

ACADEMY OF MARKETING STUDIES JOURNAL

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LETTER FROM THE EDITORS

Welcome to the second volume of the *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*. The Academy of Marketing Studies is an affiliate of the Allied Academies, Inc., a non profit association of scholars whose purpose is to encourage and support the advancement and exchange of knowledge, understanding and teaching throughout the world. The *AMSJ* is a principal vehicle for achieving the objectives of the organization. The editorial mission of this journal is to publish empirical and theoretical manuscripts which advance the discipline, and applied, educational and pedagogic papers of practical value to practitioners and educators. We look forward to a long and successful career in publishing articles which will be of value to the many marketing scholars around the world.

The articles contained in this volume have been double blind refereed. The acceptance rate for manuscripts in this issue, 25%, conforms to our editorial policies.

As editors, we intend to foster a supportive, mentoring effort on the part of the referees which will result in encouraging and supporting writers. We welcome different viewpoints because in differences we find learning; in differences we develop understanding; in differences we gain knowledge and in differences we develop the discipline into a more comprehensive, less esoteric, and dynamic metier.

The Editorial Policy, background and history of the organization, and calls for conferences are published on our web site. In addition, we keep the web site updated with the latest activities of the organization. Please visit our site and know that we welcome hearing from you at any time.

JoAnn and Jim Carland
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DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INTERNATIONAL AND DOMESTIC TRADE SHOW EXHIBITORS

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Brad O'Hara, Southeastern Louisiana State University

Paul Herbig, Managing Director, Herbig & Sons Marketing Consultants

ABSTRACT

Trade shows, trade fairs, expositions, or exhibitions can be a crucial components of a firm's marketing mix. This modern day version of the central market is often poorly understood and overlooked by many corporate decision maker seeking effective and efficient ways to promote the firm's products and services. This paper compares domestic and international exhibitors, examines major differences between the two groups and provides a profile of internationally exhibiting firms.

TRADE SHOWS/FAIRS--A REVIEW

Trade shows, trade fairs, expositions, scientific/technical conferences, conventions. The name may vary but the basic function of the activity represents a major industry marketing event. They are "events that bring together, in a single location, a group of suppliers, distributors and related services who set up physical exhibits of their products and services from a given industry or discipline" (Black 1986). In 1988 in the United States alone, over 100,000 firms exhibited at some 11,000 business trade shows and spent over \$9 billion. This must be compared to 1982's 91,000 firms which exhibited at some 8000 trade shows at cost of \$7 billion. In ten year period 1980-1990, the number of trade shows went from 4500 to 10000. Show/fair attendance has reached at least 50 million and utilize the available 53 million square feet of space several times over every year. More than half of all industrial shows sold all available exhibit space--2 million square feet could not be accommodated. Demand for space is forecast to more than double over the next decade. Comdex 1990 with 118,000 attendees from over 100 countries and 1850 companies, 2.2 Million square feet of exhibit space with over 1900 accredited press from throughout the world in attendance versus Hanover Fair with over 400,000 attendees and nearly 5000 companies. The trade show medium plays much larger role in Europe and other foreign countries than in the United States. For example, average attendance at the top 100 events in Europe 77,000 visitors vs. about 22,000 in the U.S. (Trade Show Bureau Newsletter, June 1992).

Trade shows accounted for over 22-25% of the typical U.S. Business Market Promotional budget, second only to personal selling activity and ahead of print advertising and direct mail. American firms spend annually approximately \$9 billion for exhibition travel and labor costs and \$12 billion for exhibit costs (1984 U.S. only). Trade Show Bureau estimates that the trade show

industry itself generates \$50 billion a year. Industry estimates indicate that this figure is growing by almost \$1 billion a year during late eighties. Growth of exhibit space has averaged nearly fifteen percent annually during the seventies, slowing down to a smaller but sustainable 7-8 percent during the eighties. However, the 1991 recession cut growth to 3 to 4%. According to Trade Show Week, the industry newsletter, number firms exhibiting at the 200 largest trade shows grew 7.7% between 1986 and 1987. During the seventies the number of new exhibitors increased at an average annual increase of 3-4% while in the eighties it has exceeded 7% annually (Mee, 1988). Show attendance at the major events increased at an average of 3% per year during the seventies, rising to more than 6% during the eighties. At the same time, the annual company budget allocation for trade show participation increased from \$73,000 in 1978 to \$212,000 by 1987.

ADVANTAGES OF TRADE EVENTS

Trade shows rank second behind only personal selling in influencing buying decisions of industrial purchases (Parasuraman 1981; O'Hara 1991). Nearly 44% of trade show visitors travel more than 400 miles to shows and spend more than \$300 per person in transportation costs alone to attend the event. The average delegate spends nearly \$1000 per visit. While 85% of all attendees have a key impact on the buying decision. The cost per contact at a show is one third that of a personal sales call (Trade Show Bureau 1986a). In 1988, average total costs per visitor (including space rental, construction costs, freight, booth personal travel, living expenses, and salaries) was \$133, almost one third the cost of a personal sales call. It takes approximately 0.8 sales calls on average to close a sale initiated by a trade show lead while most estimates place the number required in the field to be five. Overall, the cost differential is about 3.5 to 1 in favor of trade shows.

Additional advantages of using a trade show include: promotional message is delivered to a large number of qualified interested people (86% of all show attendees represent a buying influence, are interested in a specific exhibited product or service and have not been called on by a sales rep recently); introduction of new products possible to large number of prospects; potential customers may be discovered; enhanced goodwill; free company publicity is possible; and gathering competitive information. Trade show activities can play a major part in vendor evaluation and recognition (Bello and Barczak 1990; Moriarty and Spekman 1984) due to their personal selling process elements: 1) identifying prospects, (2) servicing current accounts, (3) introducing products, (4) improving corporate image, (5) gathering competitor information and , (6) selling (Bonoma 1983; Kerin and Cron 1987).

In sum, trade shows can provide the opportunity to affect multiple phases of the industrial buying process in one location; they can create awareness in new prospects, reinforce existing customer relationships, provide product demonstrations for evaluation, establish relationships between vendors and prospects, and allow sales of products on the spot. Also, trade shows significantly influence industrial buying during the need recognition and vendor evaluation stages of the purchase process (Moriarty and Spekman 1984).

DISADVANTAGES OF TRADE EVENTS

Trade shows do have their downside; costs can range up to \$39 or more per square foot, \$7,800 for 200 square foot booth (note: outside the U.S. prices are quoted by the square meter); space costs represent only 15% of a company's total cost. And, space rental costs have more than doubled over the past ten years. Tactical rather than strategic orientation might account for a finding that only 23% of executives think trade shows are very effective. All too often, a substantial number of corporate marketing and management executives still perceive trade shows as a non-selling activity or at best R and R or a social activity for those employees that attend (Skolnik 1987). This is exacerbated by the fact that only 56% of firms participating in trade shows have set specific objectives before participating in a given show. Only 46% of companies set goals before they exhibit, half are very general, and one of three exhibitors do not set specific quantifiable objectives. A Southern Methodist University study found that (1) more than forty percent of all first-time exhibitors fail to return the next year; (2) the typical exhibit reaches less than sixty percent of its prospects; (3) few exhibitors do any preshow promotion to ensure that their key prospects or customers reach their booth (referred to as a stand at international events; (4) booth personnel training has improved but leaves much to be desired; and (5) lead qualification, tracking, and return on investment evaluation are functions unexplored by most exhibitors (only fourteen percent claim they track lead conversions to sales). Barely seventeen percent of all exhibitors provide their management with ROI data. No wonder that many executives question the value of trade shows (Mee, 1988).

The problem centers around the inability of many firms to measure quantifiably the return on their trade show investment. In the midst of tens of thousands of visitors among the thousand or so booths, the feeling exists that a company gets lost in the crowd. This problem is greatest at nonselling events featuring complex products for which the buying decision usually involves several people. The buying process takes many months if not years, during which the impact of the trade show/fair is minimized, forgotten, or even totally overlooked (Sashi and Perretty, 1992).

Disadvantages with trade shows, particularly poorly organized or managed events include: takes salespeople away from their territories; large shows are often cluttered, crowded, confusing environments; labor problems and unions frustrate exhibiting companies and run up costs; proliferation and excessive frequency of shows; high proportion of unqualified attendees. Bonoma (1983) adds unknown effectiveness on return per dollar spent, difficulty of measuring efficiency vs. advertising, for example, high and rising costs of participation, and a growing feeling shows are boondoggles or perks. With the large sums companies spend on trade events, surprisingly little is spent on researching their effectiveness.

Proliferation of trade shows not only in booth size and number, but in terms of specialization and regionalization (referred to as a vertical trade event) seems to be occurring (Murphy 1990). This is primarily due to the ever increasing diversification of technology coupled with the medium's apparent cost effectiveness. Two factors are behind the trend towards regional trade shows in the United States: escalating travel costs and the discovery that most attendees to either national or regional shows are basically regional in nature and come from about a radius of 400 miles.

Additionally, firms must decide whether to exhibit at vertical or horizontal trade (i.e., wide array of products and services on display) events. Vertical shows/fairs can be too narrowly focused by the organizer on specific products/services which can have an adverse effect on the quality/quantity ration of the event's attendees. Industrial buyers generally have broad purchasing authority and often shy away from attending very specialized exhibitions. Horizontal expositions sometimes suffer from the hyper-market environment and can take on a carnival atmosphere. Visitors can become crowded, confused, and overwhelmed by fairs/shows that are too broad in their exhibitor company and product mix. Their sheer size precludes buyers from having sufficient time to visit and shop all the alternatives for their company's needs. There are trade-offs to each type of exhibition and the challenge for exhibitors and attendees alike is to determine which event(s) will meet their corporate objectives. Both vertical and horizontal events can be effective marketing mediums, but many are not! The organizer, whether a private promoter or government agency, must be experienced in managing and producing a successful domestic or international exhibition.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE FAIRS

That trade fairs and exhibitions are considered important in the international marketing activity of many organizations seems not to be in question. Internationally, trade fairs assume greater significance with over 600 events taking place annually in over 70 countries. Why firms choose to exhibit and to what extent their attendance is monitored as part of any marketing planning exercise is less certain. Approximately 3300 US companies participated in overseas trade fairs and related events in 1989, a 25% increase over the number of participants in 1988 (U.S. Department of Commerce). West German trade fairs attracted 312 US exhibitors (companies) in 1989 with American attendees estimated at 50,000. United States companies and their exhibits are favored at overseas trade fairs because they are known to be on the cutting edge of technology. And, having an American firm with that technology at a trade show/fair can attract the crowds and upgrade the profile of visitors.

International trade fairs provide companies with the opportunity to create sales and establish relationships with agents and distributors that can lead to more permanent distribution in foreign markets. Trade shows can also be a fertile ground for cultivating new customers for small and mid-sized businesses; the entry time for exporting can be cut from six years to six months through wide usage of foreign trade fairs. While nearly 60% of American visitors to trade fairs expect to purchase an exhibited product within two months of attending the fair, nearly 100 percent of business persons at foreign fairs are buyers with order books in hand. Many are distributors looking for products that can be sold abroad. European Trade Fairs tend to be much larger than those found in the U.S.: the Cologne trade fairs bring together 28,000 exhibitors from 100 countries with 1.8 million buyers from 150 countries. The Hanover Fair grounds in Germany hosts events year round and is a major venue for trade fairs in Europe.

The U.S. government sponsors permanent trade centers/sites in a variety of cities around the world where products from various American industries are exhibited for specific time periods. Seventeen permanent U.S. trade centers exist in industrial centers such as London, Frankfurt, Bangkok, Stockholm, Tokyo, and Rome. In conjunction with trade centers, the Commerce

Department offers manufacturers seeking business overseas the opportunity to have their products presented to potential buyers on videotape and thus gain greater exposure.

Authors agree that exhibiting at a trade fair can meet a variety of objectives. Carman (1968) pointed out that these will vary between firms and between events, but provided a list of ten for consideration. These included making direct sales, maintaining an image with existing and new customers, introducing new products, and finding new ideas and applications. The last point is particularly important since the two-way communication--possible at a trade fair/trade show but not in the traditional promotion media---permits the exhibitor to receive, as well as transmit, new ideas and intelligence on the market and its own competition. In a survey of 58 exhibit managers, Carman found only 12 able to provide data on their evaluation of the benefits of trade show participation. The remaining companies simply failed to do so.

Most companies appear to exhibit on an automatic or repeat basis. Having exhibited on a regular basis for many years, they usually do not question their exhibition effectiveness or results (Banting and Blenkhorn 1974). These researchers found that the average firm considers trade shows fairly low in effectiveness, yet continue to exhibit because this medium is viewed as a good opportunity to introduce new products, to establish personal contacts with new prospects and to maintain corporate visibility. The benefits of analyzing competitors ranked ten (evaluating competitor's products) and fourteenth (evaluate competitor's marketing tactics) on the final list of reasons for exhibiting. Small firms (sales less than \$10 million) had a higher expectation of immediate direct sales and indicated higher interest in using trade shows for competitive information gathering than did larger firms.

