparent widespread acceptance of the experiential learning technique in university curriculum, the development and implementation of internship experiential learning is not accomplished without considerable amount of faculty effort and commitment. For this reason, it is believed that the academic community has not embraced internship programs as readily as other experiential learning techniques.

The literature indicates that in order for experiential learning to have academic legitimacy, it should provide some type of intellectual growth and include problem-solving, objective-setting and
decision-making (Gallagher 1976; Kendall 1983; Thomas 1975). Supporting evidence shows participant expectations play an important role in the behavioral patterns exhibited by the participants (Bounous 1986). By accurately specifying and operationally defining the observable behaviors to be exhibited by each member, a framework is established from which all members can work. Such clarity helps to avoid misunderstandings and wasted time spent determining whether members have performed their assigned tasks, and make the monitoring and documentation of behavioral changes easier and more objective (McHugo & Jerstedt 1979).

In this paper, specific experiential learning procedures for a collegiate marketing internship are examined. The discussion focuses on a structured, concept and theory driven approach to internships designed to maximize teaching effectiveness and student learning potential. A Role Clarification/Determination Model (RC/DM) is described which, when used with a structured instructional component within a supportive atmosphere, can empower and enhance the professional growth of student interns while enabling the internship to be facilitated with ease.

THE INTERNSHIP CHALLENGE

To establish the framework for the purpose of this discussion, internship will be defined as controlled experiential learning where a student receives academic credit while employed by an organization in a chosen marketing area. Emphasis is placed on the integration of concept, theory and practice.

Based on this definition of experiential learning, the major objective of the internship should be to integrate concepts, theory and practice while exercising academic control over the student's experience. Control is exercised over what the student learns not what the student does. To achieve this purpose, concepts and theory must be related to reality. Students must first be taught what the field is: what it is like, how people work, and what pressures and problems exist. Students are provided with elements of knowledge in an academic setting and should receive a structured written component designed to engage them in search behavior and reflective thinking about field realities related to conceptual and theoretical bases. A properly modeled internship ensures productive learning for students in supervisory and managerial positions as well as vicarious learning for those in the participant-observer role.

INTERNERSHIP PARTICIPATION ROLE

A primary vehicle for achieving field experiences related to conceptual and theoretical bases is the series of processes involving the internship triad (university supervisor, employment supervisor, and student intern). The Role Clarification/Determination Model (RC/DM) illustrated in Figure 1 assumes the use of selected problem-solving and objective-setting skills and details specific steps for carrying out collaborative, goal-oriented marketing internships. Experiential learning research and a conceptual and theoretical base serve as the foundation for The Role Clarification/Determination Model (RC/DM).

The model's name implies a process through which student interns clarify their internship roles and being to develop conceptual, theoretical and practical-based objectives in applied marketing settings. RC/DM focus is on the role and responsibilities of triad members to enhance the interns' skill development and personal growth. Practical application ideas are defined to enhance the intern's perception of themselves and the internship process. Conceptual and theoretical application are defined to provide the concept and theory base for the internship. Depending on the marketing function emphasized, a different plan could be utilized. A particle list of ideas is included in the model.

The use of the RC/DM empowers students to structure the internship experience while maintaining quality based instruction and learning potential. Application of RC/DM assists the instructor in overcoming inherent managerial issues encountered in classes with large student enrollment and facilitates in the individualization of the intern's experience in diverse marketing environments. Employers perceive empowered students as self-motivated employees committed to well defined goals and realistic expectations.

The initially the RC/DM involves the process of problem-solving. Students clarify their internship role by determining what type of learning and participation behaviors (managerial/supervisory, participant observer, or a combination) are possible within the marketing environment selected for the internship. During this process, the foundation for the internship triad member relationship is laid.
Participation patterns established here affect the course of the internship because during this early stage the interns should be oriented to both the internship program and employment site.

The second process inherent to the RC/DM involves objective setting. Members of the internship triad begin the process of diagnosing and identifying prescriptions for integrating concepts, theory and practice that enhance the quality of the experiential learning program. Included here is the interns' ability to pinpoint personal strengths and weaknesses as well as organizational opportunities and problems, and to reassess and restructure appropriate objectives through the course of the internship. Interns should investigate the breadth and depth of the marketing concepts and theoretical application germane to potential internship employment practical application. The immediate objective is for interns to establish viable field experiences related to conceptual and theoretical bases and increase learning while fulfilling employer objectives. The long-range objective is for interns to develop and demonstrate search behavior and reflective thinking related to career development within the marketing environment. The effective implementation of the model rests on the existence of a structured instructional component which foster individualized participant role behaviors consistent with academic standards and the selected marketing environment.

**INSTRUCTIONAL COMPONENT**

The primary purpose of a instructional component is to focus and structure the undergraduate collegiate internship toward a controlled experiential learning program. To ensure that the participants (university supervisor, employment supervisor, and intern) needs are serviced and learning is achieved, the design of the composite instructional materials should be centered around two important criteria: (1) the "curriculum" must incorporate theories and concepts from academic study into practical application in the marketing context; and (2) the "method" must result in increased individualized information gathering through problem-solving, objective-setting, and decision-making while fulfilling employer objectives.

To facilitate an individualized goal-setting and problem-solving internship, a theory or conceptual marketing base (i.e. Marketing, Advertising or Mazur Plan) should be utilized to provide structure for three reports (Performance Goals and Learning Experiences Report, Weekly Progress Report, and Final Internship Report) and should be included in the structured written component for the internship. Determining performance goals and setting learning experiences offers students the opportunity (1) to emphasize the relationship of concept and theory to practice by applying it to experiences rather than viewing theory as something separate from reality; (2) to structure their own self-controlled, objective-based experience; and (3) to apply decision-making techniques. Weekly progress reports are designed so students must restructure on-the-job experiences and reflect logically and clearly in report form how theory relates to these experiences. Structure of the final internship report requires search behavior to assess the total internship experience against performance goals and learning experiences established, and to provide feedback on the overall internship success derived from the problem-solving process and decision-making systems.

The reports should be submitted throughout the term to facilitate written and oral communication among triad members. This monitoring and documentation underlie the entire internship experience and when applied to each phase of the RC/DM affords a supportive atmosphere that enhances the professional growth of student interns within a clearly defined, structured, and quantifiably measured internship. As students exist the internship, they have developed problem-solving, objective-setting, and decision-making skills to some prescribed criterion.

**INTERNSHIP BENEFITS**

The benefits of a structured, concept and theory driven internship program that allows students to develop individualized self-control models and information gathering processes are numerous. Four benefits are summarized.

1. **Experiential Learning Efficacy.** Internships are often designed to provide students the opportunity to experience and acquire an operating comprehension of marketing functions and career options. Empowered students are positioned to gain exposure to a greater number of marketing personnel and related functions. Students who have participated in structured programs tend to voice more concern about what happened in the
Figure 1
Role Clarification/Determination Model*

A Managerial/Supervisory

B Participant Observer

C Combination

Intern Participation Role

Structured Instructional Component

Theoretical Application

Practical Application

Intern Participation Role Determination

Intern Participation Role Implementation

Retail Career Thoughts/Perception/Strategy Clarification

Marketing Plan
Advertising Plan
Mazur Plan

Employee Role Clarification
Goal Setting
Oral Evaluation Reviews
Written Evaluation Reviews
Written Evaluation Reports

*Includes the problem-solving and objective-setting phases of the collegiate retail internship.
internship and place greater emphasis on personal growth and future employment related issues rather than receiving academic credit.

2. **Student Involvement.** Professionalizing the experience with written contracts creates positive, salient attitudes which maintain and increase the intern participation role. Empowered students are more aware, involved, and committed and exhibit improved information gathering, problem-solving, objective-setting, and decision-making skills. Analysis is focused on the inter-workings of the organization versus the face value of the marketing environment. Overall, students more realistically assess the marketing environment, accept responsibility for their involvement in the internship process and triad membership.

3. **Internship Equality.** In most internship programs, students will not have identical internship experiences. Students equipped with identical information gathering structures which produce greater experiential similarities while the gathering information process remains individualized. This conditioning enhances internship equality. Experience sharing and networking among triad members increases exponentially.

4. **Time Control.** A structured self-controlled internship allows for group versus individual academic control and accommodates individualized learning experiences. The structured internship process affords each student individualized attention with less time control. The students’ attention can be focused on defining realistic work related experiences and learning processes rather than course requirements. Triad members view the internship process as one of opportunities rather than an imposition on their time.

**SUMMARY**

When experiential learning is approached in the context described above, intellectual integrations and evaluation of career objectives is perhaps the most critical component of the marketing internship experience. Through the utilization of a conceptual, theoretical, and practical based internship, the match between the individual and field experience can be academically controlled to ensure triad members’ needs are serviced and optimal learning is achieved. This expanded educational purpose helps to determine whether the internship experience is good or bad, educative or miseducative; and whether it tends to stimulate or inhibit the development of the individual.

The internship challenge remains. Whether the marketing academic community views internships as a potential differential advantage or a time-consuming, problematic endeavor is still not decided. There are appropriate sources of untapped information with potential instructional component development. It is our belief that the topic and educational implications for the marketing discipline warrant additional study.

**REFERENCES**


Williams, T. J. (1976), The Faculty Advisor’s Role in Intern Supervision. Teaching Political Science 4:101-110.

CLASSROOM/COMMUNITY INTERFACE:
STUDENT RESEARCH HAS AN IMPACT ON COMMUNITY

Ruth Lesher Taylor, Southwest Texas State University

ABSTRACT

Classroom/community interfaces are growing in popularity. This paper focuses on a situation where student research had a powerful positive impact on community growth and development. A Chamber of Commerce sponsored student research project served as a basis for this research. Methodology used, details of student involvement, benefits from student, community and professor viewpoints are presented.

INTRODUCTION

Adding relevancy and realism to the classroom is a pedagogical issue that every classroom teacher faces. As is understood, classroom concepts applied from an experiential standpoint increases retention and understanding. Application, through client-sponsored student research projects, works well conceptually, but in reality is very demanding on both student and teacher. Historically, many professors have attempted community/student research projects in an attempt to provide experiential learning. Santos and Vincent (1989) found that client-sponsored research projects (CSP's) are more popular at accredited than at non-accredited AACSB business schools. Their findings indicate a growing popularity of client-sponsored projects at both types of schools. Experiential learning experiences are not controversial, but professors do debate whether benefits offset the time and effort requirements.

Today marketing graduates are increasingly encountering potential employers who are demanding prior work experience as a minimum requirement for entry-level positions. Thus, it has become much more important for colleges and universities to provide the student with as much realistic experiential learning as possible. Experiential learning, as a routine part of individual course requirements, is a means of providing students with some form of "prior" experience. Santos and Vincent (1989) found that 84% of the AACSB accredited business schools and 54% of the non-AACSB accredited business schools use client-sponsored projects in marketing courses. Lambert and Sterling (1988) published an article on the advantages and disadvantages of industry-sponsored university research projects. This increasing use of client-sponsored projects emphasizes the need for marketing educators to communicate results of student/community projects.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The purpose of this study was twofold: 1) to specifically describe student involvement in a student/community marketing research project, and 2) to communicate benefits of this project from student, community, and professor viewpoints. This description will be useful to professors of marketing research in stimulating ideas for a classroom/community interface. This description also benefits community leaders in several ways: 1) by creating an awareness for the community to communicate research needs to professors, and 2) by illustrating how they can cooperate in planning and sponsoring feasible and realistic studies that would benefit both community and student.

DESCRIPTION OF STUDENT
MARKETING RESEARCH PROJECT

Research Class

This classroom/community student research project was designed and arranged by a spring semester Marketing Research class consisting of 18 male and female students. This class was offered at a non-AACSB accredited university under the direction of the marketing professor. The research university was located in a small southwestern town which was in close proximity to an urban metropolitan area of approximately 275,000 residents. The research town included approximately 15,000 citizens (4797 occupied households within city limits and the extra-territorial jurisdiction - ETJ). The research town was experiencing tremendous retail leakage in almost all product categories other than groceries. The research town lacked an industrial base and was short of cultural and shopping alternatives. The local university, of approximately 1100 students, historically did not interface with the community to a great extent.
Research Design

The community marketing research student project was coordinated with the local Chamber of Commerce to study shopping attitudes and behaviors of the local residents in attempt to determine factors influencing the retail leakage. The Chamber of Commerce financed the cost of postage needed for the survey portion of the project. The university financed the printing and paper needs. The methodology used is given below.

1. A focus group consisting of 10 respondents was arranged. Members from the business, financial, religious, and university communities were included. Representatives of citizens at large also participated. The professor served as the moderator and all students served as focus group recorders. The purpose of the focus group was to gain exploratory insight that would serve as input for survey questionnaire design.

2. From focus group response, a questionnaire of 116 questions was formulated. These questions were designed to: 1) gather demographic data, 2) survey attitudes toward various types of shopping, 3) survey perceived product availability, and 4) determine satisfactions with present community offerings. This questionnaire was pre-tested by the 18 students who interviewed three community members each. The questionnaire was adjusted as needed and student interview training was completed using role play.

3. The United States Block Census data for the research city was used as the population. The city was divided into nine approximately equal sections within city limits and three sections in the ETJ west of the city. ETJ areas, East, North and South, were sparsely populated. One section of the city was almost entirely college students living in dormitories. These particular sections were not surveyed as they were either sparsely populated or they did not involve typical households. Ten per cent of the households in each section were surveyed controlling for a minimum of 30 completed surveys for each section. The participating blocks within the 8 city and 3 ETJ sections were randomly selected using block statistics from the 1980 Census of the United States Population. Random quota sampling was used to select 10% of the blocks from each section. The first household in each selected block was randomly drawn. After this first household was selected, systematic quota sampling was used. Two attempts were made to contact not-at-homes. If no contact was made, these households were termed non-respondents and were eliminated from the study. In this situation, students were instructed to choose the household that was located to the right side of the non-respondent. Each selected household was personally interviewed by students using a written survey questionnaire to ensure uniformity of interview. If a personal interview was not allowed, a postage-paid return mail envelope was provided.

Three hundred and thirty questionnaires were distributed. A response of 249 households representing 443 total adults was obtained. Each student completed 13 interviews.

Data Analysis and Reporting

The intent of this study was descriptive in nature. Descriptive analysis provided the necessary details to give an overview of the respondents' interests, opinions and demographic characteristics. No cause and effort type relationships or analyses were attempted. A report, including managerial recommendations, was given to the Chamber of Commerce in written bound form. A copy of the entire published report was placed on file at the university and public libraries. Completed copies were made available to the public for the cost of printing and out-going postage. The results were orally presented to the Downtown Business Association monthly meeting by the students.

Value of the Study

The value of this lifestyle student/community project was four-fold: 1) it served as a basis for historical trend analyses, 2) it documented town citizens' profile at a specific point in time, 3) it provided businesses a basis for developing effective marketing strategies, and 4) it provided sectional profiles useful as a guide to newcomers and other interested persons. The final published report included a general demographic profile, media, sports, hobby and food and dining preferences. Retail store and entertainment preferences were determined and reported. Support given to and satisfaction with local educational, medical and dental efforts, cultural events, politics, and retail businesses were ascertained and included. Citizens' desire for or against growth in specific types of retail businesses were surveyed, and included as a final report chapter.
RESULTS OF THE PROJECT

Student Viewpoint

This project was very detailed for an undergraduate marketing research project. Students overwhelmingly felt they learned a tremendous amount about research techniques and interviewing strangers. They did have some suggestions for future courses. They felt this project in addition to testing over the textbook was too much work for a three semester hour course. One suggestion was that Marketing Research should be a two semester class. Marketing Research I could be required for all marketing majors. Marketing Research II could be offered as an advanced business elective. This elective would be dedicated to the design, implementation, and analysis of a community research project such as the one explained above. The students felt their favorite part of the entire project was the focus group. For many students this was the first one-on-one discussion interaction with groups of business people. Through the focus group, students became aware of community concerns they had previously never considered. Students seemed impressed that they, as a group, had written a 122 page professional research report. Students were encouraged to take a copy of this report with them to employment interviews. This project then could be used as an aid in their learning experience discussions.

Community Viewpoint

Perhaps the community gained the lion’s share of this project. Results of this student/community project were in high demand. Community leaders and business people called daily for the final results printing date. The Chamber of Commerce used the survey results as a marketing tool to attract business and industry to the community. Copies on file at the libraries and the Chamber of Commerce were used by businessmen and investors in making business expansion and new ventures decisions.

Professor Viewpoint

In review of the design, implementation, analyses and reporting of this project, the professor deemed the project very worthwhile. The worth of the project was evident from both an experiential learning standpoint and from a community contribution standpoint. The project demanded very strict attention to detail, time management, and the bolstering of student morale. Students had to be encouraged to concentrate on the long-term benefits of the project and not get bogged down with the amount of work it took to accomplish it. Students grew weary toward the end of the project. Their proofreading of the final report had to be monitored carefully. Unfortunately upcoming finals squeezed class discussion of results and benefits of the project.

Although the students were weary at the end of the semester, short-term and long-term benefits were abundant. Students immediately started using the printed report as an interview tool and as a guide for doing research projects in other educational courses. Students’ former apprehension of regularly assigned “term projects” seemed to diminish. They proved far more capable than they previously considered themselves. From a professor viewpoint, the long-range results of this project are unmeasurable. Although the benefits are numerous, the students’ suggestion of a two-semester marketing research course was wisely taken.

SUMMARY

As student marketing research projects are gaining in popularity at both AACSB and non-AACSB accredited business schools, professors need to share the results of student projects. Through shared methodology and results, marketing educators can gain insight into how other professors conduct student research projects. This insight can help reduce professor and student frustration in the early learning stages. Shared results also serve as idea generators for new or expanded research projects. This reported methodology, results, and insights are of benefit to marketing educators. Additional articles need to be written concerning design and conduct of student research projects at both AACSB and non-AACSB accredited schools.

Long-range follow up studies need to be conducted. Follow up studies need to determine the usefulness of these client-sponsored studies to students in entry-level marketing positions.

A five-year follow up study to the reported project is planned. The follow-up study will measure the usefulness of student recommendations to the business community. Implemented student managerial recommendations will be measured for long-range effectiveness.
REFERENCES


QUALITY EVALUATIONS OF MARKETING JOURNALS: STATUS AND TRENDS

William G. Browne, Oregon State University
Boris W. Becker, Oregon State University

ABSTRACT

This paper presents an update of work reported by Browne and Becker (1977, 1979, 1985) on the "prestige" of journals that publish articles on marketing. The measure of the prestige of journals is "quality," as perceived by chairmen of marketing departments at AACSB accredited institutions. Since it is department chairmen who make the decisions which profoundly affect the careers of marketing academicians, their perceptions are of more than passing interest.

PURPOSE

This study is informed by several purposes, one of which was identified above. Research productivity clearly affects decisions on promotion, tenure, pay and whatever "perks" academic departments have available. Knowing the relative standing of many of the journals available for aspiring researchers should help clarify the "rules of the game." While this motivation is admittedly somewhat crass, it is of vital importance to the new assistant professor, looking for direction on ways to attain promotion and tenure.

Second, the findings of this study may be of interest to the editors and editorial boards of the journals. How do the perceptions of marketing department chairmen square with the perceptions of the journal editors? Is the journal already at the top, is it growing in stature, or is it perceived to be going downhill?

Third, the findings may be useful to department chairs. Department chairs, in common with all of us, may not know the relative standing of all journals, particularly those outside her or his fields of specialization.

Finally, this research -- and all academic research -- is motivated at least in part by what Veblen referred to as "idle curiosity." Indulging one's "idle curiosity" is the luxury, perhaps the great reward, that some degree of success in this world of publication affords us as academic researchers.

METHOD

Journal Selection

The first step in the research process was identifying a list of relevant journals. The basic list identified by Browne and Becker (1985) was used, with some modifications to reflect two changes. First, several new journals have begun publication since 1985, six of which were included in the present study: Journal of Consumer Marketing; Journal of Product Innovation and Management; Journal of Public Policy and Marketing; Journal of Services Marketing; Marketing Science; Psychology and Marketing. Some journals were deleted, either because they had terminated publication, or simply to make room for the new entrants in the field.

Discipline-based journals -- such as American Economic Review, American Sociological Review, and Journal of Personality and Social Psychology -- again were excluded owing to limitations on the length of the questionnaire. Most of the principal journals in other functional fields of business, such as Academy of Management Journal, and Journal of Finance similarly were excluded. While eliminating these journals clearly restricts the domain of this research, it is equally clear that asking respondents to evaluate all journals in which marketing faculty conceivably might publish their work would present an insurmountable task. The current list totals 52 journals, the same number as in the 1985 study.

Measures Used

A questionnaire alphabetically listing the 52 journals was used as the collection instrument. A four-level rating scale was used to evaluate the 52 journals. The levels of the scale are: I - highest quality; II - high quality; III - good quality; IV - low quality. Respondents also could select an "unaware" response category.

A simple mean evaluation was computed for each journal, which was then used to rank all 52 journals with respect to perceived quality. The authors recognize the questionable nature of the mean for
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Journal Name</th>
<th>Familiarity (N=155)</th>
<th>Quality</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Familiarity (N=119)</th>
<th>Quality</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td># Aware</td>
<td>Index</td>
<td>Score</td>
<td># Aware</td>
<td>Index</td>
<td>Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Harvard Business Review</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Journal of Marketing</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Journal of Marketing Research.</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>0.987</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>0.987</td>
<td>1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Journal of Advertising Research.</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>0.987</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>0.983</td>
<td>1.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Journal of Retailing</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>0.987</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>0.983</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Journal of Consumer Research</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>0.981</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>1.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>J. of the Academy of Mktg. Science</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>0.981</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>AMA Conference Proceedings</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>0.968</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>2.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Journal of Advertising</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>0.968</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>0.958</td>
<td>2.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Business Horizons</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>0.961</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>2.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Advertising Age</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>0.955</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>0.941</td>
<td>3.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Marketing News</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>0.935</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>0.983</td>
<td>3.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Journal of Health Care Marketing</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>0.929</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>California Management Review</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>0.923</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>0.966</td>
<td>2.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Journal of Marketing Education</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>0.923</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>0.889</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Sloan Management Review</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>0.916</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>0.891</td>
<td>2.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Journal of Business</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>0.910</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>0.950</td>
<td>1.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Journal of Consumer Marketing</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>0.903</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Journal of Business Research</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>0.903</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>0.900</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Decision Science</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>0.890</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>0.882</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Journal of Macromarketing</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>0.890</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>2.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Public Opinion Quarterly</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>0.884</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>0.899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Management Science</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>0.877</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>0.882</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Sales and Marketing Management</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>0.852</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>0.882</td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Journal of Consumer Affairs</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>0.852</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>0.824</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>J. of Personal Selling &amp; Sales Mgt.</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td>2.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>European Journal of Marketing</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>0.706</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Direct Marketing</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>0.836</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Industrial Marketing Management</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Industrial Marketing</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>0.849</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Journal of Mktg. Research Society</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>0.774</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>0.697</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Marketing Science</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Akron Business &amp; Economic Review</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>0.765</td>
<td>3.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Journal of Services Marketing</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Psychology and Marketing</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0.716</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Journal of Public Policy &amp; Mktg.</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>0.710</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Operations Research</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>0.690</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Baylor Business Review</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>0.626</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>0.571</td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Business Topics</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>0.574</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>0.739</td>
<td>2.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Journal of International Mkg.</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>0.568</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Journal of Product Innovation Mktg.</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>0.535</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0.479</td>
<td>2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Int'l J. of Physical &amp; Materials Mktg.</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>0.516</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0.479</td>
<td>2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Journal of Int'l Business Studies</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>0.490</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Journal of Leisure Research</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>0.497</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.412</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Quarterly Review of Marketing</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0.479</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Logistics &amp; Transportation Review</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>0.465</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0.403</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Business Management</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0.426</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0.319</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Transportation Journal</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>0.413</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Journal of Industrial Economics</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.374</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>NC Review of Business &amp; Economics</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0.316</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0.345</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Marketing in Europe</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>0.265</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Omega-Int'l J. of Management Sci.</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0.265</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>2.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
very minor reversals in rank: 1) JMR and JM switch places, with the former moving into first place; 2) Operations Research and HBR switch places, with the former moving into fifth place. Indeed, with the exception of a newcomer and the movement of JAR to tenth place, the top ten are almost identical to those of five years ago.

Quality Movements: Up and Down

While there has been little overall change in perceptions of quality, substantial change has taken place in the evaluations of individual journals. The Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science made the greatest positive move, from 30 to 19 on the list. Following close behind was the Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, which moved from 38 to 28. Some journals took the elevator down, including Business Horizons, which fell from 20 to 32, and Industrial Marketing, which declined from 26 to 38. The AMA Conference Proceedings continued the downward spiral reported in 1985, falling over the most recent period from 28 to 39.

Quality of New Journals

How well do new journals fare? That depends on the journal, and a great deal of variation is evident in the quality evaluations of relative newcomers. Marketing Science got off to an absolutely blazing start, ranked in seventh place in its first showing. Journal of Services Marketing and Journal of Consumer Marketing were ranked, respectively, 36 and 40. Between the top and bottom sets of newcomers were Journal of Public Policy and Marketing at 20, and Psychology and Marketing at 30.

DISCUSSION

While the findings largely speak for themselves, some interesting inferences perhaps should be emphasized. That is, what characterizes the most and least respected journals on the list, and what may account for some of the changes that have occurred over the five year period since the last evaluation?

When You're Hot, You're Hot

The top ten journals include the obvious top Marketing publications -- JM, JMR, and JCR -- plus JAR, which has waivered in and out of the top ten. Three of the top ten -- Management Science, Operations Research, and Decision Science -- are the top journals in the management science/quantitative methods field. An additional quantitative newcomer, Marketing Science, is ranked seventh, and the Journal of Business (ranked 8) is the most quantitatively-oriented general business journal. Only the Harvard Business Review, of the top ten, publishes purely "qualitative" pieces. The pattern conforms to Browne and Becker's observation (1985) that there is a strong bias toward quantitatively-oriented work in Marketing. The number of top quality options to the researcher working on brand-switching models or perceptual mapping may be far greater than the vehicles available to the writer on public policy or macro-marketing questions.

And When You're Not, You're Not

The journals at the low end of the quality scale also still share the characteristics identified by Browne and Becker (1985). They tend to be trade journals and general journals published by lesser-regarded business schools. The reader can mentally substitute a number of other publications for Akron Business & Economic Review or Advertising Age; those two can be viewed as representative of their genres. As Browne and Becker asked in 1985, is there any point to publishing in such journals at all? That question, of course, can not be answered here, but will depend upon the views of one's particular institution.

The Times, Are They A’changin’?

While there was very little change in overall ranks, a few journals did change dramatically. In the cases of JAMS and JPSSM, the significant increase may be attributable to increased awareness of the journals, coupled with their maturation. The increase of the Journal of International Business Studies, both from 1977 to 1985 and 1985 to 1989, could be the consequence of the increasing interest in things international.

The decline of the AMA Conference Proceedings is difficult to explain, other than the obvious interpretation that the papers presented at AMA meetings have been suffering a decline in quality. Or, the evaluation of the AMA Conference may be colored by poor presentations at the meetings; we all have experienced presentations that were obviously ill-
prepared. While that is a problem far from peculiar to Marketing, it is something that should be of concern to the AMA.

Finally, Marketing News has been in a secular decline since 1977, suffering a further drop from 43 in 1985 to 52, last place, in 1989. The News, over the years, may have taken on a format which is simply of less relevance to academic members of the AMA. At the extreme, some pieces in the News may be seen as vehicles for consultants and research firms to promote their services to practitioners.

What's New?

Browne and Becker (1985) predicted an increase in the number of journals available to Marketing writers. Given the increasing number of Marketing programs, Marketing faculty, and increasing demands on publication, the slots in available vehicles would prove inadequate. Consider, for example, that a total of roughly 120 slots were available in 1989 in JM, JMR, and JCR combined; balance that against perhaps 2,500 Marketing faculty with some interest in publishing in these prestigious journals.

Browne and Becker predicted that submissions to top journals would increase; in the field of economics, the experiences of the AER surely support that contention. However, Browne and Becker also predicted that most of the new opportunities would appear in journals aimed at very specialized sub-fields or to provide opportunities for papers that might be rejected by the best journals. That contention has not been totally supported. Some new journals may immediately attain very high levels of perceived quality, as in the case of Marketing Science. Other journals may grow and mature over time, as in the apparent cases of JAMS and JPSSM. Conversely, some of the new entrants indeed were ranked quite low. It is safer to say, therefore, that new journals will emerge to fill gaps, and what those gaps will be only time will tell.

(literature and references available upon request)
OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT: IMPLICATIONS FOR AACSB ACCREDITED BUSINESS SCHOOLS AND MARKETING DEPARTMENTS

Stuart Van Auken, California State University, Chico

ABSTRACT

This work develops insights into the distinction between outcomes and value added, as well as the relationship between mission and outcomes at the California State University, Chico, College of Business. The paper reviews a number of outcome assessment approaches for business schools and marketing departments. Its focus is to develop clearer perspectives into the outcome assessments that will confront business schools and marketing departments during the 1990s.

INTRODUCTION

There are a number of incentives for the assessment of student outcomes in higher education today. Some of them are quite general while others are unique to accrediting agencies. The general incentives are rooted in a demand for evidence that the public and private funds being allocated to higher education are, in fact, producing educated adults. Helping to fuel this fire among state legislators, private donors, private industry, and educators are reports which have decried the quality of undergraduate education (National Commission on Excellence in Education 1983) and which have questioned the integrity of the college curriculum (Association of American Colleges 1985).

The National Governors’ Association (1986) has documented the need to measure educational quality, and at least 40 states are requiring public institutions to assess educational outcomes (Blumenstyk 1988). According to Halpern (1988) the most recent addition to the outcomes assessment charge is the U.S. Department of Education, which is urging that all colleges and universities document student achievement.

