A PERFORMANCE-CENTERED APPROACH TO MARKETING EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

This paper suggests that the metaphor of dramatic performance provides the marketing educator with conceptual tools that enhance his or her ability to engage students in active participation in their own marketing education. The first part of the paper places differing approaches to teaching marketing in the context of the communication process of sender and receiver. The second part of the develops the concept of a performance centered approach to marketing education as an organizing principle to improve sender and receiver based approaches.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing Educators face an increasingly complex task in the classroom. Declining budgets, reductions in support staff, and growing demands to create value added education combine to challenge the marketing educator to enhance his/her performance as an instructor. Further, the needs of marketing students, especially undergraduates, to master a growing body of knowledge and technology require that educators explore new ways to organize and deliver marketing education (De Los Santos 1993; Viswanathan 1993). This article offers an organizing principle for marketing education – the concept of dramatic performance – as an organizing metaphor to assist marketing educators in meeting the changing demands of the education marketplace.

Performance as a metaphor for educational practice has been adopted by other fields (Long and HopKins 1982). Although based in part upon dramaturgical perspectives of human interaction developed by anthropologists and literary critics, performance-oriented marketing education does not require that educators conceive of their classrooms as theaters or staged dramas. Rather, performance-centered marketing allows educators a conceptual context for organizing and preparing course instruction in marketing in a manner that exploits the unique medium of information exchange that exists in the classroom setting. As discussed here, the dynamics of the classroom emphasize different elements of the communication process of information exchange than more traditional approaches to marketing education. An analysis of those dynamics offered below identifies a context metaphorically similar to dramatic performance. Further, the performance-centered approach encourages the development of conceptual and problem-solving skills that are often difficult to obtain under more traditional approaches to marketing education.

To understand the value and application of performance-centered marketing, the rest of this paper describes how differing approaches to marketing education emphasize different aspects of the communication and information exchange process. In seeking to assist educators in taking advantage of the unique dynamics of classroom lecture situations, the paper develops a descriptive approach for implementing performance-based teaching methods in marketing courses. The paper concludes with a discussion of the implications of this approach for marketing education.

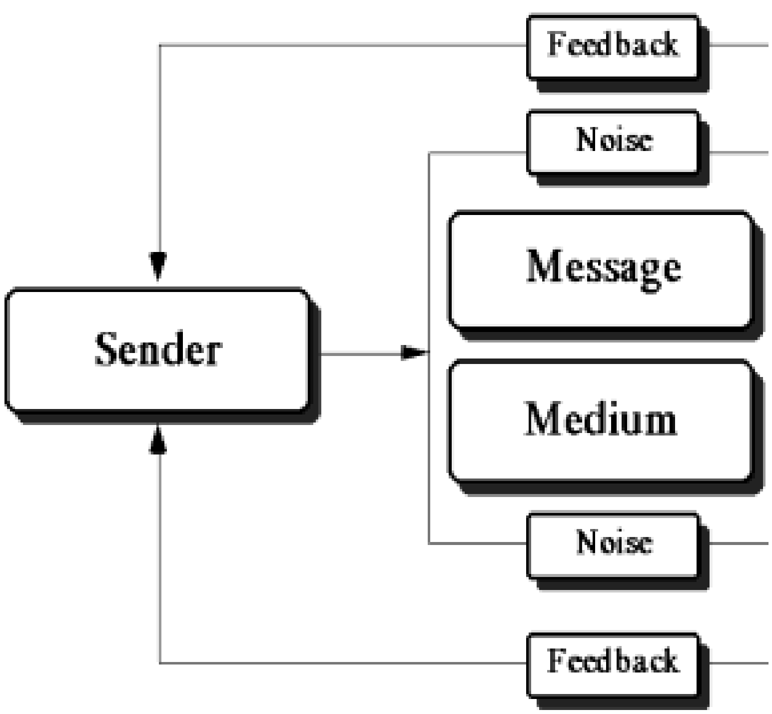
MARKETING EDUCATION AND COMMUNICATION PROCESSES

Definition of Terms

To understand how a performance centered approach to marketing education differs from other approaches it is useful to describe the variety of practices used in marketing education in terms of their relative emphasis of the components of the information exchange process. As discussed in nearly all marketing principles textbooks, information exchange in marketing practice or education consists of participating in a communication process that involves receivers and senders encoding and decoding messages through a variety of media (e.g., Kotler and Armstrong 1991, p. 423). A simplified schematic of this process is illustrated in Figure 1.