The literature reports remarkably little about trade exhibitions internationally. Rizzo (1982) suggests that the advantages of foreign trade shows are that they allow exporters to meet buyers directly, investigate at first hand the markets for their products, observe the competition, and gather marketing research data. Weinrauch (1984) while accepting that trade shows/fairs are a promotional tool, includes the following in his list of the advantages which they have over other promotional methods, "an exporter can gather critical marketing related data, such as competitive reactions, product development and research, pricing structure and distribution structures." Bello and Barksdale (1986) considered the difficulties potential exporters experienced at trade shows. They suggested that reassigning domestic employees to man the international exhibit stand will not work since two types of export knowledge are required of a competent exporter, objective (or general) knowledge and experiential knowledge. While the former can be taught, the latter can only be learned. Thus, the researchers argue, that international exhibits should be manned only by committed personnel who have such experiential knowledge.

U.S. exporters have time and again been advised and urged to make use of trade fairs to improve their marketing performance. None of aforementioned papers cited offered any empirical evidence of the role of trade fairs and exhibitions in export marketing. It would be valuable to discover exporters' reasons for exhibiting internationally and in particular to evaluate the perceived role of trade fairs in the gathering of competitive information. Thus, the authors of this manuscript conducted a pilot study in 1993 to begin to examine the dynamics of international trade fair participation.

While 60% of business visitors at U.S. trade shows expect to purchase an exhibited product within 2 months, nearly 100% of business persons at foreign fairs are buyers with order books in hands, or distributors looking for products that can be sold in the U.S. European firms on average commit 33% of their marketing budget for trade fairs versus only 25% in the U.S. CEOs/Managing Directors in European companies consider it part of their job to work the trade fair floors. Unlike their U.S. counterparts who typically stay away from the exhibit area.

METHODOLOGY

Data for this study was collected by mail survey of American businesses. A cover letter with university letterhead was utilized to provide legitimacy. Cooperation of a large media corporation with high level of trade show participation was obtained; the media company provided the authors with 2500 labels containing names selected at random from their data base of domestic trade show users/interested parties. These were drawn from a random national sample of names from 2 SICs. After expunging duplicates and multiple listings from the same company, 2000 surveys were sent. As the company desired to be anonymous, no sponsorship was mentioned. Surveys were individually addressed but the cover letter was not personalized.

The survey was a 7 page comprehensive survey comprising of 4 parts: general trade show items, questions aimed at international usage, questions for non-exhibitors and a set of questions concerning organizational demographics. The whole questionnaire comprised 85 questions and was quite extensive. The four parts of the survey consisted of domestic trade show questions, international trade show items, users with no trade show activity within the last two years was asked to fill out part 3 on non-usage, and organizational characteristics.

Final tally was 204 useable responses (out of 240 received) for a response rate slightly over 10%. As the survey was an eight page vehicle with the cover letter being the first page and organizational characteristics being the last, considerable time was involved. This, no doubt, was responsible for the low response rate. However, the actual number of responses received made for usable analysis. Since this number was deemed adequate, no follow up mailing was made. Organizational respondent profiles can be viewed in Table 1.

From the responses of the respondents, the responses were marked either "Not-exhibiting" for those who had not exhibited during 1991-92 and had no plans to do so in 1993--these filled out the non-exhibitor section and the organizational demographics--, a second group termed "Domestic Exhibitors" who exhibited at a domestic trade shows (but not any international show) during the same time frame, and a third group termed "International Exhibitors," who indicated they had exhibited overseas during the time frame in question. As we were only interested in differences between domestic and international exhibitors, those indicating 'non-exhibitors' were eliminated for comparative purposes. Using ANOVA, t-test, chi-squares, and discriminant analysis, we examined the two remaining groups. Differences between the two groups were assessed from the organizational demographics and exhibiting philosophies, these being the common ground among the two groups responses. In addition, a profile of international exhibitors was created using results from part 2--which queried international trade show activities and philosophies.

TABLE 1
Organizational Demographics of Respondents

a.	Trade Show Usage	#	%
	Not exhibiting	42	20
	Domestic only	85	42
	International Exhibitions	<u>77</u>	<u>37</u>
b.	Type of Business		
	Manufacturing	157	
	Services	46	
c.	Customer Type		
	Industrial	115	
	Consumer	71	
d.	Area of Operation		
	Domestic US	125	
	Worldwide	68	
e.	Size of Entity		
	Small (under \$10 M)	72	
	Medium (\$10-250 M)	56	
	Large (over \$250 M)	55	
f.	Years in Business		
	New (1-10)	38	
	Young (11-20)	49	
	Mid (21-50)	72	
	Mature (>50)	44	
g.	Affiliation		
	US-Public	63	
	US-Private	109	
	Foreign	31	
h.	# Product Lines		
	Few (1-5)	74	
	Some (5-10)	62	
	Many (>10)	67	
i.	# Customers		
	Few (1-99)	41	
	Lots (100-500)	60	
	Many (>500)	112	

RESULTS

Results of the comparison between domestic and international exhibitors can be seen in Table 2. Considerable number of similarities were observed between the two groups. Both domestic

and international exhibitors believe the two most important objectives of trade shows as gaining leads/new contacts and finding prime prospects.

Table 2	
Significant Differences Between Domestic and International Exhibitors	
a.	International exhibitors rate overall effectiveness of trade shows higher (Chi-Square = 14.4, p<.006)
b.	International exhibitors believe upper management rates overall effectiveness of trade shows higher (F = 4.8, p<.02)
c.	International exhibitors perceive upper management support of trade shows to be higher (F = 4.67, p<.032)
d.	International exhibitors tend to exhibit at more industry specific events.
e.	Domestic exhibitors disproportionately at 'fulfilling company mission' (Chi-Square = 5.2, p<.023)
f.	Domestic exhibitors cite too many state/local shows while international exhibitors believe not enough state/local trade shows (Chi-Square = 6.8, p<.033)
g.	International exhibitors claim to have exhibited at more national shows than domestic shows (F = 7.58, p<.007)
h.	International exhibitors indicate higher satisfaction with trade show results than do domestic exhibitors (F = 4.2, p<.042)
i.	International exhibitors place a greater percentage of their meeting expenditures with catalogs (16% vs. 10%)
j.	International exhibitors tend to use follow-up direct mail more often than do domestic exhibitors (T=2.3, p<.021)
k.	No significant differences were rated between domestic exhibitors and international exhibitors with regard to customization, complementary, frequency of purchase, and pricing.

Both domestic and international exhibitors believe the most important targets set for a show are: number of new leads and introduction of new products. Both domestic and international exhibitors believe the most important criteria of measuring trade show effectiveness is number of leads generated while domestic exhibitors also believe the conversion rate from these leads to sales is important. Both domestic and international exhibitors believe the most important reason their firm exhibits is identifying prospects.

Both domestic and international exhibitors believe the top pre-show promotion to be personal initiation by mail. Domestic also like personally delivered invitations while international exhibitors prefer free show tickets and special trade show journal editions ads. Both domestic and international exhibitors prefer dinner with special customers as a conference activity with a co-located seminar or conference program as a second choice. And most interestingly so, both domestic exhibitors and

international exhibitors indicated similar results as to complexity of product produced, technical aspect, relative price of product sold, customization of product, frequency of its purchase, and complementary of product. This must be compared to non-exhibitors which indicated considerable differences between these items and exhibiting firms. Thus, little difference exists between domestic exhibitors and international exhibitors as to the product produced and marketed.

Many significant and substantial differences were seen between the two groups. Principal differences between the two groups can be seen in their view of the effectiveness of trade shows and their satisfaction with its results. International exhibitors indicate a higher perceived effectiveness and say their upper management believes in its high effectiveness and tend to be more satisfied with its results. International exhibitors tend to exhibit at more national shows and at more vertical (industry specific) shows than do domestic exhibitors. International exhibitors also tend to use more follow up (post-show) tactics than did domestic exhibitors. As to have been expected, international exhibitors indicate theirs is more of a worldwide orientation than did domestic exhibitors, many more of which are content to be considered disproportionately only North-American in geographical coverage. Although international in scope, two-thirds of the international exhibitors indicate their predominate activities to lie only in North America and Western Europe.

International exhibitors indicated that over half attended 5-9 international trade shows in 91-92 with more planned for 93-94. The predominate criteria international exhibitors used to evaluate/select international trade fairs include size, number of visitors, with quality of audience most important. Principal reasons given by international exhibitors for participating in intl trade fairs were establishing contacts (most important) and worldwide image. Of the exhibitors who self-classified themselves as international, almost half are new international exhibitors (1-4 yrs) who tend to rate domestic and international audiences about same, not having reached the experience necessary to differentiate the audiences. Most of those who indicated they were international exhibitors said what prompted their start in export activities were unsolicited orders. The major difficulties the international exhibitors indicate they face in the international arena are business customs and logistics. Their mix of trade show booth personnel is (mean values): Technical 12%, Mktg & Sales 60%, Executive 16%, which differ from domestic exhibitors by having more marketing and sales personnel present and fewer technical advisors

A Discriminant analysis between domestic and international exhibitors was also run. Results can be seen in Table 3. As Table 4 shows in the predict versus actual table, a very high significance level was obtained. These two techniques confirm and verify each other. The Multivariate result was marginally significant, thus indicating not spectacular differences between the two groups (this despite the highly significant group versus predict matrix shown in Table 4). In essence, while some differences were seen between the two groups, their behavior as a whole (especially as concerns versus non-exhibitors) were very similar. One interesting observation was that while North American oriented firms were, not unexpectedly, domestic exhibitors, the internationally exhibiting firms, although quite new, gave worldwide orientation and indicated that one of the first facets of their marketing mix changed in the upgrading from North American emphasis to Worldwide-orientation, was to become an international exhibitor at trade shows. This quite clearly indicates the value and importance of exhibiting overseas.

Table 3
Significant Univariate F Tests for International Versus Domestic Exhibitors

VARIABLE	SS	DF	MS	F	p
MGMT SUPPORT	12.46672	1	2.46672	4.98780	0.02763
Satisfaction	8.35863	1	8.35863	3.97180	0.04884
Effectiveness	3.94810	1	3.94810	5.01440	0.02723
Geographic Area	17.84322	1	17.84322	8.60409	0.00411
Decision Makers	2.88155	1	2.88155	4.71540	0.03212
MULTIVARIATE TEST STATISTICS					
WILKS' LAMBDA = 0.67602					
F-STATISTIC = 1.49306 DF = 26, 81 PROB = 0.08910					
TEST OF RESIDUAL ROOTS					
CHI-SQUARE STATISTIC = 36.41300 DF = 26 PROB = 0.08433					

Table 4
International versus Domestic Exhibitors

TABLE OF PREDICT (ROWS) BY GROUP (COLUMNS)

FREQUENCIES

	DOM	INTL	TOTAL
DOM	39	11	50
INTL	11	47	58
TOTAL	50	58	108

86 out of 108 correctly chosen= 80%

TEST STATISTIC	VALUE	DF	PROB
PEARSON CHI-SQUARE	37.63876	1	0.00000
LIKELIHOOD RATIO CHI-SQUARE	40.09204	1	0.00000

MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS/CONCLUSIONS

What kinds of firms can benefit in what kind of ways from international trade events? Some answers may be suggested by an internationalization theory which assumes that exporting is a sequential learning process as a firm passes through stages of increasing commitment to foreign markets (Cavusgil 1984). These are (1) experimental involvement in exporting (2) active involvement, and (3) committed involvement. These can be related to different forms of participation in international trade fairs. In the experimental phase, a domestic trade show focus with sales made from unsolicited overseas inquiries is typical. Actively involved firms utilize U. S. Government (Department of Commerce sponsorship) to build bridges internationally via trade fairs. Committed companies extensively engage in overseas trading events to support their local partners, to build representation in foreign markets, and to learn about foreign buyer needs and the competition.

Market knowledge and export planning are two powerful discriminators between successful exporters and non-exporters (Aaby and Slater 1989). Not having sufficient market knowledge represents a barrier to exporting. For example, for American firms, the most important barrier to exporting is most probably the "lack of exposure to other cultures" (Rabino 1980). Increasing country-specific experience leads to better understanding of market mechanisms and a network of personal contacts (Madsen 1989). Consequently, product decisions, agent/distributor choice and communication with market participants are improved. In turn, this leads to better performance.

Participating in international trade fairs can provide American firms with valuable information through overseas experience and personal contacts. Thus, exporting barriers can be overcome to some degree through international trade show attendance. Information available concerning international fairs suggests that selling plays an important role for exhibitors at these events. International fairs attract serious buyers and while sales are always the ultimate objective, important intermediary goals also are set by the globally focused company.

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STUDENT EXPECTATIONS REGARDING RESPONSES TO SALESPERSON PERFORMANCE: AN ATTRIBUTIONAL APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

This study examined how students expect salesperson ability vs. salesperson effort to impact evaluations of salesperson performance. Students reviewed information about either a performance attributed to the salesperson's ability or a performance attributed to the salesperson's effort. The information had purportedly been prepared by the salesperson's supervisor and indicated the level of performance as high or low. Students were asked how they thought the salesperson's supervisor might respond to the performance in terms of rewards (e.g., promotion, pay increases) for high performers and corrective measures (e.g., termination, counseling) for low performers. The results of the study indicated that students expect supervisors to react more punitively toward salespeople with low performances attributed to effort than toward salespeople with low performances attributed to ability. Conversely, students expected nonpunitive (e.g., counseling) actions to be used significantly more for correcting salespeople who performed poorly due to low ability. In contrast, students expected supervisors to grant the "highest" rewards (e.g., promotion) to salespeople with high performances attributed to ability rather than effort. Implications for managers are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Attribution theory pertains to the processes used by individuals to interpret events by developing causal explanations. According to Weiner (1972), attribution theorists are interested in the relationship between events and the reasoning that is developed to explain those events.