Idiosyncratic to business schools has been the recent efforts of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). In this regard, a AACSB Accreditation Task Force will soon be concluding a two-year study of AACSB accreditation standards. As it now stands, the AACSB appears to be moving away from inputs as a measure of educational quality to outputs and a school’s need to develop processes for continual quality improvement. Of course, one output measure that has been utilized by the AACSB will remain -- research. Obviously, the dissemination of new knowledge through research is more prone to outcome analysis than most accreditation standards.

Further, the quality of a business school is typically judged by the research productivity of its faculty, the number of prestigious grants received, and the number of endowed chairs held, as well as admission selectivity. According to these criteria, the richest, most elite research institution is the “best”. Still, none of these traditional indicators of quality evidence a concern over the outcome of the educational experience provided (Halpern 1988).

While the AACSB recognizes the significance of research, the AACSB Accreditation Task Force is currently posturing a set of accreditation standards that will be endemic to an institution’s central mission area (AACSB 1990a). In this regard, each school will establish the profile of its individual mission as an initial step in the accreditation process (AACSB 1990c). This mission profile will impact expectations for faculty research (AACSB 1990c) and the mission would serve as the starting point for the formulation of a school’s external and internal goals (AACSB 1990b). The latter includes such considerations as curriculum design and faculty size, as well as faculty makeup.

Those schools who select mission orientations with a research deemphasis, even though all faculty will be required to show enhancements in their intellectual capital, will probably be faced with outcome assessments with respect to how effective their educational efforts are. Zoffer (1987) has also indicated that output measures need to assess how much students learn and retain, no matter how it was taught or by whom, and how well did they perform as managers. Regardless of what is to be measured, assessment programs need to be adapted to a school’s mission and goals. Further, the outcome assessment requirement will prompt a school and departments to establish clearer, more comprehensible goals and objectives in fulfilling its mission and purposes (Krueger and Heisserer 1987).
Basically, outcomes assessment requires faculty to look at the connection between outcomes and objectives.

With the above background in view, this paper will develop insights into the distinction between outcomes and value added, as well as the relationship between mission and outcomes at the California State University, Chico, College of Business. Finally, the paper will review a number of outcome assessment approaches for business schools and marketing departments. By so doing, clearer insights will be generated into the outcome assessments that will confront business schools and marketing departments during the 1990s.

OUTCOMES VERSUS VALUE ADDED

Although the terms outcomes and value added are sometimes used interchangeably, each has a distinctive meaning. Basically, outcomes measure what students know, while value added indicates how far students have traveled as a result of their educational experience (Hanson 1988). According to Halpern (1988), value added or "net effects" is the difference between a student's knowledge and skill levels when the student starts a program compared to when the student completes a degree. Halpern indicates that such pretest-posttest differences best reflect the effect of an educational experience. Hayden (1986) also indicates that when educational quality is defined in this manner, excellence can be sought in all institutions, not just those with the greatest amount of resources. Given the nature of currently available outcomes assessment testing for business (e.g., the ETS Major Field Achievement Test and the ASI Core Curriculum Assessment Program), it is clear that the focus is on outcomes assessment per se, or what amounts to a more flexible assessment approach when contrasted to rigid pre- and post-measurements. Hanson (1988) also notes that statisticians and psychometricians have warned against using simple pretest-to-posttest scores for years, but their warnings seem to have had slight impact. Still, Hanson advocates the usage of residual gain scores and causal analysis; however, the time and cost associated with such applications seem to indicate that static measures will be the method of choice in the 1990s. Further, such measures can be compared with national norms, if available, and they can be used for longitudinal comparisons. It is significant to note that many academicians are adamantly against the usage of national norm comparisons, as they can be used to derogate a competitor.

Clearly, the options that are available to measure outcomes are multi-faceted and they need to be discussed. Still, what is selected must relate to a school's mission, goals and objectives.

THE CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, CHICO COLLEGE OF BUSINESS EXPERIENCE

The CSU, Chico College of Business has been working under the following mission premise: produce the most highly-respected and widely recruited baccalaureate graduate on the West Coast. Also, the College has made a commitment to produce a nationally competitive masters graduate. The rationale for such mission orientations primarily evolved from Chico's unique infrastructure (i.e., a "captive" student body of upper-middle class business students coupled with campus visitations from a plethora of corporate recruiters). Basically, the undergraduate student body (98% of all enrollees) has not only developed coping skills due to their migration to Chico, they have also developed inter-personally. The fact that they possess these skills and are mobile has made them quite attractive to corporate recruiters.

To further develop the College's undergraduates, human resource executives were contacted and they revealed that they sought well-grounded business students with strong inter-personal skills. They also indicated that graduates must possess strong written and oral communication skills, and a few executives indicated the need to inculcate the value of life-long learning.

Given the College's mission and employer inputs, subsequent outcomes evaluations concentrated on corporate recruiter trend analyses and an alumni assessment. The latter measured the extent that the college had been successful in developing key skills (e.g., conceptual, analytical, interpersonal and written skills), as well as key values (e.g., life-long learning). The survey also revealed strengths and weaknesses in programs, as well as the educational appropriateness of the curriculum.

Although these outcome measurements were static, they permit longitudinal comparisons and they focus faculty attention on key issues. Other measures were planned for employers and graduating seniors.
OUTCOME MEASUREMENTS FOR BUSINESS SCHOOLS

Student Learning

While there are a number of outcome assessment procedures, the ones that are commercially available concentrate on student learning. In essence, these generally static tests measure what the student knows. These tests are expensive. For example, the Core Curriculum Assessment Program (CCAP) costs $27 per test, if over 100 are administered, and Major Field Achievement tests (Business) cost $12 per test if over 301 are given. CCAP tests may be given to entering students and the results may be compared with graduating students, hence there is a value-added component; however, if they are used, their costs point to usage by graduating students. Moreover, Major Field Achievement tests are viewed as end-of-program tests.

The primary advantages of standard commercial tests relate to their ease of administration and the fact that they do not entail large investments of faculty time. The Major Field Achievement tests in Business are also referenced to national data. Such tests could also be made mandatory for student graduation and test fees could be shifted to students. Additionally, a sample of students could be randomly drawn for the purpose of test administration. Such sampling could serve to hold testing costs down. However, the sampling would have to be representative of the student class under measurement and samples close to 400 in size would probably be common.

Despite the benefits of standardized commercial tests, they are open to criticism. Zoffer (1987) indicates that they might encourage "teaching to the instrument." They might also standardize skill expectations or subject matter modules and thus inhibit the creativity of the faculty. There is also the potential to embarrass not only schools but also faculty whose students show little grasp of course material.

Business schools could also combine with other benchmark schools to develop their own tests; however, the limitations of standardized commercial tests would still be evident, as well as incurring the costs of administering the tests, not to mention the time and preparation burden placed on faculty. Issues of test reliability and validity would also remain. All in all, the controversy surrounding measures of student learning could impact the AACSB's Accreditation Task Force recommendations. In essence, such measures may be optional.

External Measures

Depending upon a College's objectives, employer and alumni surveys may prove popular. Basically, the business degree is professional in nature, not research; hence the viewpoints of external constituents are significant. Since, these surveys have been previously discussed, they will not be reiterated here.

Other Outcomes

Other outcome measurements may encompass faculty research productivity, attrition rates, the extent of library usage, placements in graduate programs and the pass-fail rate for the CPA exam. Perceptions of graduating seniors may also be fruitful.

OUTCOME ASSESSMENTS AND THE MARKETING DEPARTMENT

Overall, outcome assessment approaches that are applicable to business schools are available for marketing departments, and may be used for departmental improvement and planning. Although certain commonalities might be expected of all marketing graduates, the specific outcomes that a department emphasizes will depend upon school/departmental mission, specific departmental strengths (e.g., research) and student characteristics (e.g., background heterogeneity) [Halpern 1988]. Still, the alumni survey evidences unique potential as it can reveal perceptions and impact. While alumni perceptions are typically measured, the impact of one's marketing education is often ignored. Basically, key background variables (e.g., marketing g.p.a., marketing emphases, club memberships and internships) can be related to income and job satisfaction. For an interesting discussion of this, see Hunt, Chonko, and Wood (1987).

According to Halpern (1988), there is no single indicator of departmental quality. The best assessments will consider a variety of information including corporate placements; employer, student and alumni perceptions; faculty evaluations of
scholarship and teaching and other data, such as retention and attrition rates. The usage of standardized exams in turn will probably generate considerable faculty debate. It is also highly likely that such tests will be subordinated to a college/school effort. Further, the capstone course in marketing offers considerable potential in assessing student outcomes, as well as providing students with direct feedback on their conceptual, diagnostic, analytical, written and oral communication skills.

CONCLUSIONS

This work has presented the rationale for and the issues associated with outcomes assessment for business schools and marketing departments. The topic is sure to be a bell-wether condition for the 1990s as it reflects a business school’s commitment to be accountable to students. Overall, a business programs/department’s response to outcomes assessment will generate a focus on mission, goals and objectives that has often been lacking in the current quest for scholarship and academic legitimacy; and it may lessen the magnitude of criticism that has been directed toward collegiate business education.

REFERENCES


A MULTICAMPUS MARKETING RESEARCH CONSORTIUM ON STUDENT RETENTION
IN BUSINESS SCHOOLS IN THE CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY SYSTEM:
PROBLEMS AND PROGRESS

Arthur Saltzman, California State University San Bernardino
Don Sciglimpaglia, San Diego State University
Louis Volpp, Fresno State University
Ron Beall, San Francisco State University

ABSTRACT

Marketing faculty from five campuses in the California State University system conducted a collaborative project which investigated the retention of Business School transfer students. On each campus, marketing students utilized a common questionnaire and research design to conduct interviews as part their class requirements. The difficulties and rewards of conducting this type of coordinated project are reviewed and guidelines for future research consortia are presented.

INTRODUCTION

This paper reviews a unique research project which was voluntarily undertaken from 1988-90 by a group of marketing faculty from five different campuses of the California State University. A common research design was developed by the faculty on a topic in marketing education, and then, students in marketing courses used a common survey instrument to collect data at each of the participating campuses.

Thus, there are two related bodies of literature that are relevant to this project. First, is the use of a multi-campus real-world project as an integrating mechanism in the marketing research course. Next, is the issue of voluntary collaboration of faculty on a multi-campus project. What are the incentives, problems and rewards?

Previous Research on Using Live-Cases in Marketing Courses

In order to provide students with hands-on experience in the research process many marketing educators have used some version of the live-case or real-world project approach. This usually involves student teams analyzing a actual marketing problem for a client. This methodology has been discussed by several authors (Browne 1979; Dandurand 1986; de los Santos and Jensen 1985; Dommeyer 1986; McCain and Lincoln 1982). These class projects have been used in several different marketing courses including marketing research, personal selling, advertising, consumer behavior, and the marketing capstone course (de los Santos and Jensen 1985; Haas and Wotruba 1990; Humphreys 1981; Ramocki 1987; Richardson and Raveed 1980). Class projects allow students to translate marketing concepts and theories into practice and provide real-life marketing experiences. Another major objective of a class project is to give students the opportunity to interact with peers in a group setting. In this way, individual talents can augment the strengths of others to produce a more complete learning experience.

Previous Research on Faculty Collaboration

Academics have long known of the benefits of collaborating with colleagues on research projects. However, in the marketing literature there is scant research on this topic. An article by Clark (1985) studied the coauthorship of journal articles as part of a productivity rating scheme for marketing departments. He developed a "collegiality index" which includes a count of papers which are jointly authored by faculty from the same institution and acknowledges that the exchange of ideas of colleagues can be one of the more rewarding aspects of conducting research.

While the marketing faculty represented in the Clark study had collaborated in the writing of research papers, there is no mention of coordination of data collection efforts across campuses. Likewise, a literature search produced no discussions of the process of marketing faculty collecting comparable data from several different geographical areas.

The potential benefits of such replication are substantial. There would be larger data sets which could lead to more confidence in our results. We also would be able to compare results from different cities and regions. Perhaps, as indicated
by Clark, most important would be the opportunity for extended interaction with another researcher on a subject of mutual interest.

As the marketing discipline's knowledge base continues to expand and additional methodologies become available, marketing educators have become more specialized. In some situations the size of the investigation task often requires colleagues at the same or different institutions to combine their talents to gain significant insights into today's complex marketing education problems.

COLLABORATION ON STUDENT RETENTION RESEARCH AT CSU

The remainder of this paper describes the experience of a group of marketing educators in the twenty campus California State University (CSU) system in their collaborative attempt to investigate retention issues related with the transfer of community college students to the CSU system's business schools. First we discuss the genesis of the project and its early phases. The benefits and the problems associated with a large collaborative effort will be presented next. Finally, suggestions for designing and implementing collaborative research projects will be offered.

Evolution of a Research Focus

The idea of a collaborative effort came from a dinner conversation among several colleagues at a 1988 marketing conference. We were discussing a paper on research consortia which had been presented at the 1987 Western Marketing Educators' Association meeting (Saltzman 1987). Inspired by the virtue of replication, the joy of collegiality, and the challenge of voluntary coordination, several of us agreed to try conducting a low profile multicampus project. Interestingly, the topic of the research was discussed only after we decided to collaborate! How we chose a topic will be discussed in a subsequent section of this paper.

EARLY INTERACTIONS

The early stages of this collaborative effort included the formation of the consortia, deciding on a topic and searching for local resources. As indicated in Figure 1, these activities are all interdependent but they are not sequential or linear. Rather they illustrate the iterations and the backwards and forward linkages of the research process described by Zikmund (1989).

FIGURE 1

EARLY STAGES OF INTERACTION

Composition of the Consortia

Given this voluntary organizational structure, it was not surprising that the membership of the consortia changed several times during the course of the project. Three faculty members had changes to their spring 1990 teaching schedule and therefore were not able to have their classes utilize this project. In two of these situations local colleagues who were teaching marketing research agreed to have their classes adopt the project as a course assignment. In a third case of a schedule change, the faculty member promised that he had resources from his dean in the form of student research assistants who would conduct the interviews. We tried to identify another faculty member at this campus who was teaching an appropriate course but the current member assured us that he could do it with the research assistants and resisted any efforts to find a substitute arrangement. We are still waiting to hear from this demoted team member.

Finding Resources

We decided that until the project was well developed we would avoid looking for resources from outside each campus. However, each campus was responsible for finding the funds necessary to support their local data collection. At most campuses we were able to find support for telephone calls, released time for faculty, or research assistants. This came from a variety of
institutional arrangements with Deans, Department Chairs, Registrars, and Admissions Offices.

While it seemed relatively easy to obtain resources to conduct the surveys, acquiring a recent accurate list of business school transfer students was difficult or impossible on some campuses. In one case the lack of cooperation from the Registrar led to an early abort of that campus's project involvement. In another situation, after the data were collected the local campus administration was unwilling to verify the department code of each student who had been interviewed, even though this question had already been asked in the survey.

When the research design was complete and a preliminary questionnaire was available we decided that we had enough confidence in the project to ask for some funding from the CSU Systemwide administration. Initial conversations with the Chancellors Office were very encouraging and a modest proposal for $8,000 was sent to CSU. Several weeks after the proposal had been submitted we received a telephone call from an embarrassed associate vice-president who informed us that there was no funding program into which the project fit. In retrospect the timing of our request was terrible. This was the spring of 1990 when major upheavals were taking place in the CSU System which resulted in the forced resignation of the Chancellor. It was virtually impossible to attract the attention of the appropriate administrators.

Deciding on a Topic

Since we wanted to generate local and eventually systemwide support for the project, we searched for a topic which would be of interest to CSU administrators. The topic chosen was transfer student retention. The CSU system has over three hundred thousand students enrolled at its twenty campuses. Approximately fifty percent of these students have transferred from community colleges. Despite their previous college experience, less than fifty percent ever earn a bachelor’s degree. The reasons for transfer students dropping out include: lack of financial resources; increase in proportion of part-time students; and changing enrollment patterns (older and more women) (Villella 1986).

Another reason for our interest in studying transfer students was the previous research some of us had already done on the topic. In particular, at Cal State University San Bernardino, the retention of both freshmen and transfer students had been the subject of two preliminary studies conducted by students enrolled in marketing research classes. Thus, a questionnaire had been developed and a research design implemented which could form the basis for the multicampus project.

Because of the importance of transfer students, their relatively high attrition rate, and the previous experience we had with this group we designated first year transfer students as our target population. A modification to this decision was made in the winter of 1990. As we made progress we began discussing the potential for journal publications from this retention project. One faculty colleague suggested that narrowing our target population to business school students would allow us to research a topic with more relevance for potential publication in marketing and other business related journals. Thus, as we progressed, our research design evolved to accommodate the consortia members' experience and needs.

IMPLEMENTING THE RESEARCH DESIGN

During the spring of 1990, a finalized questionnaire was administered by selected marketing research classes on the CSU campuses of Fresno, San Diego, San Bernardino, Sacramento, and San Francisco. Over 1300 telephone interviews with recent business school transfers were completed. The data were compiled into a single data file and the process of analysis was begun.

The preliminary results indicate that the business school experience is far more rigorous than the students expected prior to matriculation. For example, the students report spending much more time studying than they expected to and that classes are more difficult than they anticipated. Also, instruction by faculty is considered by transfer students to be better than their expectations. These and other findings will be the subject of future papers.

The effort, coordination, and resources that were needed to undertake and complete the project to this point were enormous. Many problems were encountered along the way. However, the benefits of conducting research on such a large scale appear to more than outweigh the problems. Below, the
2. Select Collaborative Group Members

Faculty should be contacted that have an initial interest in the topic. It is better to talk to prospective group members face to face. Conferences, such as the Western Marketing Educators' Conference, are ideal places to meet and discuss the topic with faculty that share similar interests.

3. Appoint a Leader

Someone must play the role of the leader. The leader must ensure that members of the group that have volunteered to participate in the research project follow through with their promise. The leader must arrange for the distribution to the members of the group of a reproducible copy of the questionnaire, a description of the data collection methodology, and a standardized format for the computer data file. When the survey has been completed the leader must coordinate the merging of the data from the separate campus.

4. Assign Responsibilities

Specific task assigned to each team member should be based on their interests and expertise. Primary responsibility (e.g., data analysis) to individual group members.

5. Set Deadlines

Deadlines for the completion of data collection, analysis, and preparation of research papers and articles must be determined at the outset of the research project. These deadlines need to be clearly communicated to all members of the group.

6. Produce Results

The process needs to be completed to produce a report for the sponsors of the project as well as papers written by the faculty.

CONCLUSIONS

Many marketing education issues that need to be investigated require research projects which are too large to be implemented by an individual faculty member. Such projects can be completed by combining the resources and talents of colleagues at the same or different institutions. This paper presented an example of such an undertaking. The end result of the collaborative effort was that some problems were encountered along the way, but the benefits derived from the results of the project overshadowed these problems.

REFERENCES


Humphreys, Marie Adele (1981), "Client-Sponsored Projects in Marketing Research Course," Journal of Marketing Education, 3 (Fall), 7-12.


DEVELOPING IN MARKET CASE STUDIES FOR ADVERTISING STUDENTS

Richard M. Lei, Northern Arizona University

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the capstone course in undergraduate advertising studies at Northern Arizona University in Flagstaff. Students in this course are split into competing agency teams, each of which attempt to win a client's account. Unlike many case studies classes, the "winning" campaign is ultimately produced and run in the media which provides the student with an important portfolio piece and valuable "real world" experience. This paper discusses two of the initial "in-market cases" which were sponsored by America West Airlines and Dial soap.

INTRODUCTION

Advertising can be a difficult discipline to teach because it requires both a theoretical base and "hands on" experience in order to really understand the subject. While the theory lends itself well to the classroom environment, the practical application generally is not experienced until the student graduates and is in an entry level position. Metaphorically, the student is the raw material which will be transformed into a finished product (Christ 1990) much the way a campaign transforms from concept to a finished piece of advertising. Students who have never been exposed to the "real world" may be dumbfounded by the roller coaster nature of the industry, where a delicate balance between exhilaration and frustration is often the norm.

There are a variety of means to help the student become prepared for careers in industry. Some universities have strong internship programs with major clients and agencies, others utilize the student ad agency, and others focus on industry case studies. Each of these methods has merits and shortcomings. Many times internships are loosely administered and students may spend the semester acting as a "go-for" rather than involved in development and execution of advertising; student run agencies can offer excellent hands on experience but generally service very small local accounts with little exposure to strategy or conceptual thinking. Additionally, student-run agencies may approximate learning situations, but the fact remains that they are principally laboratory exercises; they do not transcend the classroom; and case studies can offer good conceptual work, but don't provide the excitement and agonies of implementation (Morris and Istre 1986).

Between these tried and true techniques is a modification of all three—the in-market study. This paper discusses the capstone course offered at Northern Arizona University in Flagstaff, an applied case study approach called Advertising Campaign Competition.

Team projects in the study of advertising are nothing new, but the NAU capstone course offers an important twist. The class is broken randomly into competing "agency teams," each consisting of 5-7 individuals. There are no tests or exams in the class; there isn't even a textbook. The entire semester's activity is focused around "winning" the new account for the team.

SELECTING A SPONSOR

Prior to the start of the semester, the instructor solicits for sponsors. The sponsors agree upfront to participate for a minimum of one semester, and in many cases two semesters. The sponsors agree to act as the client during the first semester and conduct a brand review and to attend the final presentations. If the sponsor is satisfied with the "winning" campaign they further agree to go into production during the next semester and run the campaign in the media. This is an important component, because it allows the students to compete for a "real" piece of business which ultimately can be put into their portfolios.

It also brings the project full circle, in showing the sequence of events from conceptualization to in-market placement. Because advertising is generally taught in the context of vocational and technical training (Stewart 1986) and experience which brings the project full circle is valuable.

The selection of a sponsor is a critical decision in the success of this program. Potential sponsors should be screened for the following: (1) their willingness to meet with the student teams at least twice during the semester; (2) market a brand or service which has high levels of awareness; (3) competes in the consumer market; (4) already has
advertising in place which runs in a variety of media; and (3) is willing to pledge the resources to produce and run the winning campaign. Industry contacts become critical in obtaining sponsorships, and the instructor should endeavor to use local ad clubs, marketing organizations, internship sponsors and alumni as recruiting pools.

An important consideration is the reputation of the sponsor. High profile sponsors, such as major consumer brands, are of greatest value to the students because: (1) they have good internal data and resources available; (2) they generally operate their businesses with long-term strategy in place; and (3) their "halo" effect for the student can be enormous. Because students tend to leave the local market after graduation, being able to show a portfolio project for a well known sponsor like Dial soap has much more impact than for a small local advertiser.

The ability to have strong portfolio material is critical in obtaining the first job (England 1987). While many graduates will not be placed in the largest agencies on national brands, the student's tenacity can pay off and initial job placement in a small to midsize agency is a reasonable goal (Marra 1990). Presumably, the student's ability to demonstrate problem solving abilities for an in-market project will translate to the ability to solve advertising problems once they are placed in industry.

THE FIRST TWO "IN-MARKET" CASES AT NAU

The first two projects implemented in this capstone course at NAU were sponsored by America West Airlines during 1988-89 and Dial soap during 1989-90. Each campaign proved to be both challenging and motivating for the students...and a lot of work.

America West Airlines, a Phoenix based regional air carrier, agreed to sponsor the first campaign and back the winner with a media and production budget of $5,000. For perspective, this translates to a national rate of $2,000,000. The campaign's objective was to improve load factors for inbound and outbound flights servicing Flagstaff. In order to coincide with peak traveling months, the campaign was scheduled to run during the Spring of 1989.

A total of thirty seniors enrolled in the class which was split into five competing agency teams. Each team was selected by first pooling those students who were interested in specific agency functions and then blending each functional group into each of the competing teams. This way each team was balanced with members who were specifically interested in all four of an advertising agency's functional areas (media, research, creative and account service). Teams were required to meet with the instructor once per week to review a status report and then could meet independently at their own discretion.

Early in the semester, America West management conducted a client meeting at the university and provided detailed marketing, advertising, and competitive information. America West carefully postured themselves as a demanding client who would not accept below-standard work from anyone including students. Student teams were expected to conduct their own research, develop a creative strategy, formulate media plans and ultimately recommend creative executions.

America West pledged to back the campaign with a $5,000 budget if they believed the winning campaign to be executable and well conceived. Presentations were scheduled to the client in December, 1988 prior to the semester break.

The semester was divided into a series of building block assignments, each designed to move the student teams through the campaign development process, and to culminate with the client presentations. Student teams were required to provide:

(1) a thorough situation analysis demonstrating an understanding of the client's business and competition;
(2) a minimum of three creative strategies based on the findings of the situation analysis and identify:
   - communication objective
   - target audience definition
   - key benefit statements and support points
(3) a recommended media plan which includes:
   - media and day part recommendations
   - reach, frequency and GRP goals
   - working and nonworking media budget calculations, and
   - scheduling and flighting recommendations.
(4) a minimum of three campaigns utilizing at least two different mediums; and
(5) identification of a recommended campaign with adequate rationale.

THE ROLE OF THE INSTRUCTOR

The role of the instructor became that of a facilitator and consultant. At regular intervals, team leaders and the instructor met to discuss progress and issues relating to the campaign. One of the first frustrations which most teams experienced was the inconsistent level of work contributions made by team members. As is the case in the real world, assignments needed to be shifted to the most reliable committee members, and away from those who simply were not particularly dependable. The instructor also acted as a conduit between the student teams and the client, filtering out questions which were not well thought out, and channeling the more relevant ones along.

It was important for students to be free to make their own decisions, and in some cases misinterpretation of data. This helped them later see inconsistencies in data which were not obvious at first, and to make necessary corrections.

PREPARING FOR PRESENTATIONS

Presentation rehearsals were scheduled to begin approximately 10 days prior to the client meeting with overheads, creative board mock-ups, and other presentation materials required. Student teams were also required to provide the client a leave behind document which contained each of the major section write-ups. It is important to note that grading of each section provided valuable input for the students, and that they were encouraged to resubmit corrected sections throughout the semester. As is the case in the "real world", rewriting is an important process which adds perspective to a document.

Student teams were each allowed 45 minutes to make presentations. Each team was video taped and reviewed later for critique purposes. The client had expected the student teams to be strongest in creative and weakest in the situation analysis section. Interestingly, the opposite was true in that students did an excellent job in understanding the complexities of the market and in defining positioning alternatives for America West, and developing rather ordinary creative executions.

The winning campaign was chosen largely on the strength of the marketing analysis and overall thoroughness of the project. The goal of communicating that "California is Closer than Ever" was highly executable and allowed focus around America West strengths (convenient scheduling, amenities, and large comfortable planes).

After reviewing the presentations and leave-behind materials, America West agreed to sponsor the project through the production and placement of media. Creative refinements were completed in February, 1989, production followed, and the campaign ran in May, 1989. Each student was encouraged to retain a copy of their final "client book" to be used as an interviewing piece after graduation.

The Dial soap project was executed in much the way as America West. In many regards, this was an easier campaign for students to develop because they had the advantage of working with a physical product, so they could conduct store checks, organize use tests, and conduct focus groups.

Dial management approved use of a campaign entitled "Dialogy" designed to improve brand share in the Western US, which is a relatively underdeveloped area. Like America West, Dial attended a presentation at the end of the Fall semester where the student team recommendations were made. Dial also agreed to proceed on the production and media placement segment of the project, and during the Spring of 1990, students enrolled in the second phase and began production of newspaper advertising targeted at college students. Coupon bearing ads ran in Flagstaff and Tucson, Arizona during May-June, 1990.

GRADING CRITERIA

Grading this course was completed against a predetermined list of criteria which was agreed to by the sponsor and instructor. Key elements included:

I. Situation Analysis 20 points
- did the team understand the market?
- did they draw reasonable conclusions?
- did they identify a key advertising problem?
II. Creative Strategy  20 points
  - did strategy flow from their analysis?
  - did they clearly identify a target market?
  - did they identify a meaningful benefit?
  - did they provide adequate support for their strategy?

III. Media Plan  20 points
  - did they spend within their budget?
  - did their media and market selections make sense?
  - did they generate reasonable levels of reach and frequency?

IV. Creative Executions  20 points
  - did executions flow from recommended strategy?
  - did the creative translate between mediums?
  - did it "make sense"...was it reasonable?

V. Presentation/Professionalism  20 points
  - did the team appear well rehearsed and professional?
  - did they appear confident/poised?
  - did they answer questions well?

Total  100 points

Score sheets with these five criteria were furnished to the sponsor and instructor and completed after each presentation. This section was worth 60% of the semester grade. This could be construed as a "team" grade. The remaining 40% of the semester grade was generated by each team member, as they graded their individual performance, and that of their other team members for quality and quantity of work contributed during the semester.

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS

Student perceptions were measured by those enrolled in the course. When asked to evaluate this course on a 5 point scale (5 being highest/best) students ranked this course among the best they had taken in college. As listed below, students worked hard and learned a lot.

Verbatims from the course were extremely positive, with students citing their approval of this hands-on approach:
"...this course is really invaluable to my field."
"...I have hands-on experience that most other classes don't."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Perceptions</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
<th>As Compared to Other NAU Courses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Application of Principles &amp; Theories</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking and Problem Solving</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Responsibility</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of Non-reading Work</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student worked hard</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved Attitude toward field</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of Creative Capacities</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Shortly after May 1990 graduation, one student called me from Los Angeles where he had just obtained an entry level account management position at Grey Advertising. He presented his "Dial book" as part of his initial interview which impressed management and was scheduled for callback interviews, and ultimately offered a position. While not everyone who finished a course like this will be offered a job on the spot, they will be better able to speak with conviction about the advertising process from its conceptualization to placement. Students will have a better grasp on what the real world holds for them, and should be better able to begin a career on the right foot. People who hire people in advertising by people. They buy presentability. Salesmanship. Problem solving promise marketing acumen. They buy qualities (Schulte 1987).

By giving our students the opportunity to experience an "in-market" project, we bridge the transition between college and the "real world". And, in a nutshell, that's what teaching advertising is all about.