One way of describing how marketing educators teach is to identify which aspects of the communication model are emphasized or featured by the methods the instructor uses. While all instructors normally utilize teaching methods that take advantage of each element of the communication process, it is usually possible to determine one element that is functionally more important to the instructor than the others. For example, if an instructor considers the key element of instruction to be his or her lectures, we might identify that approach to marketing education as sender-centered. Even though the instructor utilizes a textbook and may take advantage of visual aids such as films and transparencies, such an approach bases the value of the education delivered upon the quality of the unique lecture created by the instructor. While the communication process affords an almost infinite variety of possible terms to describe marketing education processes, this paper suggests that most approaches to marketing education as tra-

FIGURE 1
THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS



ditionally practiced can be categorized as either sender-centered or receiver-centered. Each category is described in detail below.

Sender Centered

The central role of the instructor in the learning process is recognized by Porter and McKibben in their survey of the relative emphasis of teaching versus research in American Schools of Business (Porter and McKibben 1988). As suggested above, sender-centered approaches to marketing education emphasize the role of the instructor in the communication process. Conceptually, this approach is grounded in the belief that years of study, experience, and preparation on the part of the instructor have produced an individual uniquely qualified to educate marketing students. Whether the result of formal study or years of experience in business or both, instructors are seen as the key resource of effective marketing education under this approach. This perspective has both face and construct validity. It makes sense that those most experienced bring the greatest number and quality of resources to bear on the problems of marketing education. Further, many aspects of marketing education and practice, such as statistical modeling, require extensive preparation on the part of the user. Under this approach, marketing education is designed to emphasize or feature the sender's characteristics and judgment by placing him or her at the center of attention in the classroom. Thus, the sender-centered approach would likely involve selection of a textbook based upon the idiosyncratic preferences of the instructor and utilize extensive lecture notes to illustrate, enhance, and/or augment the text in lecture. Instructors who embody this approach are likely to be perceived as wise and learned scholars, researchers, and teachers whose opinions about marketing are valued as much as the key concepts and principles of the course themselves.

It is precisely this unique perspective that also causes students to seek out a particular instructor based upon reputation and word-of-mouth discussion. An instructor who is perceived to be differentially qualified and prepared to share his or her experiences with students at all levels creates a competitive advantage for their business school. And of course, many schools advertise such faculty and reward them with endowed chairs. The endowment not only provides competitive incentive for developing and attracting uniquely qualified faculty, it also provides something of a "brand" effect for potential students. For example, a student at Northwestern University may not know yet of the professional reputation of Philip Kotler, but as the S.C. Johnson & Son Distinguished Professor of International Marketing, Professor Kotler is, in effect, "branded" with a surrogate and external referent of value that helps students distinguish the unique sender-centered value of taking his class.

While the sender-centered approach is viable for enhancing the value of a marketing education, it is susceptible to a number potential drawbacks about the communication and dissemination of information revealed in the communication model. For while it is true that gifted and talented instructors enhance the potential of a student to receive an excellent marketing education, other factors beyond the control of the instructor are at work. For example, the abilities of the instructor must be considered in the context of the abilities of the students, the state of technology used to convey information, and the dynamics of the translation of the instructor's personal knowledge into the public context of the lecture situation itself. If it is sometimes true that the old adage, "Those that can't do, teach," is applicable, it is also sometimes the case that "those that can do, can't teach." This is a gross exaggeration of course, but it reminds us that knowledge alone cannot guarantee the success of a marketing education program. It is a necessary, but not sufficient, ingredient of a strategic perspective on marketing education.

To be fair, it is also the case that sender ability cannot always overcome receiver limitations. Some students may be less able or less prepared to take advantage of a distinctly competent and experienced professor. Even more likely, students may be limited by other commitments, such as the constraints of a full time job or a family to care for, to process fully those unique benefits provided by the instructor. For example, a marketing manager at McDonalds' Corporation seeking an MBA at Northwestern, might simply have too little time available to give to study to get all that Professor Kotler can offer. Under such conditions, a receiver-centered approach may seem more attractive.