Weiner's (1972; 1980) attributional paradigm was derived from Heider (1958). In his analysis, Heider (1958) suggested that people act like "naive scientists" by trying to explain why particular behaviors or events occur. In attempting to interpret behaviors, individuals may consider factors within the person (such as ability and effort) or within the environment (such as task difficulty and luck). Weiner (1972) proposed that these perceived causes for behavior (ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck) vary along three dimensions: (1) locus--whether the cause is internal or external to the person; (2) stability--whether or not the cause varies over time; and (3) controllability--whether the cause is under the person's volitional control. Subsequent responses to a behavior (e.g., performance) depend more on the underlying dimension of the attributed cause than on the cause itself. Since both ability and effort are internal to the person, they may vary in terms of stability and controllability. Specifically, ability is generally considered a stable and

uncontrollable cause, whereas effort is considered an unstable and controllable cause. According to Weiner, it is the controllability of the cause that affects evaluations. Since effort is generally considered as more controllable than ability, attributions to effort are predicted to result in more extreme evaluations than attributions to ability since the individual is seen as more personally responsible for the performance outcome when it is attributed to effort. A number of studies in non-sales environments have found that when success was attributed to effort, high performance was evaluated more positively, and when failure was attributed to effort, low performance was more severely punished (e.g., Weiner, Russell, and Lehrman, 1979; Knowlton and Mitchell, 1980; Pence, Pendleton, Dobbins, and Sgro, 1982).

The stability rather than the controllability of the perceived cause determines responses that are based on expectations of future performance (Weiner, 1972). When performance is attributed to a stable cause, the individual is expected to perform in a similar manner in the future. Since ability is typically viewed as more stable than effort, responses that require some predictions of future performance, such as promotion should be governed by ability attributions.

The purpose of this study is to see if students believe that performances attributed to different causes impact differential supervisor responses. Specifically, students were asked how they thought a supervisor would react to identical performances, attributed to either effort or ability, in terms of rewards and corrective actions.

METHOD

Students enrolled in upper level classes at a medium-sized university located in the Southeastern U.S. participated in the study. Of the 256 students in the sample, 92% were from the College of Business Administration.

Students reviewed performance information, purportedly prepared by the salesperson's supervisor, about either a performance attributed to the salesperson's ability or a performance attributed to the salesperson's effort. Students were randomly assigned to each of four groups--low ability, low effort, high ability, high effort--with an equal number of students in each condition. Consequently, half of the students were reading information about an ability-derived performance, either high or low, and half were reading information about an effort-derived performance, either high or low. The procedure resulted in a between-subjects design.

For comparison purposes, students were given performance information on all four salespeople plus an average performer. However, each group of students responded to job performance information regarding only one salesperson, either a high performance attributed to ability, a low performance attributed to ability, a high performance attributed to effort, or a low performance attributed to effort. A cover sheet explained that all five salespeople had the same amount of training, sales experience, and education.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The dependent measures were compared across the treatment conditions of effort and ability to assess the effects on students' expectations regarding how a supervisor would probably reward

or correct the salespeople in the scenarios. The dependent variables were grouped *a priori* and analyzed via MANOVA. The results indicate a significant effect for the effort variable ($F(3,252) = 139.1, p < .000$), and for the ability variable ($F(3,252) = 112.4, p < .000$), and no effect for the interaction of the variables ($p < .063$). Wilks' criterion was used for both effort and ability.

The univariate analysis for each reward action shows significant effects for promotion ($F(1,254) = 31.7, p < .01$) and territory assignment ($F(1,254) = 61.9, p < .01$). The effects of the ratings on compensation and recognition were not significant. Table 1 contains the mean ratings for each treatment variable.

Reward Action Measures	Evaluative Criteria*	
	Ability	Effort
Promotion	1.73	1.08**
Compensation	1.40	1.74
Recognition	1.65	1.36
Territory Reassignment	2.57	-.45

*The scores for each type of reward were standardized where the mean = .00 and the standard deviation = 1.00. The possible range of scores on the standardized measures was +3.00 to -3.00. A higher mean can be interpreted as indicating a greater likelihood that a particular reward would be allocated.
** $p < .01$

Univariate analysis for each corrective action shows significant effects of effort for coercive actions ($F(1,254) = 56.4, p < .05$) and termination ($F(1,254) = 157.6, p < .000$) and significant effects of ability for nonpunitive actions ($F(1,254) = 150.2, p < .05$) and territory reassignment ($F(2,254) = 46.9, p < .05$). The mean ratings for the corrective measures for each treatment variable are shown in Table 2.

Corrective Action Measures	Evaluative Criteria*	
	Ability	Effort
Coercive Actions	-.19	2.40**
Nonpunitive Actions	2.96	.09**
Territory Reassignment	2.69	-.31**
Termination	-.43	2.99**

*The scores for each type of action were standardized where mean = .00 and the standard deviation = 1.00. The possible range of scores on the standardized measures was +3.00 to -3.00. A higher mean can be interpreted as indicating higher expectations that a particular action would be taken.
** $p < .000$

DISCUSSION

In general, the relationships found between perceived ability and effort, on the one hand, and expected responses, on the other, are compatible with predictions from attribution theory. The results of this study indicate that students believe that the underlying "cause" for a performance would probably influence a supervisor's responses to that performance. This is particularly evident in students's attitudes regarding treatment for low performers. Students believe that supervisors would react more punitively toward performers who expend little effort than toward those who have low levels of ability. For example, students indicate that they think supervisors would more readily use coercive actions, such as admonishment, with those who perform at low levels because they did not try very hard and would more likely use nonpunitive actions, such as counseling or territory reassignment, with those who have little ability. Further, students strongly believe that supervisors would be more willing to fire, the harshest treatment possible, those who perform at low levels because they fail to make the appropriate effort.

Students believe that high performers, regardless of the perceived reason for the performance, would probably be equitably paid and recognized. However, students believe that supervisors would more readily reserve the highest rewards, such as promotion and assignment to lucrative territories, to those who have high levels of ability.

These findings indicate that students expect supervisors to display a tendency to overreact to low effort, given low performance. Reacting more coercively toward a salesperson who performs below expectations because of low effort rather than low ability deserves careful scrutiny. Since effort is generally perceived as more *controllable* than ability, low performance due to low effort should be easier to correct than low performance due to low ability. Thus, low ability may be a more understandable reason for reacting coercively to low performance than low effort. Similarly, it seems that terminating employees for low effort may be counterproductive since effort is controllable and can be changed through the manager's actions.

Given that a prerequisite for promotion or transfer to a better territory is continued high performance and that ability is more stable relative to effort, allocation of these rewards to salespeople with high ability would appear to be justifiable. Students expected high performers to be equitably rewarded through pay and recognition regardless of "why" they performed well. Compensation and recognition are the type of rewards that are typically used with greater frequency than other rewards, such as promotion. Frequently allocated rewards used appropriately (i.e., contingent upon performance) could facilitate a manager's ability to positively affect salesperson motivation, satisfaction, and future productivity.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Compensation decisions warrant further research since the findings are not consistent with predictions from attribution theory. Heilman and Guzzo (1978) hypothesized that compensation would be more appropriate for high performers with high effort than for those with high ability. Yet, they found, as we did, no significant differences in the appropriateness of compensating high performers with high ability and high effort. In contrast, Pazy (1986) found that when forced to

make a choice between high performers, comparisons became necessary and the perceived caused influenced the decision. High performers with high effort were considered more deserving of a pay raise than those with high ability, which is consistent with predictions from attribution theory.

The authors believe that if compensation decisions involved the *level* of pay increases or bonuses to be granted, rather than whether or not to compensate at a higher level, the perceived causes would influence these decisions. Decisions concerning whether or not to compensate appear to be based on performance level, whereas decisions concerning the amount of pay increases appear to require comparisons among equivalent performers (DeNisi, Cafferty and Meglino, 1984). Comparisons among salespeople with equivalent performances are likely to enhance the importance of *why* the salesperson performed as he/she did. According to attribution theory, high performers with high effort may receive higher pay raises or larger bonuses than those with high ability. This is a possible area for future research.

A variety of factors may moderate attributions for performance and subsequent responses to those attributions. For example, Dubinsky, Skinner and Whittler (1989) found that both attributions for a responses to low performing salespeople varied depending on the salesperson's work history (good/bad). In our study, we portrayed the salespeople as having the same amount of training, experience, and education. One research direction would be to see what impact varying the levels of these, or other variables, would have on the effects of ability and effort attributions.

Finally, future research should examine the relationships between ability and effort for eliciting corrective and rewarding responses using sales managers as subjects. It would be interesting to see if sales managers react the way students believe they would.

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NEGOTIATING SUCCESSFULLY IN CROSS-CULTURAL SITUATIONS

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ABSTRACT

As the global economy becomes more entrenched and the importance of internationalization becomes self evident to American businesses, the number of contacts with foreign agents will escalate. Whether it be buying or selling, the end result often is cross-cultural negotiations. This paper examines the verbal dimension of cross-cultural negotiations, how it differs globally, and provides recommendations for increasing the likelihood of success in a cross-cultural negotiation.

INTRODUCTION

The impact of international business on American companies has been considerably understated. With two-way trade in goods and services amounting to well over \$1 Trillion dollars, over 20% of the U.S. GDP in 1992, no part of the economy is sacrosanct and can avoid the international dimension. Over seventy percent of American firms are actively competing against foreign-based firms. If an American firm is not competing against a foreign firm, chances are that it is either being supplied by or selling to foreign based firms. Foreign direct investment in the U.S. has reached over \$400 billion and continues to increase year by year. In the decade of the nineties, the only firms that will be exempt from dealing with foreign entities, either U.S. based affiliates or foreign customers, suppliers, or competitors will be those firms that are out of business or are going out of business.

At the forefront of international business opportunities are agreements between firms, among others. Agreements are the most important international documents that must be negotiated between firms and other entities of different nationalities. Since implementation of agreements has become increasingly difficult and complex, cross-cultural negotiations has begun to take on an increasing importance to the globalizing firm. Every sale or purchase has its negotiation aspect and every negotiation presents opportunities and dangers for both parties. International negotiations are fast becoming a fact of life for a growing number of U.S. based firms. Failure to negotiate effectively can undo careful prior planning; operating across national cultures often magnifies negotiation problems.

CROSS-CULTURAL NEGOTIATIONS

When two people communicate, they rarely talk about precisely the same subject, for effective meaning is flavored by each person's own cognitive world and cultural conditioning. When

negotiating internationally, this translates into anticipating culturally related ideas that are most likely to be understood by a person of a given culture. Discussions are frequently impeded because the two sides seem to be pursuing different paths of logic; in any cross-cultural context, the potential for misunderstanding and talking past each other is great (Kramer and Herbig, 1993).

When one takes the seemingly simple process of negotiations into a cross-cultural context, it becomes even more complex and complications tend to grow exponentially. It is naive indeed to venture into international negotiation with the belief that “after all people are pretty much alike everywhere and behave much as we do.” Even if they wear the same clothes you do, speak English as well as (or even better than) you, and prefer many of the comforts and attributes of American life (food, hotels, sports), it would be foolish to view a member of another culture as a brother in spirit. That negotiation style you use so effectively domestically can be inappropriate and when dealing with people from another cultural background; in fact its use can often result in more harm than gain. Heightened sensitivity, more attention to detail, and perhaps even changes in basic behavioral patterns are required when working in another culture (Moran and Stripp, 1991).

Different cultural systems can produce divergent negotiating styles—styles shaped by each nation’s culture, geography, history, and political system. Unless you see the world through the other’s eyes (no matter how similar they appear to you), you may not be seeing nor hearing the same. No one can usually avoid bringing along his cultural assumptions, images, and prejudices or other attitudinal baggage into any negotiating situation. The way one succeeds in cross-cultural negotiations is by fully understanding others, using that understanding to one’s own advantage to realize what each party wants from the negotiations, and to turn the negotiations into a win-win situation for both sides (Herbig and Kramer, 1992b). In cross-cultural negotiations, many of the strategies and tactics used domestically may not apply—especially when they may not be culturally acceptable to the other party.