REFERENCES


Morris, Jon and Istre, Jennifer (1988), "Students, Faculty Formed Ad Agency to Promote AEJMC," *Journalism Educator*, 40 (Fall), 22.


SHOULD DUAL-LANGUAGE MESSAGES CONCERN ADVERTISERS? A PILOT STUDY

Nina M. Ray, Boise State University
Mary Ellen Ryder, Boise State University
Thomas J. Steele, University of Montana

ABSTRACT

This paper addresses the interpretations that consumers have of commercial messages making use of words that can be decoded in more than one language. While many ads, both foreign and domestic, attempt to capitalize on the prestige-value associated with foreign-sounding words and phrases, dual-language words are often used unintentionally. We question whether consumers interpret these messages in the intended way and present the findings of a pilot study designed to investigate the possible repercussions associated with dual-language ads’ use.

INTRODUCTION

As December 31, 1992 approaches, the members of the European Community (EC) are busy attempting to pass laws and directives to achieve true unification for that target date. By 1992, most internal trade barriers are scheduled to be dismantled and common external trade rules will ideally be in effect. It is predicted that not all EC countries will benefit equally from unification. While the poorer nations (usually southern Europe) have much to gain from free trade, they also face competition never seen before from industries in the wealthier nations.

"Perhaps nowhere else is the soul-searching - and anxiety - so deep as it is in Italy" (Revin 1988). Complaints about the chaos and lackadaisical attitude of the labor force in Italy are commonplace, but the Italians have never really had to worry about anything being done to improve the system until recently. Many predict that the Italian banking, postal service, and construction industry must change in order to survive the post-1992 years. Others comment that every Italian company must become more efficient and "European" in order to compete effectively.

Therefore, especially in Italy, advertisers must present their products and services in the most favorable light and try for a minimum level of misinterpretation. While little, if any literature exists concerning the subject, even a casual tourist in Italy will notice the use of English language expressions and words in Italian advertising. Some (Dunlop 1989; Mewshaw 1988) have hypothesized about the reasons for this influx of English into Italian ads, but few have come to a conclusion as to why it is done. Ray, Ryder, and Scott (1991) propose explanations for the purposeful use of foreign words in print advertising.

Examples of commercial phrases written completely in English abound. While living in Italy recently, one of the authors of this paper recalls noting billboards with "Dr. Pepper: Welcome from America" and "Merry Christmas from Marlboro Country." Research on the effectiveness of these ads in a foreign language aimed at a mass Italian audience is almost nonexistent. Why would Italian advertisers advertise in English when the majority of the intended market does not know the language?

Even more interesting are the phrases in "Itangliano" (Dunlop 1989) or "Englotalian" (Mewshaw 1988). These are slogans or names of products that make use of both Italian and English. Dunlop (1989) mentions an extremely interesting example of a mixture of the two languages in a lingerie shop window in Parma, Italy.

Printed decoratively across the front of the nightie was the apparently nonsense legend: 'Happiness in estate'. The perpetrator had no idea that estate is an English word, but was using the Italian word

---

1The authors wish to acknowledge Dr. Jera Pecotte and her student, Ms. Joanie Graham for their help with data collection. Both were at the Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale in Turin, Italy at the time of the pilot study.
estate (three syllables), meaning 'summer'. (Dunlop 1989, p. 33)

Italy is used as an example setting throughout this paper mostly for matters of convenience. The authors have more intimate knowledge of dual-language advertising in this country than in others.

Certainly similar examples exist in other cultures as well, for example "Franglais" (the mixture of French and English). English names for products and businesses are quite common in many places in Europe and Latin America (Harris, Sturm, Klassen, and Bechtold 1986). Americans do this also. One example is when marketers include the use of foreign accents in a product name or advertisement to make the message appear "classy" or sophisticated.

Often, languages borrow words from other languages to incorporate into a monolingual speech community. This is done mostly for prestige, as the use of such words is perceived as sophisticated and cosmopolitan. Often, the use of the foreign language is nothing more than code-switching which is the use of two languages within the same discourse by fluent bilinguals. A description of these linguistic concepts as explanations for the purposeful use of foreign words in print advertising can be found in Ray, Ryder and Scott (1991). However, neither borrowing or code-switching theory can adequately explain the interpretation of dual-language words or phrases.

METHODOLOGY

While the use of dual-language advertising appears to be rare, we felt that it is, in fact, an issue which warrants investigation. After all, misinterpretation of ads is so high to begin with; the unintended misinterpretation of a dual-language ad could very well be disastrous.

A written survey (translations of key phrases appear in Appendix A) was distributed to participants in an industrial city of Northern Italy. Their ages ranged from 19 to 25 and most would be considered to be from upper middle-class families. Possible advertising phrases were constructed with words that could be either interpreted to be Italian or English, but used in conjunction with other English words in the phrase. The example "happiness in estate" mentioned earlier was included. Phrases were written to include those which began with the dual-language word and those which began with obvious English words. Also, strictly Italian advertising phrases were included in the list. A convenience sample was chosen of natives who were known to have studied English during the past several years. In order to investigate awareness of the dual-nature of some of the words, it was necessary to have respondents who were fairly fluent in the English language. Ten respondents were chosen from those enrolled in one of the most prestigious business schools in Italy. Knowledge of the English language is mandatory for them.

An American student interviewer who had daily interaction with the respondents individually handed each respondent the survey and asked him (all respondents were male) to read the instructions and then to indicate what level of English he felt he had. Then the respondent was asked to read each of the eight phrases. The interviewer recorded whether the dual-language word highlighted in bold was pronounced in Italian or English in her notes. Then the respondent wrote some brief words describing what the phrase meant to him. The data were then returned to the authors in the United States.

All of the respondents were male (most students enrolled in the school are male) and they indicated that their perceived level of English is between poor and good. The question was worded so that they were to respond to a seven point scale with one meaning an excellent command of English and seven indicating a poor command of English. All chose either four, five, or six. If these students did not feel that their English ability is excellent, the general Italian population certainly would not either. In fact, only one percent of Italians claim to read English fluently (Mitchell 1984).

One may note that the survey environment was very English oriented (the nationality of the interviewer and the instructions). Ideally, experimental designs with many more respondents would be set up to ascertain what effects various variables could have on the respondents' propensities to interpret the word in one language or another. Such experimental variables could be level of English ability, the positioning of the survey in an "Italian" setting versus an English dominated setting, inclusion of visual stimuli, and
others. We felt it necessary to begin with the respondents' language abilities being as similar as possible and to limit the number of variables involved in this preliminary study.

DISCUSSION

Written Interpretations

Substantial disagreement exists as to how the various phrases were interpreted. Even respondents disagreed in regard to the everyday advertising phrases written completely in Italian. One, which can be translated literally to mean "a world of ideas" was interpreted to mean anything from "the excitement of discovery" to "fantasy." The phrase which when translated means "the taste says the truth" was listed as meaning "sensitivity," "the world in the mouth," and "truth is not always a sensation." Even some nonsense meanings were given, such as "class is not water." We believe that the nonsense meanings were more of a "guess" at meaning instead of some antagonism aimed at the interviewer or the research since relations between the Italian students and the Americans working at the school had been friendly in the past.

We should not be surprised that the language used to write these interpretations was Italian. However, one respondent did choose to write in English, even when writing about Italian phrases. Interestingly, he was one of the respondents who claimed to have poor English skills.

Two phrases were included that began with the dual-language words. "Come young come old" was generally interpreted to be something related to age or time. The key word "come" ("eat" in Italian) did not alter the perceived meanings and in fact was completely ignored. The phrase "dire truths" was generally described with the word "truth" in mind; however, one respondent did perceive the word "dire" to be the Italian word for "to speak."

The phrases which began with English words which included the dual-language words later were divided regarding the interpretation of the key word. For example, "fame" was perceived by some to be fame or glory, but by others to be hunger. "Sale" was perceived mostly as salt, but by one person as a sale. Another ignored the key word, and focused on the English words indicating that the statement was a question. "Estate" was interpreted by most to mean a season of the year, or specifically, summertime. Only one perceived it as meaning a piece of land.

Spoken

Sometimes, the respondents articulated the key word in both English and Italian, but English was the language used first with only one exception. Even those who wrote their interpretations in Italian, spoke the key word in English when asked to say the phrases out loud. Interestingly, one respondent who interpreted "I have fame" to be "I'm hungry" wrote the interpretation in English and spoke the key word in English first.

CONCLUSIONS

Those who engage in advertising research would be the first to admit that different consumers interpret different ads in different ways. Here, we have investigated a possible problem which may enter into international advertising more and more - that of using words or phrases with different meanings in more than one language. Respondents in this study had no consistent interpretation of phrases with dual-language words. Even when primed with a more Italian or more English context, many discrepancies were found in interpretation. Sometimes, the dual-language word will simply be ignored, but more often the word does promote a variety of interpretations of the message.

While the use of a foreign phrase or key word might promote attention to the ad, advertisers should be warned to be wary of dual-language words. If they are used intentionally, research should first be conducted on how they are interpreted by the majority of consumers and if they affect recall and the evaluation of the product advertised. Some dual-language words may be more likely to be interpreted in both languages if they are part of a "basic vocabulary," words that have a high probability of being in the low-level speakers' repertoire (Carter and McCarthy 1988).

This study is only a small, preliminary step using a homogeneous, atypical group of consumers. While only indicating poor to good English skills, these respondents would have better knowledge of English than the general Italian population.
Future research should investigate whether monolinguals display similar reactions as those with multilingual skills.

INTEGRATION INTO THE MARKETING CURRICULUM

While dual-language advertising is a field which has never been seriously researched, either by marketers or linguists, we certainly cannot make the case that it is an essential topic in our marketing classes. However, the case can easily be made for the incorporation of an understanding of linguistic principles that are necessary for the well-rounded marketer. Many of us are lamenting that we try to incorporate international issues into our curriculum, yet most universities still have no foreign language requirement. Research is being conducted on how an understanding of linguistic principles can explain some aspects of marketing (Harris et al. 1986; O'Shaughnessy and Holbrook 1988). Sociolinguists over the years have emphasized that not only is language a reflection of one's culture, but the structure of one's language can influence the way that one looks at the world. In short, the tie between linguistics and marketing exists. We believe that this tie should be emphasized more in our research and in our classroom experiences.

If a reader is interested in discussing the dual-language issue in his or her class, the experience can be enjoyable for both the professor and the students. We have briefly discussed the issue in our classes concentrating on words which can be interpreted in both Spanish and English. Many students in several parts of the United States are bilingual Spanish and English speakers and we have found that they appreciate this recognition from professors. Many instructors of business courses fail to take advantage of these students' expertise since language issues usually do not play a role in our curriculum. We have asked these bilingual speakers to suggest dual-language words which they can think of and to suggest ways which research could be conducted using the U.S. Hispanic population's reaction to ads that might make use of these words. Some suggested dual-language phrases have been:
- the clock strikes once (eleven)
- dinner pan (bread)
- chicken pie (foot)
- come here (eat)

Since Spanish may be the foreign language that monolingual English speakers are most likely to have studied, this can lead to discussions in which more than just the bilinguals can participate. And, from our perspective, the exercise will have been worthwhile if it simply produces a discussion of the importance of language understanding in being a well-rounded marketer.

REFERENCES


**APPENDIX A - LIST OF PHRASES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mixed phrases</th>
<th>Translation of word in bold</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the thief is male</td>
<td>bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have fame</td>
<td>hunger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>where is the sale</td>
<td>salt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happiness in estate</td>
<td>summer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come young come old</td>
<td>how</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dire truths</td>
<td>to speak</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Italian phrases</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>un mondo di idee</td>
<td>a world of ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>il gusto dice il vero</td>
<td>its taste will tell the truth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The translations did not appear on the survey.
A series of United States Supreme Court decisions, handed down during the 1980’s, have significantly changed the degree of constitutional protection accorded to advertising and related promotional activities under First Amendment free speech principles.

Marketers originally hailed the landmark cases of the 1970’s which extended First Amendment protection to commercial speech (Bigelow v. Virginia 1975; Virginia State Board of Pharmacy v. Virginia Consumer Council, Inc. 1976) because they overturned a decision which explicitly held that commercial advertising had no First Amendment protection (Valentine v. Christensen 1942.) The newly-articulated standard, however, left open several important questions regarding how much protection had been granted to commercial speech (Cohen 1978.)

Subsequent opinions have addressed some of these issues. A test for determining when commercial speech comes under the First Amendment has emerged (Central Hudson Gas & Electric v. Public Service Commission 1980.) The Supreme Court has used it during the past decade to expand significantly the power of government at all levels to regulate advertising and related promotional activities.

This no doubt comes as a surprise to those who would regard the 1980’s as a decade of deregulation, but the case law has clearly laid the groundwork for tight government control over promotional efforts. This paper traces the development of First Amendment Law as it relates to commercial activities, describes the present standard by which the courts assess whether free speech protection applies to a particular promotional activity and considers the implications of recent cases for advertising and promotional activities.

In particular, it shows how the U.S. Supreme Court has used recent commercial speech cases to expand government authority to regulate promotional activities rather than protect those marketing efforts under conventional First Amendment free speech guarantees.

The court facilitated this process by holding that commercial speech is entitled to some degree of First Amendment protection (Virginia State Board of Pharmacy, 1976), but less than non-commercial speech (Central Hudson, 1980.) Other opinions brought all aspects of the promotion mix into the commercial speech category (Posadas, 1986, advertising and sales promotion; Bolger, 1983, publicity/sales promotion; National Commission on Egg Nutrition, 1978, advertising/public relations; and, State University of New York, 1989, personal selling.) This has resulted in diminished First Amendment protection for promotional activities and thereby expanded government regulatory powers.

Furthermore, a series of cases (including those cited in the preceding paragraph) have upheld government authority to regulate, or forbid altogether, non-deceptive promotional activities for legal products and services.
TEACHING HOW TO INTEGRATE MANAGERIAL EXPERIENCE AND JUDGMENT INTO A DECISION SUPPORTING SALES FORECASTING MODEL

Fred Hebein, California State University-San Bernardino

ABSTRACT

Instruction in model building and forecasting often emphasizes the technical without regard to how the model can be best utilized in supporting business decisions. In practice, model results are often modified or recombin ed according to managerial experience and judgment. To effectively utilize models the student needs to learn not only how to use available forecasting systems, but how and under what circumstances to adjust model results in accordance with managerial experience and judgment. The methodology introduced in this paper permits the integration of managerial insights into a market model and illustrates how model forecasting and decision supporting performance is improved.

INTRODUCTION

As computer based modeling systems become more available and more widely applied, we as teachers find that we are encouraging students to become ever more computer literate and to learn how to apply statistical modeling packages to business decisions.

Unfortunately, the needs of students to gain technical mastery of the computer systems and to grasp a basic understanding of the supporting mathematics often lead to a concentrated emphasis on the technical without regard to how the model can be best utilized in supporting business decisions. In practice, model results are often modified or recombin ed according to managerial experience and judgment. To effectively utilize models the student needs to learn not only how to use available forecasting systems, but how and under what circumstances to adjust model results in accordance with managerial experience and judgment.

In the following paper, a methodology is developed which shows students in a simple graphic style how to integrate managerial experience into a decision supporting forecasting model. The mathematics is reduced to a minimum and the integration of knowledge into the model is emphasized. The example shown in the following paper could be covered in one or two class sessions.

INTEGRATING EXPERIENCE AND JUDGMENT INTO THE MARKET MODEL

How best can we incorporate qualitative knowledge into a model framework? Reflect for a moment on how often you have heard individuals state their qualitative understanding in terms of maximum or minimum boundaries or limits. Examples might be "Our market share is at least 50% now." or "We know that their product lasts more than 10 years longer than ours."

Note that the above statements can be written mathematically as inequalities: "Market share \( \geq 50\% \)" or "Difference in product life \( \geq 10 \) years". Examples of "less than or equal to" inequalities might be "We cannot sell more than 50 units per month" (monthly sales \( \leq 50 \) units) or "Our motor driven lawn mower cannot exceed 10 mph" (speed \( \leq 10 \) mph).

It would seem that people often state their knowledge in terms of limits or boundaries. In this paper, the experience and judgment of the company's sales manager and his staff are cast into terms that can be described mathematically as inequalities.

Once the qualitative information is expressed in terms of inequalities, the information can be integrated mathematically as a set of boundary conditions, or at least, as restrictions in the model framework.

In the following discussion, only one relationship of the model is presented. (For readers who wish a fuller treatment of the model and its development, they are referred to Hebein (1990).

FRAMEWORK OF APPLICATION

A manufacturer of non corrosive piping systems has successfully introduced a new product into the petroleum market (primarily retail gasoline outlets including convenience stores with pumps) several years earlier. Growth in sales has been better than expected and production facilities are near capacity.
The sales manager has been asked to prepare a three year sales forecast. Based upon the outlook for sales, the company will assess its need for new capacity and its longer term market strategy.

The product, non corrosive piping systems, is used to connect gasoline underground storage tanks with the gasoline pumps in retail gas stations (referred to as petroleum marketing outlets--PMO's--by the industry).

Unfortunately, the petroleum marketing industry has been contracting. Table 1 shows that the number of gas stations has contracted by 34% since 1977. Note the change in industry mix. Convenience store gas outlets (C-Store outlets) are expanding but not as fast as gas stations are contracting. The sales manager's fear is that sales opportunities are shrinking and that sales growth could drop significantly.

STUDENT ASSIGNMENT

At this point the students are requested to develop their own forecast of company sales. Most of the students use some linear mathematical approach such as log normal OLS to extrapolate a forecast. Since company sales have been increasing at a compound rate of 39% for the last 10 years (Table 1), students generally produce a forecast of continued 30-40% or so per year compound growth.

Once the forecast assignment is complete, the instructor reminds the students that the industry is shrinking. Can they be certain of their forecast? To place company sales into perspective, the students are asked to prepare a forecast of industry sales. Since no time series of industry sales is available, the students must construct one. To help the students begin, the instructor notes the relationship between changes in stock and sales. Assuming one unit of stock per unit of product, the change in stock is equal to product sales less replacements of worn out units. Once the students understand the relationship between changes in stock of PMO's, system replacements, and total industry sales, they are able to ascertain the relative position of the product in the industry and its likelihood of continued sales growth. Essentially, the students develop a limited structural model of the industry.

ESTIMATING INDUSTRY PRODUCT SALES

Mathematically, the relationship between sales and changes in stock can be described as one equation with two unknowns:

\[ NB_t = R_t + \Delta PMO \]
\[ = \xi PMQ + \Delta PMO \]

with \( t = 1978, 1979, ..., 1987 \); \( \xi \) = estimated average annual rate of removal of existing units; \( NB_t \) = new builds (new PMO's and replacement of existing units); \( \Delta PMO \) = change in the number of petroleum marketing outlets (stock); and \( R_t \) = units of stock which are permanently removed or replaced by non corrosive product.

Equation (2) above has two unknowns, \( NB_t \) and \( \xi \). The equation is indeterminate. To define the range of acceptable values of \( \xi \), a value of \( \xi \) is selected and \( NB_t \) calculated. The company’s market knowledge can be utilized to develop constraints on the range of \( NB_t \). Before formulating the constraints in mathematical terms, we will discuss each constraint and its rationale.

First, an acceptable value for \( \xi \) must generate removals of sufficient number that new builds are positive (select \( \xi \mid NB_t > 0 \)). Intuitively, one can imagine years where new builds are zero, but it is impossible for new builds (which includes new construction and replacements) to be negative (less than none). Since annual changes in PMO’s are usually negative (the number of outlets is declining), removals must be large enough to generate a positive value for each year in the time series of new builds. Mathematically, we can state the first inequality as: \( NB_t \geq 0 \)

Second, the replacement rate \( \xi \) must be sufficiently large to require new builds sufficient to match increases in the convenience store gas units (C-Stores). In other words, if all new builds are convenience stores, new builds must equal the increase in C-Stores. If removals are greater than zero, new builds must exceed the increase in C-Stores. That is, \( NB_t \geq \Delta \) C-Store Outlets.

Finally, \( \xi \) must be constrained to a level which generates estimates of new builds that are consistent with product sales and market share. For example, if product sales are 100 units, and market share is 33%, than an \( \xi \) which suggests a new build level of 300 units is consistent with company information. The constraint will be expressed as a range of values bracketed as inequalities: \( \min MS \leq S_t / (\xi PMO + \Delta PMO) \leq \max MS \)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>COMPANY SALES ($000's)</th>
<th>ESTIMATED COMPANY MARKET SHARE (%)</th>
<th>GAS STATION OUTLETs (UNITS)</th>
<th>CONVENIENCE STOREs (UNITS)</th>
<th>CONVENIENCE STORE OUTLETs (UNITS)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>305.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>1643.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>1870.0</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>465.0</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>422.0</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>176,465</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>686.0</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>170,628</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>659.0</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>164,790</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>1279.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>158,020</td>
<td>39,000</td>
<td>17,160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>2172.0</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>151,250</td>
<td>39,000</td>
<td>18,330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>3071.0</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>144,690</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>24,555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>3938.0</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>136,570</td>
<td>53,000</td>
<td>28,164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>5802.0</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>132,080</td>
<td>58,000</td>
<td>31,528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>6518.0</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>124,600</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>32,064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>8936.0</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>120,510</td>
<td>64,000</td>
<td>34,656</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>11809.0</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>115,870</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>39,200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
where M_5 is product market share of non corrosive piping sales; and \( \xi \) is sales of noncorrosive piping.

At this point, a time series of new builds is calculated for alternative values of \( \xi \). Each simulated time series of new builds (NB) is then evaluated for its conformance to the constraints listed in the inequalities above.

In the classroom, a series of charts are used to make the evaluation more easily followed. Unfortunately, because of length constraints, the charts can not be included here. In the charts, selected values of \( \xi \) and the corresponding simulation of new builds are portrayed graphically. Each chart shows the relationship between new builds, removals, and changes in C-Store outlets across the 1978-1987 time period. In graphical form, violation of a constraint by a simulation of new builds is easily observable. Examination of the charts indicates that the simulation techniques lead to an \( \xi \) of 7% for the period 1978-1985, and an \( \xi \) of 5% for the period of 1986-1987.

**COMPARISON OF FORECAST SALES WITH ACTUAL SALES**

Table 2 shows the company's sales forecast in current dollars for the integrated market model (which includes managerial experience and judgment) and a log linear model sales projection. In Table 3, the sales forecasts projected in late 1987 are compared to the actual sales achieved by the company in the period 1987-1989. For the year 1990, only the first half year is available. However, a full year prediction is made based upon the company's plan and recent sales activity.

The forecast error is calculated as the percent of actual sales ((forecast-actual)/actual) x 100. The relative closeness of the forecast based upon the integrated model to the actual sales tends to confirm the basic model structure and the company's understanding of the market. Note that the log linear forecast is substantially higher than the actual sales.

Although the forecast accuracy of the integrated model is encouraging, it is important to recognize that there are many possible sources of error and that countervailing errors may contribute to the accuracy of the forecast. For example, to make the forecast, assumptions had to be made estimating the inflation rate, the average sales size, and the market share size.

A higher than expected rate of inflation (increased current dollar sales) could be offset by lower average sales size (lower current dollar sales).

However, despite the inherent problems of forecasting the future, the forecast accuracy of the integrated model was superior to the log linear model and sufficient to sustain the managerial confidence gained by the systematic inclusion of company experience and judgment.

**SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

The preceding paper has described a process which permits the systematic integration of qualitative information, such as experience and judgment, into a quantitative market model. The graphical exposition supported by simple mathematics permits students to access elements of large model construction and provides an example of how management experience and judgment can be used within a model framework.

Furthermore, note that the students are shown how helpful management experience can be in achieving a "reasonable" model solution. In fact, the model had satisfactory forecast accuracy and was accepted by company management as an important decision support tool for a major capital investment decision.

In this case, the company rapidly expanded its capacity. Prior to the development of the integrated market model, the company management had regarded the petroleum market as one of limited potential, with little prospects for real growth since the number of petroleum market outlets were declining.

The integrated model's forecast that sales could double in a four year period led to reconsideration of the petroleum market and substantial capital investment in the business. As indicated by Wright (1988), the trend is to evaluate forecasting models by their impact on decisions. If the bottom line for market models is their impact on firm profitability, then the integrated market model described in this paper was a success.

Also, it can be seen that by including experience and judgment into the model, the model maker, or
### Table 2: Company Sales Forecast

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>NEW BUILDS (UNITS)</th>
<th>INDUSTRY SALES (UNITS)</th>
<th>INDUSTRY SALES ($82)</th>
<th>INTEGRATED MODEL FORECAST COMPANY SALES ($82)</th>
<th>LOG LINEAR MODEL FORECAST COMPANY SALES ($82)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>7662</td>
<td>3473.05</td>
<td>$17,365,247.35</td>
<td>$7,831,726.56</td>
<td>$8,597,749.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>7684</td>
<td>4417.68</td>
<td>$22,088,379.71</td>
<td>$10,050,212.77</td>
<td>$11,731,988.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>9075</td>
<td>5898.75</td>
<td>$29,493,750.00</td>
<td>$13,567,125.00</td>
<td>$15,851,755.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>9510</td>
<td>6466.8</td>
<td>$32,334,000.00</td>
<td>$15,520,320.00</td>
<td>$21,282,227.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>9478</td>
<td>6634.25</td>
<td>$33,171,250.00</td>
<td>$16,884,166.25</td>
<td>$28,354,026.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3: Comparison of Forecast with Actual Sales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>ACTUAL COMPANY SALES (000'S)</th>
<th>INTEGRATED MODEL FORECAST COMPANY SALES ($000'S)</th>
<th>INTEGRATED MODEL FORECAST ERROR ((F-A)/A)*100 (%)</th>
<th>LOG LINEAR MODEL FORECAST COMPANY SALES ($000'S)</th>
<th>LOG LINEAR MODEL FORECAST ERROR ((F-A)/A)*100 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>$8,936.0</td>
<td>$8,936.0</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>$9,810.0</td>
<td>9.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>$11,809.0</td>
<td>$11,809.0</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>$13,785.1</td>
<td>16.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>$17,300.0</td>
<td>$16,579.0</td>
<td>-4.35</td>
<td>$19,370.8</td>
<td>11.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>$19,800.0</td>
<td>$19,857.2</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>$27,219.6</td>
<td>37.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>$23,000.0</td>
<td>$22,768.7</td>
<td>-1.02</td>
<td>$38,249.6</td>
<td>66.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
student, is forced to learn about the business and more importantly, to establish meaningful communications with management. As indicated by Gross (1987-1988), part of the success of any forecasting model can be attributed to the inclusion of practitioner experience and market knowledge. In this example, the students learn how to build forecasts that include managerial knowledge.

Finally, the forecast achieved by the integrated model is relatively accurate (within 5%). As suggested by Liu (1987), it seems reasonable that the development of model structure which includes more information, such as company market knowledge and industry data, has a greater chance of making superior forecasts.

REFERENCES


LOCKE'S GOAL-SETTING THEORY: A TEACHING NOTE
FOR THE SALES MANAGEMENT COURSE

Gary L. Karns, Seattle Pacific University

ABSTRACT

It is important that sales managers understand goal-setting in order to avoid reducing Salesforce productivity by inappropriately employing it. Locke's Goal-Setting Theory, widely accepted as a framework for understanding the effects of goals on human behavior is explicated for the benefit of marketing educators, supplementing their teaching effort in the sales management course. Suggestions for integrating the theoretical framework into the sales management course are given.

INTRODUCTION

Goal-setting has been a popular tool for creating an environment of productivity among salespeople for many years. (Doubit 1976; Futrell 1988) Goals are set for level of sales volume, profitability, prospecting, calling and other selling and non-selling activities. (Stanton & Buskirk 1983) It is critical that sales managers be effective in employing goals as a productivity enhancement. Sales managers who understand goal-setting and use it appropriately can provide direction to their salespeople and stimulate higher levels of activity and performance. In contrast, misapplication of goal-setting can frustrate, confuse and demotivate salespeople so that their performance is diminished.

Understanding the practical importance of goal-setting, marketing educators have endeavored to describe its benefits and the keys for its successful implementation in their sales management classes. Sales management texts all discuss goals or quotas in their chapters on motivation, compensation and supervision. The purpose of this paper is to supplement these efforts of marketing educators to prepare students for careers in sales management by explicating Locke's Goal-Setting Theory and by suggesting ways to integrate an enriched coverage of goal-setting into the sales management course. All this is done in hopes of increasing the student's later effectiveness in using goals personally and as a sales manager.

FUNDAMENTALS OF LOCKE'S
GOAL-SETTING THEORY

Locke's theory of goal-setting (Locke and Bryan 1967; Locke 1968) has been one of the primary frameworks for understanding the effects of goals on human behavior. According to Locke, goal-setting should help a salesperson see a clear purpose for his or her work and find appropriate behaviors to accomplish that purpose. As a result, goal-setting should improve both performance and satisfaction. (Latham and Lee 1986)

In order for goals to be effective, Goal-Setting Theory states that four conditions must be satisfied. First, the goal must be appropriately challenging, specific and consistent. Second, the goal must be accepted. Third, feedback on progress toward the goal must be given. Fourth, rewards must accompany goal achievement.

Characteristics of Effective Goals

Goals have been defined in terms of three basic characteristics. (Locke 1968; Locke et al. 1981) Sales managers can vary a goal's level of difficulty, its degree of specificity and its degree of consistency with other goals. The following discussion defines each characteristic and explains its function in creating an effective goal.

Difficulty. Locke et al. (1981) state that goal-difficulty is necessary if a salesperson is to be challenged to perform at a higher level than current performance. Difficulty has usually been cast in terms of higher levels of output, such as a sales quota which is 25% higher than sales for the same month in the previous year. Difficult goals require more effort, attention, knowledge, and skill. Goal-difficulty primarily stimulates more effort, or working harder. Facing a tough goal also causes a salesperson to rethink his or her action strategy, perhaps resulting in "smarter" as well as harder work. However, according to Locke et al. (1984), Erez and Zidon (1984), Futrell, Swan, and Lamb (1977) and Etzel and Ivancevich (1974), if the goal
is seen as unattainable, salespeople will react negatively out of frustration.