Receiver Centered

In part because of the limitations inherent in a sender-centered approach to marketing education, some instructors and even whole departments have adopted a receiver-centered approach. Under this perspective, the talents, abilities, and limitations of the real or hypothetical student are weighed as the key element in planning any given marketing course. Often, instructors utilizing this approach attempt to design marketing instruction according to universal principles of learning. For example, learning theory tells us that retention and retrieval of information is often a function of how information is processed and stored when the student first comes in contact with it (Bandura 1977). Accordingly, we design lists with seven plus or minus two elements, with five elements or steps being optimal. In marketing education, many researchers have recognized the importance of adapting pedagogy to the needs and constraints of receivers (Chickering and Gamon 1987; Clow and Watcher 1996). Under the communication model, information is encoded in anticipation of the limits for decoding believed to be operating in the student. For example, a marketing instructor utilizing the receiver-centered approach might adopt a textbook purported to be written for a certain "level of student" versus the content of the textbook per se. This is the rationale for "smaller" versions of marketing principles or marketing management textbooks. Similarly, the selection of essay or multiple choice tests would be based upon the anticipated ability of the students to perform better on one kind of instrument rather than the other.

It should not be construed that use of a receiver-centered approach is relegated to situations in which the students are perceived as less prepared or less able academically than their counterparts taking marketing under the sender-centered approach. Receiver-centered approaches can and are used to deliver valuable experiential learning that simulates real-world business practices. For example, Graham, Graham, and Whiting (1997) use collaborative testing in the marketing principles class to help build the group problem solving skills needed in business. This receiver-centered approach builds real-world skills based upon student action rather than instructor information.

Receiver-centered approaches, like sender-centered approaches, afford the marketing educator some advantages over other organizing principles. The desire to present information in a manner most likely to be used by the receiver is perhaps the most laudable element of this approach. But receiver-centered approaches also have limitations. For example, planning and executing a marketing class or program based upon the abilities of the receiver discounts the potential of the learning process itself to improve those abilities. This subtly works against the goals of education as it enacts a program that does not explicitly seek to improve the quality of how students learn but only attempts to increase the quantity of knowledge they possess at a given quality level. For example, a marketing instructor may use open-book tests to build confidence in students perceived to be under-prepared for the rigors of traditional testing. But this practice may prevent those same students from ever taking their studies to the next step of internalization. Moreover, receiver-centered approaches must rely on the decoding schema of the student in the conveying of meaning. This places too great a responsibility for interpretation on the learner.

Some instructors utilizing the receiver-centered approach may emphasize the textbook as the primary vehicle for conveying marketing information to the student. This variation offers some powerful advantages to the instructor. First, knowledge creation and dissemination in our culture is based upon principles of learning derived from literate information technology (Ong 1982). That is, we literally think in terms of rules of semiotic rules of meaning and convey that meaning largely through the possibilities created by rules of grammar and syntax. This is quite a different manner of communicating and processing information than other forms of meaning-formation, such as picture-based associations (Edell and Staelin 1983). Besides taking advantage of this technology, emphasizing the text allows instructors to provide students with an enormous quantity of information complete with high quality detailed explanations in the textbook. Considering the amount of terminology, definitions, discussion of concepts, and examples provided in any given marketing text, this approach grants the student access to a relatively portable and inexpensive resource of marketing information.

As suggested, both sender-centered and receiver-centered approaches to marketing education afford instructors positive benefits. Both approaches also have limitations. For marketing educators, a perspective that leverages the strengths of both sender-centered and receiver-centered approaches while not incurring their limitations is desirable.

PERFORMANCE-BASED TEACHING METHODS

The communication model illustrated above places the sender and receiver approaches on ends of a continuum. One way of thinking about these locations is that marketing knowledge tends to reside in one or the other of the "ends" of the communication process. But marketing is a dynamic discipline, subject to the ebb and flow of competitive circumstance. A dynamic approach to marketing education should seek to locate the learning of marketing within a process of exchange inside the communication model, not as residing primarily in one end of the process or the other.

Because performances feature an interaction between senders and receivers, the performance-centered approach emphasizes the element of the medium of transmission in the communication process. Performances are events that exist ephemerally in time and combine both the content being performed (in this case, marketing terms and concepts) with actors or participants in the context of the performance itself. In the case of the marketing class or course, the actors include both student and instructor, although the instructor may play several roles. Planning for the class and administering it outside of lecture places the instructor in the roles of producer and director. In the lecture itself, each actor has a well-defined role to play; students expect to learn from the instructor who in turn agrees to share his or her knowledge as best they can to help the students fulfill their roles. Comparison to dramatic plays are natural of course, although it is more accurate to think of a play as but one kind of human performance.