LANGUAGE

Language is important. When people from different cultures communicate, culture-specific factors affect how they encode and decode their messages. Negotiators should check understanding periodically, move slowly, liberal use of questions, and avoid slang and idioms. Even the discussion of negotiation, compromise, and agreement have different meanings to different cultures. Both the U.S. and Korean meanings for the word “corruption” are negative; however in the U.S., the word connotes being morally wrong while for the Koreans it implies being socially unfortunate. The Mexican will not compromise as a matter of honor, dignity and integrity. The Arab fears loss of manliness if he compromises. In Russia, compromise has negative connotation; principles are supposed to be inviolable and compromise is a matter of integrity. For Russians, a negotiation is treated as a whole without concessions. At the SALT talks, the Americans thought they had an ‘agreement’ (meaning conclusive commitment) the Russians said it was an ‘understanding’ (meaning an expression of mutual viewpoint or attitude) when the Americans thought they had an ‘understanding,’ the Russians said it was a ‘procedural matter,’ meaning they had agreed to a process for conducting the negotiation. In the American culture, those who refuse to bargain are viewed as cold, having secret agendas, and not really being serious about business. The Dutch are

not hagglers; you should make your offer fairly close to your true asking price; if you start making large concessions you will lose their confidence. The Swedes have a reputation as tough negotiators, not hagglers; they are methodical, detailed individuals who are slow to change positions. Bargaining is not highly valued in Swedish culture; those who bargain, who attempt to negotiate by offering a higher price in order to concede to a lower price, can be viewed as untrustworthy, inefficient, or perhaps out for personal gain at the expense of others. The English (and American) notion of “fair play” seems to have no exact equivalent in any other language. In French, word and concept were adopted together as *le fer pl’e*. In Spanish, *juego limpio* has been tried for application in sports, but it fails to transmit most of the basic thought. Generally, this is a culture-bound idea as is often the case. The Chinese language does not have a word for ‘privacy.’ So it is for practically every language and culture; words exist in one which do not have meaning or existence in another.

The linguistic framework can be based on three factors: topic allocation, verbal immediacy of speaker and listener references, and topic progression. Topic allocation refers to the individual’s need for personal autonomy concerning such aspects as independence, self determination and privacy; speakers can refer explicitly to the speaker, the listener, to both, or to neither. Often, if the message is delivered explicitly (the first 3 situations), it will be interpreted as assertive and confrontational. If delivered implicitly (to neither party), it will tend to put the listener more at ease and is usually interpreted as less threatening. Choice of an implicit method may soften or minimize negative effects or to avoid specification, thus allowing for the possibility of later modifications. Nonetheless, if delivered explicitly, this can lead to perceived immediacy and a sign of involvement. Some cultures tend to be more implicit while others tend to be more explicit. For example, Spanish negotiators were found to be more person-oriented while Danish negotiators were considered more task-oriented. The Danish negotiators preferred to use strategies in which the topic of conversation does not explicitly concern persons, and in which topics and persons are separated from each other; when they want to address topics within the opposite party’s domain, they proceed by asking implicit questions, seldom commenting on each other’s behavior (Grindsted, 1994).

Verbal immediacy refers to how closely speakers associate themselves verbally with the interaction, with the topics they communicate about, and with their listeners’s or own utterances; this can range from remote to intimate. Spanish negotiators preferred to establish a high degree of immediacy to the here-and-now of conversation; they are not inclined to separate the task from the person but prefer to bring their persons into the center of the interaction and allow the other party to penetrate much further into their own personal territory. Danish negotiators prefer a low degree of immediacy, proceeding in a tentative, coordinated fashion, linear, compromise seeking.

Topic progression refers to the sequencing and structure inherent in a dialogue. For example, in Grindsted’s (1994) study, the Spanish negotiators explicitly made an opening move while implicitly making the closing move while the Danish negotiators took the opposite sequence: Their opening move was a tentative, nonconfrontational manner while the closing move was expressed explicitly, whereas agreement had been reached. As a result of differences between the two groups, the Spanish negotiators would interpret Danish negotiators as emotionally uninvolved and impersonal, afraid of intimacy and too concerned with doing business. Danish negotiators would interpret Spanish negotiators as self-assertive, confrontational and uncooperative, consuming more time and energy in the negotiations than necessary.

Argumentation in global negotiations involves a blend of logic, emotion and dogma. Negotiators who use logic try to persuade their counterparts with substantive proof, that is, empirical (statistics, analyses, financial statements) or factual evidence. Negotiators who use emotional proof try to persuade their counterparts with motivational proofs by providing evidence from historical and cultural tradition. Negotiators who use dogma try to persuade the other side with authoritative proofs by providing a statement of opinion from an expert. Dogmatic bargainers make fewer concessions, achieve fewer agreements, take longer to reach an agreement and are more prone to view compromise as a defeat. Emotion and drama carry more weight than logic for Mexicans. Latin Americans place a high value on verbal agility and have a tendency to respond quickly; they may even answer a point once they have understood it even though the other side has not finished. For the French, argument is an admirable skill and mastery of logic an intellectual accomplishment worthy of great admiration.

The tendency of many a U.S. business negotiator to get straight to the point has been responsible for many a failed cross-cultural negotiation: in most places in the world, the one who asks questions controls the process of negotiation and thereby accomplishes more in bargaining situations. Americans are, as a rule, good at arguing but terrible at listening. Dean Rusk said "One of the best ways to persuade others is with your ears--by listening." An old Farmer's adage is "God gave you two ears but only one mouth so you can listen twice as much as you talk." An Arabic proverb says, "If I listen, I have the advantage; if I speak, others have it." It is never appropriate to speak unless you can improve the silence.

RATIONALE IN NATIONAL NEGOTIATING STYLES

The line of reasoning method most persuasive to most Americans may not work at all in other cultures. Americans are usually swayed by expert opinion and hard evidence and usually want to concentrate on the facts available; others prefer to spend what to the Americans are inordinate amounts of time on principles. Mexican and Russian negotiators habitually start with the most general aspects and purpose of a negotiation session by defining major and minor issues, categorizing them, and then deciding on the main points to be solved. The Chinese seek agreement on general principles; they expect the other party to reveal their interests first while the Chinese mask their own interests and priorities. Especially in the Far East, the negotiating session is less a forum for working out issues than it is a formal and public expression of what has already been worked out beforehand.

The concept of discussing problems in a systematic, sequential, orderly manner, is promoted by Americans while the Japanese prefer *haragei*, to talk around a subject in order to get a holistic view. Only after this is accomplished will they go into details. The Japanese prefer avoiding any area in which an agreement cannot be easily reached. Instead they tend to move to another topic in its place. To Americans, this often appears like the Japanese are trying to elude the issue. To an American, an unsolved issue is a point of contention. This, not any general principle, must be first dealt with before the agreement as a whole can be considered. Many cultures are holistic, especially in the Far East; all issues are discussed at once and no decisions made until the end. Especially in

the Orient, the negotiating session is less a forum for working out issues than it is a formal and public expression of what has already been worked out beforehand.

Many who come from a non-Western tradition have to learn the value of give and take as well as the confrontational aspects of Western style negotiation. In a host of cultures, especially those from East Asia, people depend more upon feelings and personal relationships than intellectual confrontations. In numerous other cultures, conflict avoidance is central and paramount in any negotiations. In these cultures, mediators, go-betweens, facilitators, brokers, and middlemen are used to assist in smoothing the negotiation process. In the Middle East, the Bedouin model is often used: intermediaries who enjoy trust of both sides; where honor of both is uppermost; face saving is important; and gestures of generosity and reciprocation must be adhered to. On the other hand, the authoritarian traditions of the Latins often spurn use of mediators or third parties.

A primary bargaining strategy of the Chinese and Japanese is to ask questions to put the opponent on the defensive. Many times the initial meeting is merely used to gather information, which is then fed back to their superiors and peers for deliberation and a carefully prepared response. The Japanese strongly believe it is folly to make an offer until one knows what the other side wants. This explains the slow start, lack of initial proposal, the emphasis on information gathering, and the long drawn out preliminary ground work that is usually encountered when negotiating in Japan. The Japanese need detailed information to build the foundation for whatever decision they intend to put forward. Should the venture fail, no one can be rebuked or blamed. On the other hand, in Latin America questions are not valued as in the Orient; in fact, there they are often interpreted as prying and inappropriately nosy.

Latins expect their manager to tell them what they can and cannot do, to provide authority, to give detailed instructions. Latins would not think of contradicting a superior and to make a suggestion that the superior had not already, in some fashion, suggested. Americans, thus, often view Latins as lazy, slow, and not motivated while Latins see the Americans as irresponsible, immature managers, informal, disrespectful, and insensitive to the needs of the people they are depending on.

The proficient international negotiator understands the national negotiating style of those on the other side of the table, accepts and respects their cultural beliefs, and is conscious of his or her own mannerisms and how they may be viewed by the other side.

DIFFERENCES IN DECISION MAKING

In international negotiations one must also take into account the nuances in other culture's decision processes, that is, the way officials and executives reach decisions and instruct their negotiators, as well as personal styles of decision-making behavior. In most of the non-Western world, decision making does not rest with an individual. Many cultures go to extraordinary lengths to avoid individual action on any problem; group responsibility replaces individual decision making responsibility. Americans view the Japanese inability to deviate from their position as indicating stubbornness and thus perceive the Japanese as unwilling to compromise or as uninterested in keeping the negotiation process alive. To the Japanese the Western concept of "decision-making" is alien and not applicable to the Japanese process (*ringi* --consensus building from mid levels),

which can be thought of as more of a direction-indicating process. The Japanese come to a negotiation with a hard-gained time-consuming intra-organizational consensus already established, which can not be easily changed at the bargaining table, no matter how small or seemingly irrelevant. To the Japanese, the Americans in their give and take appear insincere and unprepared as they do not appear to have a prepared position. To the Latins decisions are typically made by those individuals who are in charge of decision making in this area. In Korea middle managers have major veto powers but no authority to commit their organization to a long term agreement.

To Americans anything is permitted unless it has been restricted by the state or by company policy. For the Russians, nothing is permitted unless it is initiated by the state. Politics has an all-pervasive influence on Chinese and Russian behavior while Americans tend to separate and compartmentalize business from politics. The Soviets had an authoritarian government with a basically oligarchical decision-making network controlled from the Politburo. Not just major decisions but many details of negotiations are set at the top, almost to the point of complete subservience to instructions from Moscow. In such a decision-making framework, the Russians have an advantage in that they can develop negotiation position and tactics without other domestic considerations. But they are typically so much at the mercy of instructions from superiors that at times it seems to foreign observers they need permission from the Kremlin before they can even speak at the negotiating table. Russian negotiators are government employees without exception while the American negotiators usually are businessmen.

Unlike the American Democracy, some cultures have strong authoritarian elements. The Mexicans have a president with immense authority, but any presidential direction is slowed or frustrated by a formidable and powerful bureaucracy. The Mexican president is the principle decision-maker; governmental negotiators therefore have limited discretion in actions and decision-making capabilities by American standards. Likewise, the Egyptian president has politically a very strong position but the actual implementation of a negotiated agreement eventually requires the acceptance of the powerful Egyptian bureaucracy. For long-term commitments in Brazil, decisions are made at the top of organizations; implementation of such decisions by the bureaucracy tend to be cumbersome and time consuming. The entire purpose of the bureaucracy in China is to diffuse decision making so that responsibility is difficult to locate; no one wants to be absolutely in charge.

The American hierarchical model of Responsibility-Accountability-Power does not hold universally; the "top man's word" may not be enough. In the Chinese political culture, there is no assumption that decision power must be tied to accountability. On the contrary, in the eyes of the powerful, proof of authority and responsibility lies in being shielded from accountability. Those below them will protect them from criticism and their mistakes. The Chinese blur lines of responsibility and provide vague and conflicting signals as to the limits of their negotiating authority. As a government official, most Russian negotiators, until recently, could only discuss what they were told by their superiors. They could go no further and had to get approval for further moves, actions, and responses from their superiors. Fear of disciplinary action forced them to carefully follow orders. A Russian negotiator rarely takes initiative. The Soviets took virtually no step, in their public or private lives which does not depend on the state.

Americans love to compare negotiating to playing a poker game; they are quick to take advantage of a better power position or strength. The Latins are also great power players; to be stronger than the others is particularly cherished. The Japanese relish subtle power plays in their goal of achieving conciliation. The French typically have an elaborate, well prepared opening position but few if any intermediate fallbacks before their minimum position is reached. In Eastern Europe, one team negotiates one day, followed by a fresh team the next; it thus becomes very difficult for Western negotiators to ascertain which team is most important or which has the final authority.

The accomplished international negotiator prepares for his negotiation by understanding the decision making pattern of the specific culture, learning what the limitations of the delegates authority and who within the nation or company will make the final decision, and readies himself for traditional culturally based power plays that may occur within the negotiation.

PERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

To most Orientals and Latins good personal relationships and feelings are all that really matter in a long-term agreement. After all, the written word is of lesser importance than personal ties. Once personal trust has been established, cooperation increases. The social contacts developed between the parties are often far more significant than the technical specifications and the price. The Chinese word '*guanxi*' signifies that personal connection require significant personal obligations. In many countries the heart of the matter, the major point of the negotiations is in getting to know the people involved. Brazilians and many Latin Americans can not depend on their own legal system to iron out conflicts so they must depend on personal relationships. Relations are important because of the need to have contracts. Contacts can help you determine who to approach in order to get the business moving; government is very much involved in business. Social competence is paramount. Relationships are important for Latin Americans; in many cases, the people they do business with is more important than the company; the quality of the personal relationship plays a vital role in the business relationship. Personal affinity is also immensely important to Mexicans and other Latins. No one rushes into business but rather spends time in pleasantries which assist in the creation of a suitable climate for interaction. The goal is to nurture a mutual confidence, engage in informal discussions and seek solutions to problems. Therefore personal rapport, preliminary meetings, telephone conversations, social activities are necessary when dealing with business people "South of the Border." Brazilian negotiators like relationships to be continuing ones and dislike opposers who are overly task-oriented.