Specificity. Goal-specificity is necessary in order to communicate clearly the expectations against which a salesperson's performance will be evaluated. For example, "sell 15 units this month" is more specific than "sell more." Compared to a 'do your best' approach, specific goals help salespeople develop action plans showing them what to do focusing effort on expected performance activities. (Stanton and Buskirk 1983) A salesperson's effort is focused on the expected performance activities. Terborg and Miller (1978) and Kim (1984) suggest that goals should be set for selling effort and for sales outcomes, with rewards for each.

Consistency. Goal-conflict inhibits performance. (Locke et al. 1981) Asking salespeople to invest time with clients to build relationships and to see as many clients as possible in a day are inconsistent for example. In such a situation, a salesperson's effort is dissipated and confused action strategies result. Further, conflicting goals may diminish a salesperson's beliefs that the goals are attainable. (Quick, 1979a,b; Latham and Yukl 1975a)

Effects of Goal-Setting

Role perceptions, motivation, performance and satisfaction have been the major focal points of interest for studying the consequences of goal-setting. The effects of goal-setting on these productivity factors have been reviewed by Latham and Yukl (1975a), Locke et al. (1981), Latham and Lee (1986) and by Tubbs (1986). These reviewers concluded that goal-setting is beneficial in many situations, but the effects for complex tasks, such as personal selling, are not fully understood.

Role Perception Effects. Perceived role ambiguity and role conflict are among the most important determinants of sales productivity, since salespeople must understand what they are expected to do. (Churchill et al. 1985) Goal-setting is a communication tool which helps clarify a selling task, thus reducing perceived role ambiguity and role conflict. (Doyle and Shapiro 1980; Quick 1979a,b; Anderson, Jerman, and Constantin 1979) The interaction between a sales manager and a salesperson in setting goals is a key opportunity for clarifying role perceptions through specific and consistent goals.

Motivation Effects. Goal-setting has generally been found to increase motivation. (Tubbs 1986; Locke et al. 1981; Terborg and Miller 1978) Salespeople should pay more attention to relevant tasks, work harder, develop action plans which help them work "smarter," and persist in directed effort as a result of goal-setting. (Terborg 1976; Lock et al. 1984) If goals are achievable, a salesperson should see that working harder will yield higher performance (expectancy) and that performing the task is linked with the rewards he or she wants (instrumentality). Also if goal-setting adds meaningfulness to a selling task, it will raise a salesperson's sense of reward from a job well done (valence). (Terborg 1976)

Performance Effects. Tubbs (1986), Latham and Baldes (1975), Latham and Lee (1986) and Locke et al. (1981, 1984) show that goals, together with feedback and rewards, provide stimulation and direction increasing motivation and clarifying role perceptions and, thus, increasing performance. Not all goal-setting studies show improved performance, however. Later, notable examples of performance degradation are discussed.

Satisfaction Effects. Goal-setting has positively affected job satisfaction in many situations. (Kim 1984; Latham and Yukl 1976; Wotruba and Thurlow 1979; Ivancevich and Smith 1981) The reduction of role ambiguity and role conflict seems to be the primary means through which goal-setting increases satisfaction. (Quick 1979a,b) Latham and Kinne (1974) suggest that satisfaction is also increased if tasks are more meaningful when goals are attached. Additionally, goal-setting increases satisfaction by increasing the interaction between sales managers and salespeople. (Umstot, Mitchell, and Bell 1976, 1978)

However, satisfaction may be adversely affected if salespeople are frustrated by goal-setting. A "coaching" approach is advocated by Ivancevich (1976) and Futrell (1988).

Situational Influences

The effectiveness of goal-setting, even when the goals are difficult, specific and consistent, depends on the situation. The situational factors which determine whether goal-setting will produce positive results are: the complexity of the selling task; the acceptance of the goal by the salesperson as something for which to strive; the association of feedback on goal progress and of rewards with goal achievement; individual characteristics, such as

**Task Complexity.** Sales tasks range in their complexity from the relatively simple order-taking functions of a fast food service counter to the extremely complex job of coordinating a team-selling effort for high-technology capital equipment. (Futrell 1988; Stanton and Buskirk 1983) Task complexity is defined here as the required range of selling skills and creativity, the number of buyer-seller interactions and the length of the closing cycle inherent in the selling task. This definition incorporates the attributes of task complexity identified by Campbell (1988), namely multiple paths to a desired end, multiple ends, conflicting interdependency and uncertainty.

The effects of goal-setting for complex tasks have varied considerably from those discussed earlier. Earley (1985), Erez and Zidon (1984) and Buller and Bell (1986) attribute their observed decline in performance from goal-setting to task complexity. The more demanding role requirements for complex selling tasks make it difficult for goal-setting to effectively clarify role perceptions. Sales managers may need to explain how to achieve the goals as part of the goal-setting process. In addition, setting goals for a complex task can create inconsistency and increase conflict unless the goal targets are clearly interrelated and instrumental for selling success. (Locke et al. 1984; Kim 1984; Futrell 1988; Bavelas and Lee 1978) Terborg and Miller (1978) suggest that goals be very specific in order to overcome this problem, especially for less experienced salespeople.

**Goal Acceptance.** Goal-acceptance, or agreeing to work toward the goal, controls a salesperson's willingness to expend effort and his or her development of viable action strategies in pursuit of the goal. Acceptance depends on a salesperson's perception that the goal is attainable. Locke et al. (1984); Oldham (1975); Latham and Yukl (1975b, 1976); Ivancevich and Smith (1981); Douthit (1976); Wotruba and Thurlow (1979); and Cravens, Woodruff, and Stamper (1972) found that goal-difficulty and fairness, task complexity and meaningfulness, the salesperson's beliefs that he or she can do the job, supervision, and participation in setting the goals affect goal acceptance. Goals that are perceived to be reasonable for the situation and within a salesperson's perceived ability are readily accepted. Although participative goal-setting is not strictly necessary to attain acceptance, it does seem to foster acceptance and to stimulate the formation of harder goals, higher levels of commitment, and thus, higher performance. (Latham and Saari 1979; Latham, Mitchell, and Dossett 1978)

**Feedback.** Locke et al. (1981) showed that feedback, or knowledge-of-results, is critically important to the success of goal-setting. Information on goal progress helps a salesperson know whether he or she is exerting sufficient effort and whether the selected action strategies are effective. It provides both control and reinforcement. Feedback can come from the task itself, the sales manager or the compensation scheme. (Futrell 1988) Salespeople also need to see that goal accomplishment and rewards are tied together. Unfortunately, rewards are not often tied directly to each specific goal target but only to sales volume, diminishing the reinforcement and the feedback a salesperson receives. (Kim 1984; Stanton and Buskirk 1983)

**Individual Differences.** Experience, sense of ability to do the job, need-for-achievement and desire for autonomy have been mentioned as factors which influence a salesperson's response to goal-setting. (Yukl and Latham 1978; Carroll and Tosi 1970; Locke et al. 1984) A salesperson who has experience or a keen sense of ability to do the job will be more likely to produce effective action strategies. Salespeople who have a high desire for autonomy respond more positively to participative goal-setting and more negatively to imposed goals.

**INTEGRATION INTO SALES MANAGEMENT COURSES**

While goals and quotas are already presented in sales management texts, added coverage of Goal-Setting Theory will benefit students by enriching their understanding of the three aspects of goals and of the importance of situational factors in setting goals. In short, students will have a more realistic view of goal-setting. They must be made sensitive to the problems of crafting effective goals which requires the coverage of detail not often provided in sales management texts. This will enable them to be better sales managers and to better articulate their own personal goals. The added detail and the resulting benefits can be obtained with minimal additional educational investment of class time or study effort.
Learning Objectives

The learning objectives for this additional coverage are of two types, knowledge and skill objectives. The knowledge objectives are to comprehend the role of goal-setting in influencing productivity and to understand the relationship between the goals and the salesperson's sales task situation so that the goals are fair and productivity enhancing. The skill objectives are for the students to apply this knowledge to actual cases and to themselves.

Coverage Method

The background has been discussed above for the benefit of the instructor's preparation of explanatory comments. The key points that need to be made are that goal-setting is an important overall link between compensation, motivation and supervision for sales managers, an opportunity for productivity enhancing communication and requires a balance of difficulty, specificity and consistency appropriate for the situation.

Accomplishing the skill objectives can be done by assigning students additional case preparation questions. For example, students could be asked to evaluate the goals which the salesperson in the case is expected to achieve. Were they too easy or too hard? Were they adequately specific without being too restrictive? Were they consistent? What organizational and personal situational factors were at play? In addition, students could be asked to play the role of sales manager and have a goal-setting meeting with the salesperson(s) in the case. The students would have to deal with the thorny issues facing "real" sales managers in either approach and a deeper discussion would be launched.

Asking the students to apply the goal-setting framework to their own goals for graduation, job placement or current job (even studying) in a journal writing activity personalizes the goal-setting framework, may move them to a more effective current goal articulation and helps equip them for developing personal goals throughout life. This would be especially helpful for students who have vaguely defined goals that are loosely connected with their current feedback, reinforcement and task situation.

Timing

This material on goal-setting provides an opportunity to connect several related topics in the sales management course. While the nature of the motivation, compensation and supervision chapter material in texts promotes connectedness, covering goal-setting provides a clear mechanism for vividly drawing the connection in students' minds. It is suggested that the normal coverage of quotas in the compensation or motivation chapter be continued and come prior to covering the Goal-Setting Theory framework. Further, covering this material should come after the students have examined some comprehensive model of salesperson productivity, such as the Walker, Churchill and Ford (1977) model.

SUMMARY

Goal-setting is widely used among sales managers and is thus one of the important topics covered in a sales management course. Used effectively, goal-setting enhances both performance and satisfaction. Used ineffectively, productivity and morale are reduced. Applying goal-setting to salespeople requires careful understanding of the situation and careful articulation of the goals since selling is a relatively complex task where well intended, but inadequately informed, goal-setting may do more harm than good. While marketing educators have exposed sales management students to goals, quotas and management-by-objectives, there remains the need to convey additional detail about goal-setting. This detail is captured quite well by Locke’s Goal-Setting Theory.

Enhancing the coverage of goal-setting in the sales management course with Locke’s framework is relatively easy to accomplish. The framework conveniently lends itself to integration with the productivity oriented discussions of compensation, motivation and supervision already used by marketing educators. Conveying the information and stimulating its application to case studies will yield considerable benefit for the student with minimal investment of educational effort.

REFERENCES

(Available on Request)
EXPLORING MARKETING'S LEGAL ENVIRONMENT
VIA COMPUTER ASSISTED LEGAL RESEARCH

Fred W. Morgan, Wayne State University

INTRODUCTION

Marketing's "legal environment" is a term referring to a rather vague concept that almost everyone recognizes. Most marketing activities are influenced by legal developments and trends; hence, textbook authors are increasingly formulating materials about legal guidelines. For example, in Marketing by Pride and Ferrell (1991), numerous references to the legal environment appear in the Subject Index, and 11 of the 23 chapters contain discussions of legal topics. Ingram and LaForge (1989) provide 40+ index references to the law and discussions in six of 16 chapters.

Marketing instructors should improve their own backgrounds regarding the legal climate so they can better discuss these topics with students. The focus of this paper is, therefore, to assist educators in this task by reviewing how to use electronic legal databases.

ORGANIZATION OF LEGAL DATABASES

The Lexis (1985) database is examined here, although competitive systems could be utilized (e.g., Westlaw 1985). Both databases contain the texts of published judicial decisions for both federal and state courts at all levels (trial and appellate). Access is also available to several specialized reference encyclopedias, most of the major legal journals, the Congressional Record, federal and state laws and regulations, plus other specialized materials.

Lexis is organized into four levels: libraries, files, documents, and segments (going from broadest to narrowest in scope). A library contains all materials in a particular research area and is subdivided into several files, which contain several documents (composed of various segments). Information retrieval using Lexis is similar to the processes utilized to search for material with any typical database found in university libraries. The appropriate search phrases must be formulated in order to find relevant information. Search phrases which are too general will produce too many documents to examine, while restrictive phrases will result in the omission of important documents.

With Lexis, the researcher can streamline the process by knowing in advance the library and files in which relevant information is likely to appear. For example, if the topic involves federal law, the Genfed library would be the starting point, not the States library. If the topic relates to improper salesperson behavior within the state of Michigan, the Michigan (MICH) library, containing both federal and state cases tried in Michigan, would be the focal point.

Thus, Lexis involves two primary decision areas: the choice of search phrase(s) and the selection of libraries and files in which to search. Lexis is quite user friendly in terms of formulating search phrases. Key words (1 to 20 characters) can be combined in various ways, according to rules governing the use of character and connector terms.

UTILIZING LEXIS RESEARCH PROJECTS

Lexis can be used to prepare classroom materials in two ways: to develop statistics to describe the significance of legal issues and to locate examples of the impact of law on marketing behavior.

The examples and data can be brought to class to bolster lecture material. Students can be assigned the task of searching Lexis armed with the appropriate search phrases, and at other times they can be required to develop the search phrases themselves before querying Lexis. Generally, it is desirable to supply the search phrases because students usually lack familiarity with legal terminology, making it difficult for them to determine which search phrases would be useful.

Another approach is to provide alternative search phrases which will yield different numbers of located documents. Students should then be asked to describe the outcomes are different, perhaps even determining which search phrase is "most useful." Such an exercise forces students to think through the nature of the problem being researched, generally resulting in their understanding the problem in greater depth.

Lexis is by no means limited to marketing problems.
An instructor with a labor relations class can easily develop assignments based on employment discrimination cases. Lexis contains an enormous tax-related case section, providing many opportunities for accountants or attorneys to select materials. Naturally business law professors would (and probably already have) find Lexis very helpful.

REFERENCES


**ABSTRACT**

**PEDAGOGY, CRITIQUE, AND ETHICS IN MARKETING: A PROPOSED PARADIGM SHIFT**

William P. Hetrick, Loyola Marymount University

The purpose of the present paper is to propose an alternative perspective from which to examine ethics and marketing phenomena. The use of Arndt's (1985) conflict paradigms, which consist of the "liberating" and "sociopolitical" versions, provides us with such a conceptual option. This (re)orientation is entirely substantive in nature, and therefore readily amenable to being subsumed under the previous work in marketing ethics (e.g., Ferrell and Gresham 1985; Hunt and Vitell 1986). The content of ethical problems or dilemmas, however, will be substantially altered given this theoretical deviation. From both a pedagogical and research standpoint, the discipline of marketing is constrained in its efforts to confront the challenge of social responsibility and ethical behavior. The metatheoretical assumptions of the logical empiricist orientation (from which most traditional academic marketing activities are situated) are inappropriate for a study of ethics because of the emphasis on consensus, and the tendency to reproduce the current social arrangement. A "movement," therefore, is proposed from the logical empiricist perspective to either the liberating or sociopolitical paradigm in an attempt to capture the overall essence of the philosophical project, and its notion of critique. Operating from Arndt's conflict paradigms permits us to utilize the basic approach of Critical Theory, and the work of its many advocates (e.g., Horkheimer 1972; Adorno 1973; Marcuse 1964; Fromm 1955).

A major contention of this paper is that fundamental ethical concerns that involve marketing have been overlooked because of the strong adherence to functionalist thought. A much broader and basic position must be assumed when establishing the criteria for an "ethical dilemma" (Ferrell and Gresham 1985), or a "perceived ethical problem" (Hunt and Vitell 1986). Arndt's 'victimized consumer' and 'alienated man' metaphors, which are generated from the liberating paradigm, are not represented within traditional conceptualizations of marketing ethics. In addition, the 'political economy' metaphor emanating from the sociopolitical paradigm provides insight into the Marxian categories of commodity fetishism and alienation. These are concepts that are not captured within the logical empiricist paradigm. A truly critical perspective should allow for these differing interpretations, and consequently a reformulation of ethical issues. For example, one goal of a critical marketing theory is to formulate the notion of an ethical product in terms of how it was produced (e.g., worker exploitation) in addition to its effects, adverse or otherwise, on consumers.

With the advent of the "postmodern scene" (Kroker and Cook 1988), the dilemmas of the human condition will become greatly magnified. Unfortunately, the study of marketing ethics as it now stands is incapable of analyzing postmodernism as either a style or a periodizing concept. Arndt's conflict dimension is basically derived from Kantian, Hegelian, and Marxian roots. Postmodernism from a social theoretical perspective is attempting to break from these very notions. Hence, operating from either the liberating or the sociopolitical paradigm not only offers us with an alternative perspective from which to situate marketing ethics, but also allows us to make theoretical modifications to reflect changes in the characteristics of social reality.

**REFERENCES**


Ethical Practices of Students: Predictions of Honesty

Dennis E. Clayson, University of Northern Iowa

ABSTRACT

Students' perception of the ethics of certain behaviors were found to be very consistent across different areas of the country. Students' believe that their peers are less ethical than themselves. Purposeful violation of ethical principles and environmental situation seem to be predictive of a students' own perception of honesty, but they appear to believe that their peers' honesty is predetermined by violation of social norms.

A recent Business Week/Harris poll of American adults found that less than half of those surveyed rated the ethical standards of business behavior as good and 12% rated it as poor (Business Week 1987). Studies since the 70's seem to indicate that ethical behavior and perceptions have decreased among students and practitioners (Hawkins and Cocanougher 1972; Shulptrine 1979; George 1985; Budner 1988).

Many students do not seem to realize that the student of today becomes the business person of tomorrow and that attitudes, work habits, and beliefs will remain largely intact (Kelley and Simonsen 1989). This reality is especially pertinent in the area of ethics.

Following this logic, Forrest and Pritchett (1990) created a survey of ethics that took various practices in the workplace and translated them into classroom situations. They tested two hypotheses. First, that students in individual universities would not differ in their ethical standards, and secondly, that students would report their beliefs about questionable classroom activities to be the same as their peers' beliefs. Using respondents from five Southern universities, the first hypothesis was supported. The second hypothesis was overwhelmingly rejected. The students believed that their peers were much more likely than themselves to be accepting of unethical behavior. The researchers also included a global statement that asked whether the students believed that honesty was more important than getting good grades. About 80% of the respondents indicated that they agreed with this statement, but they believed that only about 49% of their peers would agree. Forrest and Pritchett did not investigate how this global "honesty" statement was related to beliefs about other specified behaviors.

Purpose

This study probed student perceptions of ethics to investigate two questions.

1. Could Forrest and Pritchett's findings be replicated in another area of the country? The original study may have been biased by perceptions of ethical behavior perhaps characterized by Southern states.

2. What ethical perceptions of classroom behavior would be predictive of a student's global concept of honesty?

METHOD

Forrest and Pritchett's survey was used with one exception. Instead of the original five point scale, the present study used a seven point scale with the same anchors to gain a better measure for correlational purposes. The survey consisted of eight practices (Forrest and Pritchett 1990), and a statement about honesty. Each of the eight practices was repeated twice, one which began with "I believe that..." and the other began with "I think that most students would believe that..."

The self evaluation and the peer evaluation were counterbalanced across practices resulting in 16 specific questions with an additional two about honesty. As in the original study, respondents were a nonrandom sample of upper-division business (primarily marketing) students. The survey was conducted at a Midwestern university. A total of 161 usable questionnaires were used in the analysis.

RESULTS

In the original study, position (1) and (2), and (4) and (5) were combined to give an "acceptable" and an "unacceptable" frequency. It was felt that a neutral position (4) on the seven point scale represented (on a study of ethics) a position that could best be interpreted as unacceptable in the original study. Therefore, a (1), (2), and (3) response were combined to calculate the percentage of "acceptable" for a practice and that
Marketing Education, 1988 Proceeding of WMEA, (Bruce Stern and Doug Lincoln Eds.), (April), 25.


MARKETING STRATEGIES FOR THE UTILIZATION OF TELECOMMUNICATIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

David M. Andrus, Kansas State University
Wayne Norvell, Kansas State University
Angela West, Kansas State University

ABSTRACT

A marketing research project was conducted to assess telecommunication needs and benefits sought by academicians in higher education. Distance education programs at major state universities in a five state region were examined. A major application that requires telecommunication technology at universities is distance education courses.

INTRODUCTION

A marketing research project was conducted to assess the telecommunication needs and benefits sought by academicians in higher education. The study focused on the higher education market in a five state area in the midwestern U.S. This research project examined distance education programs at these universities as a major marketing opportunity for departments of marketing to conduct distance education courses.

Knowledge dissemination provided by state universities should not be limited to one location. Students demand a greater array of options than attending a university at a distant site to continue their education. This five state region is characterized by single parents with dependent children, dual-income families and large rural populations. Professors and administrators are receiving increased pressure from many sources to provide higher education services to people living in more diverse locations.

Universities expanding their telecommunication capabilities will be able to generate enrollment increases through distance education courses. Universities will increase profits by expanding their tuition revenue base without costly building investments or hiring additional faculty. Students using this telecommunication system can continue to live at their present location and avoid new living or transportation expenses.

Universities will have to either buy or lease terminal equipment and a transmission mode or combination of modes from a vendor. This creates an opportunity for telecommunication companies to manufacture and sell or lease transmission and reception equipment. Telecommunication companies could also lease dedicated fiber-optic lines to universities as the major transmission mode for distance education courses.

Optical fiber emerged in the 1970's as a transport system for digital information. Fiber-optic lines manage different types of information by simultaneously mixing voice, video, data, and text. University courses via distance education will constitute an early application of fiber-optic technology.

Environmental Forces Creating Opportunities in the Higher Education Market

Several environmental forces have created an opportunity for telecommunication firms to offer flexibility and mobility in the delivery of university courses. The customer base for universities is aging. Older employed students do not wish to move to a university town to continue their education. Older students who live near a university do not want to travel to campus at night after work to take courses. They would rather have the course delivered to their home or some other convenient location.

Many students are single women who work full-time outside the home and have children. Many other college students today come from other types of non-traditional families. These customers need flexibility in the delivery of the learning experience. Potential students in rural areas need access to the courses offered at major universities.

There is a constant need for people in professional occupations to update their skills and stay abreast of current information. This is difficult for many professionals to accomplish because of the information explosion in graduate programs. New technology could help universities solve this problem for practicing professionals. Professors who purchase equipment have a special interest in
telecommunication technology. They are often asked to provide courses for students in rural areas and off-campus locations in major urban areas. Unproductive time is spent traveling to these locations. Political turmoil is created in departments when the chairperson has the unfortunate task of assigning a professor to teach off-campus courses.

Military bases and corporations are also requesting that universities provide courses for their personnel. These demands coincide with an increasing shortage of university professors forecast for the 1990's. Many professors would rather relocate to another university than be burdened with the travel related to distance education courses. Universities are reluctant to anger professors since they are becoming increasingly difficult to replace. Universities often provide professors with expensive salary and conference travel supplements to encourage off-campus teaching assignments.

The social changes creating these problems will persist for at least another 10 years. Problems facing universities in offering mobility and flexibility for their courses are creating opportunities in telecommunication marketing. Fiber-optic technology can save money, improve faculty morale and productivity, decrease turnover and create new market segments for universities to profitably serve. State legislatures and various student segments will be better satisfied with the expanded services offered by these universities through their telecommunication systems.

Customer Needs in the Higher Education Market

A major customer need is for distance education courses to be offered via full video, audio, and data capabilities to a variety of locations within a particular state university system. For example, distance education programs could be conducted using telecommunication products for executive development training programs. Courses would be transmitted over fiber-optic links which are superior to other transmission modes for distance education courses.

The buyers of telecommunication equipment and dedicated fiber-optic lines are university professors who comprise a purchasing committee of two to five people. Universities will use the technology to sell distance education courses to target students segments in various locations. Students will pay tuition and registration fees for these university courses. Many universities already provide these services using very expensive delivery systems. Telecommunication technology could provide universities a more cost effective delivery method.

METHODOLOGY

Sample Design

Eighty-seven academicians from 32 public universities in five midwestern states were surveyed by telephone. A minimum of four state universities in each of the five states was contacted. Data were gathered from telecommunication engineers and administrators in state university systems.

Two pretested questionnaires were used to generate the data. Fifty-nine long questionnaires and 32 short questionnaires were completed. Some of the 87 respondents completed both instruments.

There were only two people on average at each university who were experts and had decision making authority regarding telecommunication systems. Sampled institutions were large state universities. These school have the funds and power to be telecommunication innovators. State universities are more likely to have adequate financial resources to purchase telecommunication equipment.

The Questionnaires

Current and future telecommunication needs and benefits sought by respondents were assessed. Current needs are those occurring during 1990 while future needs are those expected to arise from 1991 to 1995. Telecommunication firms can use this information to sell extant products to universities and develop new ones for future opportunities.

The short questionnaire contained 18 items and was targeted toward administrators. It assessed distance education demand at the universities. Respondents were asked which college and universities were most involved with these two applications and the current total annual enrollment and projected enrollments for these programs. They were asked about current and future transmission modes and expenses for distance education. The participants were questioned about future demographic trends and pressure from state legislators that would affect
demand for teleconferencing and distance education courses.

The long questionnaire contained 48 items and was targeted toward telecommunication engineers and experts who had purchase decision making authority at the universities. Customer needs were examined in terms of telecommunication products and transmission modes desired for distance education courses.

RESULTS

This section profiles the total responses of the participants at all universities across the five states. The responses in this section are summarized to describe the overall patterns in the data. The number of cases in each table varies due to certain items being relevant for some participants but not others.

The 1990 and estimated 1995 telecommunication expenses for leased lines were obtained. The average annual 1990 expense for leased telecommunication lines for distance education is $104,556. The 1990 average total costs for the telecommunication systems for distance education courses at the universities is $467,340. The estimated average 1995 total cost is at $1,090,681.

The participants were asked about telecommunication product benefits for distance education they desired the most by 1995. These results are reported in Table 1. The most important product benefits desired are the ability to transmit more video courses over fiber-optic lines and the integration of voice, data, video, and text onto one transmission line. The third and fourth most important product benefits are better quality transmission of distance education courses and full motion interactive video for courses.

Several items were presented to the respondents regarding their telecommunication transmissions and the college most likely to be involved with distance education via a telecommunication system. Colleges of Engineering are the most involved in distance education courses via a telecommunication system (see Table 2). Colleges of Business Administration are most likely to become involved with distance education via a telecommunication system in the future.

Distance education program total enrollments averaged 1,829 students annually (see Table 3). The average number of distance education courses offered was 22 for the spring 1990 semester. This number is estimated to increase to 51 by 1995.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Telecommunication Product Benefit Most Desired</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Ability to transmit more video courses over fiber-optic transmission lines.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Integration of voice, data, video and text onto one transmission line.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Better quality transmission.</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Full motion interactive video.</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Lower transmission prices from common carriers.</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Multiplexing capabilities on copper cable system.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. More reliable video transmission.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Interactive graphics.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are several trends that will affect telecommunication needs and distance education in the future (see Table 4). The majority of respondents believe that more distance education courses will have to be offered because of an aging student population and increasing numbers of single parents who work outside of the home. Universities will get political pressure from state legislatures to offer more distance education courses, especially in rural areas. The demand for video courses for professional groups is estimated to increase. All these trends indicate there is a great deal of opportunity for telecommunications in higher education.
TABLE 2
COLLEGES MOST INVOLVED IN DISTANCE EDUCATION USING A TELECOMMUNICATION SYSTEM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Item</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The Colleges most involved with distance education via a telecommunication system.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Administration</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuing Education</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Work</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The Colleges not currently involved in distance education using a telecommunication system that are most likely to become involved by 1995.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Administration</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Colleges</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Work</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veterinary Medicine</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 3
DISTANCE EDUCATION COURSES OFFERED FOR 1990 AND 1995

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Total annual enrollment in distance education courses via a telecommunication system.</td>
<td>1829</td>
<td>315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Number of distance education courses via a telecommunication system for Spring 1990 term.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Number of distance education courses via a telecommunication system estimated for Spring 1995 term.</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 4
FUTURE TRENDS IN DISTANCE EDUCATION AFFECTING DEMAND FOR TELECOMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Responses</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaire Items</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. More distance education courses will have to be offered since the average age of the student population is increasing.</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. More distance education courses will have to be offered because of the increase of single parents working outside of the home.</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. There will be an increase in demand for video teleconferencing courses to professional groups.</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. There will be an increase in demand for distance education courses in rural areas.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. There will be political pressure from state legislatures to offer more distance education courses.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSIONS

The majority of universities surveyed are not using fiber-optic lines for distance education courses. However, many will be using fiber-optic networks for distance education within the next five years because it is viewed as the superior transmission mode.

The most desired telecommunication product benefit is the ability to transmit voice, video, text and data onto one transmission line. Other desired benefits include the ability to transmit more video courses over fiber-optic lines, better quality transmission and full motion interactive video. The majority of respondents think that Colleges of Business will become involved with distance education courses using a telecommunication system.
Marketing Strategies

There is significant demand in the next five years for telecommunication products and services in the higher education market segment. The results of this research project suggest several marketing strategies that universities could implement to take advantage of opportunities that exist in distance education.

1. Lobby key state education legislators to eliminate existing restrictions on broadcasting video signals over telephone lines.

2. Lobby key legislators to fund fiber-optic special demonstration projects to enhance potential education applications.

3. Establish a fiber-optic faculty research fund at major universities to gain publicity for the role of fiber-optics. Faculty would conduct the research on a particular educational benefit of fiber-optic technology.

4. Lobby professional associations such as the American Marketing Association to offer more professional development courses via distance education for its members.