Actual drama is a presented performance where the audience participates only virtually and imaginatively. In marketing classes, audience participation can be a viable and actual part of the "performance" of learning marketing ideas and concepts. If instructors adopt a performance-centered approach as their organizing principle, then they are more likely to build in ways of facilitating continued exchange between senders and receivers in their course design, regardless of whether they use a sender-centered or receiver-centered approach as the basis of their course organization.

For example, consider the sender-centered approach where the lecture is an expression of the sender's knowledge. Under the performance approach, the marketing lecture by contrast is an evolving performance in which the "actors" work through their roles and by the choices they make in applying marketing concepts, help define those roles further. Instead of acting the role as a one-way communicator of her or his knowledge, the performance-centered lecturer anticipates where and how discussion should take place. A simple example is inserting questions into lecture to remind the instructor that at this point two way interaction is desirable.

For the receiver-centered approach, the performance metaphor can also remind the instructor to design in the necessity for two-way interaction. For example, a class project under a traditional receiver-centered approach may feature an end of term paper and class presentation. Adopting a performance orientation, the instructor redesigns the project to feature quarterly updates of progress, provides written feedback to samples of student writing, perhaps even meets with the group before the presentation to coach them on aspects of their current level of performance before their final graded performance is presented. The project then becomes a performance that is rehearsed throughout the semester with the instructor becoming a director of the student actors – but not a substitute for their final demonstration of how well they have internalized the lessons of rehearsal.

On the simplest level, a performance orientation helps increase student-instructor interaction. On a higher level, the performance in class begins a life-long process of practicing the application of marketing concepts to solve problems. The student must use marketing ideas in the dynamic, three-dimensional classroom performance situation. As in life, the choices made under this approach create new problems as well as new opportunities for the student. By analogy then, such tools as a syllabus and project deadlines help script the performance roles played by students and may also provide them with some of the critical standards applied to judge their performances. In essence then, a performance-centered approach to marketing education does not see performance as a staged event to be watched in lecture. Rather, it embodies marketing education as an extemporaneous, even impromptu, exchange of marketing concepts in present-tense action to be lived, experienced, and retained as part of the participant's problem-solving body of marketing knowledge.

A performance-centered approach can excite and challenge the student to realize their potential to become marketing professionals. As an organizing metaphor, a performance-centered approach to marketing education also helps the instructor plan the use of class time to transform traditional lectures into performance-based learning experiences. In using a performance-centered approach as an organizing metaphor for developing their marketing courses, instructors make teaching decisions that better integrate teaching resources than other approaches allow. A specific discussion of how to use the performance-centered approach to marketing education can be found in the following section.

IMPLICATIONS FOR MARKETING PEDAGOGY

Recently, other researchers have documented the increased emphasis on course design and implementation to improve student learning and the increased amount of time instructor must spend to prepare courses (Smart, Kelley, and Conant 1999). The adoption of the performance-centered approach to marketing education has implications for each step in the marketing education process. Instructors wishing to utilize performance-centered marketing must commit themselves to changes in course preparation as well as behavioral changes in the classroom. For example, the amount and complexity of planning for a performance-centered class is usually greater than for other approaches. However, the visibility of this effort is less than for other approaches, particularly in comparison to the sender-centered approach. The importance of the active role of the instructor in the sender-centered approach is self-evident in each lecture. In contrast, while the instructor using the performance-centered approach must prepare for multiple contingencies and integrate more variables into the lecture situation, he or she may actually appear to be doing very little on any given day of class. Before adopting the performance-centered perspective then, instructors may find it prudent to discuss the goals and objectives of the approach with their colleagues and administrators to ensure understanding of and commitment to the approach is shared by all concerned.

If after consideration of the goals and objectives for the course being considered the instructor decides to implement a performance-centered approach, then three areas of consideration can be used to guide planning efforts. These are: ranking and selection of instructional materials; preparation of materials; and, planning the role of active-learning projects. While each area is addressed in sequence below, it is important that the instructor weigh how decisions in each area will impact upon other choices being made to provide a well-integrated course structure.