Americans negotiate a contract, the Japanese a relationship. In many cultures, the written word is primarily used to satisfy legalities. In their eyes, emotion and personal relations are more important than cold facts in business relations. The key issue is: Can I get along with these men and their company and do I want to sell (or buy) their products rather than can I make money on this deal? They are particularly interested in the sincerity of those they are negotiating with. The Japanese are especially unwilling to do business with someone they think may prove to be arrogant or unpleasant: "I do not do business with a man who does not like us!" Japanese do not separate personal feelings from business relationships. The effective American negotiator should therefore

display cultural empathy, be polite and honest, go out of his way to be good natured, practical, social, frank, responsible and efficient—traits Japanese and most other Orientals value.

To the Malays trust is fundamental to a successful relationship: a persons's capability for loyalty, commitment and companionship is uppermost to the decision to do business. Arab buyers often base their buying decisions on the personality of the salesman, rather than on the quality of the product. The Koreans love to lavish attention and intimacies to their friends in contrast to the hostile and blunt treatment given out to those they don't know—building relationships there is necessary to good business. Indians place importance on building relationships and negotiating process can be rather long by Western standards. West Africans see friendship as an element of the business relationship. They tend to treat a foreigner's motive as suspect if they feel they are being hurried through negotiations without regard to local custom.

The development of a personal friendship is an important prerequisite to building long-term business contacts with foreigners. It can also, however, be used to the disadvantage of the foreign negotiator.

STATUS AND PROTOCOL

American egalitarianism can also present a problem in cross-cultural negotiations. Friendliness for Americans is merely an expression of egalitarianism, a way to emphasize similarities, to clear the decks to enable Americans to get the to business at hand. While Americans want relationships built on equality and similarity, Europeans expect to build relationships based on the acknowledgment of differences, on respect for status, on deference to title. In less egalitarian cultures, ascribed criteria are more important than achieved ones with some being more critical than others.

Negotiations between equals is basically a Western concept; it is not found in such status oriented societies as the Japanese, Koreans or Russians. For an American, calling someone by his first name is an act of friendship and good. In other cultures, French, Japanese, Egyptian, the use of a first name at a first meeting is an act of disrespect and therefore a bad thing. The Japanese and Koreans rate others as either junior or senior to them but rarely as their equal; the Russians view others as either inferior or superior to themselves. All of them, the Koreans, the Russians and the Japanese, tend to look at negotiations as war, a macho challenge. They believe in the rightness of their initial position. The Japanese when pressed explain their position fully and explain their underlying intentions in order to persuade the other side of the rightness of the Japanese position, but they will hesitate to yield their own position. The Chinese have a reverence for age and authority; unless one sports a beard be prepared for an uphill battle.

American informality in down playing status, in using first names, in attire, and other ways of showing casualness, is not universal. The Japanese dress conservatively—they always prefer dark business suits. To be dressed casually during negotiations with the Japanese would therefore be inappropriate. The Japanese do not believe in using first names unless it is between the very best of personal relationships. In Asia, honorifics, title, and status are extremely important; address your counterparts by their proper title. Frankness and directness, virtues for Americans, are not desirous to Mexicans in formal encounters nor to Japanese at any time. Americans and Germans are more

likely to start out expecting to trust the other party until proven untrustworthy while in Latin America and some parts of Asia people would be inclined to mistrust until good faith is proven. American humor is sometimes seen as strange or inappropriate to those members of other cultures; the Japanese art of being overly humble and apologetic seems condescending and artificial to many in the West.

Most Westerners expect a prompt answer when they make a statement or ask a question. In a culture that values directness (German) you can expect to receive clear and definite response to questions and proposals. Western cultures tend to believe that human relations cannot stand still that they must be continuously reinforced to progress towards greater intimacy. The Chinese accept that relations can remain on the same level for an indefinite period of time. What they want is a sense of reliability, not warmth.

Some cultures have developed strong traditions governing daily life and social interactions. The Mexicans in formal settings respond with rhetoric and lofty principles. They are proud of their country and traditions but frequently exhibit a fear and suspicion of the gringos from the north and their possible motives. There exists little tradition in solving business problems by holding public meetings; the Mexican appreciation of form and ceremony goes back to their Spanish roots. Protocol and status are important to Koreans; they feel slighted if one does not recognize their proper status and position in life. The Arabs are highly ritualistic in their social interaction; an intimate knowledge of their customary formality and protocol is required to succeed with members of their society. The Russians are highly conscious of protocol and not inclined to accept any surprise changes in the negotiating agenda or venue. In Japan, tradition extends even to the proper way one must present a business card or drink tea and sake.

The valued American handshake is often out of place in Japan where bowing is customary and the exact angle and number of bows are important according to whom you are meeting. Even the use of the hands can violate unspoken rules of proper conduct. The American thumbs up and forefinger-thumb "OK" is considered an obscene gesture in many cultures. When meeting a devout Moslem, never shake with the left hand or utilize the left hand for any purpose—in the Islam religion the left hand is associated with the human excretion function. Any use of it in an interaction with a Moslem is therefore considered rude and a personal affront.

Women in business have a complete set of different protocol rules. Men may shake hands with women, but not in Arab countries. Women may kiss women but not men in Latin America. At the end of business in Latin America, men may embrace other men but not women.

An appreciation, understanding, and respect of national protocols, rituals or special status symbols is in the best interest of the successful foreign negotiator. The competent global negotiator subordinates his or her own preferences to that of his hosts or guests.

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF NEGOTIATIONS

The function of entertainment and other social activity related to negotiation varies markedly from culture to culture. The unbelievably high level of entertainment expenses incurred by the Japanese are seen to be part of the preliminary stage of establishing interpersonal relationships; eating has long been established as a rapport-building activity. Americans feel comfortable in a

relaxed social setting to conduct business; negotiators in other cultures may feel awkward in such settings and may even see this as a breach of etiquette towards one's guests. Americans eat in public and bath in private, the Japanese vice-versa. Japanese rarely bring wives or family members to a business gathering. The French, likewise, believe the home is for more intimate relationships not for conducting business. The bazaar model of bargaining through a series of formal sequential steps is found in Egypt and in many parts of the Middle East. It starts with a preliminary period of discussing issues that go well beyond the transaction that is contemplated; subsequently focuses on establishing a personal relationship often with endless rounds coffee and tea; finally the actual bargaining aimed at a compromise position commences. The parties engage in the fine art of haggling, sometimes simply for the fun of it. No step must be passed over. Patience is the key to success.

In social interaction, face saving is crucial to the Japanese. Decisions are often made on the basis of saving someone from embarrassment. To the Americans decisions are typically made on a cost-benefit basis with little or no consideration for saving face. For the Latins face saving is critical to preserve honor and dignity. Different values and different priorities are clearly given to the social aspects and business considerations by different cultures. The French do not see negotiating as a place for bargaining but as one for searching out the reasoned solutions for which they have so carefully prepared. They start with a long range view of their purposes and place lower priority on accommodation in short-range decisions.

Gift giving is a custom in many parts of the world: Do give a gift in Japan, never give one in China. It is not so much the cost but the source or nature of the gift that impresses. In many cultures, especially the Orient, giving a gift creates an obligation between parties, a reciprocal gift is required if you are being given a gift. This can quickly spiral out of control as the reciprocal gift must be more expensive than the gift received. Be sure to offer a gift on the first meeting with a Japanese company; but if a gift is tendered to you, open it only when one gets home or back at the hotel. Expect to be invited home in Australia, do not expect to be invited home in Japan or France. If invited to a host's home in Asia or Africa, do not compliment an item too much, your host might feel compelled to give you the item you are admiring. Always ask about the spouse and family in Latin America; never ask about the spouse in East Asia.

To an American, ceremonies as part of the negotiating process are time-consuming, useless and an unnecessary expense. However, ceremonies can provide each party to the negotiation with tangible representations of the effort expended. The ceremony focuses the participants on the new relationship. Some form of ceremony should be held to memorialize the negotiation. The most common ceremony is the banquet or party that accompanies the execution of the agreement and the beginning of the relationship. Americans have a fondness for calling the signing of a contract the 'closing.' It should be remembered that negotiation is a process not an event. The ceremony should mark a transition not the end.

The deft multinational negotiator recognizes ethnic differences in the display of personal feelings and relationships. He or she is primed for them and has prepared the proper response.

INTERPRETERS, TRANSLATORS AND BICULTURAL BROKERS

To augment this or her own capabilities, a business negotiator can employ cultural experts, translators, outside attorneys, financial advisors, or technical experts who have at least moderate and preferably high familiarity with both the counterpart's and the negotiator's cultures. These experts serve two distinguishable roles, as "agents" who replace the negotiator at the negotiating table or as "advisers" who provide information and recommend sources of action to the negotiator. The use of go-betweens, middlemen, brokers, and other intermediaries is a common practice within many cultures and represents a potentially effective approach to cross-cultural negotiation as well.

Translators turn the words of one language into the words of another while interpreters make the thoughts of a person speaking in one language intelligible to a person who speaks in another language. Interpreting is a difficult, exhausting job. Interpreters are forever mentally alert, translating, evaluating. They must make the thoughts of one language clear in another while taking into account the context of the discussion. Interpreters need to be treated well and should be, if at all possible, included as a member of the negotiating team, to be briefed, and to brief on the negotiating scenario.

Using their language greatly improves communication and trust. For example when their satellites met in space, the Americans spoke Russian and the Russians spoke English. Both sides knew that speaking the other's language reduced communications problems and increased trust. The same principles apply to many business negotiations.

As a general rule, you should not negotiate in a foreign language unless you know it extremely well. Otherwise you will be focusing your attention on the language rather than on the substance of the deal. Having an interpreter, even if you know the language, gives you additional time to consider your response to the other side's statements. Each party should have their own interpreter or interpreters. You should bring your own interpreter whose interests are the same as yours. One should not rely on the other side for interpretation. Before negotiations actually begin, briefings should be held with the interpreter to explain the nature of the deal and what exactly you are expecting in the way of translation.

One must understand that need for an interpreter significantly increases the time required to conduct the negotiation. Abilities and competencies of interpreters drastically vary. Having a mediocre interpreter can do more harm than good. An interpreter also acts as a filter. Instead of coming to know each other, the parties have to rely on the interpreter for communications. Thus an interpreter could actually impede the development of a close working relationship between the two sides.

But being an interpreter, no matter how proficient, may not be enough. To be truly efficient, one should not only know both languages but both cultures and how to do business in both cultures. These individuals are called bicultural brokers and although rare and usually expensive are often worth every penny paid to them. Studies have indicated that likelihood of success increases when one uses one's own interpreter and then increases again upon the use of a bicultural broker. These talented people should be utilized to the fullest, even to the extent of welcoming them onto the negotiating team as a full fledged member and providing regular briefings and counseling sessions on how to more effectively do business with the other side and carrying on negotiations.

Interpreters are most efficient when you:

- speak slowly and carefully,
- repeat yourself often,
- do not use jargon, slang or idioms,
- explain complex ideas more than once,
- speak only a few sentences at a time,
- do not interrupt, and
- provide ample opportunity for breaks for interpreters.

It is often advisable to have another bilingual person available to serve as a back-up listener and who can provide additional insight to the conversation. One should speak towards one's opposite number and not the interpreter, loss of face and status could result otherwise. The more external agents a firm used (meaning a translator, bicultural broker or both), the higher the probability of success a firm tends to have in cross-cultural negotiations (Gulbro and Herbig, 1994).

A tactical advantage exists to having an interpreter (even though one may speak perfect English). By waiting for the translations, the time to contemplate response can be doubled. Working through an interpreter can provide a manager with time to think, to observe the listeners' reactions to one's words. The French are reluctant to negotiate in English and use this tactic because of their pride in their language and the fact that at one time the French language was the accepted medium of expression in diplomacy. The Soviets used this tactic because it gave them twice the usual time to prepare a response or to formulate a question. They were also able to move many a negotiations to their benefit by claiming 'not to understand' arguments favorable to the other side or by clarifying their own comments when they did not elicit the desired response from the other side.

Do not feel intimidated or insulted if the other side momentarily begins to talk amidst themselves in their own language and no interpretation is made. Most people break into their native language at a negotiation because it is easier and more efficient to discuss things among themselves and not necessarily because they have something to hide.

MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

In summary, three major precepts should start a firm on the route to success in cross-cultural negotiations:

- 1) *Recognize that a foreign negotiator is different* from you --in perceptions, motivation, beliefs and outlook. Identify, understand, accept, and respect the other side's culture. And be prepared to communicate and operate on two separate and different cultural wavelengths.

2) *Be culturally neutral.* Being different does not denote being better or inferior. Do not cast judgment on the other party's cultural mores any more than you would want them to judge your values. It may be true that from a detached objective moral point of view some foreign customs may appear senseless, capricious, even cruel and insane to you. But remember you are visiting the country as a businessman -- not as a missionary; you plan to do business there-- not to convert the natives to the American customs and practices. Recognize that they probably feel the same way about your culture as you do theirs. It may not be necessary to adopt their values as part of your own personal value system. All that is necessary is that you accept and respect their norms as part of their culture.

3) *Be sensitive to their cultural norms,* try to understand what they are and how your behavior may impact them even if it causes you discomfort or emotional stress. Yet it is necessary to accept, and to proceed with the business without showing distress if one wishes to come home with an agreement beneficial to both parties and the start of a long-term healthy relationship between two companies from two cultures.