5. Offer incentives for faculty to develop and deliver new educational programs via a fiber-optic network. The incentives could be in the form of a program development fund administered by telecommunication company research centers at the universities. A larger number of available courses would generate more students and ultimately more demand for fiber-optic transmission equipment.
ABSTRACT

A NOTE ON ORGANIZING MARKETING AND TECHNOLOGY DISCUSSIONS: A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR RESEARCH AND MARKETING EDUCATION

Nils-Erik Aaby, University of Colorado at Colorado Springs
Lexis F. Higgins, University of Colorado at Colorado Springs.

With increased emphasis on Technology and R&D it appears relevant to focus more research and education towards marketing's role vis-a-vis these areas. To accomplish this, it is argued here that marketing scholars need to focus their efforts on at least three major aspects of the marketing-technology relationship. These are:

1. To get better understand how marketing can influence the process of technology development (particularly in the high technology area) without stifling innovative efforts.

2. To learn how marketing better can nurture technology from innovation through growth to maturity.

3. To better understand how marketing can be used to manage technology globally, and how technology transfers can be better managed and controlled.

This note makes a short review of recent definitions of technology used in marketing. It summarizes common technology definitions in a table. The left column of the table displays the orientation taken by the source cited, while on the right definitions are subjectively positioned on a continuum from 'closely linked to technology' to 'closely linked to marketing.' The paper discusses concepts such as "innovation-driven," and "market-driven" technologies, "supply push," "market-pull," "discontinuous," "dynamically continuous" and "continuous" innovations. It also addresses the concepts of "radical", "incremental"; "base," "key," "pacing" and "emerging"; and "spin-off" and "main stream," "small high-tech," "divisional" and "multi-organizational" technology.

It contrasts, the above concepts with the discrete definitions of "product," "process," and "management" technology and suggests a framework for studying marketing and technology. This is a 3 x 2 matrix which relates types of technology to different orientations of management on the continuum from technology orientation to market orientation. The contributions and the role of marketing can be analyzed by examining each technology type on a technology oriented/market oriented continuum.

The note concludes that there is considerable potential for theoretical and applied research, and relevant discussions in marketing education to answer this challenge. For example, in the area of product technology, the role that marketing should or can play in technology driven firms should be more extensively examined. Creative ways need to be established for determining benefits and/or disadvantages of new technology in relation to markets. Also, examination of marketing's role in the development, application, and commercialization of process technology needs to be further explored. Other areas may include the evaluation of the incremental value-added based on benefits provided, the impact of process technology development on marketing planning and sales forecasting, and the relationship of process technology to customer support organizations. Finally, the contribution to marketing theory from technology related issues should be examined, refined, and applied in creative ways to the technology orientation.

Other broader research questions may be: What role should/can marketing play in technology oriented environments? What elements of existing knowledge in marketing can be applied to high technology environments? What relevant underlying theories in marketing that govern the development of marketing management are appropriate? How should this management technology be developed and how does it relate to product and process technology? What existing marketing tools are applicable and what new tools can be developed?
ABSTRACT

USING INCENTIVES TO INCREASE MAIL SURVEY RESPONSE FROM INDUSTRIAL POPULATIONS

Curt J. Dommeyer, California State University, Northridge

INTRODUCTION

Most mail survey experiments on industrial populations have focused on monetary and nonmonetary incentives (Jobber 1986). Few of these studies, however, have focused on sweepstakes or the prepaid dollar. This paper reports on two studies that investigate the effectiveness of these techniques among design engineers.

STUDY 1

Previous research has indicated that mail survey sweepstakes are effective only when prizes of substantial value are offered. Yet, no industrial mail survey experiment has been reported where the sweepstakes prize was worth more than $100. The present study describes the effectiveness of an industrial mail survey sweepstakes that uses prizes of substantial value.

Design engineers were randomly assigned to one of three conditions. Those assigned to the control group received a standard cover letter, a questionnaire, and a return envelope with postage prepaid by a permit number.

Persons assigned to Treatment 1 received the package mailed to the control group along with information about a mail survey sweepstakes. In Treatment 1's cover letter, the following information was provided:

To show our appreciation, everyone who completes the questionnaire will be included in a drawing for three HP Calculators.

* FIRST PRIZE (choice of):
  Hewlett Packard 18C (Advanced Programmable/Business)
  Hewlett Packard 28C (Advanced Programmable/Scientific)

* SECOND and THIRD PRIZES (choice of):
  Hewlett Packard 12C (Advanced Programmable/Financial)
  Hewlett Packard 15C (Advanced Programmable/Matrix Functions)

Hewlett Packard 16C (Advanced Programmable/Computer Science)

To qualify for one of these prizes, just fill out the enclosed card and return it along with your completed questionnaire, in the envelope provided, by March 20, 1988.

In Treatment 2, the potential respondent was not only presented the same sweepstakes described in Treatment 1 but was also informed in the cover letter that all respondents would receive a special gift from the sponsor of the study. No description of the gift was provided.

Each of the sweepstakes conditions produced a significantly higher response rate than the appeal mailed to the control group. The sweepstakes more than doubled the response rate, from about 2.2% to 5.6%. Offering an unspecified gift along with a sweepstakes had no more drawing power than the sweepstakes alone, for there was no significant difference in response rate between Treatments 1 and 2.

Study 2

Few studies have reported on the effectiveness of the prepaid dollar on industrial populations. Those industrial studies that have reported on this incentive have not always found it to be effective. The purpose of Study 2 was to determine how a prepaid dollar affects mail survey response among design engineers.

Five hundred engineers were randomly assigned to a control group that received a standard cover letter, a questionnaire, and a return envelope with postage prepaid by a permit number. Another 500 engineers were mailed a dollar bill with the questionnaire package. The postscript on their cover
letters stated: "Please accept the enclosed dollar bill as our special thanks to you." Except for the dollar bill and postscript, both groups received identical information.

The prepaid dollar group yielded a significantly higher response rate than the control group (24.07% vs. 4.94%, p < .001). Because of the relatively high response rate generated by the prepaid dollar, it yielded a lower cost per usable return than the control appeal. It also resulted in a slightly higher number of item omissions. Analyses of response speed and sample bias did not reveal any significant differences between the control group and prepaid dollar group.

REFERENCES

IS PRESERVATION THE FIFTH "P" OR JUST ANOTHER MICROENVIRONMENTAL FACTOR?

Larry LeDoux, Orange Coast College

ABSTRACT

This article presents a few of the major pollution factors facing national, international and multinational companies. Its purpose is to arouse textbook authors and educators to consider the impact of pollution and where the overall issue of preservation should be addressed in our marketing models.

INTRODUCTION

Is Preservation the fifth "P" in the marketing mix or just another macroenvironmental factor? The thrust of this article is not to debate the question, but to stimulate the thinking of textbook writers and others to consider the issue and decide if preservation is a new "P" or another macroenvironmental consideration, and if so, in which of our various marketing models it should appear.

Hardly a day goes by without another report on environmental issues such as population expansion, waste export, ozone depletion, or toxic release. Environmental legislation will be a hallmark of the 1990's, the cutting edge of social reform and the most important issue facing business.

Environmentalism is a growing issue and the market for environmentally-friendly products and services is taking off. The environmental marketplace consists of some 170 publicly-held companies and nearly 69,000 private firms competing in a dozen industry segments. (Ferrier 1990). The environmental industry in 1989 was approximately $120 billion. It is estimated to grow to over $200 billion by 1995. Figure 1)

Government

The outpouring of laws and regulations from Washington now affects virtually every aspect of Corporate America. President Bush has said that he hopes to go down in history as the "Environmental President" and is attempting to boost the Environmental Protection Agency to Cabinet level. Coupled with this is the rise in activism of state governments and their seizing of the initiative in area after area of industry-related public policy. For the first time states are enacting laws governing products' labeling, packaging materials, solid waste and consumers' "rights-to-know."

One example is California's controversial Proposition 128 (Big Green). Another is the 1986 adoption of California's Proposition 65, requiring toxic-substance warning labels on products. Similar bills then popped up all over the country. Will this trend be overshadowed by increased assertiveness in local governments? Will city councils no longer be content to wait for states to act, just as the states weren't content to wait for Uncle Sam? (Miller 1990, Williams 1990).

The historic events in Eastern Europe during the past year were in no small measure the result of a situation in which environmental decay outpaced even the economic deterioration of decades of Communism. As atmospheric pollution reached levels where health conditions dramatically worsened, and historic monuments crumbled from acidic deposition, the inhabitants of these countries cried out for change and political accountability. Thus, the grassroots movements which supported environmental reform helped galvanize the push for democracy throughout the region.

This same concern for the environment is serving to draw neighboring countries together to address common concerns. This problem is nowhere more evident than in our bilateral relations with our most important trading partner, Canada.

At the multilateral level, concern for the environment is reshaping the way in which global diplomacy is fashioned. International environmental concerns are now at the top of the agenda in such fora as the G-7 Economic Summit, the Montreal Protocol, the United Nations, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, and the Development Banks. Because issues such as climate change and stratospheric ozone depletion can only be addressed on a global basis, we find ourselves entering a new era of cooperation to protect the environment, bringing together a broad range of countries (east and west, north and south) in a common effort to protect the earth. (Naisbett, Aburdene 1990).
Reprinted with permission of the Environmental Business Journal, San Diego, CA

The activities which result in the release of greenhouse gases such as energy production and use, deforestation and agricultural practices, are vital for mankind's economic health and thus cannot be readily modified without far-reaching socioeconomic costs and a rethinking of how we market our goods and services.

As we educators contemplate future steps to address local and global environmental issues, it is important to review the basic facts and other realities surrounding such concerns. I would suggest that in the area of the environment, the following points are most critical:

* The pace of change in population growth, deforestation, etc., has been accelerating at a rate that makes a business-as-usual approach environmentally unacceptable;

* The most serious environmental problems of ozone depletion, climate change, etc., are international in scope and can only be effectively addressed through multilateral action;

* Any multilateral approach to global environmental issues will impact differently on different countries, depending on such factors as their reliance on fossil fuels, levels of development and economic structure;

* The nature of global environmental issues will require that steps be taken in a climate of uncertainty and with incomplete knowledge of the problems; and

* Economic development that does not take due account of environmental factors is inherently not sustainable and will eventually lead to collapse.

Because global environmental issues present problems for policy makers and business owners worldwide, it is clear that our diplomatic and business efforts in the future will be increasingly focused on the environment. As we enter a new era of concerns for the global environment, we are also facing new challenges to international diplomacy and marketing decisions which will test the business ability of the international community to cooperate in unprecedented ways for a common goal of environmental protection.

THE GREEN CONSUMER

The media and government are not the only ones gaining industry attention. Green consumers come in various shades of green and make purchase decisions in the context of larger issues relating to the environment. In part, this is because of the wide range of choices available. The Green Consumer and Shopping for a Better World recommend, in part, the following purchase related actions. (Corson, Marlin 1990; Elkington, Hailes 1990).

* Avoid endangering the health of the consumer or others;

* Avoid the use of materials derived from threatened species or environments;

* Avoid consuming disproportionate amounts of energy during manufacturing, use or disposal;
• Avoid causing unnecessary waste due either to excessive packaging or to a short useful life;
• Use recycled paper products;
• Use cloth diapers;
• Avoid disposable products.

Some "greens" follow all of the principles listed while others follow only some. What is important is the extent to which they look to the merits of the product in making green buying decisions. Another type takes into account the moral and political positions of the producer and retailer as well as the product itself. (Corson, Marlin 1990).

Green consumers can also be differentiated on the basis of their degrees of commitment. The dedicated bring their environmental concerns to bear on most or all purchase decisions. Others engage in environmentally-aware shopping on a selective basis and the impulsive on a stimulus-response basis, opting for the product that purports to be environmentally superior.

A May 1989 New York Times/CBS poll showed that approximately 80% of U.S. respondents believed protecting the environment to be so important that continuing environmental improvements must be made regardless of the cost. The figure for July 1988, less than a year earlier, was 60%. The total number of environmentally-responsible shoppers is between 14 and 18 million households and will climb to 20 to 22 million by early 1991, and 50 million by year-end 1995. Additionally, some 2700 firms offer goods that meet environmental needs and over 3,000 others provide consulting services. (Goldstein 1990; Silverstein 1990).

Furthermore, environmental considerations are increasingly proving to go beyond the product's environmental friendliness to include the conduct of the manufacturer or retailer on matters of political, social or ethical importance to the consumer. (Stuller 1990).

THE ROLE OF EDUCATION IN MARKET DEVELOPMENT

Education will be the predominant characteristic of the green consumer movement for the next several years. Overall, consumer understanding of environmental issues and related technologies is rather low. This will change. Consumers will become increasingly sophisticated about environmental matters.

At the same time, consumers will use environmental awareness as a springboard for pursuing similar issues, such as corporate responsibility and animal rights.

Education will increase the overall number of green consumers. It will also increase the rate at which consumers convert from being impulsive green consumers to selective green consumers. Employers are demanding that new hires be environmentally-trained. Some 700 universities offer environmental programs with many placing greater environmental emphasis in their engineering courses. Others offer degrees up to Doctorate in Social Ecology, an interdisciplinary academic unit spanning the environmental, legal, behavioral and health sciences. (Stuller 1990).

GREEN PRODUCT INTRODUCTIONS

According to Marketing Intelligence Service, Ltd., green products are being introduced at a rate twenty times faster than the rate for all new packaged goods. The number of new green product introductions nearly doubled between 1985 and 1989, totaling 706. (White 1990).

FINANCIAL

Wall Street closely follows the stocks of about 80 environmentally-oriented companies, and securities analysts are giving greater weight to a firm's environmental performance when judging the potential of its stock. Companies that fail to take strong action to reduce pollution may reap profits today, but may not in the future. Consumer groups can also control profits. More and more "green" mutual funds are making investment decisions based, in large part, on a firm's environmental and social responsibilities to preserving planet earth. Some funds will avoid investing in firms with poor environmental track records. (Silverstein 1989).

CERTIFICATION

The environmental movement is increasingly well-funded, professionally-managed and respectable. The level of public accountability by suppliers is growing, not just in the U.S., but
internationally, with heightened concerns about increased enforcement of environmental health and safety issues. Certification relates to how firms provide some assurance. Optimally, it would be by certifying performance results to their various constituents.

Environmentalism is gaining ground at grassroots levels and is also being institutionalized through regulation and other less formal, though equally as effective, groups. These include:

* Earth Day's "Green Pledge" - the organizers of Earth Day 1990 planned to persuade 30 million citizens, or over 10% of the population, to sign a "Green Pledge" promising to become environmentally-conscious consumers.

* The "Green Guarantee" - the American Forest Council has developed a "Green Guarantee" which pledges that forest products labeled with the guarantee are from forests which are regenerated.

* The "Green Seal" Program - a system is under way for rating a much broader range of product types for their environmental friendliness, with criteria being established by a panel of scientists.

* The "Green Cross" - this group is working with four national supermarket chains whose suppliers are to certify products that meet high standards for recyclability.

As momentum builds, so will the question of whether consumer concern is creating the market and the legislation, or vice versa. (Cook 1990). Markets cannot be created unless demand of some sort, including latent demand, exists.

BUSINESS RESPONSE

Across the United States, businesses are mobilizing in response to the explosive arrival of the environmentally-aware consumer movement. Companies are making decisions across a broad array of areas, including the following: (Allen 1990)

* Whether to take a proactive or reactive stance;
* How to respond to environmental groups' programs and policies such as the Valdez Principles and "Green Seal;"
* What environmentally-friendly products to launch, if any;
* How to re-position products so as to reap the maximum benefit from the green consumer market;
* How to incorporate environmental issues into product and corporate marketing strategies;
* What actions to undertake to enhance one's environmental image;
* How to respond to environmental problems related to doing business, such as packaging and hazardous waste;
* Whether to create a position for environmental affairs, and if so, at what level;
* Whether, and if so to what extent, to make internal operations more environmentally-friendly by introducing recycling programs, eliminating styrofoam containers, transportation pooling, etc.

CONCLUSION

The daily reports and articles on environmental issues, the proliferation of laws and regulations, the ever-growing numbers of green consumers, the increasing level of corporate accountability and the growth of certification are but a few of the issues making it clear that consumers, whether acting in concert or alone, will be more and more selective about what they buy and from whom. Ninety managers at a recent Arthur D. Little seminar stated that dealing with environmental regulations will be the major challenge to be faced in the 1990's. Competition from abroad was second, with drugs in the workplace rated as third. (Welter 1990).

What emphasis, then, do we marketers place on preservation of the environment? Is it time to elevate preservation to a more dominate role such as the fifth "P"? The facts seem to indicate that we should. The time has come for educators and
marketing text authors to address the preservation issue and determine its appropriate role in our marketing models.

REFERENCES


Goldstein, Nora (1990a), "What Does It Mean To Be Green," *In Business*, (June), 36-37.


GLOBAL MARKETING EDUCATION: THEMES FROM THE PAST TWO DECADES

Gerald M. Hampton, San Francisco State University

ABSTRACT

This article reviews the literature regarding the effort to internationalize the business school curriculum during the past two decades. Special attention is given to global marketing. These themes are important for they clarify accomplishments and indicate future problems.

INTRODUCTION

For the past two decades there has been considerable effort to internationalize the business school curriculum. These efforts began in earnest in the early 70s with a number of meetings, conferences and studies designed to build awareness and increase the level of enthusiasm for internationalizing all aspects of the business school (Daniel and Radebaugh, 1974; Goodnow, 1973; U.S. National Commission for UNESCO, 1973 and Brookings Institution Report, 1975). Significant progress was made, however, two recent studies severely criticize the typical business school as being deficient in the global business dimension (Graduate Management Admission Council, 1990 and Porter and McKibbin, 1988). In order to prepare for what is sure to be a renewed emphasis on international business and global marketing education, it seems appropriate to examine the past themes or issues related to internationalization efforts. The goal is to provide one historical background to begin a new round of discussions for globalization. The paper outlines ten themes that emerged from a review of the literature and concludes with implications for possible future efforts. We begin by examining the early initiatives designed to create a need and awareness for internationalization.

Theme 1. Building the Need for International Education: In the early 1970s a number of educators believed that internationalization of the business curriculum was both needed and desirable. James Goodnow (1973) surveyed academics and found that most do not need to be convinced of [the value of] some minimal education in international business and its environment. One argued that the lack of international business education was the reason why business people developed protectionist's attitudes toward foreign competition in the U.S. (Luytjes, 1969).

In a survey of business leaders, over 90 percent indicated their firms are affected directly or indirectly by international economic and political developments (Nehrt 1977). Business school deans concluded that international business will play a more important role in business and in school curricula (Altman, Kujawa and Sutija, 1979). Surveys of large firms and business school graduates lead to a similar conclusion (Patrick 1978). In 1974 the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business officially acknowledged the growing importance of international business education. AACSB accreditation standards were altered to require that curricula of business schools reflect "worldwide", as well as, domestic aspects of business (AACSB 1974).

Any doubts that might have lingered about the need to internationalize were swept away with the publication of two reports, Business and International Education (1977) and The Internationalization of the Business School Curriculum (1979). These publications contained individual studies and summary essays reiterating all the significant ideas and recommendations found in previous reports. Because of the comprehensive nature and stature of the publishers, these reports had substantial effect on business schools. They created a new international orientation for business education, from undergraduate to executive development programs. In summary, the need for international business education was firmly established by the late 1970s. Reports and articles on the subject concluded that most firms, regardless of size and type of operations, are affected by global economic and political developments. With a strong consensus firmly established, educators turned to the more difficult tasks of deciding how to internationalize the business school curriculum.

Theme II. Insufficient Implementation of the AACSB Standard: With an international dimension required, business schools focused on implementing the standard. Because the requirement for internationalization was stated in very general terms, disparities developed between the curricula of different business schools. To reduce these
differences, AACSB Standards and Operations Committee clarified the standard and spelled out ways to meet the requirement. While there was no single way to meet the standard, three were outlined: 1) Inclusion of the international dimensions within the subject matter of the different disciplines, or 2) Offering selected internationally oriented subject courses, or 3) Participation in international workshops, international faculty exchanges, faculty and student exchanges and the like (AACSB, 1978).

While there is little disagreement over the need to internationalize (Aggarwal, 1989), implementation has been less than desired. Porter and McKibbin (1988) in their report on business education conclude that insufficient attention has been given to the international dimension of business. They say it is an area where awareness of need is high, but need has not been translated into a great deal of action (they suggest that it has been given lip service).

Studies by Nehrt (1987) strongly supports this conclusion. In a survey of faculty who participated in the AACSB internationalization workshops (1071 participants out of 24,000 business school faculty), Nehrt suggested that these educational efforts are unlikely to result in a real change in curriculum because of the small number of faculty taking part. In the survey of schools, most indicated that they made the decision to include an international dimension in some or all of the core courses. However, implementation will be difficult because the majority of faculty are not familiar with the international dimensions of their own disciplines. In short, Nehrt concludes that business schools have failed to adequately implement the international education requirement.

Theme III. Lack of Qualified Faculty to Teach International Related Courses: A major criticism often expressed is the lack of faculty qualified to teach the international dimension in courses. Two reasons are cited for this situation. First, there are no international course requirements in doctoral programs, and second, there are few faculty exchange programs. In 1976 Nehrt (1987) surveyed the largest 25 doctoral programs and found that only 25 percent of the PhD students had at least one course in international business. In 1987, he surveyed 48 PhD schools and found that of the 1690 current students who had completed all course requirements, only 17 percent had one or more courses in international business. Nehrt concluded that the situation is deteriorating while the need is increasing.

A 1983 study dealing with foreign exchange programs found that 82 out of 414 schools had one or more (Nehrt, 1987). A year later in a follow-up study, only 64 exchanges programs remained in operation. In addition, the study discovered that only 125 business professors have gone abroad on exchanges and only 60 foreign professors came to teach in U.S. schools. What is most surprising is that some of the more well-known business schools do not offer opportunities for exchanges.

Theme IV. AACSB Requirements-Help or Hinderance: An interesting controversy is whether AACSB accreditation requirements benefit or assist in the effort to internationalize the curriculum. Thanopoulos and Vernon (1987) found that among AACSB schools, the accredited ones are not significantly different form the non-accredited schools. They suggest that accreditation requirements may actually retard rather than enhance the internationalization of business education. As an example, they say that non-accredited schools, with their greater curricula flexibility, are better able to require foreign languages than schools who conform to accreditation standards.

Aggarwal (1989) argues that because of inflexibility, business schools often contend that something must be removed in order to internationalize. Further, he suggests schools often argue that few students are likely to work abroad after graduation, and therefore, such education is not essential. Korbin (1984) found that in the development of international expertise, traditional education, whether graduate or undergraduate, is not perceived by business people to be a significant factor. Under such conditions, it seems time to seriously question the criteria on which schools structure their curriculum, particularly when the criteria interferes with the needs in the global marketplace.

Theme V. Increased Interest in Global Marketing Research: International marketing research efforts have increased over the past several decades. A content analysis of the Journal of Marketing for a 40-year period (1936-1975) showed that about 5 percent of its articles concerned international marketing between 1936-1955, peaked at about 14 percent in the 1960-63 period and declined to about 3 percent in 72-75 (Grether, 1976). In a similar study from 1970 through 1980 of the Journal of
Marketing, Journal of Marketing Research, and Journal of Consumer Research, Ghymn and White (1981) found that international content as a percentage of total articles was 6.5%, 1.2% and 1% respectively.

This low level of research output seems to have changed during the past decade. For the time period 1980-85, Bradley (1987) examined 32 journals containing a total of 7,914 articles and classified 1,014 or 12.8% as international marketing articles. This is a significant increase over earlier decades. The increase in research in international marketing is due to its greater dynamics, complexity, diversification and competitive requirements at all level of management than is found in purely domestic markets (Bradley, 1987). Today there are a number of publications devoted solely to international marketing issues, including the International Marketing Review, Journal of Global Marketing, and Journal of International Consumer Marketing. Also encouraging is the new publication concerned with education, the Journal of Teaching In International Business.

Theme VI. Growing Interest in Global Marketing Courses: International or global marketing is a leader among international courses in perceived relevance and importance in today's business and academic world. The course is regularly taught at 68 percent of the undergraduate and 61 percent of the masters programs in business (Thanopoulos and Vernon, 1987). This is a substantial increase from earlier years where surveys found that only 43 percent of schools offered courses in international marketing (Grosse and Perrett, 1980).

In a survey of firms, 88 percent of the respondents rated international marketing as either "very desirable" or "desirable" Kohers, 1984). The only course rated higher on these scales was principles of international business. In a similar study (Reynolds and Rice, 1988), international marketing and international finance were rate more important than all other subjects studied. In a recent study of Canadian business, respondents were asked to evaluate the importance of fifteen international courses as they related to career progress within the organization (Beamish and Calof, 1989). International marketing was rated the most important, followed by international finance and international trade/export management. While these studies are not comprehensive, it does appear that international marketing is one of the most popular and important courses in the international curriculum.

Theme VII. Dissatisfaction with Knowledge Development in International Marketing: There appears to be a sense of dissatisfaction with the type and content of research done in knowledge development of international marketing. In one of the first review articles, Cavusgil and Nevin (1981) argued that international marketing is in the state of becoming a respected subdiscipline. They also criticized the quality of much of the research as lacking in conceptual frameworks, as well as hypothesis used to guide research.

Graham and Gronhaug (1989) conclude that PHD dissertations, the keystone of knowledge development in marketing, tend to be driven by standards of rigor and a distinct method bias that make them inappropriate for the study of important problems in the international field. Bradley (1987) expresses similar sentiments when he says that researchers are preoccupied with the description and conceptualism of international marketing problems with little effort devoted to research that is more scientifically advanced. One reason for the lag in knowledge development is the enormous problems associated with doing acceptable research in the field. One scholar put it best when he said, "When the area is rather difficult to research both conceptually and practically, it is understandable that most colleagues try easier routes. A good deal of this seems to be conditioned by the overall preference for narrow empiricism results and clinical research, which is less appropriate in international marketing" (Hampton and Gent, 1984). Furthermore, American scholars know little of knowledge production in foreign countries because most do not speak or read foreign languages.

Theme VIII. Foreign Language as an Educational Requirement: There are contradicting views regarding the importance and need of a foreign language as part of a business student's education. In a study of American companies with international operations, Tung (1981) found that in the selection of personal for overseas assignments, language ability was not an important criterion. Reynold's and Rice's (1988) survey of American companies found little requirement for foreign languages. Kobrin (1984) found among the executives interviewed that language is an important plus, but not the critical factor.

Others, however, highly recommend at least one foreign language. In Kohers' (1984) study of
business firms, respondents rated proficiency in a foreign language as desirable. In addition, he discovered that a foreign language major with a minor in business was given a very desirable rating. Graham and Gronhaug (1989) argue that business schools should place higher value on language training and overseas living experiences. In a study, including both international marketing scholars and marketing managers, training in a foreign language was rated as the fifth most important area of study out of a total of thirty-nine (Hampton, 1986).

**Theme IX. Importance of Areas Outside the Normal Business Curriculum:** It is interesting to note that in the development of international marketing curriculum, studies express, directly or indirectly, the importance of courses outside the business school. Surprising, a study found the areas deemed most important lie outside the business discipline (Hampton, 1986). They are cultural studies, communications skills, and a foreign language. Sherry (1988) has argued for sometime of the relationship that exists between international marketing and cultural anthropology. Business executives mentioned language training, Latin American studies, international relations and similar training as contributions to international expertise (Kobrin 1984).

**Theme X. The Need for Practical Skills:** Another common theme expressed was the need for more practical skills, especially for small business. There was consistency across most curriculum studies regarding the importance of teaching skills related to importing and exporting. Melon and Graham (1983) argue that this area should be the emphasis of all introduction to international marketing courses. McNabb (1985) found that managers engaged in international business rated export topics as very important (topics included financing exports, legal aspects of trade, contracts and customs laws). Hampton (1986) also found a desire for more practical applications of marketing concepts in international markets, especially exporting.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

During the past twenty years, we have achieved moderate success in our efforts to internationalize the business school. Today, we are keenly aware of the need to internationalize. We rejoice in the growing interest in international courses and are satisfied with the increased research interest in international marketing.

On the other hand, we are severely criticized for failing to sufficiently introduce the international dimension, and for failing to train enough qualified faculty to teach international courses. We also must share the blame for a lack of knowledge development, and for failing to emphasis certain practical skills, especially exporting. We seem unable to decide on whether to require a foreign language, and suffer under rigid accreditation requirements that make it almost impossible for students to take courses outside the school of business.

Of the ten themes identified in this review, only three are positive regarding efforts to internationalize. One can only conclude that the job has just begun. The implications are clear -- we must renew our efforts to globalize the marketing curriculum. We must recognize that internationalization of the marketing curriculum and faculty is too important to be left to AACSB requirements. It is time for every course in the marketing curriculum to be taught from the international perspective. It is time for us to work with our national organization, the American Marketing Association, to set specific goals and adopt internationalization as one of the top priorities. Finally, it is time to develop a major in international marketing that has as a minimum a foreign language requirement.

List of References are Available from the Author on Request
IMPORT DECISION BEHAVIOR:
AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF TWO COUNTRIES' IMPORT MANAGERS

Kyung-il Ed Ghynn, University of Nevada-Reno

The U.S. balance of trade deficits and the decline of the U.S. dominance of world market have drawn much attention to the need for a greater knowledge of the export process and its management. Since exporting is an important issue for international marketers as well as government officials, it has been the focus of many studies in the literature.

Equally important, however, is an understanding of the import process and its management. International marketing should be a tool available to both exporters (sellers) and importers (buyers) in theory as well as in practice. Therefore, international marketing should include the study of importing process and its management (11). In the past, however, international marketing strategies were examined primarily as a tool that deals with problems of exporting and profits in the global marketplace (4).

This paper explores the purchasing behavior of import managers of the two Pacific Rim countries, U.S. and Korea, the seventh largest U.S. trading partner.

A structured questionnaire for both mail and in-depth interviews was the main device for data collection. The questionnaire contains 17 import related dependent variables and its main purpose was to determine what variable(s) were perceived to be most important in relative terms when making import purchasing decision and what seemed to be the most difficult problems.