Ranking and Selection of Materials

In preparing a performance-centered course, the instructor must consider how and in what combinations the traditional tools of marketing education apply to the dynamic context of performance-centered learning. For most courses, this will involve decisions about the text, course software, instruction manuals, and test banks.

Text. Text selection, while still important to the course, exists in a context in which the teaching supplements may carry a greater share the learning burden than under other approaches. Under other approaches, the text serves as the storage of the most detailed information about marketing concepts and practices available to the student on demand. Under the performance-centered approach, the course is designed to require details and, most particularly, applications of course concepts to be developed in participation in the marketing performance of the course. In some instances, this will occur in lecture. At other times, it will occur outside of class in student work groups. But while the text must certainly be accurate and complete in defining and exampling course concepts, it should not be a resource of last resort to resolve all questions. In fact, instructors implementing a performance-centered approach should select a text as much on the basis of what it leaves out as what it includes. For example, in a promotions course the text may be preferred that does not explain how to cost out a media buy over one that details this process if the instructor intends to build in clues to this process and require that students put them together on their own.

Software. The increasing use of software in marketing education is part of a larger trend in computer assisted instruction (CAI) that has received much attention in the marketing literature over the last few years (Ganash 1992; Hershey 1992; Ronchetto, Buckles, Barath, and Perry 1992). The role of CAI in the performance-centered approach is discussed in greater detail in section of course preparation below. In discussing the role of software in performance-centered marketing, this section emphasizes desirable criteria for judging the usefulness of a software package.

Software packages are available bundled with many texts for larger classes. Marketing principles texts, for example, are almost always available with an accompanying software diskette intended to illustrate key concepts of the course. Often, these packages consist of templates for decision making in which students enter some information into an existing macro-formatted program that generates answers or decisions. While convenient and sometimes illustrative, this kind of software package is a poor supplement in support of performance-learning goals.

Performance-centered marketing courses require software packages with powerful features but little “pre-wired” decision tools. For example, the marketing research course designed to be performance-centered will be better served by adoption of a stand-alone, full-featured statistical package than by single-disk case support, even when the cases are custom-designed to support the accompanying text. Only by requiring the students to learn the procedures necessary to use a full-featured software package can the instructor hope to realize performance-learning goals. Even though well intended, the traditional illustrative software package teaches students that someone else must do the initial problem-solving work they hope to learn. On the other hand, full-featured packages (such as SPSS/PC+, SyStat, and StatView, in marketing research) can be integrated into the course to enhance performance-centered learning (e.g., Hershey 1991a, 1991b, 1991c). Although eventually we can expect that the performance-centered approach will encourage extra support from textbook publishers in the form of software manuals adapting a stand-alone package to a particular text in the interim this burden of adaptation falls on the individual instructor.

Instructor's Manuals. Decisions about instructor's manuals typically center around the lecture notes available, the number of transparencies or masters accompanying the lecture notes, and the test bank. Often lecture notes outline the chapters of the text, with little or no embellishment for discussion although this seems to be changing for some of the larger textbook markets such as marketing principles, consumer behavior, and promotions. Some instructor's manuals may include additional discussion material for each chapter. For those instructors seeking to implement the performance-centered approach, a careful examination of these materials is necessary prior to adoption. In the least, the instructor will have to request preview copies of the instruction manuals to texts being considered before making a decision. This is a reminder of the interactive and mutually-influencing characteristic of planning decisions made under the performance-centered philosophy. Good texts that lack good support must be adopted only if the instructor has sufficient time to compensate for a lack of adequate lecture materials.

Transparencies are another key ingredient to an effective instruction manual package. Too often transparency sets are judged by their sheer number or how many color transparencies are available that simply duplicate figures and tables in the text. While repetition of information can enhance learning, it can also bore students and/or suggest to them that they can take in a lecture or read the chapter but have little need to do both. More subtly, transparencies that duplicate information found in the text fail to recognize the different medium of communication used by each. Texts are discourse-based and, as static records of information, can afford to organize information linearly. Since students can return to any passage at their leisure, it is not necessary to worry about how much information gets "carried along" in the moment of processing. Transparencies on the other hand are shown in the ephemeral medium of transmission of the classroom and therefore should be totally visually based. Once the lecture is over the student cannot return to the transparency or duplicate the conditions in which it was first encountered and processed. In the performance-centered approach, this means instructors should choose and use transparency sets that organize information graphically and holistically since it is expected that students must apply the information in the present moment of viewing to solve problems. In short, the transparencies should be designed so that important relationships are immediately apparent. This involves a kind of translation of text-based concepts into a graphic medium that visually summarizes sometimes complex relationships. Adopting a performance-based perspective means maximizing the constraints of each element of the communication process as it changes in each performance learning situation. Transparencies must be chosen with an eye to how they are actually used, not simply on the basis of what information they record.