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ANTECEDENTS TO SALESPERSON CUSTOMER ORIENTATION

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ABSTRACT

This manuscript examines the effects of a customer oriented compensation plan on managerial styles and the influences of those management behaviors on salesperson customer orientation. Findings suggest that the compensation plan affects managerial style. Further, a selling oriented manager will reduce the customer orientation of his/her salespeople. Interestingly, a customer oriented managerial style does not have a significant effect on salesperson customer orientation.

INTRODUCTION

Sales research has consistently demonstrated the importance of a salesperson maintaining a "customer oriented" selling approach rather than a "salesperson oriented" selling approach (e.g. Goff et al., 1997; Saxe & Weitz, 1982). The SOCO literature (salesperson orientation versus customer orientation) has been examined in wide variety of sales settings (e.g. O'Hara et al., 1991; Siguaw et al., 1994; Williams & Attaway, 1996). This research provides support for the importance of a developing and maintaining a customer oriented sales approach. Salesperson customer orientation is related to salesperson performance and job satisfaction as well as customer satisfaction (Saxe & Weitz, 1982; Siguaw et al., 1994; Swenson & Herche, 1994).

Another topic of continuing interest in the sales management literature involves the role of the manager in providing guidance, direction, and support to customer contact marketing personnel as they operate in their boundary spanning capacity (e.g. Challagalla & Shervani, 1996; Johnston et al., 1990; Schwepker, Ferrell & Ingram, 1997). Previous studies have directly or indirectly linked manager behaviors in the work environments to a variety of desirable work related attitudes and perceptions. These include job satisfaction and reduced role stress (Babin & Boles, 1996; Kohli, 1989). One area, however, that has received relatively less attention concerns how an organization's work environment/climate influences the actual behaviors occurring within the sales encounter between outside business-to-business salespeople and their customers (Oliver & Anderson, 1994; Vitell, Rallapalli, & Singhapakdi, 1993).

Thus, previous research has demonstrated considerable interest in the topics of salesperson SOCO as well as supervisory behavior/management style. While many studies have investigated these issues, one area that has not been directly addressed is the how a salesperson's customer orientation is influenced by the sales manager's support for a customer orientation. Additionally, the effect of a firm's compensation plan on a sales manager's support for salesperson customer oriented selling has not been addressed. Therefore, this research will extend the current SOCO and

sales management literature by examining the effects of a firm's compensation plan on managerial support for a salesperson customer oriented selling. Further, it will determine how these managerial approaches affect salesperson customer orientation.

STUDY BACKGROUND: SELLING AND CUSTOMER ORIENTATION

Customer orientation is "the practice of the marketing concept at the level of the individual salesperson and customer" by providing customer satisfaction and establishing mutually beneficial long term relationships (Saxe & Weitz 1982, p. 343). On the other hand, a firm engages in selling orientation when "an organization seeks to stimulate demand for products it produces, rather than producing products in response to customer needs" (Saxe & Weitz, 1982, p.344).

A salesperson's customer orientation has been linked to several very positive outcomes in the buyer-salesperson dyad. One set of these results relates to salesperson performance from the selling firm's perspective. Customer orientation has been linked to salesperson performance in various settings (i.e. Saxe & Weitz, 1982). These include both industrial and retail settings (Dunlap, Dotson & Chambers, 1988; Swenson & Herche, 1994). Salespeople that adopt a customer oriented versus a sales oriented approach to selling appear to perform better across time.

A second set of consequences occurs in the dyadic interaction between a salesperson and his/her customer. First, customer orientation is related to relationship quality in a business-to-business sales environment (Williams & Attaway, 1996). In addition, the greater the customer orientation a salesperson exhibits toward a customer, the greater the customer satisfaction with the salesperson and indirectly with the firm and manufacturer (Goff, Boles, Bellenger, & Stojack, 1997). These results indicate the great importance that a firm should place on a salesperson that sells expensive or risky products/services adopting a customer oriented approach to the sales process. The question that remains to be answered is how to develop a customer oriented sales force?

SUPPORTIVE WORK ENVIRONMENTS

An employee's work environment is very important for two reasons. First, the work environment is one aspect of the job that is subject to considerable managerial control and is, therefore, subject to managerial intervention. Second, the work environment is antecedent to a number of important work related attitudes and behaviors.

A number of studies have linked various aspects of the work environment to role conflict and role ambiguity. For example, Teas (1983) found that supervisor support was negatively related to role conflict and role ambiguity. Other research also reports a negative relationship between supportive work environments and role conflict and role ambiguity (Kohli, 1989). In addition, there appears to be a direct, positive link between salesperson job satisfaction and support from his/her manager (Kohli, 1989). Other aspects of managerial behaviors/actions have also been found to be highly related to salesperson job satisfaction (Kohli, 1985).

Research findings regarding the importance of manager behaviors have been reported in non-sales work settings. Supervisor support and role stress (role conflict and role ambiguity) have

consistently been found to be negatively related across a wide range of work environments (i.e. Schaubroeck et al., 1989; Kirmeyer & Lin, 1987). Further, supportive work environments have consistently been found to be positively related to job satisfaction in a variety of jobs (e.g. Babin & Boles, 1996; Parkes, 1982).

In general, the effects of positively perceived work environments on employee attitudes and beliefs are overwhelmingly positive. By providing a supportive environment, a manager can help insure job satisfaction and role clarity. Increased job satisfaction and role clarity are, in turn, positively related to organizational commitment and negatively related to propensity to leave and turnover (Jolson, Dubinsky & Anderson, 1987; Terborg & Lee, 1984). Thus, supervisor support has a powerful effect on employees including salespeople. These previously reported findings suggest that if a supervisor supports a salesperson performing an action or behaving in a specified way, then the salesperson is likely to continue with that behavior.

COMPENSATION PLAN

Salesperson compensation is another of the key issues in sales force management (Moncrief & Shipp, 1997). Firms typically use compensation plans as one method to direct salesperson behavior (Churchill et al., 1997; Inc. Magazine, 1994) and provide motivation (Boyd, 1995). Unfortunately, given its importance to management and its influence on salesperson behaviors, empirical research concerning the effect of compensation plans is somewhat limited. Most of the academic literature examining this issue appears to focus either on the preferences of managers and salespeople for various types of rewards (i.e. Bellenger, Wilcox, & Ingram, 1984; Chonko, Tanner, & Weeks, 1992) or the role of incentives to achieve sales objectives (Caballero, 1988; Hastings, Kiely, & Watkins, 1988).

While the reward attractiveness literature suggests plans that may be more (less) attractive to salespeople, it provides little insight into how the plan affects behavior other than motivation. Previous studies examining compensation and/or managerial behaviors on salesperson activities have examined the role of psychological climate on the attractiveness of rewards (Tyagi, 1985), the role of compensation as it influences the performance of service providers (Evans & Grant, 1992; Gardner & Rowland, 1979) and the effect of an organization's culture on customer orientation (Williams & Attaway, 1996).

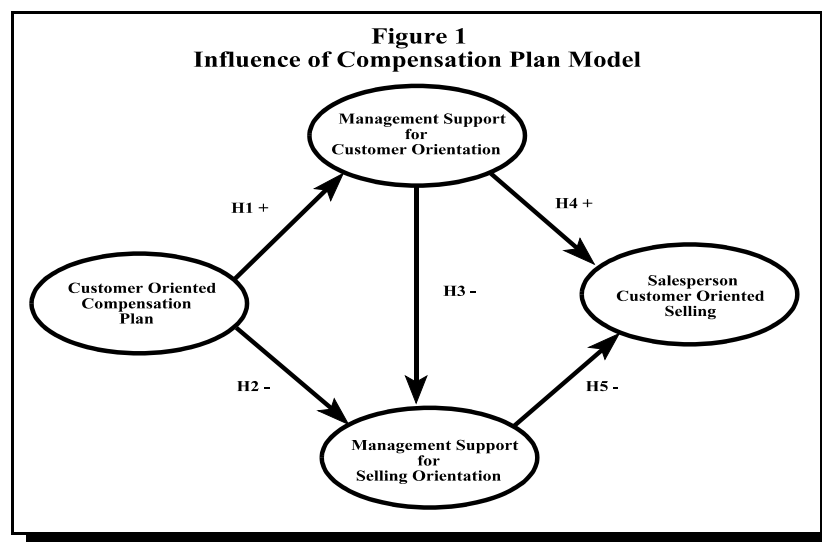
Another area of compensation research that has recently received relatively greater interest involves examining the effects of an outcome-based versus behavior-based management control system (Anderson & Oliver, 1987). Cravens et al. (1993) found that behavioral control systems are important in providing more direct control of salesperson behaviors -- which is relevant to the current study. Oliver and Anderson (1994) also examined the effects of an outcome-based versus and behavior-based control system in a sales setting. Their findings suggest that, "contrary to expectations, perceived control systems do not appear, for the most part, to affect the salesperson's behavioral strategy" (p. 60). These results indicate some conflict regarding the role of supervisory support for specific behaviors and sales force performance of those behaviors. Once again, the effect of compensation plans on manager behaviors is not explicitly examined in detail.

Even though bases of control issues have been examined with some regularity, that literature provides little support for one system being superior. Further, none of these studies explicitly examines the effect of sales manager support for a particular type of selling orientation and the effect of that support on salesperson attitudes and/or behavior. This leads to the proposed model in the current study.

MODEL

Most firms hope to use their compensation system to influence salesperson behavior -- thereby achieving important organizational goals (Churchill, Ford & Walker, 1997). However, if that system is resulting in negative or unwanted behaviors, then the organization may see unanticipated consequences of the compensation plan. Further, a manager will see the compensation system as guiding and directing his/her managerial focus. Thus, a compensation plan that is improperly targeted or imprecisely thought out may result in unwanted results in terms of salesperson behaviors relative to customers.

The model being tested in the current research can be seen in Figure 1. It is based on previous literature examining supervisory support and management control. This model proposes that the type of selling approach supported in a firm's compensation plan directly affects managerial behaviors relative to that plan. Further, these managerial behaviors directly affect salesperson customer orientation. This perspective is taken since previous research indicates that a salesperson's selling orientation-customer orientation is a behavior rather than a trait (Williams & Wiener, 1990). Specifically, we propose that a customer oriented compensation plan will be negatively related to managerial support for a selling orientation and positively related to managerial styles that support a customer oriented approach. Customer oriented management styles will be negatively related to selling oriented managerial styles. A selling oriented management style will be negatively related to salesperson customer oriented behaviors. Finally, management support for a customer oriented sales approach will be positively related to salesperson customer orientation.



SAMPLE

The study was conducted with business-to-business salespeople in one regional sales force of a Fortune 100 firm. The sponsoring firm was interested in studying the effects of the compensation system on sales manager behavior. Additionally, the firm was interested in examining the effects of the sales manager's behavior on the salesperson's use of salesperson customer oriented selling behavior when dealing with the customer.

The salespeople examined in this research worked in outside sales, selling a service to businesses. The firm administered the survey to approximately 335 salespeople. Of those, 277 completed the questionnaire. This represents a seventy-eight percent response rate. The typical salesperson for the firm had a college education and was in his/her mid-thirties. Average sales experience with the firm was slightly over three years.

MEASURES

All measures used in the study were created jointly by the firm and the researchers for the purposes of this study. While these measures do not strictly follow any existing scales, this approach was used because the firm insisted on a very short survey. The length of the survey almost certainly accounts for some part of the high response rate. All items were scored on a 1-7 response scale where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. The customer oriented compensation plan measure consisted of 2 items; the management support for customer oriented selling approach measure was composed with 5 items; the management support for selling oriented sales approach scale consisted of 5 items; and the salesperson customer oriented selling scale included 4 items.

MEASUREMENT MODEL RESULTS

Analyses were conducted using LISREL 8 in accordance with Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach. A covariance matrix, computed using PRELIS 2, was used for analyses. The correlation matrix is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1				
CORRELATION MATRIX				
	X1	X2	X3	X4
Customer Oriented Comp Plan	(.85)			
Management Support for C.O.	.49	(.89)		
Management Support for S.O.	-.56	-.76	(.73)	
Salesperson customer oriented selling	.19	.22	-.43	(.81)

Construct reliability estimates are on the diagonal.

The measurement model was analyzed using all 16 items. Results model indicated that model fit could be improved ($\chi^2(129) = 261.36, p < .01; GFI = .91; AGFI = .88; RMR = .07; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .94$). Two items were removed from the scale assessing management support for customer oriented selling approach. One item was removed from the management support for selling oriented sales approach measure, and one item was removed from the salesperson customer oriented selling scale.

The modified measurement model indicated that all remaining items performed well and were retained in the model ($\chi^2(71) = 122.94, p < .01; GFI = .94; AGFI = .91; RMR = .04; CFI = .97$). The remaining items had large and significant loadings on their latent construct, indicating convergent validity. Discriminant validity was assessed by constraining the estimated correlation parameter (ρ_{ij}) between constructs to 1.0 and performing a chi-square difference test on the values obtained for the constrained and unconstrained models (Joreskog, 1971). A significantly lower chi-square value for the unconstrained model indicates that the two constructs are not perfectly correlated and discriminant validity is achieved. Results provided strong evidence of discriminant validity among the constructs. All items indicated good scale composite reliability (see Table 1) with all items performing above the .70 level (Bagozzi & Yi 1988).