Table 1 shows the mean scores (5 point scale) for the study sample and a portion of the group difference analysis (ANOVA). Overall findings show that Korean import managers seem to be either quite prudent or quite confused in determining what information is more useful and what is not when they make decisions on importation. The mean score of all the variables were distinctly higher than that of U.S. managers indicating that all variables measured are either "important" or "very important".

For specific variables, Korcan managers rate the product quality variable as number one in importance followed by the price, the timely delivery and the long-term supply dependability variables.

Findings on the relative importance of import decision variables as perceived by both the U.S. and Korean managers reveal quite an interesting comparison and they also offer very practical answers to importers and exporters. But the important value of this study lies in that this empirical study provides a foundation for further study which would serve to improve the theory of firm's purchasing behavior. The existing theories and models of organizational buying behavior have been neglecting the cross-cultural variables in their discussions.

REFERENCES

TABLE 1
IMPORT DECISION VARIABLES WITH MEAN SCORES AND RANK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Korean Managers (n = 121)</th>
<th>U.S. Managers (n = 198)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>MEAN (STD) RANK</td>
<td>MEAN (STD) RANK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Product quality</td>
<td>4.67 (.88) 1</td>
<td>3.71 (.72) 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Price</td>
<td>4.56 (.91) 2</td>
<td>4.05 (.94) 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Timely delivery</td>
<td>4.44 (.88) 3</td>
<td>4.06 (.84) 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Dependability for long-term supply</td>
<td>4.39 (.84) 4</td>
<td>4.00 (.73) 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Product Style/Feature</td>
<td>4.23 (.85) 5</td>
<td>2.78 (1.08) 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Payment method</td>
<td>4.22 (.89) 6</td>
<td>3.41 (.89) 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Length of association</td>
<td>4.17 (.70) 7</td>
<td>3.58 (.90) 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ordering Shipping Procedure</td>
<td>4.17 (.71) 8</td>
<td>3.81 (.71) 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Product Safety</td>
<td>4.05 (1.09) 9</td>
<td>1.85 (.69) 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Home gov't regulations/laws</td>
<td>4.04 (.91) 10</td>
<td>NA*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Packaging</td>
<td>3.93 (.88) 11</td>
<td>2.80 (.91) 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Product demand at home</td>
<td>3.87 (1.18) 12</td>
<td>3.31 (.98) 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Transportation cost</td>
<td>3.72 (.91) 13</td>
<td>3.99 (1.10) 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Brand name reputation</td>
<td>3.61 (1.10) 14</td>
<td>2.35 (1.81) 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Host gov't regulation/laws</td>
<td>3.60 (1.13) 15</td>
<td>NA*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Promotion help from suppliers</td>
<td>3.49 (1.04) 16</td>
<td>2.11 (1.09) 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Product uniqueness</td>
<td>3.24 (1.15) 17</td>
<td>2.46 (1.22) 12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NA: These two variables were not included in the previous study about U.S. import managers.

*: ANOVA significance at alpha = 0.07
AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF LEARNING STYLES IN MARKETING EDUCATION

Nancy T. Frontczak, Metropolitan State College of Denver
Gerald J. Rivale, Jr., Metropolitan State College of Denver

ABSTRACT

This study empirically analyzed student preference for various learning activities based on the student's individual learning style, as measured by Kolb. Eighty-five undergraduate marketing students were surveyed. Results indicate that preference for learning activities used in the marketing classroom does differ based on a person's learning style. These preferences can clearly and logically be explained by understanding the descriptions of each learning style.

INTRODUCTION

The trend in marketing education continues to move from a traditional, theoretical approach to a practical, experiential approach (Gaidis and Andrews 1990). Marketing professors use a variety of "hands-on" approaches to assist in student learning, such as computer simulations, case analysis, and client-centered group projects. A review of the effectiveness of these techniques, based on findings from the marketing education literature, will follow. Overall effectiveness of various marketing education techniques is analyzed in the literature, yet effectiveness of each technique may vary by the learning style of individual students. This study presents an empirical investigation of student preference for various educational approaches used in marketing classes based on individual learning style. Specifically, this paper presents:

1. A summary of relevant literature on the effectiveness of various marketing education techniques.
2. A summary of studies considering the relevance of learning style in marketing education.
3. A brief history of the theoretical development of learning style.
4. A description of the study's methodology.
5. Results and direction for future research efforts.

Effectiveness of Marketing Education Techniques

Numerous studies have considered the effectiveness of group projects in marketing education (Malhotra, Tashchian and Jain 1989; Ramocki 1987; Dommerholt 1986; de los Santos and Jensen 1985; and Goretsky 1984). The general consensus from these studies is that students prefer group projects over the individual format and that group projects significantly benefit the student learning process.

Other educational techniques have been analyzed. Henke, Locander, Mentzer, and Nastas (1988) considered the benefits of guest speakers, field trips to corporations, video tapes, films, and cases. Karns (1989) found that marketing students preferred guest speakers, class discussions, simulations, and client projects, while the least preferred learning activity was multiple choice tests.

These studies of the effectiveness of alternative approaches to learning and student preference for various learning activities have not considered individual differences in learning style. Based on a student's particular learning style, he (she) may prefer various educational techniques.

Use of Learning Style in Marketing Education

Tom and Calvert (1984) analyzed the effect of students' learning style, as measured by Kolb's Learning Style Inventory, on students' performance, as measured by grades. Results indicate that students measuring higher on the reflective observant and abstract conceptualization ends of the learning style continuum perform better. This learning style orientation, called an Assimilator, is less focused on people and more concerned with ideas and concepts. Logical, sound theory, concrete, sequential ordering, attention to detail, facts and figures all characterize this person. Tom and Calvert also considered the instructor's learning style and found that marketing professors use similar teaching formats, which create similar learning environments, regardless of their own personal learning style.

Another study reported on the relationship between
student learning style and student acquisition of marketing knowledge (Sood and Valentine 1983). Again, Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory (LSI) was used to determine learning style, although a modified version of the LSI was used. Results demonstrate that student performance (acquisition of marketing knowledge as measured by student grades) is independent of learning style.

Neither of these studies on learning style in marketing education considered the relationship between student learning style and student preference for various educational techniques. One study on learning styles in marketing education suggested a theoretical framework for understanding how the effectiveness of various approaches to marketing education may vary by student learning style (Frontczak 1990). This work did not offer any empirical findings.

History of Learning Styles

The concept of learning styles has been thoroughly researched in the discipline of education. Scholars in education have concluded that the student’s learning process is a function of three factors - the learning environment, teaching style, and student learning style. The interaction of these three elements determines a student’s performance. The work of Gregor (1982), Dunn and Dunn (1975), and Kolb (1974) represents the foundation for much of the research on learning style.

Gregor (1982) developed “The Gregor Style Delineator” which suggests that people have a preference for either “abstract” or “concrete” perception and a preference for “sequential” or “random” ordering of information. Combining the dimensions of perception and ordering, Gregor identifies four patterns of learning style.

Dunn and Dunn’s (1975; 1978) extensive work in the field of learning styles suggests that a person’s manner of absorbing and retaining information, facts and concepts is a function of his (her) learning style. Finally, David A. Kolb developed a Learning Style Inventory (1974) which identified two dimensions of learning style.

**Perception:** People perceive through Concrete Experience (“feeling”) or through Abstract Conceptualization (“thinking”).

**Processing:** People process through Active Experimentation (“doing”) or through Reflective Observation (“watching”).

Therefore, learning results from the way people perceive and then process what has been perceived. In putting together these two dimensions, a four-quadrant model of learning styles is formed (see Figure 1).

The Learning Style Inventory measures a person on each of the four dimensions using a self-description format based on 12 questions with four alternative responses (Kolb 1976). Respondents are asked to rank the alternatives according to how well they think each fits with how they would go about learning something. Based on the results of this LSI, a “Learning-Style Grid” can be formed for each person. The four basic learning styles developed by Kolb are:

**Diverger:** This learning style emphasizes concrete experience (“feeling”) and reflective observation (“watching”). This orientation stresses adaptation by observation rather than action. These individuals tend to be feeling-oriented, interested in people, tend to desire harmony, avoid conflict and process information based on their past and present experiences.

**Assimilator:** This person’s dominant learning abilities are abstract conceptualization (“thinking”) and reflective observation (“watching”). This orientation is less focused on people and more concerned with ideas and abstract concepts. Logical, sound theory, concrete, sequential ordering, attention to detail, facts and figures are important to this person. They process information concretely.

**Converger:** The convergent learning style relies on abstract conceptualization (“thinking”) and active experimentation (“doing”). This person likes problem solving, decision making, and the practical application of ideas and theories. Convergers would prefer to deal with technical problems and “figure things out” rather than social, interpersonal skills. They process information by kinesthetic and tactile “doing”.

94
FIGURE 1
KOLB'S LEARNING STYLE DIMENSIONS

Perception

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concrete Experience</th>
<th>Abstract Conceptualization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Feeling&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Thinking&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Active Experimentation "Doing"

Processing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accommodator</th>
<th>Converger</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Reflective Observation "Watching"

Diverger Assimilator

**Accommodator:** The fourth learning style emphasizes concrete experience ("feeling") and active experimentation ("doing"). These individuals like doing things and getting involved in new experiences. They seek opportunities, take risks, and learn more by intuitive trial and error. These individuals are at ease with other people.

Kolb proposes that every person has a dominant learning style which influences all aspects of their life. However, all people also possess aspects of all four learning styles.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Research Instrument**

Kolb’s Learning Style Inventory (1976) was used in this study to measure the particular learning style of each student. Although some criticism of Kolb’s LSI has been found in the literature (Freedman and Stumpf 1978), this instrument was selected because of its widespread use in education and management literature.

The authors then designed a questionnaire which primarily measured students' preference for various educational activities used by marketing professors. Students were asked to rate 14 items (such as traditional lectures, field trips, and group projects) on a 7-point scale, where 1 equals least preferred and 7 equals most preferred. (The 14 learning activities are listed in Table 1). These 14 items were selected from previous studies (Frontczak 1990; Karns 1989).

Students were also asked to select one of four projects which they would most prefer (individual term paper, group term paper, individual field work project, or group field work project). These four
TABLE 1
LEARNING ACTIVITIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional Lecture</th>
<th>Group Case Analysis</th>
<th>Reading Assigned Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual Project</td>
<td>Games or Simulations</td>
<td>Multiple Choice Exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Project With</td>
<td>Field Trips</td>
<td>Essay Exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Client</td>
<td>Video Tapes or Films</td>
<td>Group Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guest Speaker</td>
<td>Class Discussion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Case Analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

projects were selected because they may correspond to the four different learning style orientations. The hypothesized preferences would be as follows:

Divers - Group term paper
Assimilators - Individual term paper
Convergers - Individual field work project
Accommodators - Group field work project

Sample

A convenience sample of undergraduate junior and senior marketing students enrolled in an urban college located in the western United States was selected. The questionnaire was administered in six upper-division marketing classes. Prior approval for conducting the study was received from each marketing instructor. Eighty-five completed questionnaires were used for data analysis.

RESULTS

Student Learning Styles and Preference For Learning Activities

Before considering the differences in preference for learning activities by student learning style, overall results from the study will be presented.

Results from Kolb's Learning Style Inventory indicated that 16.9% of the respondents are Divers (individuals who learn by observation, are feeling-oriented, and enjoy working in groups), 37.3% are Assimilators (individuals who are less focussed on people and learn by concrete sequential ordering of information), 20.5% are Convergers ('hands-on' individuals who like to integrate theory and practice, rather than deal with interpersonal skills), and 25.3% are Accommodators (individuals who enjoy working with people and learn by doing). According to Kolb (1984), often Accommodators are involved in careers in marketing, although marketing researchers and planners are often Assimilators, which may explain the dominance of these two learning styles categories for the sample of marketing majors.

Table 2 shows the overall student preference for each of the 14 learning activities. "Field Trip" was the most preferred activity and "Reading Assigned Text" was the least preferred activity. These results are somewhat similar to those found by Karns (1989). Overall student preference for the four types of projects, indicated by the percentage of the sample selecting each, was:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual term paper</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group field work project</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group term paper</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of the above</td>
<td>14.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual field work project</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perhaps not surprisingly, some students would prefer not to do any type of class project.

Preference For Learning Activities By Learning Style

The primary purpose of this paper is to analyze the effectiveness of various marketing education techniques for individuals with different learning styles. Results indicate that based on an individual's learning style, preference for various learning activities does differ. Table 2 also shows the mean scores for student preferences of learning activities
by the four learning styles suggested by Kolb. Table 3 summarizes the important findings from Table 2, by showing which learning activities were most preferred by individuals with different learning styles. For example, Assimilators had the highest mean preference for the traditional lecture. This finding was expected by the authors, since Assimilators enjoy the traditional structured classroom (Kolb, 1984). A discussion of the preferences for each of the four learning styles will help explain Tables 2 and 3.

Although many students seem to prefer guest speakers as a learning activity, Diversers rated guest speakers the highest overall. Diversers learn by listening and are interested in people, therefore, guest speakers would seem to be a logical selection of an educational technique for these individuals.

Assimilators, concrete sequential thinkers, learn by "watching" and "thinking." This study found that these learners most preferred the traditional lecture and reading the assigned text, items rated fairly low by the other learning styles. Since Assimilators like to ask the question, "What?" in order to obtain accurate information, their preference for traditional lectures and textbook reading is logical. These individuals also preferred video tapes and films, which makes sense given their need to know what "experts" think. Finally, since Assimilators enjoy attending to details and facts, multiple choice tests are a reasonable preference for them.

Convergers, "hands-on" learners, like to ask the question, "How does it work?" Their preference for group projects with a client is logical, since these types of projects would allow the student to find out first hand how various companies operate. Also, as "hands-on" learners, they would enjoy activities such as questionnaire development, data collection and analysis, and designing creative and media plans for advertising campaigns, which are often the basis for client projects.

Finally, as a risk-taker who likes new experiences, Accommodators like to ask the question, "What if?" The foundation of any case analysis, whether individual or group, is to allow a person to answer that particular question, so the preference for case analysis is logical. Also, since Accommodators are at ease with people, learning activities such as class discussions, field trips, and group projects would allow the interpersonal interaction desired by these learners. Since Accommodators relish change and like to "imagine what might be," the preference for games and simulations makes sense. The preference for an individual project is somewhat surprising, since these learners enjoy working with others. However, the more creative nature of projects, in general, would be more fun for these people, than the structure of a traditional lecture. Finally, essay exams would allow these learners the opportunity to answer more "what if" questions.

Based on an individuals learning style, the following shows the results for the general type of project most preferred:

1. Diversers preferred an individual term paper and a group field work project equally.
2. Assimilators preferred an individual term paper.
3. Convergers preferred a group field work project.
4. Accommodators preferred a group term paper.

The finding related to Assimilators is as expected, however, the other three findings are somewhat different than expected. Convergers, "hands-on" learners, did prefer the field work project, which is a more experiential project. Convergers are willing to work with others when these people are task oriented and move quickly, making group projects a possibility for these learners. Accommodators, learners who are very comfortable with people, did select a group project. Finally, the unexpected results for the Diversers may be based simply on the small sample size for these individuals.

Findings from this study indicate that individual learning style does influence the preference for particular learning activities in the marketing classroom.

**CONCLUSION**

This study has empirically examined the influence of individual learning style on preference for various learning activities in marketing education. Differences in preference for educational techniques were found, based on a person's learning style, as measured by Kolb. Two main questions remain
TABLE 2
MEAN PREFERENCE FOR LEARNING ACTIVITY BY LEARNING STYLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Divergers</th>
<th>Assimilators</th>
<th>Convergers</th>
<th>Accommodators</th>
<th>Overall Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Field Trips</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>5.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Games or Simulations</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>5.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guest Speaker</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Discussions</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>5.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video Tapes or Films</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>5.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Case Analysis</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Choice Exam</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essay Exam</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>4.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Case Analysis</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Project</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>4.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional Lecture</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Project With A Client</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group Project</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Assigned Text</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

regarding the impact of learning styles. First, what can marketing educators do in the classroom, knowing that students with different learning styles have clear preferences for diverse educational techniques? Educators would differ in their response to this question. The first step for marketing educators is to realize these differences do exist in each class. Marketing professors could offer a variety of learning activities in each class. A professor could actually allow each student to weight each learning
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divergers</th>
<th>Assimilators</th>
<th>Convergers</th>
<th>Accommodators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guest Speaker</td>
<td>Traditional Lecture</td>
<td>Group Project with a Client</td>
<td>Individual Case Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Assigned Text</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Group Case Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video Tapes and Films</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Games or Simulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Choice Exam</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Class Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Field Trips</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Group Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Essay Exam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Individual Project</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

activity. In courses where multiple sections are offered, different course formats could be arranged and listed in the schedule each term. The students could then self-select the desired format, such as a case course, individual project, experiential project and so on. Also, professors can encourage students to be flexible in their learning, explaining the value of an eclectic approach to teaching marketing. If students (and professors) learned to be more flexible in the classroom, they will be able to better cope with different learning activities and individuals with different learning styles in their work environment.

A second important question remains for the marketing educator. Just because someone prefers a particular learning activity, which may match their learning style, does that mean they will 'learn best' by that technique? Further research on this difficult question is needed.

REFERENCES


Tom, Gail and Stephen Calvert (1984), "Learning Style as a Predictor of Student Performance and Instructor Evaluations," Journal of Marketing Education, (Summer), 14-17.
ABSTRACT

HOW ARE STUDENTS RESPONDING TO LARGE CLASS INSTRUCTION IN THE INTRODUCTORY MARKETING COURSE

Robert F. Gwinner, Arizona State University
Jeffrey S. Conant, Texas A & M University
Richard T. Hise, Texas A & M University

INTRODUCTION

Along with the increase in the number of undergraduates majoring in marketing, there has been an increase in the number of large classes offered in the instruction of the basic marketing course. Chairs are scheduling the large classes in an effort to better deal with the resource crunch in most collegiate schools of business. Additionally, they use the "intro course" to generate large student credit hours in order to maintain smaller classes for marketing majors.

While this scheduling strategy in the college of business is fairly clear to both faculty and students, the net impact of the strategy is not as clear. For example, several critical questions can now be raised based on the experience of a number of years in which the introductory marketing course has been offered in the large class format. This paper addresses the following:

- Do student attitudes regarding large classes tend to vary on different college campuses?

Definitive answers to the above questions can be used to provide some insight into the impact of large class instruction on the educational process. To this end, scheduling strategy may not be so much a question of "should we offer large classes?" but more a question of "how can we improve large classes?" This should be a major concern for chairs who schedule large classes and for faculty involved in the delivery of large class instruction.

METHOD

Following a number of years during which the introductory marketing course was instructed in the large class format, students at two large and very comparable state universities were asked to participate in a study of student attitudes toward large classes. Students participated voluntarily and agreed to complete a questionnaire that took approximately 15 minutes of their class time. On the two university campuses, four 'intro marketing' sections, three instructors, and 980 students were included in the study, with 476 students from the first university (hereafter designated campus one) and 504 students from the second university (hereafter designated campus two). The first part of the questionnaire required the participants to provide a detailed profile of themselves through conventional demographic questions related to university students. The second part of the questionnaire was used to determine the level of satisfaction experienced by students when enrolled in large classes by asking them to indicate what they would do if they could control the scheduling
process. They could respond with one of four answers: I would offer more, fewer, about the same number as presently offered, or no large classes. Another question asked the students to evaluate the quality of instruction. To this question, they could give one of three answers: it is better in large classes, better in small classes, or about the same in both.

RESULTS

From the results of the study, there is ample evidence that students are generally dissatisfied with their experiences in large classes. Given a choice, they would schedule fewer large classes and opt for more instruction in small classes. The students also believed that the quality of instruction was better in small classes. It is interesting to note, however, that over one-third of those on campus one (34.3%) and nearly one-fourth of those on campus two (22.9%) thought the quality of instruction was about the same in both large and small classes. Although students were generally negative in their attitudes about large classes, those from campus one were more accepting of the large class format than those from campus two. On the other hand, students from campus two had a higher regard for the quality of instruction in large classes than did their peers on campus one. This may be due in part to the fact that campus two students had more experience in taking large classes.

Younger students (both in age and in class standing) and those with higher grades (3.00 to 4.00 averages) were more tolerant of large classes. As might be expected, students with lower grades (under 3.00) thought that the quality of instruction was better in small classes.

The student's area of study had some influence on both their satisfaction with the large class format and on their feelings about the quality of instruction in large classes. No clear differences existed in the attitudes of business versus non-business majors in terms of their satisfaction with large classes, but non-business majors were stronger in the view that the quality of instruction was better in small classes. When compared to non-marketing majors, marketing majors on both campuses were less satisfied with large classes and with the quality of instruction in those classes.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this study point to several conclusions.

First, departments offering the introductory course in the large class format must carefully monitor students' attitudes toward large classes. Second, assuming that generally negative attitudes do exist, chairs must determine if those attitudes are the result of instructor variables or course content variables. In either case, corrective actions must be taken in the form of better delivery and in the form of real changes in the course itself.

Since instructor variables appear to be the obvious student concerns with large classes, special attention should be given to selecting the most qualified individuals to teach the large classes. Because the introductory course is a broad survey of the field, it may be wise to choose senior-level persons with broad teaching backgrounds in preference to junior-level persons with more limited backgrounds. Likewise, instructors with strong interpersonal skills should be chosen over those who may be more lacking in this area.

With respect to course content variables, an interesting subject for debate is whether or not a totally different introductory marketing course is needed for the large class format. In this context, a new approach to the subject may be required in order to meet the needs of the students in course content and the needs of the faculty in course delivery. A stream of research on this penetrating question may be in order. Clearly, as noted in previous research on large sections, the introductory course is a showcase offering in many departments of marketing. Consequently, it is incumbent on those responsible for the course (faculty and administrators) to insure a high level of quality in both content and delivery.
AN INVOLVEMENT-ORIENTED APPROACH TO TEACHING A MEDIUM-SIZED MARKETING PRINCIPLES CLASS

Denny E. McCorkle, University of Northern Colorado
M. F. Diriker, Salisbury State University
Joe F. Alexander, University of Northern Colorado

INTRODUCTION

While it is possible for some level of student understanding to occur through passive learning (e.g., lectures), a deeper level of understanding is more likely to occur in the mind of the active learner. An active process involves “digestion” of knowledge, thinking that results in understanding, and ultimately, an application of the newfound understanding. The position taken by the authors and others (Settle 1990; Cohen 1988), is that this deeper level of understanding can best be accomplished through practical application and involvement. Special problems exist in creating student involvement when the class size increases beyond 25 to 50 students. In-class discussions can become unmanageable, and out-of-class assignments and essay/involvement types of exams are spurned due to the excessive grading time required.

PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this paper is to present an involvement-oriented approach to teaching Marketing Principles to medium-sized classes (50-100 students). Four basic “involvement-oriented” methods are explained and their use rationalized. In addition, a student evaluation regarding the effectiveness of these methods is provided. The methods used were developed by the authors over a three-semester period, with an enhanced version employed in each new semester. The evaluation of these methods consisted of a survey of 70 students enrolled in a Marketing Principles course at a northeastern school.

EXPLANATION AND EVALUATION OF METHODS

The first involvement-oriented method, “in-class involvement exercises,” consisted of using activities such as mini-cases and role-playing exercises during the regular class meetings. After a brief summary (15-20 minutes) of the day’s reading assignment, students were divided into groups (3-4 each) and assigned a particular problem or topic. After allowing for sufficient group interaction, a group representative later shared and defended their results in front of the class. The activities were designed to give each student the opportunity to think and then share their thoughts, if not to the entire class, at least to their group. Such activities expanded and reinforced learning from the lecture and reading assignments by “forcing” students to apply the material. Student evaluation of these exercises was extremely favorable.

The second method, a “participation incentive program,” was designed to motivate students to spend additional time with the assigned material prior to class. Students were allowed to submit one-page chapter summaries to the instructor prior to in-class discussion of the topics, and were later returned the notes to use as an aid during course exams. Based on the type of exams given, the notes themselves did not contain any direct answers to exam questions. Students felt that the program encouraged advance preparation (95.7%), more even-paced studying (87.1%), and less memorization (68.6%), while better preparing them for exam questions (85.7%) and giving them more confidence during the exam sessions (91.4%).

The third method, “application-type, multiple-choice questions,” was designed to encourage and reward active learning while also limiting the amount of grading time required by instructors. Each course exam consisted entirely of questions that required students to apply the learned concepts. Student evaluations were mixed. Respondents indicated that such questions were a better test of understanding of course material (78.5%), and resulted in longer term retention of course material (68.5%). Only 43 percent preferred these questions, yet 78.5 percent felt that the method should be used in subsequent semesters.

The final method, the “exam written appeal process,” was designed to help students understand why they had missed questions. Students were
allowed to defend, in writing, the answers to missed questions. The process required students to spend additional time with the material that had given them the most problems on the exam, thereby enhancing understanding. More than 90 percent of the students responded that the process taught them to express their position more clearly and required them to think more closely about the course material.

CONCLUSIONS

Presented in this paper was a proposed involvement-oriented solution to the lecture/discussion and multiple choice/essay dilemma confronting instructors of a medium-sized Marketing Principles class. Based upon student evaluations and implementation of this approach it was concluded that active learning required increased effort from the student and the instructor. However, it was the consensus among students that these methods helped them better to learn the course material and to improve in other skill areas as well (e.g., oral and written communication). In the instructors’ opinions, the results were well worth the additional effort required.

For further information and references, contact: Dr. Denny E. McCorkle, Department of Marketing, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, CO 80639.
A SIMULATION OF HAWAII’S BANKING INDUSTRY: 
ISSUES OF REALISM AND EDUCATIONAL VALUE

David Lohmann, Hawaii Pacific University

ABSTRACT

A simulation of Hawaii’s banking industry was constructed and utilized for five semesters in a core MBA Marketing course. Students were assigned to teams representing the banks of Hawaii and made twenty cycles of marketing and management decisions in a competitive situation. Student feedback and performance indicate that while modeling the complex content of the real environment has significant educational value, modeling the complexity of real world decision making processes causes high frustration levels which may interfere with the learning process.

ENVIRONMENT

A large scale simulation was constructed to complement the text and case material offered in a core MBA Marketing course. The purpose of the simulation was to provide a service industry laboratory for graduate students to practice marketing analysis, strategy development and decision making. Other simulations considered (Harms and Huff 1988), (Hinkle and Koza 1975), (Mason and Perreault 1987) use the manufacturing sector and emphasize production and physical distribution decisions. Hawaii’s economy is service oriented. Work done by Cadotte demonstrated that complex, multidimensional simulations can have significant pedagogical merit. (1987). Also, Lillien and Kotler have established the mathematical logic required to build large scale simulations for service industries (Kotler 1984). The relationship between market share and corporate performance has also been explored and models developed (Naylor 1971). These efforts demonstrated means to relate marketing decisions to the balance sheet and income statement. The Hawaii banking industry was chosen because it has an outstanding record of performance (Alpert and Lynch 1989), provides excellent examples of effective marketing decision making and is a major employer of the University’s MBA graduates. Lastly, the industry is facing contemporary marketing challenges.

MODEL DESIGN

A complex model was needed to provide a laboratory for student to react to external events, to perform market research in the simulated and real environment and to have sufficient detail available to emulate the decisions of today’s Hawaii bankers. The model was designed to include various alternative economic and political scenarios, and the actual banks of Hawaii with their market positions and resources. The logic flow and the relationships among the major elements of the model are shown in figure one.

Figure 1

Flow Diagram

The economic module generates projections of population, gross national and state product, the state consumer price index, disposable income, state government surplus or deficit, new business starts, visitor counts, defense spending, agriculture revenues and real estate multiple listing activity. Four scenarios, which vary in their predictability by the student, can be selected by the instructor. The output of this module is used as input to the market size module.

The market size module determines the size of various bank markets. Deposit markets include commercial and individual deposits, as well as government, foreign, and mainland flows of funds into the state. Loan market sizes are determined for the commercial, service industry, real estate and
consumer sectors. This module also determines the initial market size lost to non-banking institutions. This magnitude is subsequently adjusted by player interest rate decisions. Initial market sizes were validated against real world values (Department of Commerce and Consumer Affairs 1986; FDIC 1987; Dun and Bradstreet Financial Profiles Department 1986).

The district detail module is a data base of demographic, economic and consumer behavior for the forty-one census districts in Hawaii. Variables included are population, age, ethnicity, educational level, and income. The module projects variable values for the twenty-year period of play. The initial number of branches and automatic teller machines (ATM's) for each district and bank are also included. This module also generates market research reports which can be requested by the student.

The decision module accepts the sixty-five decision made by each bank team each year. These decisions cover nine marketing decision areas. These are basic marketing strategies; selection of target markets; product offerings and customer service levels; distribution decisions such as branch and ATM construction; promotion, which includes theme and media determination; pricing strategies such as interest rates charged and paid; marketing management decisions including salary levels and training budgets; market research purchases; and political action committee budgets (Berry 1971; Tyler 1974). The decisions made by the students are analyzed for consistency and to determine if sufficient resources have been allocated to the marketing function. Penalties are imposed for oversights. Creative ideas that do not fit within the model's structure are evaluated and rewards assessed in the form of increased effectiveness of decisions made. Market share is allocated by sector to each bank using the Kotler methodology cited earlier. Long term decision impacts are also collected in a subroutine for use in subsequent rounds.

The output module translates market share and other data, such as interest rates, into yearly performance data. These data are used to modify the previous year's balance sheet (statement of condition) and income statement. Using this method momentum and inertia can be modeled. A current statement of condition and income statement are developed and become major performance indicators for the students. Comparative market share data, profit analysis, as well as an industry comparisons, are also provided.

Model results were compared to actual bank performance using cautious, conservative decisions. Model results were consistent with actual performance. Results were also compared to national averages of performance with consistent results (Dun and Bradstreet Economic Analysis Department 1988). By anecdote, one student team determined, in an interview with the president of the bank they represented, that they had predicted the bank's next, and then, confidential expansion plan.