STRUCTURAL MODEL RESULTS

The results, shown in Table 2, indicate a good fit ($\chi^2(72) = 123.35, p < .01; GFI = .94; AGFI = .91; RMR = .05; CFI = .97$). We also assessed fit by examining the RMSEA. The RMSEA is a test of close fit, whereas chi-square is a test of exact fit (Browne & Cudek, 1993). The null hypothesis of close fit (RMSEA) provides a more realistic test than the null hypothesis of exact fit (Browne & Cudek, 1993). RMSEA values of about .05 or lower indicate a close fit of the model (Browne & Cudek, 1993). The structural model performs well on this fit diagnostic (RMSEA = .05; p-value = .45).

Our findings indicate four of the five hypotheses were supported. H1 was supported. It hypothesized that a customer oriented compensation plan was positively related to management support for a customer oriented selling approach ($t = 7.05$). Results indicate that a customer oriented compensation plan was negatively related to perceived to management support for a selling oriented sales approach (H2; $t = -3.55$). Managerial support for salesperson customer oriented selling also was negatively related to management support for a selling oriented sales approach (H3; $t = -6.77$). Management support for a selling oriented sales approach was negatively related to salesperson customer oriented selling (H5; $t = -4.00$). H4, which hypothesized that management support for salesperson customer oriented selling approach was positively related to salesperson customer oriented selling was not significant and in the opposite direction than expected ($t = -1.62$).

TABLE 2
STRUCTURAL MODEL RESULTS

Hypothesis	Estimate	t-value	H supported
Customer oriented comp plan Management support for customer oriented selling approach (H1)	.49	7.05	Yes
Customer oriented comp plan Management support for selling oriented sales approach (H2)	-.24	-3.55	Yes
Management support for customer oriented selling approach Management support for selling oriented sales approach (H3)	-.64	-6.77	Yes
Management support for customer oriented selling approach Salesperson customer oriented selling (H4)	-.22	-1.63	No
Management support for selling oriented sales approach Salesperson customer oriented selling (H5)	-.58	-3.98	Yes
Overall Results: $\chi^2(72) = 123.35$, $p < .01$; GFI = .94; AGFI = .91; RMR = .05; CFI = .97, RMSEA = .05 with $p = .45$			

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The degree of customer orientation that a salesperson exhibits has been linked to both salesperson performance (in various settings) and to customer satisfaction. Saxe and Weitz (1982) suggest that purchasers involved in risky situations where failure may be critical to the firm are likely to be particularly motivated by a salesperson exhibiting a customer orientation. Research supports that view since it indicates that business-to-business customers and big-ticket retail buyers respond to a salesperson's customer oriented selling approach (Dunlap et al., 1988; Michaels & Day, 1985; Saxe & Weitz, 1982). For these reasons, salesperson customer orientation is quite important.

If customer orientation is important to a firm's well being, then finding ways of fostering salesperson customer oriented selling is, likewise, very important. Previous studies have shown how a firm's market orientation (Siguaw, 1994) and culture (Williams & Attaway, 1996) can influence a salesperson's customer orientation. This study adds to this body of literature by indicating how a compensation plan affects management behaviors which, in turn, can influence salesperson customer oriented selling approaches.

Results from this study indicate that the compensation plan used by a firm has a strong influence on the selling style that sales manager's support. Specifically, a customer-oriented compensation plan is positively related to managers encouraging a customer-oriented selling

approach by their salespeople and negatively related to a manager emphasizing a selling oriented style of selling. Furthermore, managers who emphasize a selling orientation among their salespeople are more likely to reduce customer orientation among those salespeople.

Interestingly, while managers who encourage a selling oriented approach among salespeople are likely to see a reduction in customer oriented behavior on the part of salespeople, managers emphasizing customer orientation may not see a significant increase in salesperson customer oriented selling among their sales personnel. Perhaps salespeople in this business-to-business sample are customer oriented and, therefore, management emphasis does little to increase that orientation. At the same time, however, management actions supporting a selling orientation will reduce salesperson customer orientation.

An alternative explanation to explain these findings involves the role of the business-to-business customer. Perhaps, customers in this sales setting generally expect and/or demand a customer orientation -- resulting in salesperson customer oriented selling being the default approach unless otherwise influenced by management support for selling oriented sales approach. If that is the case, managers need to be aware of what customers in their market expect regarding the salesperson's role. Failure to take into account the customer's perspective may reduce the effectiveness of incorrectly targeted management efforts designed to stimulate sales.

This study suggests several areas for future research. First, additional linkages are needed to establish how managers can foster customer oriented behaviors among salespeople. Another question involves the role of leadership among sales managers. Do salespeople expect the manager to "practice what he/she preaches?" Also, further research is needed to clearly delineate the role of the compensation plan in fostering management styles and directing salesperson behavior. Is the compensation plan typically linked only indirectly, through the sales manager, to salesperson activities? Or, is the compensation plan more centrally linked to the activities and behaviors of the sales force?

While this study is based on a fairly large business-to-business sample, the study has several limitations. The measures used in the research, while psychometrically sound, were created specifically for this study. The use of established scales, rather than those created specifically for the study, would make the results more directly comparable with other research examining customer orientation and management behaviors. Also, one cannot be certain that these results are generalizable to other sales settings. For example, would a similar study of business-to-business salespeople that sell products produce similar results. That question cannot be answered by the current research. All that we can say is that in this study, the compensation plan drove management behavior and that some management behaviors are directly related to a salesperson use of a salesperson customer oriented selling approach.

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IS THERE A RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY TYPES AND INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS?

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ABSTRACT

Although no absolute exists, it appears that within undergraduate marketing and business teacher education programs, a knowledge of student personality type could be a useful tool in helping to direct the training of pre-service teachers. For example, given that this study found relationships between personality types and profession (i.e., marketing vs. business), information on an undergraduate's MBTI personality type might well serve as an effective counseling tool. Although students should never be discouraged from entering the field of business education solely on the basis of personality type, it is an advantage to all concerned to have a better understanding, in advance, of the nature of the career and the professionals with whom they would be working.

INTRODUCTION

Recent research in personality assessment has demonstrated that certain types of personalities are attracted to specific types of professions (Sipe, 1988). During the past decade, the typological approach to ascertaining personality influences has produced a prodigious number of studies based on Jungian personality types (Watson, 1990). Retrospective studies using the Myers.-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) to determine the psychological type preference of people in a number of different professions indicate that individuals choose careers which are in keeping with their type preferences. Preliminary research in the area of teaching strategies and teacher psychological type indicated that teacher type does affect the way teachers teach and what they prefer to teach (Caryl, 1976; Lawrence, 1979; Sipe, 1988; Weychert, 1975).

The purpose of this study was to (1) examine the personality type of secondary marketing education teacher-coordinators (SMETCs) to ascertain the influence of personality type on the choice of instructional methods in marketing education, and (2) to examine the relationship between personality types and instructional methods with selected ancillary variables (subjects taught, gender, profession, age, level of education, and years of teaching).

INSTRUMENTATION

Two research instruments were utilized for the collection of data in this study. First, Form G of the MBTI was administered to determine the personality type of the SMETCs in the study. The

MBTI, developed by Isabel Briggs Myers and Katherine Briggs, is a self-reported, forced choice indicator designed to assess personality type and is based on Carl Jung's personality type theory.

Second, a semantic differential scale (SDS) was developed to determine the instructional preferences of the SMETCs. The scale was patterned after Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1971) and Berns (1978). After an expert jury review and consensus, the following eighteen instructional methods were included: audio-visual, business games, career investigation, case study, class discussions, computer assisted instruction, demonstration, field trips, guest speakers, lecture, oral reports, problem solving, projects, role playing, school store, video taping, workbooks, exercises, and youth group activities.

Population sample.

The population sample for the study was chosen from among secondary marketing teacher-coordinators and business educators in the State of New Jersey using a stratified random selection procedure. From the 375 individuals surveyed, 257 (or 69%) completed all required materials. Personality type and preferences for instructional methods were obtained from these participating individuals.

Research methodology

Collection of data was accomplished through the use of a mail survey based on Dillman's Total Design Method (1978). After permission was obtained to reproduce and distribute the MBTI, a survey packet consisting of a cover letter, background survey, a machine scorable answer sheet, the SDS, self-addressed stamped envelope, along with the MBTI was sent to all 375 members of the sample. Three follow-up procedures were implemented in an attempt to increase response rate, which resulted in a 69% response rate, or 257 respondents.

Personality types were generated through an analysis of the data collected in this study by the Center for Application of Personality Type in Gainesville, Florida. This center is the headquarters of MBTI research.

Data for scores from the semantic differential scales were hand-scored and calculated. Through the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences for Windows (SPSS+ for Microcomputers, release 4.0), statistical tests were performed on the data from both the MBTI and SDS. Descriptive and comparative analyses were made. Throughout this study a decision rule (i.e., level of significance) was used at the accepted convention of $p \leq .05$. These procedures were used as the basis for the acceptance or rejection of the primary and ancillary hypotheses.

To examine relationships (1) the independent variable of SMETC personality type and the dependent variable of SMETC preferences for instructional methods and (2) the independent variable of personality type and other dependent variables (subjects taught, gender, profession, age, level of education and years of teaching experience), were examined with an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). ANCOVA procedures were also applied to examine relationships between the independent variables of subjects taught, gender, profession age, level of education, and years of teaching experience and the dependent variable of preferences for instructional methods. Where

statistical significance was achieved, Pearson Product Moment Correlations (r) were computed to determine the magnitude and direction of these correlations.

Although not originally set forth in the proposal, this study sought to determine whether this analysis would hold true for the entire survey population (i.e., all 257 participants; the 91 SMETCs considered in the hypotheses as well as the additional 166 business education teachers). After each hypothesis, additional analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were performed on the entire population as a basis for comparison with the SMETC group.

RESULTS

Among SMETCS, there were found to be no tested differences between their personality types and their choices for instructional methods with Hypothesis (H0), accordingly, being accepted. While some of the demographic and personality data collected as part of this primary hypothesis supports findings reported in the professional literature, the actual relationship between personality type and instructional preferences directly contrast with much of the research literature. The relationship between personality types among SMETCs and their instructional preferences was determined not to be statistically significant at the .05 decision level.

Regarding the actual distribution of personality type, it was found that the ESTJ (Extraverted, Sensing, Thinking, Judging) was the most prevalent personality type among SMETCs. Thirty individuals registered this personality typology, thus accounting for almost a full third of this total group. ESFJs (Extraverted, Sensing, Feeling, Judging) and ENFJs (Extraverted, Intuitive, Feeling, Judging) and INTJs (Introverted, Intuitive, Thinking, Judging) constituted the next largest groups at 9%, 7%, and 7%, respectively. This is consistent with the findings of previous research into the personality types of SMETCs (Elias, 1990; Plessman, 1985).

It is interesting to note that the personalities of the 91 individuals classified as SMETCs in this study formed almost a true bell curve in the frequency distribution of reported MBTI personality types. It can therefore be concluded with a reasonably high degree of confidence that the presence of such a large percentage of ESTJs did not skew or in any other manner bias the results found herein.

According to the theoretical framework of Carl Jung (1989) which was put forth as the basis of this study, it was postulated that every person has a natural preference for either extroversion or introversion. He further provided a prototype scheme of personality preferences among which could be based extensive explanations of why normal individuals perceive and respond to information and/or situations differently. Therefore, based on a review of the literature (Carlyn, 1976; Lawrence & DeNovellis, 1974; Luh, 1990, Story, 1972; and Williams, 1972), it was hypothesized that the SMETCS studied were, in fact, likely to demonstrate instructional preferences based on Jung's personality type theory.

However, this was demonstrated not to be the case. The relationship between personality types among SMETCs and their instructional preferences was determined not to be statistically significant at the .05 decision level.

There are several possible explanations for this apparent contradiction to the literature found in this study. The first of these is methodological and refers to the possibility that a Type II error

may have been committed (i.e., the null hypothesis, H₀, was accepted when it should, in fact, have been rejected). To investigate this prospect., a power analysis was performed in conjunction with the SPSS Analysis of Covariance statistical test.

According to Roscoe (1969):

Power is defined as the probability that it will reject the hypothesis when the hypothesis is false. The power of a test plus the probability of a Type II error is equal to one (p. 157).

Using the SPSS default of observed power at the 05 level, the procedure was determined to have a power of .98. This interpretation is therefore dismissed.

A second possible explanation here may be related to the instrumentation. For example, the eighteen instructional methods ultimately used in this study were the result of careful consideration by a panel of seven expert jury members. These individuals were asked to select those methods that were believed to be the most appropriate for use in business and marketing education classroom instruction. It may be that either (1) some methods chosen by the jury were not necessarily appropriate for current instructional use by the teachers studied; or (2) some appropriate methods were not included where in fact, they should have been.

Another rival explanation may be that another major variable is intervening in the statistical outcome of H₀ and H₁. Included among these potential influencing factors are student learning styles (McCaulley & Natter, 1974; Weychert, 1975), administration personality type (Von Fange, 1961; Wright, 1966), or grade level (Hoffman, 1974; Keirsey & Bates, 1984; Morales, 1975). These are just a few examples of areas which are prime candidates for future study.