STUDENT PERFORMANCE AND REACTION

The first semester was used as a test. Twenty-five students were subdivided into eight teams. Fourteen rounds were played, results assessed and changes made to the model. The model was then used in the four subsequent semesters. The results are shown in table one.

| Bank      | Semester Performance Rankings | Actual Performance Size | Assets ROAA* Rank (Mil)* Rank |
|-----------|------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|
| Bank of Hawaii | 3 2 4 1 1** | 1 5606 1 |                               |                  |
| First Hawaiian | 5 4 3 4 4 | 2 3696 2 |                               |                  |
| Central Pacific | 8 7 7 7 8 | 3 660 3 |                               |                  |
| First Interstate | 2 3 2 3 1** | 4 638 4 |                               |                  |
| City Bank | 7 5 8 2 6 | 5 393 6 |                               |                  |
| Liberty Bank | 4 8 6 6 7 | 6 249 8 |                               |                  |
| Hawaii National | 3 1 5 8 5 | 7 221 7 |                               |                  |
| Bank of Honolulu | 1 6 1 5 3 | 8 89 8 |                               |                  |

* 1987 Assets and Return on Average Assets from Yoneyama 1988a
** Tie

Student performance was evaluated on percentage increase in loan market share, percentage increase in deposit market share, percentage increase in total assets, capital surplus generation as a fraction of
total starting assets and net income generation as a fraction of total starting assets. Teams were rank ordered on each criteria, and the rank orders summed to determine an overall ranking.

Team having members from the financial sector had an advantage. Accounting, senior management and customer service management experience were also highly valued by the students. Teams with contacts at the senior level of banks also fared better. Hard research into the Hawaii banking industry also paid dividends according to the students. One of the most successful teams developed a Lotus based simulation model of the model and used it to predict competitive behavior and economic trends.

Teams that did poorly did not appreciate the complexity of the task and resorted to simple strategies. Inconsistency, wide swings in resource allocations, high risk loan portfolios, aggressive expansion schemes and gamesmanship also plagued these poor performing teams. In three of the four rounds, all of the banks were profitable. In semester four, however, six out of the eight banks lost money and the industry market share became heavily concentrated in the one largest bank. In this round the teams began to compete on price. The interest rate spread because narrower each year. At year eight there was an economic downturn and only one bank, the largest, had the financial reserves to withstand it. This result can be attributed to an improper evaluation by students as to the relative importance of the marketing mix components in this industry.

Students were asked to provide written critiques of the simulation experience after each semester. The predominant themes of the positive comments were that the simulation was very interesting, taught them about the complexities of marketing decisions in the banking industry, and provided insights into the relationships between the economic environment and marketing strategy. Other favorable learning outcomes were an appreciation of the importance of customer service in a service industry and the factors leading to its enhancement, and a better understanding of why banks are currently altering their traditional marketing strategies. Students also indicated they enjoyed the competition and had strong incentives to do well. They believed the secrets of success were competitiveness, an entrepreneurial approach, knowledge of the industry, diligence and prudence. The primary theme of the critical comments was that the students did not have sufficient control. This critique had five facets. The students wanted more information on significant forces, environmental and competitive. They believed they should have all environmental information, commenting that in the real world, information on these type would have been available. Second, they wanted more information on the cause and effect relationships modeled in the simulation. Third, students did not like having a prudent, well researched and carefully conceived strategy thwarted by a competitor. The frustration level was high when this happened and teams were at a loss on what action to take in the next round. Fourth, students objected to the fidelity and time adjustments. Adjustments were made to the managerial effectiveness of the bank’s marketing department if the team’s did not allocate sufficient resources to the marketing function and there was a time delay in some decisions. Fifth, the students did not like being under time pressure to review the last round’s results and develop a new set of decisions in less than a week. They believed this led to incomplete analysis. In sum, the students accepted the complexity of the industry but did not accept the simulated inability to control events with absolute fidelity.

SUMMARY

Student feedback indicated that the simulation helped develop an understanding of the complexity of marketing strategies, mix and management decisions. As such, it successfully accomplished one of the principal objectives for marketing simulations, namely, to provide an environment where students can realistically apply formal models and theory learned elsewhere (Lewbel 1988). Conversely, the high frustration levels created by the uncertainty and lack of control was not well accepted. This side effect may have interfered with the learning processes of the simulation. Modifications are being made as a result of these lessons.

REFERENCES

total starting assets and net income generation as a fraction of total starting assets. Teams were rank ordered on each criteria, and the rank orders summed to determine an overall ranking.

Team having members from the financial sector had an advantage. Accounting, senior management and customer service management experience were also highly valued by the students. Teams with contacts at the senior level of banks also fared better. Hard research into the Hawaii banking industry also paid dividends according to the students. One of the most successful teams developed a Lotus based simulation model of the model and used it to predict competitive behavior and economic trends.

Teams that did poorly did not appreciate the complexity of the task and resorted to simple strategies. Inconsistency, wide swings in resource allocations, high risk loan portfolios, aggressive expansion schemes and gamesmanship also plagued these poor performing teams. In three of the four rounds, all of the banks were profitable. In semester four, however, six out of the eight banks lost money and the industry market share became heavily concentrated in the one largest bank. In this round the teams began to compete on price. The interest rate spread because narrower each year. At year eight there was an economic downturn and only one bank, the largest, had the financial reserves to withstand it. This result can be attributed to an improper evaluation by students as to the relative importance of the marketing mix components in this industry.

Students were asked to provide written critiques of the simulation experience after each semester. The predominant themes of the positive comments were that the simulation was very interesting, taught them about the complexities of marketing decisions in the banking industry, and provided insights into the relationships between the economic environment and marketing strategy. Other favorable learning outcomes were an appreciation of the importance of customer service in a service industry and the factors leading to its enhancement, and a better understanding of why banks are currently altering their traditional marketing strategies. Students also indicated they enjoyed the competition and had strong incentives to do well. They believed the secrets of success were competitiveness, an entrepreneurial approach, knowledge of the industry, diligence and prudence.

The primary theme of the critical comments was that the students did not have sufficient control. This critique had five facets. The students wanted more information on significant forces, environmental and competitive. They believed they should have all environmental information, commenting that in the real world, information on these type would have been available. Second, they wanted more information on the cause and effect relationships modeled in the simulation. Third, students did not like having a prudent, well researched and carefully conceived strategy thwarted by a competitor. The frustration level was high when this happened and teams were at a loss on what action to take in the next round. Fourth, students objected to the fidelity and time adjustments. Adjustments were made to the managerial effectiveness of the bank's marketing department if the team's did not allocate sufficient resources to the marketing function and there was a time delay in some decisions. Fifth, the students did not like being under time pressure to review the last round's results and develop a new set of decisions in less than a week. They believed this led to incomplete analysis. In sum, the students accepted the complexity of the industry but did not accept the simulated inability to control events with absolute fidelity.

**SUMMARY**

Student feedback indicated that the simulation helped develop an understanding of the complexity of marketing strategies, mix and management decisions. As such, it successfully accomplished one of the principal objectives for marketing simulations, namely, to provide an environment where students can realistically apply formal models and theory learned elsewhere (Lewbel 1988). Conversely, the high frustration levels created by the uncertainty and lack of control was not well accepted. This side effect may have interfered with the learning processes of the simulation. Modifications are being made as a result of these lessons.

**REFERENCES**


MARKETING EDUCATION AND APL

E. K. Valentin, Weber State University

ABSTRACT

APL is a very powerful interpreted programming language. Marketing educators will find it well-suited for disposing of innumerable clerical tasks and for bringing analytical concepts to life in the classroom. In this article, APL's distinctive features and applications are delineated.

INTRODUCTION

APL (a programming language), which is widely used by actuaries, engineers, scientists, and mathematicians, fills a gap left by other computer languages and packages, including spreadsheets and statistical software. This article provides an overview of APL's advantages and drawbacks and suggests how marketing educators can use APL in and out of the classroom.

DISTINCTIVE FEATURES

Advantages

Although it is possible to write programs in APL that resemble their BASIC, FORTRAN, or Pascal equivalents in structure, initially, it is best not think of APL as a computer language at all. Instead, APL should be viewed as a compact and powerful system of notation for writing expressions resembling matrix algebra that a computer can execute (Iverson 1962). By entering X-5 3.1 .7, for example, a three-element vector labelled X is created. (The arrow is a special APL character). Note that nothing about X, such as its dimensionality, was declared in advance. Moreover, integers and rational numbers can be mixed freely; scalars and multidimensional arrays can be created as readily as the vector X; and m-dimensional arrays are easily transformed into n-dimensional arrays.

If +/X is entered, the sum of the elements comprising the vector X is displayed; and if Y←+/X is entered, the result (i.e., the sum of X) is stored in a new variable, labelled Y. Accordingly, the APL operator +/ is equivalent to the familiar summation operator Σ. If X were a numerical matrix, entering +/X would display the sums of the rows; and +/+/X would display the sum of all values comprising X (i.e., APL would calculate the sum of each row and then add these subtotals). Other APL operators (also called predefined or primitive functions) can be used just as easily, for instance, to multiply matrices, transpose matrices, invert matrices, estimate least-squares coefficients, find the dimensions of arrays, re-dimension arrays, sort data, transform data (e.g., to logarithmic values), create arrays of random numbers, and generate factorials (Finnish APL Association 1982; Gilman and Rose 1984). A more extensive sketch of how APL's standard operators can be applied to numeric vectors and matrices, Boolean vectors, and character vectors and matrices is provided in the Appendix.

An APL statement may contain many operators and, therefore, perform many tasks. For example, in a single statement (which need not exceed seven characters), a matrix may be transposed, multiplied by another matrix, and inverted. Such statements can be typed and executed ad hoc in the so-called immediate mode or organized, saved, and used repeatedly much like Pascal units and objects, FORTRAN subroutines, and BASIC programs. However, Rubinstein and Lewis (1984, p. 230) drew the following parallel between APL and BASIC, which also applies to other conventional programming languages:

From the perspective of APL, programming in BASIC is comparable to trying to speak English with a 100 word vocabulary. Even with this restriction, you could probably get along, but it would take a long time to make yourself understood.

APL is especially well-suited for non-repetitive analytical work because tasks can be coded compactly and quickly; and as shown above, APL operators actually can be applied to data arrays without writing programs, per se. Moreover, APL programs often can be developed faster than flow charts or pseudo-code, which makes APL well-suited for prototyping.
Drawbacks

APL is interpreted and, therefore, cannot produce compiled 'stand-alone' programs. And although APL is the preferred language of many actuaries, engineers, mathematicians, and scientists, most business school graduates and managers favor electronic spreadsheets. Moreover, those who have had an introductory lesson in APL programming are much more likely to hate the language than to love it. Why? Whereas electronic spreadsheets mimic the manual counterpart with which nearly every business student and manager has some familiarity, APL resembles the mathematical hieroglyphics many business students deliberately avoid. In addition, because APL requires many non-standard symbols (see the Appendix), the keyboard is redefined to accommodate the special characters. Using the redefined keyboard is awkward and confusing at first, even with a template that shows where the APL characters are located. Moreover, APL aficionados typically prefer to impress novices by demonstrate the language's exotic and complex capabilities rather than the simple, but powerful, features, which are easily understood.

ILLUSTRATIVE APPLICATIONS

Statistical Analysis

Because APL symbols resemble matrix notation, statistical programs can be developed with comparative ease by translating matrix expositions found in statistics texts into APL code. For that reason, several commercially available statistical packages, including Statgraphics and Stat1, were developed initially in APL. They were distributed with an APL interpreter that would run programs, but could not be used to write them.

Today, many excellent statistical packages are readily available; yet, APL remains an invaluable self-learning and teaching aid. Anyone who learns more from tracing numerical examples and working exercise problems than from abstract symbolic expositions, will find APL the perfect "number cruncher." Years ago, I wrote several statistical programs (e.g., regression, principal components, discriminant, and cluster analysis routines) because I did not have access to a good statistical package.

Writing such programs enhanced my understanding of statistical analysis and provided me with several programs and utilities that are still better suited than commercial packages for demonstrating various aspects of statistical analysis in the classroom.

Also, when fortified with prompts, they are virtually "idiot proof" and much easier to use than commercial packages, especially when the data set to be analyzed is not extremely large.

Data Entry, Editing, and Formatting

Data entry and interviewing screens can be constructed almost as easily in APL as in CII. Moreover, the same kinds of range checks and branching can be built in. Furthermore, APL's operators are well-suited for identifying likely data entry errors and outliers; and complex data transformations can be made much more easily using APL than using SPSS, for instance. After data are checked or transformed, they can be exported from APL work spaces as ASCII files, which can be read by almost any statistical package, electronic spreadsheet, and word processor. Outputs from statistical packages, too, can usually be exported as ASCII files, which are easily imported into APL work spaces. I have used APL to reformat SPSS output so as to meet the requirements of various journals, to conduct supplementary analyses, and to plot group means on semantic differential scales along with each (unabridged) questionnaire item.

Pedagogical Applications

Marketing educators will find APL invaluable in constructing illustrations when teaching marketing research, marketing management, and other courses rich in statistical and quantitative content. I have used APL not only to illuminate statistical principles, such as the Central Limit Theorem, but also to illustrate the diffusion of innovations, the relationship between cash flow and sales over the product life cycle, retail gravitation and store location principles, and brand switching behavior. Moreover, APL is often much handier than any spreadsheet for analyzing financial and other data found in cases and for developing quantitative handouts and exam problems.

Chores

APL is useful in disposing of countless office chores; e.g., recording exam scores, calculating and plotting distributions, determining final grades based on the best m of n weighted scores, converting letter-grades to their decimal equivalents, converting
numerical scores to letter grades, etc. Few, if any, grade book packages approach the flexibility that is easily programmed into an APL-based grade book.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

This article provided a glimpse of APL's power and potential applications. APL's major drawbacks are that programs cannot be run without the interpreter, and it takes a while to get used to the APL character set and keyboard layout. A more detailed exposition of the language, its syntax, and applications can be found in the widely used manuals by Gilman and Rose (1984) by Turner (1984).

Unfortunately, sellers of APL packages (mainly STSC and IBM) do not seem to realize that, even though business students and faculty may learn to love APL (Valentin 1989), only engineers and mathematicians are likely to fall in love with APL immediately. Accordingly, STSC's APL*PLUS/PC is available to students for no less than $225 (plus shipping); and although STSC does sell Pocket APL for as little as $35 (plus shipping), the editing features of this stripped-down version of APL*PLUS/PC are so awkward that most Pocket APL customers surely run out of patience long before discovering APL's "magic."

APL2 is a recent extension of APL, which is even more powerful. For demonstration disks and further information regarding APL*PLUS/PC and APL2 contact STSC, Inc. (301-984-5000) or IBM (800-IBM-2468), respectively.

REFERENCES


APPENDIX

Some Illustrative APL Examples

The listed data sets are used in the illustrative examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Entry</th>
<th>Result displayed</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Z+6 3.4 0 -3</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Assigns integers and/or decimals to Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Y+Z</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Assigns contents of Z to Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Y</td>
<td>6 3.4 0 -3</td>
<td>Displays contents of Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. pNv</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Shape of Nv, a 6-element vector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. pCm</td>
<td>3 4</td>
<td>Shape of Cm, a 3x4 matrix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 2 3pNv</td>
<td>5 2 -3</td>
<td>Reshapes Nv into a 2x3 matrix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 7 8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. 6p'?&gt;&lt;'</td>
<td>&lt;&gt;&lt;&gt;&lt;&gt;</td>
<td>Fills 6 spaces with &quot;&lt;&gt;&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. 6+5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Adds scalars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Ra+Rb</td>
<td>1 0 2 1 2 2</td>
<td>Adds vectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. 4+Nv</td>
<td>9 6 1 5 11 -4</td>
<td>Adds scalar to vector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Nm+3 3pNv</td>
<td>8 0 5</td>
<td>Reshapes Nv, then adds to Nm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-5 14 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9 8 -6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. +\Nm</td>
<td>3 1 9</td>
<td>Displays cumulative row totals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-6 1 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 10 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. +/Nm</td>
<td>9 10 7</td>
<td>Adds rows</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. +/\Nm</td>
<td>3 -2 8</td>
<td>Displays cumulative column totals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-3 5 17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 11 14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. +/Nm</td>
<td>1 11 14</td>
<td>Adds columns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. -Nv</td>
<td>-5 -2 3 -1 -7 8</td>
<td>Reverses signs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Ra-Rb</td>
<td>1 0 0 -1 0 0</td>
<td>Subtracts vectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. -/Ra</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1-0+1-0+1-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. ( -\sqrt{Ra} )</td>
<td>1 1 2 2 3 2</td>
<td>Cumulative results for 1-0+1-0+1-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. ( xNV )</td>
<td>1 1 -1 1 1 -1</td>
<td>Shows signs of ( NV ) elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. ( 5xNV )</td>
<td>25 10 -15 5 35 -40</td>
<td>Multiplies a scalar by a vector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. ( x\sqrt{NV} )</td>
<td>5 10 -30 -30 -210 1680</td>
<td>Displays sequential products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. ( x/NV )</td>
<td>1680</td>
<td>Displays final result of chain multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. ( Ra \times NV )</td>
<td>5 0 -3 0 7 -8</td>
<td>Multiplies vectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. ( +2 4 )</td>
<td>0.5 0.25</td>
<td>Calculates reciprocals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. ( +/100 4 )</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Divides first element by second element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. ( NV+2 )</td>
<td>2.5 1 -1.5 0.5 3.5 -4</td>
<td>Divides a vector by a scalar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. ( \ast 1 0 2 )</td>
<td>2.7 1 7.4</td>
<td>Raises e to the specified powers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. ( Nm \times 2 )</td>
<td>9 4 64 36 49 81 16 36 9</td>
<td>Squares elements of ( Nm )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| 30. ( {2.77, 2.33 \times 2 } ) | 2 2 | Rounds down |
| 31. ( 3!Nv )           | 3 2 -3 1 3 -8 | Selects the lesser of 3 and elements of ( Nv ) |
| 32. ( \text{Ra}{\text{Rb} } ) | 0 0 1 0 1 1 | Selects the lesser of ( \text{Ra} ) and ( \text{Rb} ), in pairs |
| 33. ( L/NV )           | -8        | Selects the smallest element of ( NV ) |
| 34. ( {2.33, 2.67 \times 3 } ) | 3 3 | Rounds up |
| 35. ( 3!Nv )           | 5 3 3 3 7 3 | Selects the greater of 3 and elements of ( Nv ) |
| 36. ( \text{Ra}{\text{Rb} } ) | 1 0 1 1 1 1 | Selects the greater of ( \text{Ra} ) and ( \text{Rb} ), in pairs |
| 37. ( L/NV )           | 7         | Selects the largest element of ( NV ) |
| 38. ( LNv )            | 5 2 3 1 7 8 | Finds absolute values of ( Nv ) |
| 39. ( 3!Nv )           | 2 2 0 1 1 1 | Finds residuals of dividing ( Nv ) by 3 |
| 40. ( 02.7183 \times 1 \times 1 \times 1 \times 2.3 ) | 0.3 1 2 | Finds natural logs of specified values |
| 41. ( 10!2 \times 10 \times 100 ) | 0.3 1 2 | Finds base-10 logs |
| 42. ( 20!2 \times 4 \times 6.06 ) | 1 2 2 6 | Finds base-2 logs |
| 43. ( 6!6 )            | 720       | Finds 6-factorial |
| 44. ( 2!6 )            | 15        | Combinations of 6 items taken 2 at a time |
| 45. ( ?!2 \times 3 \times 5 ) | 3 1 4 3 4 5 | Fills a 2x3 matrix with random numbers between 1 and 5 |
| 46. ( 2?1 \times 2 \times 3 ) | 3.1 6.3 | Calculates product of pi and specified data |
| 47. ( 10!1 \times 2 \times 3 ) | 0.04 0.91 0.14 | Calculates sines |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>20123</td>
<td>0.54 -0.42 -0.99 Calculates cosines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>Nv=2</td>
<td>0 1 0 0 0 0 Determines equivalence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>Rb=Nv</td>
<td>0 0 0 1 0 0 Determines pair-wise equivalence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>Nv≠2</td>
<td>1 0 1 1 1 1 Performs indicated logical checks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.</td>
<td>Rb≠Nv</td>
<td>1 1 0 1 1 1 Performs indicated logical checks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.</td>
<td>4&lt;Nv</td>
<td>1 0 0 0 1 0 Performs indicated logical checks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54.</td>
<td>Ra&lt;Nv</td>
<td>1 1 0 1 1 0 Performs indicated logical checks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>Ra∧Rb</td>
<td>0 0 1 0 1 1 Performs indicated logical checks (&quot;and&quot;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56.</td>
<td>Ra∨Rb</td>
<td>1 0 1 1 1 1 Performs indicated logical check (&quot;or&quot;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>Raliced</td>
<td>1 1 0 1 0 0 Performs indicated logical check (&quot;nand&quot;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58.</td>
<td>Raliced</td>
<td>0 1 0 0 0 0 Performs indicated logical check (&quot;nor&quot;)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59.</td>
<td>~Ra</td>
<td>0 1 0 1 0 0 Displays &quot;not&quot; Ra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.</td>
<td>'BME'ecv</td>
<td>1 0 1 Indicates whether BME are elements of Cv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.</td>
<td>Cv'ebe'</td>
<td>0 1 0 0 1 0 Indicates where C or E are located within Cv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.</td>
<td>4Nv</td>
<td>6 3 4 2 1 5 Ascending order of elements in Nv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63.</td>
<td>7Nv</td>
<td>5 1 2 4 3 6 Descending order of elements in Nv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64.</td>
<td>Nv[4Nv]</td>
<td>-8 -3 1 2 5 7 Reorders elements of Nv from low to high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65.</td>
<td>Nv[7Nv]</td>
<td>7 5 2 1 -3 -8 Reorders elements of Nv from high to low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66.</td>
<td>i5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 Generates integers from 1 through 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67.</td>
<td>Nv7</td>
<td>5 Indicates the position of 7 within Nv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68.</td>
<td>Cv'id'</td>
<td>4 Indicates the position of D within Cv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69.</td>
<td>Cv[1+3]</td>
<td>BCD Selects elements 2 through 4 from Cv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70.</td>
<td>Nv</td>
<td>-8 7 1 -3 2 5 Reverses the order of Nv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71.</td>
<td>`24cv</td>
<td>EFABCD Moves the last two elements of Cv to the front</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72.</td>
<td>nNm</td>
<td>3 -6 4 Transposes Nm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-2 7 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8 9 -3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73.</td>
<td>nNm</td>
<td>0.097 -0.054 0.096 Calculates the inverse of Nm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.023 0.053 0.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.083 0.034 -0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74.</td>
<td>RαnRb</td>
<td>0.75 Least-squares estimate of α for Ra=αRb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75.</td>
<td>5'5'3 2'</td>
<td>5 -3 2 Turns alphabetic data into numeric data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
76. \texttt{Z+"14"0@Z} 1 2 3 4 Assigns \"14\" to Z; then executes Z
77. \texttt{5 1@5 2} 5.0 2.0 Formats the stated numeric values
78. \texttt{Cv,'o1'} ABCDEFGHJJKL Catenates Cv to \"o1\"
79. \texttt{,Cm} ABCDEFGHJJKL RAVels Cm
80. \texttt{2\dagger Cv} AB Takes first two elements of Cv
81. \texttt{-4\dagger Cv} AB Drops last 4 elements of Cv
82. \texttt{2 2 2\dagger 0 1} 5 101 in base 2 to its equivalent in base 10
83. \texttt{2 2 2\dagger 5} 1 0 1 5 in base 10 to its equivalent in base 2
84. \texttt{Ra\backslash 14} 1 0 2 0 3 4 Inserts 0 where 0 appears in Ra
85. \texttt{Ra/Nv} 5 -3 7 -8 Drops values that correspond to 0 in Ra
86. \texttt{Nm+.\times Nm} \begin{tabular}{c} 53 28 -18 \\ -24 115 -12 \\ -36 16 95 \end{tabular} Calculates inner product of Nm and Nm
87. \texttt{(l3)\circ .=l3} \begin{tabular}{c} 1 0 0 \\ 0 1 0 \\ 0 0 1 \end{tabular} Creates a 3×3 identity matrix; \texttt{(in)\circ .=in} creates an n×n identity matrix
88. \texttt{\#(N=1)/L3} None Goes to label L3 if N=1
ABSTRACT

THREE HOURS AND EIGHT FISCAL YEARS LATER:
THE USE OF A SIMULATION AS A REVIEW
OF MARKETING MANAGEMENT

Seth R. Ellis, University of San Diego

Students enrolled in advanced graduate marketing courses often need to review basic marketing concepts and their relationships with each other. Such a review of the principles can assume several forms: lecture and discussion of the most important concepts appropriate and necessary for the new course; review quizzes; and individual student review. A novel option for accomplishing the review function is the use of a marketing management simulation. Simulation games facilitate both the learning experience and student involvement with marketing education (Moutinho 1988).

A graduate course for MBA students in new product marketing met once a week for three hours. On the first day of class, the students were briefed on the nature of the course, and the simulation and its review function. Class members developed their own teams and students were instructed to review appropriate topical areas in marketing on their own time. Each team was to prepare a strategy to implement during the simulation session. The marketing management simulation itself was accomplished during one three-hour class session.

For this review The Marketing Game! (Mason and Perreault 1987) was chosen for four important reasons: (1) it is primarily marketing management oriented, (2) it is easy to administer because it runs on a microcomputer instead of a mainframe computer, (3) it is quite straightforward from a participant’s standpoint, and (4) the instructor was familiar with its use, having used it for several semesters in a more conventional setting. Although there are several marketing management simulations on the market, (for example, Compete (Faria, Nulsen and Roussos 1984), Markstrat 2 (Larreche and Gatignon 1990), and Marketeer (Smith and Golden 1987)) most are fairly comprehensive and beyond the scope of being used in one long session.

Eight decisions were simulated in the three hour time period, averaging one decision cycle every 20-25 minutes. Each team outlined its strategy and what was learned during its implementation at the next class meeting. There was significant depth of understanding shown and the class was heavily involved in this discussion, comparing notes and trying to comprehend why some tactics were more effective than others.

A week after this debriefing and review, the students were surveyed with a satisfaction scale suggested by Westbrook (1980) and a slightly reduced version of Zaichkowsky’s (1985) involvement scale. Westbrook’s satisfaction measure indicated high levels of satisfaction with the simulation: 16% were delighted, 36% were pleased, 30% were mostly satisfied and 18% were mixed. Reliability for the involvement scale was very high (coefficient alpha equal to 0.93) and the class mean on the index indicated overall high involvement with the simulation.

Analysis of variance tested hypotheses that group involvement and satisfaction were related to profitability, the main performance measure. Profitability was found to be positively related to group satisfaction although a high group mean for satisfaction was still evident for even the least profitable team. The effect of profitability on involvement was not statistically significant.

The simulation review also served as a great way for the class to interact intensely with each other and with the instructor early in the semester.

REFERENCES


UPDATING SOME OF THE IMPLICATIONS OF
FAMILY LIFE CYCLE THEORY: A TEACHING NOTE

Regina P. Schlee, Seattle Pacific University
JoElla Weybright, The Gilmore Research Group

ABSTRACT

This article examines whether some of the descriptions applied to individuals in different states of the Family Life Cycle by Wells and Gubar in 1966 are still applicable today. Our analyses focused on a sample of 1,567 consumers ages 18 to 39 from the state of Washington. Our research showed that singles in the mid-1980s are more sociable and more experimental than those who are married. The divorced differ from the single and the married; they often have a level of responsibilities similar to those who are married, but have desires for socializing and recreation similar to those who are single.

All Principles of Marketing texts include a discussion of the Family Life Cycle. Marketing students learn that individuals enter the family life cycle as young single people not living at home and then proceed to get married, to have young children, then older children. When the children leave home, the parents are left in the “empty nest.” The research cited in most Marketing texts until the late 1980s was first published in 1966 by Wells and Gubar. According to Wells and Gubar, singles are “fashion opinion leaders” and the are “recreation oriented.” They buy “basic kitchen equipment, basic furniture, cars, equipment for the mating game, vacations.” Young couples begin acquiring consumer durables and when children are added to the household, young parents buy baby food, chest rubs and cough medicines, vitamins, dolls, wagons, bicycles, music lessons, pianos, etc. Wells and Gubar do not consider any nontraditional family forms, nor do they concern themselves with those who remain single throughout their lives.

Later editions of most Principles of Marketing texts such as Schoell and Guiltinan (1990), McDaniel and Darden (1987) and Bennett (1988) also include a modernized Wells and Gubar diagram. The modernized “family life cycle” by Murphy and Staples (1979); although McCarthy and Perreault (1990) still only include the life cycle also includes divorced individuals as well as those who are married but do not have any children. An even more contemporary view of the family life cycle which includes individuals who remain single through their lives has been proposed by Gilly and Enis (1981). Neither Murphy and Staples (1979), nor Gilly and Enis (1981), however, elaborate in much detail the implications of their model for predicting consumer purchases.

Thus, while the concept of family life cycle intuitively appears to be useful, there is very little guidance provided to students as to how to apply it in marketing plans in light of current changes in the market place. As the Bureau of the Census reports, the proportion of single and divorced adults has been steadily increasing since 1970. In 1970, 16.2% of our population were single and 3.2% were divorced. By 1987, those single made up 21.8% of the population, and the percentage of those divorced had risen to 7.8%. Thus, those who are unmarried represented a larger target market now than they did in the ’60s or the ’70s. There are other indications that the behavior of singles is changing over time. Wortzel (1976, p. 328) states that “the single adult’s household is metamorphosing from a place in which to ‘camp out’ while waiting for marriage to a setting which to express one’s own individuality and one’s own accomplishments.”

The authors gratefully acknowledge the use of The Gilmore Research Group’s database of 3,100 consumer interviews trademarked as The Washington Consumer. This research also would not have been possible without the provision of a summer research grant from the School of Business and Economics at Seattle Pacific University for Professor Regina Schlee.

Before we present the results of our research, we would like to briefly summarize other research relevant to this topic. Stern, et. al. (1987) found that singles are more concerned about their image and more likely to engage in recreational activities such as going to the movies, bars and discos than those who are married. A notable difference between singles in the 1980s and the singles described in 1966 is that singles in recent years arc
more likely to purchase homes and condominiums, and luxuries such as china and crystal. A similar finding is reported by the Wall Street Journal (May 28, 1986). Although the information in the Wall Street Journal article is mostly anecdotal, its author reaches the conclusion that singles no longer wait to make major purchases. Instead, their purchasing habits "mimic those of the wed." Wortzel in an earlier study (1976) had, in fact, reached similar conclusions.

Miscellaneous other studies reported in American Demographics, however, point to differences between the married and the single. Findings reported in the February 1989 issue of American Demographics provide support for the hypothesis that single men are more image conscious than those who are married. Single men are more likely to be pleased when others pay them a compliment and are more likely to believe that others "judge you by your appearance."

Although the articles cited do not by any means exhaust all the research that has been done on the consumption patterns of individuals who are single and divorced as compared to those who are married, the number of studies conducted on this topic is relatively small. There are currently few elaborations of the implications of the modernized family life cycle for marketing planning in textbooks. Thus, in our research we want to explore two questions. First, in what ways do those who are single, married, and divorced differ from each other in the 1980s? This obviously has implications for marketing to those groups in the 1990s. And, second, what are the implications of these differences for marketing planning? Our research, however, is not a complete assessment of the implications of the modernized family life cycle for consumer purchases. Instead, we hope to provide readers with some more guidance as to some of the criteria used by singles, the married and the divorced in their consumer purchases than is currently available in marketing textbooks.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Our sample consists of 1,567 consumers ages 18 to 39 living in the state of Washington. This sample is part of a mail panel of 3,100 Washington consumers collected by the Gilmore Research Group in 1985. The panel was recruited through a telephone survey in which respondents underwent a six-minute series of questions, including an invitation to participate in a consumer panel.

The original sample for the telephone survey was a purchased listing of residential telephone numbers proportionate to households across Washington. The "plus-one" random-digit method was applied so that unlisted and unpublished households could fall into the sample. A total of 7,193 respondents completed the telephone survey, and 4,325 agreed to accept a panel questionnaire through the mail, for a 60% acceptance rate. A gift box of products made in Washington was offered as an incentive.

The panel questionnaire was a 22-page booklet consisting of about 900 data points, covering both individual and household characteristics and behaviors. The questionnaire was pretested in a focus group setting, taking people about 45 to 60 minutes to complete. A postcard reminder was sent to nonreturns, and telephone follow-up calls were made in counties where return was slow. The final panel of 3,100 represents a 72% response rate of those mailed, 43% of those first contacted by telephone. The entire telephone-mail process was completed between August and the end of December, 1985. Data are stored at Gilmore Research Group in an accessible database file under the name, The Washington Consumer.

We limited our analyses to those ages 18 to 39 in order to minimize possible interactions between the effects of age and marital status, as they affect consumer attitudes and behavior. When Wells and Gubar (1966) first tested the implications of stage in family life cycle on consumer purchases, people were moving from the one state of family cycle to the next by fairly predictable ages. Most got married in their early twenties, had children shortly after that, and so on. Currently many people get married in their late twenties and do not have children until they are in their thirties. Consequently, we felt that comparing singles in their twenties and thirties to married couples in their fifties would confound differences caused by stages in the family life cycle with differences caused by the social attitudes of these two very different generations. Thus, our analyses were confined to members of the "babyboom" generation.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

We focused our analysis on six dimensions: (a) willingness to experiment, (b) sociability, (c) concerns about appearance, (d) convenience, (e)
attitudes towards money and credit, and (f) participation in recreational activities.

Our analysis included both attitudinal and behavioral indicators of each of the concepts examined. Responses to the attitudinal questions were rated on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 stands for strongly disagree with the statement, and 5 stands for strongly agree. Z tests were performed to determine which pairwise comparisons between the groups were significantly significant at the .05 level (two tailed tests). On the tables reporting significance levels, the letter A stands for statistically significant differences between singles and the married, B stands for statistically significant differences between the divorced and the married, and C stands for statistically significant differences between singles and the divorced.

Our analysis of the data indicate that single adults are significantly different from those who are married in all these categories. There was less consistency as to how divorced individuals differ from the married and the single. On some of the dimensions examined, the divorced individuals differ from the married and the single, in other categories they are more like the married. The results of our analyses are summarized below by category.

1. **Willingness to experiment**: Singles are significantly more likely to be risk takers, to want to try new things (Table 1). This is exhibited in a greater willingness to try new things such as gourmet foods, sushi, espresso, and to go to "up tempo" restaurants. Singles also seek more excitement than those who are married. When on vacation, they want to stay away from the beaten path. Instead, they want to try things that are novel and exciting. The attitudes and behavior of the divorced with regard to willingness to experiment are less predictable than those of the single. The only indicator where they were more experimental than those who are married is with regard a generalized willingness to take risks (Table 1). The divorced, however, are less interested in gourmet food than the single or married, and they are not significantly different from the married or the single in any of the other indicators of experimentation we used.

2. **Sociability**: The unmarried (single and divorced) are more interested in meeting others and going to parties than the married (Table 2). They are also significantly more likely to be involved in active recreational activities such as snow skiing, racquet sports, jogging/running, hiking, and to work out in a health club or at home. Those who are married are significantly more likely to consider themselves "homebodies" and to derive a lot of their entertainment from watching TV. The married are also significantly more involved in home related or family related activities such as house projects, gardening, playing games, camping with a camper or an RV, and are more involved with church or service organizations.

3. **Concerns about appearance**: Although this is one of the dimensions differentiating the single from those who are married in the original Wells and Gubar study (1966), we had very few questions in our data set regarding the importance placed on fashion and appearance. The only questions regarding the importance of image for the three groups referred to automobile selection (Table 3). Thus, we are able to gauge the importance of image to these groups on a very limited basis. Nevertheless, as expected, singles are significantly more likely to believe that a car is more than a means of getting from one place to the next and they are also a little less concerned about the gas mileage of a car as opposed to its styling. On both of these indicators, the divorced are not different from the married.

4. **Concern for convenience**: Although singles expressed a higher level of concern for convenience overall than the other two groups, all three groups exhibit some similarities (Table 3). All felt that after a busy day, they prefer to go out for dinner rather than cook at home. Singles are more likely to go out than the other two groups. All three groups also prefer to make things from scratch whenever possible - although the married have a higher level of preference for making things from scratch than the other groups.
**TABLE 1**

**COMPARISON OF SINGLE, DIVORCED AND MARRIED**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators of Experimentation</th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Divorced/Separated</th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Significant Comparisons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I really like to try new things.</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t go on vacation to rest; I want it to be for excitement.</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gourmet foods don’t really interest me.</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe everything is changing too fast today.</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a rule, I don’t believe in taking risks.</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Types of Restaurants Preferred**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Divorced/Separated</th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Significant Comparisons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Steak/Steak Houses</td>
<td>61.7%</td>
<td>60.3%</td>
<td>70.8%</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresh Seafood</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>65.2</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Gourmet Hamburgers&quot;</td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>45.1</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>A, C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pasta</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>A, C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbecue</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sushi</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Espresso Bars</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desserts or Pastries</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>40.2</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>A, C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Style of Restaurant Preferred**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Divorced/Separated</th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Significant Comparisons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family/Casual</td>
<td>75.7%</td>
<td>82.8%</td>
<td>92.2%</td>
<td>A, B, C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Restaurant</td>
<td>74.6</td>
<td>67.0</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Top of the Line&quot;</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>A, C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighborhood Restaurant</td>
<td>64.1</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buffet or Cafeteria</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Up-Tempo&quot;</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>A, B, C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Consumption at Least Once a Month**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Divorced/Separated</th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Significant Comparisons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frozen Entrees</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Calorie</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frozen Entrees</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gourmet Ice Cream</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>A, C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialty Imported Cheese</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>A, C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A = significant difference between singles and the married at the .05 level.
B = significant difference between divorced and the married at the .05 level.
C = significant difference between singles and the divorced at the .05 level.
n.s. = no statistically significant difference
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sociability</th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Divorced/Separated</th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Significant Comparisons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I generally consider myself a homebody.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like meeting new people when I travel.</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to parties and being with friends is important to me.</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get most of my entertainment from watching TV.</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recreational Activities</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Athletic Workout</td>
<td>58.2%</td>
<td>53.2%</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boating - Sail</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boating - Power</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicycling</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>A, C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camping - Tent</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camping - Camper/RV</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jogging, Running</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiking, Backpacking</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunting, Fishing</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snow-skiing</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water-skiing</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racquet Sports</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team sports</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts/Crafts</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>A, C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking/Entertaining</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor Trips</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music (participation)</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>49.3</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children's Activities/ Games</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>A, B, C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gardening</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House Projects</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Church/Volunteer Work</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A = significant difference between singles and the married at the .05 level.  
B = significant difference between divorced and the married at the .05 level.  
C = significant difference between singles and the divorced at the .05 level.  
n.s. = no statistically significance
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concerns about</th>
<th>Appearance</th>
<th>Single</th>
<th>Divorced/ Separated</th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Significant Comparisons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To me cars are simply a way to get where I want to go.</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The kind of vehicle a person has reflects their personality</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A car’s gas mileage is more important to me than its styling.</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appreciation of Convenience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I’d rather spend extra and get products that require less preparation.</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saving time is more important than saving a little money.</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When I’ve had a busy day, I often go out for dinner rather than cook at home.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I like to make most things from scratch, rather than buy prepared.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>A, B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attitudes about Money</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There is nothing wrong with taking a loan to pay for luxury items</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using credit cards is not a satisfactory way of making purchases.</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It’s important to me to have guaranteed interest rate on investments.</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A = significant difference between singles and the married at the .05 level.
B = significant difference between divorced and the married at the .05 level.
C = significant difference between singles and the divorced at the .05 level.
n.s. = no statistically significant difference.
5. **Attitude about money:** Although singles are significantly more likely to believe there is nothing wrong with taking a loan to pay for luxuries than the other groups, all in our sample have a positive attitude towards taking out a loan for luxuries. On the other hand, when it comes to investments, all three groups demonstrate a conservative orientation towards money because they desire a guaranteed rate of return for investments. The most conservative of the three groups with regard to wanting a guaranteed interest rate for investments are the divorced (Table 3).

**MARKETING IMPLICATIONS**

Thus, our research findings indicate one's marital status has a significant effect with regard to attitudes and behavior in adults ages 18-39. In this section we would like to point to some of the industries or businesses that could potentially benefit the most by considering their target customers' marital status in their marketing and advertising plans.

a) **Restaurants:** The unmarried are more willing to try novel, exotic, and gourmet restaurants. Also, since the unmarried are more interested in meeting new people, restaurants that allow social interaction between the patrons are more likely to be popular with this group.

b) **Financial institutions:** Singles are more willing to take out loans for "wants" or luxuries as opposed to "needs." Such banking products as a Personal Line of Credit which can be used to pay for vacation travel, for wardrobe enhancement, etc. may appear especially attractive to this group.

c) **Car Dealers:** Singles will show a preference for sportier cars, if they are affordable. Designing payment plans appropriate to this group may make such vehicles affordable to them.

d) **Travel related businesses:** Singles and the divorced are significantly more likely to want to meet new people when they travel, thus plans that provide opportunities to meet other travelers are especially appealing to these groups. Singles are also more attracted to travel plans that take them off the beaten path and provide a sense of adventure.

e) **Recreation oriented businesses:** Singles form a significant market for businesses providing active or outdoor recreation.

f) **Packaged foods industries:** Singles and the divorced form a significant market for gourmet foods such as super-premium ice cream and imported cheese. Although the unmarried have lower incomes, a greater proportion of that income is spent on discretionary purchases and luxuries. In contrast, the married spend a higher proportion of their income on their homes and their children.

In summary, our research findings indicate that there are significant differences between the attitudes and consumption patterns of babyboomers who are married, single or divorced. Singles have maintained many of the same attitudes they had in the original Wells and Gubar study in 1966; they are still the most recreation oriented group. We also found that singles are more likely to take risks than either the married or the divorced. Married babyboomers in the mid '80s, however, have the guidelines we provide in this article for targeting these consumer groups will be useful to marketing students and practitioners.

**REFERENCES**


McCarthy, Jerome E. and William D. Perreault, Jr. (1990), Basic Marketing, 10th ed., Irwin, Homewood, IL.


AN ASSESSMENT OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF MARKETING PROFESSORS' OFFICE

Dan Gossett, Arizona State University
James A. Ward, Arizona State University

ABSTRACT

How educators organize and maintain their offices has an impact on what that environment means to students. If educators knew what the environment meant to students, they might be able to change aspects of the office in order to obtain a more favorable impression from the students. We present a study that uses a thought listing method for assessing the meaning of a professor's office. Some implications are then given on what a marketing professor might change in his office environment in order to be considered more of an "ideal" marketing educator.

Most students value interaction with their instructor, and believe personal interaction adds to the quality of teaching. This interaction takes place not only in the classroom, but also in the professor's office. The students' perception of the professor's office environment is likely to influence the students perception of the quality of education they are receiving. For example, if the office environment creates a negative impression of the professor, then the environment could be counter-productive to the overall effort of the professor in his/her effort to provide quality education. How student perception of the marketing professor's office relates to student perception of the professor and his or her character and professional abilities will be the focus of this paper. First the paper will review methodology used in environmental psychology relevant to this topic. Then a study that illustrates a method of measuring the environmental meaning of a professor's office will be described (for further detail about this method, see Ward, Bitner, and Gossett 1989). Finally the results of the study will be presented including a few examples of the associations generated by the stimuli, followed by some interesting implications of the research for marketing educators.

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

There are many ways to evaluate the psychology of the environment. Use of the semantic differential (Osgood 1957) is considered one of the conventional approaches to studying the meaning of the environment. With this approach, the subjects are asked to describe a stimulus by means of ratings on a given set of bipolar adjectives. Another approach used by Ward and Russell (1981) is the multi-dimensional scaling of similarity judgements. Multi-dimensional scaling asks the subject to compare how similar two stimuli are to each other and to rate that similarity on a numerical scale provided by the researcher (Aaker and Day 1980). Although both methods are means of studying psychological meaning (Szalay and Deese 1978), a main limitation of both methods is that they assume that the researcher knows all the dimensions that a subject would use to perceive or evaluate an object. This forces the subject to rate the stimuli on a given scale and thus restricts the range of responses by the subject. Szalay and Deese (1978) present a method that does not restrict the range of responses that a subject can make about a stimulus. The subject is presented with a stimulus and then told to use their own words to list all words or phrases that come to mind about the stimulus. The use of content analysis is then used to categorize the associations into themes based on the meaning of each association. This type of analysis reveals an understanding of the stimuli at a deeper level than the conventional methods mentioned. This methodology was used in the research for this paper and is discussed in the methodology section.

Previous research of professor's offices was conducted by Campbell (1979). In this experiment he manipulated the furniture arrangement, the presence of living things, aesthetic objects, and neatness in faculty offices and then had students rate slides of these offices on a 9-point bipolar scale. The results of the study indicated that the messiness of a professor's office was likely to elicit a negative rating toward the professor and the professor was perceived to be far too rushed and haphazard when the office was messy than when the office was shown in a tidy condition. The research presented here allows the subjects to free-associate to the stimuli of the office environment rather than restricting them to pre-determined bi-polar scales.
METHODOLOGY

The instrument used asked the students to imagine an ideal, a typical, and the worst possible marketing professor. The ideal professor was described as: "Think of an ideal professor to take a marketing class from. By ideal, I don't necessarily mean a specific person that you know. I mean your idea of the best possible professor--the ideal professor to take a marketing class from. Now imagine looking into that ideal professor's office."

Each page of the instrument had instructions similar to these:

"Don't list what you see in the ideal professor's office. Instead list the words or phrases you associate with what is in the ideal professor's office."

The students provided protocols to the typical, the ideal, and then the worst professor (in that order of presentation) on each of five stimulus words or phrases. They were in order: "The professor's overall office", "The decorations", "How organized the office is", "What's on the desk", and "The books you see". This produced 15 different word association tasks for each student. (For purposes of this study, responses associated with the typical professors' office will not be reported.) 

The sample consisted of 61 students enrolled in marketing classes at a major southwestern university. Five of the subjects' instruments were discarded because of failure by the students to follow the directions given, resulting in 56 usable instruments.

This paper utilizes a coding scheme developed and used by Ward, Bitner, and Gossett (1989). This coding system was used to understand the meaning of the service environment. Each association listed was coded into the category that best represented the meaning of the response. The results were then tabulated and the frequencies of those responses are presented in Table 1. 

The sample of 56 students responded with 4337 words or phrases on the 15 different word association tasks (Data from 15 of these students were presented in Ward, Bitner, & Gossett 1989). Only 194 of the associations were not assignable to a specific category. Thus, over 95 percent of the associations were categorized to a specific theme. There were 322 responses that mentioned items that the students perceived in the office, such as pencils, pens, paper, that suggested a means of doing work. These associations were not interpretable by the researchers and were not used in the current analysis. This left 3974 usable responses.

RESULTS

The associations indicate that the students were willing to infer a professor's ability, attitude toward students, work habits, and other personal traits merely from the physical appearance of the office.

The results will be presented by contrasting the associations to the ideal versus the worst professor's office. The results will be discussed in the order in which the themes most often appeared across aspects of the professor's office. For example, organization of the office (1234) (numbers in parentheses represent number of associations), followed by overall ambiance of the office (808), ability/knowledge (714), attitude toward the student (389), personal traits (375), and work habits (301).

Organization

The most salient theme appeared to be how well the office or various aspects of the office was organized or not. Looking at the summary across all five probes, the ideal professor is clearly perceived to be more organized (234) than disorganized (15) and the worst professor is perceived to be more disorganized (256) than organized (18).

When prompted to think about the ideal professor's office, the subjects listed specific associations such as "things in their place" and "knows where everything is." The decorations were said to "fit together" and be "matching." The desktop had "a spot for everything" and "everything in it's place." Books were "sorted neatly" and "categorized". The overall organization was said to have "nothing out-of-place" and be "engineered."

When asked to think about the the worst professor's office, associations such as "confusion", "chaos", and "disorder" were listed most often. The decorations were "not well-placed" and "disarranged". The desktop was in "general confusion", and a "free-for-all." The books were "carelessly strewn about." The overall organization was "discombobulated", and "reminiscent of nuclear holocaust."
The second set of themes that emerged under the heading of organization was the clean/dirty theme. For the ideal professor there were 117 responses coded as clean and only 9 responses coded as dirty. The worst professor had only 10 responses coded clean and 225 coded into the dirty category. The ideal professor’s overall office was said to be “clean” and with “shiny windows.” The decorations were “tidy” and with “no fingerprints.” The desktop was “spotless” and with “no food or drinks.” The books were “undusty”. The overall organization was reported as “neat”. The worst professor’s office was considered a “disaster area” with “spilled coffee”. The decorations were “dusty” and “messy”. The desk was depicted as “sloppy” and a “trashy mess”. The books were described as “full of dust”. The overall organization was characterized as “a pig sty”.

Overall Environmental Ambiance of Office

The next most salient theme was the overall environmental ambiance of the office. The ideal professor was said to be in a bright office (16) more so than in a dark office (3), while the worst professor’s office was considered dark (26) rather than bright (2). A bright environment was “well-lighted”, “bright”, and “cheery.” A dark environment was “dark”, “dark colors”, “darkness”, and “dreary.”

The ideal professor’s office was considered more open and spacious (32) than cramped and crowded (3), while the worst professor’s office was more cramped and crowded (44) than an open and spacious environment (5). An open and spacious office was considered “roomy”, and “several open windows.” A cramped and crowded office was considered “claustrophobic”, “isolated”, “no privacy”, “tousy view”, and “noisy”.

The ideal professor was depicted to have more of a colorful office (38) than a drab office (5), and the worst professors’ office was depicted to have more of a drab office (14) than a colorful office. A colorful office was considered to have “eye pleasing colors”, and “prints with a lot of color.” The drab office was “colorless” and “lacking color.”

The ideal professor’s office tended to elicit more associations of nice decor (46) than bad decor (4). The worst professor’s office elicited more associations that indicated bad decor (101) than nice decor (2). Nice decor was generally depicted as “expensive looking (decorations)”, “expensive artwork”, and “wood” furniture. Bad decor was represented by such responses as “plastic” and “shabby” furniture, and “in disrepair.”

The ideal professor’s office elicited associations that indicated more of a personal nature (53) than impersonal associations (4), and the worst professor elicited more impersonal responses (31) than personal responses (2). Examples of a personable professor were “candid family photos”, and “photo of dog.” An impersonal response was “no family pictures”.

The ideal professor’s office elicited 35 responses that indicated the office was inviting to the student and zero uninviting responses, while the worst professor elicited 20 uninviting responses and zero inviting responses. Inviting responses included “cozy”, “says come in”, “open door”, and “plenty of chairs to sit in,” and uninviting responses were “non-user friendly”, “disarray of furniture”, and “black hole.”

In summary, it is clear that the ideal professor’s office is considered a bright, spacious, colorful space with nice decor, and is personal and inviting, while the worst professor’s office is considered one that is dark, cramped, impersonal, and uninviting for the student.

Ability/Knowledge

The next theme was how well the office or various aspects of the office projected a perception of the ability or knowledge of the professor.

The ideal professor is perceived to be more wise (85) than not wise (1), more professional (59) than not professional (2), more current (68) than not current (3), and more wide in scope of knowledge and thought processes (44) than narrow in scope (1). The worst professor is perceived to be more not wise (40) than wise (17), more not professional (31) than professional (4), more not current (50) than current (8), and more narrow in scope (19) than wide in scope (1). Of the 57 responses that indicated some type of award, the ideal professor elicited 30 associations, and the worst professor elicited 4 associations.

When asked about the ideal professor’s overall office, the students responded almost exclusively
with associations that indicated that the professor was knowledgeable such as "a source of information," and "computer capable." The decorations and the desktop were said to be a "display of knowledge," and the books were "thick" and "for continued growth." The awards for this professor were "framed diploma" and "has degree on the wall." The worst professor's office elicited not professional responses such as "unrelated to marketing" and "un-professionalism."

The ideal professor was considered to be either up-to-date or current in their image and knowledge by such responses as "cutting edge" and "Wall Street Journal," while the worst professor's office elicited terms such as "obsolescence," "stuck-in-a-rut," and "outdated text."

Attitude Toward the Student

The ideal professor was more helpful/caring (139) than unhelpful/uncaring (9), while the worst professor was considered more unhelpful/uncaring (134) than helpful/caring (6). A helpful and caring attitude is exemplified by such associations as "borrowable (books)," and "convenient office hours." Examples of an unhelpful/uncaring response were "door closed (and) locked," "never there during office hours," and "7 am office hours."

Personal Traits

The ideal professor was considered easy going in nature (25) rather than anxious (3), while the worst professor was considered anxious (25) rather than easy going (3). Examples of an easy going nature were "soothing (decorations)" and "a non-confrontational office," and of an anxious nature were "nervous toys," and decorations that were "too nervous."

The ideal professor was considered more interesting (50), such as the decorations being "interesting in subject matter," and "thought provoking," than boring (5). The worst professor was considered more boring (58), such as the decorations being "monotone" and "dull," than interesting (2).

The ideal professor office was considered more family oriented (34), with responses such as "family reminder" and "family photos" on the desktop, than not family oriented (6). Even the worst professor was more family oriented (6) than not family oriented (4).

In summary, the ideal professor's office is one that emits personal traits that would indicate an easy going nature, that he/she is interesting and thought provoking, and has a strong family interest. The worst professor's office is considered one that has cues considered anxious and boring.

Work Habits

These associations indicated that the students had a tendency to infer the professor's work habits from cues that were in his or her office. The ideal professor's office was considered more of a place for the professor to be industrious and to get work done (90) than a place to avoid work (13), while the worst professor's office was not considered a good workspace and more of a place for work avoidance (71) than a place for work to get done (12). Some of the industrious associations were "no student's work they have all been handed back," and "opened, well-used books," while work avoidance responses were "(books) unrelated to work," "play toys," "food stuff on desk," and "wasted time."

IMPLICATIONS

This study should give professors some insight into how their offices influence their evaluation by students outside the classroom. This research does not elicit descriptive dimensions for professors to arrange and decorate their office. But the results clearly indicate what is salient in the mind of students when they think of the ideal marketing professor or the worst marketing professor.

Assuming that a professor would want to be perceived more as an "ideal" than the "worst" marketing professor, then this research indicates the environmental cues associated with each prototype, and thus what to strive for and avoid in an office environment. Students may infer whether the professor is organized by environmental cues such as having decorations that seem to fit together, having things in there place, and by having the books well arranged. Students may also infer whether a professor is organized by how clean the environment is. The ideal professor is perceived to have an office with shiny windows, a clean, unmusty smell, and no food stains on the polished desktop. The students think of the ideal professor as being knowledgeable when they see a computer on his desk, complex looking books on the bookshelf, and framed diplomas on the wall. They perceive the professor as up-to-date with trends and on the cutting edge of knowledge if they see current, up-to-
TABLE 1

FREQUENCY OF ASSOCIATIONS RELATED TO THEMES CATEGORIZED BY TYPE OF PROFESSOR AND ASPECT OF OFFICE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Total Across All Probes</th>
<th>Personal Traits</th>
<th>Ideal</th>
<th>Op</th>
<th>Typ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organized</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>easy going</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disorganized</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>anxious</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clean</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>humorous</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dirty</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>not humorous</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>interesting</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>boring</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>family oriented</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>not family</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Ambiance of Office</td>
<td></td>
<td>Attitude Toward Students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bright</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>helpful</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dark</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>unhelpful</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cramped/crowded</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Ability/Knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colorful</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>wise</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drab</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>not wise</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nice decor</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>awards</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plain decor</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>professional</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad decor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>not profess.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>personal</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>current</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impersonal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>not current</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inviting</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>wide</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uninviting</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>not wide</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Habits</td>
<td></td>
<td>Column Totals</td>
<td>1469</td>
<td>1343</td>
<td>1331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>industrious</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>130</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not industrious</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>83</td>
<td>115</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
date publications and books, and the Wall Street Journal on the desk. The overall ambiance of the ideal professor’s office is perceived to be a colorful, well-lit, open and spacious environment with windows, and expensive looking artwork. The ideal professor’s office is perceived to be personable and have a welcoming ambiance if a photo of a family member or a photo of the professor’s dog is on the desk top or the wall, and if the door to the office is open. Students may infer whether the ideal professor is industrious by environmental cues such as a desktop that is clear of past-due student work and has no empty food containers. The ideal professor may be perceived as easy going if the decorations are soothing and not too nervous. He might be perceived as interesting if the decorations in the office are imaginative and thought provoking. The students perceive the ideal professor as a professional and they expect the environment to reflect this professionalism. The ideal professor is also imagined as a helpful and caring individual if he has books with good examples he is willing to share with the student, and has a reasonable set of office hours, and is in the office and available to the student during those office hours.

REFERENCES


ENVIRONMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY: A BASIS FOR PURCHASE ENVIRONMENT DESIGN

Cliff Scott, California State University, Fullerton

In his classic "Atmospherics as a Marketing Tool" (1973-74), Philip Kotler lamented the lack of research into, and understanding of, consumer reactions towards environments. Perhaps this situation has endured because marketers lack a ready foundation for such analysis. Yet such a foundation is available within the field of Environmental Psychology. The purpose of this paper is to summarize the Environmental Psychology literature dealing specifically with human perceptions of environments.

Environmental Psychology (EP) is concerned with interactions between person and physical surroundings (Russell and Ward, 1982). EP does not claim that any psychological process is exclusively under its purview. Rather, quite like Consumer Psychology, it is a unique vantage point from which to view a wide spectrum of human behaviors, both physical and mental.

The major areas of research interest within EP may be thought of as falling into three categories: Operation, Evaluation and Orientation. Operation includes the processes by which the environment affects the person, as well as how the person impacts the environment. Evaluation refers to the individual's assessment of the environment either in aesthetic terms, or as a format for goal attainment. Orientation refers to such processes as the perception of where one is, and the determination of how to behave within that environment (Stokols, 1977).

Environmental Perception is a subcategory of Orientation research. Environmental perception researchers investigate those cognitive processes which convert raw sensory input into interpretations of where one is, and predictions concerning what to expect there. In particular, they focus upon those basic semantic dimensions which humans use to give meaning to their environments.

Hershberger (1972) produced a review of the early Environmental Perception literature. The eight semantic scale-based studies he discussed provided evidence for twenty different factors, or dimensions of perception. He named five of these twenty as 'strong dimensions of architectural meaning' which were 'well established'. These five were: 1) Aesthetic, 2) Friendliness, 3) Organization, 4) Potency/Texture and 5) Space.

Results from ten post-Hershberger environmental perception studies lend strong support to the first three of Hershberger's five dimensions. All of the studies contain what might be labeled a Aesthetic dimension. The Friendliness and Organization dimensions are present in three studies each. At present, all three of these dimensions appear to be well supported. However, there is little agreement on the remaining dimensions. Why should this be the case? Among the explanations discussed in the literature are: 1) inadequate specification of the domain of stimuli, and 2) inadequate specification of the domain of responses.

It now remains for consumer researchers to extend this avenue of inquiry into the realm of purchase environment design. Two major questions would appear to dominate any such discussion. First is the fundamental perceptual issue involving dimensions of meaning: are the dimensions for purchase environments identical to those for other environments? Second is the psychophysical issue: how are physical aspects of store design linked to cognition, affect and intent?

REFERENCES