Although unlikely, due to the large volume of research already using Jung's theoretical framework, it may well be that this personality theory may not be the most appropriate basis for examining the variables under consideration in this particular study. It is also possible that this particular population serves to underscore certain weaknesses in the theoretical framework. For example, Willis (1984) stated that given the lack of empirical data on the subject, use of the Jungian theory with predominately minority or blue collar populations could pose potential validity problems. Since this study did not seek demographic data on race or socio-economic status, it cannot ultimately be known if this factor was a consideration in the outcome.

DISCUSSION OF VARIABLES

Subjects Taught.

Although there were no tested personality differences among SMETCs based on subjects taught, teachers demonstrated some distinct instructional preferences. Field trips and lectures achieved meaningful differences between the two groups (i.e., teachers of marketing courses only and teachers of both marketing and business courses).

Given the practical nature of the curriculum in marketing education, it is understandable why field trips would be so prevalent among the marketing teachers. This is consistent with the findings appearing in the literature (Doneth, 1972; Harms, Stehr, & Harris, 1972). In fact, Berns' (1978) study found field trips to be one of the most popular choices of these teachers.

It also is not surprising that the lecture method was found to be so pervasive a choice among the same individuals. Current estimates are that upward of 85 % of all instruction in schools is delivered via the lecture method (Johnson & Johnson, 1985). However, it does make sense given that certain skill oriented office subjects (e.g., stenography, keyboarding, etc.) would be less inclined toward lecture.

An interesting explanation for the lack of tested differences in personality types vis-a-vis their instructional preferences may have something to do with the nature of teacher assignments and certification in the State of New Jersey. SMETCS, by the nature of their certification, are legally empowered to teach both marketing and business courses. On the other hand, business teachers are disallowed from teaching anything but business courses. Given declining enrollments in business education and its accompanying staff reductions-in-force, many marketing teachers have, of late, experienced a significant change in their teaching assignments. Therefore, there are likely to be marketing teachers who are actually teaching one or more (or in some cases all) non-marketing courses. This may have had a potential impact on the research outcomes associated with this ancillary variable.

Gender.

Similar to the ancillary variable of subjects taught, gender proved to have a non-statistically significant relationship with personality among SMETCS. Within this same group, lectures achieved significance, although no other instructional preference did so. Interestingly, when the same SPSS procedures were applied to the personality's of the larger group (i.e., SMETCs and other non-SMETCs), the outcomes based on gender here proved that a statistically significant relationship did exist.

In looking at this relationship, a possible explanation for this significance is the composition of the population. Traditionally, business education has attracted females. There could be a number of reasons for this: (1) the teaching profession attracts females in large numbers; (2) traditional office education (e.g., typewriting, stenography, office procedures, etc.) mainly prepared female students for occupations that were predominantly occupied by women (secretaries, clerical aides, etc.), hence, the field attracted females to become business educators; (3) the personality types found within the larger population tend to have a larger number of females than males. Consistent with this was the fact that within this study female business educators outnumbered males. The research sample was predominantly female.

Stereotypes about appropriate and inappropriate occupations for women and men encourage sex-typical occupational choices by affecting workers' aspirations, sex image, identity, and commitment (Nix, 1990, p. 42). Men and women perform different work in our society (Nix, 1990). Gender influences occupational interests such that different patterns of career choice results (Nix,

1990). It is possible that this type of sex differentiation was the underlying cause of the statistical significance found in this area.

In 1980, 48% of all women worked in occupations that were at least 80% female and 71% of all men were employed in occupations that were at least 80% male (Reskin & Hartman, 1986). The predominantly female occupations include many secretarial/clerical occupations. Conversely, this study stated that there would be no tested differences in preferences for instruction methods between male and female SMETCs. Among SMETCs, the lecture method was the only instructional preference achieving a significant result. Baker (1977) found that instructors who preferred to teach business mathematics, office procedures, and shorthand were more favorable toward the lecture method than the other teachers. He also found that male and female business teachers differ only slightly in their attitudes toward the teaching activities. In addition, the literature supports the use of a variety of teaching techniques in marketing education classrooms (Berns, 1978). It may be that this group did not show a strong preference for any one method because they use them all with the same degree of enthusiasm. Another possible explanation is that teacher training programs and texts strongly encourage the use of a wide variety of methods. This inculcated professional value may, in fact, transcend some gender differences.

When comparing gender and instructional preferences, again within the larger group of SMETCs and non-SMETCs, gender revealed significant relationships with field trips, role playing and youth group activities. Baker (1977) revealed that field trips had the highest mean score of both female and male business teachers. Given that business education prepares students for the real world of work, role playing and field trips provide practical experiences for students which appear to be an obvious choice as it entails lifelike situations. Daughtery and Ristau (1991) stated that role playing techniques are becoming increasingly popular in schools. Finally, it is no surprise that youth group activities were found to be significant. It is generally accepted that a component of quality business or marketing programs includes youth group activities such as student organizations (Crawford, 1967).

SMETCs versus non-SMETCs.

A significant relationship between personality type and profession (i.e., marketing or business educator) was shown to exist among subjects. As Osipow (1983) notes, "ordinarily it is assumed that occupational membership results from personality factors rather than the reverse" (p. 126). Many studies (Little, 1972; Olson; 1967; Plessman, 1985) gave support to the uniqueness of the SMETC position and SMETC personality. Swenson (1976), for example, found that business and marketing teacher candidates differed slightly in personality type and pattern. Both Elias & Elias (1990) and Plessman (1985) found the marketing education personnel they studied to have a higher proportion of the ESTJ and ESFJ personality types. These same two types were the most prevalent in this study as well.

The business educator personality type has also undergone considerable investigation (Schutte, 1967; Vogt & Holder, 1988; Waner & Echnacht, 1993). These researchers found that business educators are different from other secondary classroom instructors and exhibit some common personality characteristics among themselves. In their study of business teachers, Waner

and Echemacht (1993) found the ISTJ and ISFJ to be the most prevalent personality type from their sample. In looking at the entire population of the current study, after ESTJs (23%) and ESFJs (16%), the next largest populations were ISTJs (14%) and ISFJs (13%). This is consistent with the findings of Waner and Echemacht (1993). Myers (1990) suggests that an individual's combination of perception and judgment will significantly affect the kinds of work chosen and enjoyed.

In addition, when examining preferences for instructional method based on profession (SMETC or business educator), four methods achieved statistical significance. In ascending order, they were field trips, role playing, youth group activities, and business games. Again, the same possible explanations for significance are offered. Business games are significant as well because they may represent microcosms of some element of the larger environment. Once again, due to the practical nature of business and marketing education, business games fit into the scheme of realistic methods (e.g., role playing and field trips as opposed to workbooks, exercises, and note taking) which appear to be popular with business and marketing teachers.

Age.

The statistical data collected in this study showed that age was unrelated to either the personality types or instructional preferences of SMETCs. This is somewhat contradictory to the results found by Baker (1977). In his study using a slightly different population (e.g., SMETCs and other business teachers), it was found that pronounced differences existed between age groups and preferences for small group work, guest speakers, simulations, role playing and field trips. Teachers under thirty had more favorable attitudes than older teachers toward the teaching methods of simulation, small group work, and games.

As with this study's ancillary variables which compared the variables with the larger populations, the audio-visual, field trips, and role playing methods achieved statistical significance. This is likely due to the fact that these methods are considered important to many prominent business educators (Calhoun, 1993; Daughtrey & Ristau, 1991; Schrag & Poland, 1987).

Level of Education.

The data collected in this study showed both instructional method and personality type to be related to level of education. Field trips again achieved significance among both SMETCs and the larger population. In looking at the larger group, certain trends provide valuable insights. Audio-visuals, career investigation, role playing, youth group activities, and business games all achieved significance. As business and marketing educators advance in their educational careers, exposure to different methods may cause an acceptance of these methods within their teaching repertoire. These five methods are cited in many business education teaching methods books (Calhoun, 1993; Schrag & Poland, 1987) as well as in SMETCs' instructional books (Crawford, 1967; Meyer & Logan, 1971). Berns' (1978) study also found that teacher-coordinators rated the instructional methods of field trips, audio-visual, and simulation games very highly.

In attempting to ascertain the meaningfulness of the significant relationship that existed between personality and level of education, the lack of literature in this area proved to be a serious

handicap. Waner & Echemacht (1993) stated that a person's personality type and preferences become stronger with education or experience; however, a person may work at developing strengths in a subordinate preference. Nevertheless, the dominant preference usually remain dominant. It may be that this would be an a fruitful area for additional research.

Years of Teaching.

Consistent with the variables of age and gender, professional experience among SMETCs, defined as years of teaching, was determined not to have a direct relationship with the independent variable of personality type. However, numerous instructional preferences did achieve significance. Very little literature is available on the relationship between SMETCs personality type and years of teaching experience. In one study on marketing teachers, Plessman (1985) found a significant, but slight, positive correlation between length of teaching (both total years and total years in marketing education) and satisfaction (intrinsic and general) level of marketing teachers. Field trips, once again, proved to be significant between personality type and this last ancillary variable of years of teaching among both SMETCs and the larger population. In addition, career investigation, role playing, and youth group activities achieved significance among the SMETCs. This study's results echoed Baker (1977) who found role playing and simulation to have significance with SMETCs and preferences for instructional methods. He determined that role playing, debates, and simulation were used primarily as developmental activities, while field trips were used mainly as a culminating activity.

IMPLICATIONS FOR BUSINESS AND MARKETING EDUCATION

The underlying assumption of this study was that SMETCs' personality type was a significant determinant in their preferences for instructional methods. The findings gave little credence to this assumption. However, the results of this investigation suggest that those who are interested in understanding SMETCs' personality types and their attitudes towards instructional methods can benefit from understanding these variables.

Pre-service Teachers.

Although no absolute exists, it appears that within undergraduate marketing and business teacher education programs, a knowledge of student personality type could be a useful tool in helping to direct the training of pre-service teachers. For example, given that this study found relationships between personality types and profession (i.e, marketing vs. business), information on an undergraduate's MBTI personality type might well serve as an effective counseling tool. Although students should never be discouraged from entering the field of business education solely on the basis of personality type, it is an advantage to all concerned to have a better understanding, in advance, of the nature of the career and the professionals with whom they would be working.

Additionally, given that specific instructional methods were found to be preferred among certain groups, teacher education courses should consider emphasizing these techniques. Methods

such as field trips, role playing, simulations, audio-visual, and business games need to be given greater prominence within teacher education curricula.

In-Service Teachers.

An understanding of personality type theory has potential for usefulness for administrators in the teacher selection process. Given the strong evidence presented herein between the relationship between personality and profession an informed administrator might well be able to avoid a "mis-match" between teacher candidate and teaching assignment. This could be used as another tool in aiding the placement and preference of the teacher. This also has important implications for the creation of individual teacher schedules. Some extraverted teachers may prefer different non-instructional activities (hall duty, assemblies, school store) and some introverted may prefer others (study hall, homeroom, supervised internships). This information about personality type for the teacher and administrator could open of a dialogue concerning preferences for courses taught and activities. Both persons could benefit from the knowledge of personality types.

This same relationship may be helpful when administrators are faced with the prospect of evaluating teachers and recommending professional improvement plans. This is not intended to suggest that the personality type of teachers be used as an evaluation tool for promotions, merit, etc. If it appears that certain business or marketing teachers are experiencing difficulty with various instructional methods or with various subject areas, knowledge of personality type and preferences for instructional methods could be helpful in developing professional improvement plans.

This knowledge of personality type could further aid in-service teachers in understanding their own natural personality types and their preferences for instructional methods. This added insight may cause them to become more cognizant as to why certain instructional tasks seem "more natural" than others. Consciousness of personality type also has implications for the selection of the professional in-service programs offered by employers as well as training programs.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

In this study, data have been presented, which adds to the body of knowledge in describing the basic personality types of SMETCs in New Jersey. While this is a good start toward achieving some of the goals discussed previously, substantially more research needs to be conducted. In order that any potential bias within this study be accounted for, it is recommended that a replication of this study, with the same population, be undertaken.

Ideally, this replication would also take place with other populations, For example, this study might be replicated using a different academic discipline such as mathematics or science. Another direction could use a different vocational profession such as home economics or industrial arts. Another variation of this study might be one in which other, or a larger variety, of instructional methods are considered. Further, given that this study only looked at preferences, not at usage, it would be interesting to examine the actual (as opposed to preferred) instructional activities of the teachers.

Research should also be developed that replicates this study but utilizes other covariates not considered here. Some examples might include socioeconomic status, geographic location (i.e., urban-suburban-rural), type of teacher training institution (research vs. teaching), and grade level (e.g., elementary versus secondary). Further study is also recommended using the semantic differential technique. This research tool is an effective measurement technique in business and marketing education attitudinal research and should be expanded as appropriate.

Finally, renewed interest in the teaching and learning process occurring on a national level has reminded us that “the history of education has been concerned with who teachers of the young are and what they do” (Ligon, 1985, p. 7). As Damisch (1990) reminds us,

Teaching is an art and a science. The research indicates that both what and how you teach makes a difference. The person, and his or her style and personal characteristics, must be effectively combined with methods and strategies (p. 24).

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