For example, most marketing management classes review the BCG product/growth matrix. The concept is well known, but graphic presentations of it in transparency packages vary widely. Some management texts do not show a matrix at all, some marketing texts show the matrix without graphics or icons, others include "cash" or "cow" graphics in the appropriate quadrant (Hershey 1995). A performance centered approach will select the graphic that provides more visual cues to meaning than one that features more text based information.

Test Banks. Test banks too can be chosen on the basis of how well they contribute to performance-centered learning. Typical test bank materials for the marketing principles course, for example, place a heavy emphasis on *definitionally-based* multiple choice and true false questions. At the principles level it is of course important to test students' knowledge of course definitions. But a test bank should also assume a certain knowledge is present in the student and test student application of course information to solve marketing problems. This provides a virtual conversation echoing the two-way interaction of the performance-based lecture A performance-based teaching method would design *scenario-based* multiple choice questions to supplement existing test banks. These questions describe a problem facing a manager or company and students must know both definitions of the terms offered as answers and the situations in which the terms can be most successfully applied. In this way the test questions require the students to apply or perform marketing decision-making strategies imaginatively. Their integrated problem solving experience then becomes part of their marketing repertoire of skills.

Preparation of Materials

As the discussion above suggests, it may be necessary to adapt or enhance instructional materials to achieve performance-centered goals. In some cases, as in the test bank example, it will be necessary to create additional materials to augment materials provided with a textbook package. In other instances it may be necessary to use a textbook of second choice that includes a total package better suited to performance-centered learning. For example, a marketing text that includes a set of performance-centered learning transparencies may be preferable to a text for which the transparencies do not engage the student in present moment synthesis and application. In any case, the key to implementing the performance-centered approach lies in the coordination and preparation of the materials to serve active learning goals in the lecture/performance situation.

Active Learning Projects

In addition to choosing materials and preparing them to meet performance-centered objectives instructors should consider how the use of traditional group projects can be coordinated to complement performance-centered objectives. Two aspects of group work that lend themselves to performance-centered learning are task-specific requirements and group reports.

Requirements. A key aspect of performance-centered learning is the integration of the dispirit parts of marketing principles into a synthesized combination of decision making conceptual tools. A number of simple organizational requirements can provide student groups with successful use of performance-centered principles early in the term.

Perhaps the most basic application of the performance-centered approach is to require that student groups turn into the instructor a list of both the group members names and the study times during the week they have set aside to work on the project. This may be done before even telling them what the project is or when the deadlines are. Having the group commit to a public meeting place, say a computer lab, is even better. This commitment once joined, can be immediately employed by requiring the group to fill out and hand in a company organization chart. If the instructor hands out a description of each of the role to be fulfilled on a project, then the group must hand back the names of each member filling that role. For example, if the project in a marketing management class is to compete in a simulation for two years and present a third year marketing plan based upon the company's performance, then the role requirement can be linked to the tasks that must be completed in the simulation. These may include a research director, an advertising director, one or more data analysts, one or more product managers, and some kind of executive team responsible for delegating tasks, meeting deadlines, and coordinating writing and editing of the plan. Each of these roles is delineated and assigned by the group among itself and turned in to the instructor.

At this point, a performance-centered approach encourages the use of decision and organizing tools to avoid potential deadline related problems. For example, instructors may now require groups to develop a PERT chart outlining how and when they will complete the marketing plan by its due date. In the marketing management example, most students will be familiar with PERT charts from their production operations course. The marketing instructor should set only the deadlines for completing the plan, handing in an outline, and requiring an initial strategy statement and first year assessment from each team. The groups then must coordinating the integration of these materials into the PERT chart to be handed in. This student-generated material then serves as part of the diagnostic tools used by the instructor to monitor group performance. In this way, both students and the instructor are working on emerging knowledge in application as the basis for assessing student learning.

Reporting. Just as the use of performance-centered objectives can help organize group projects, instructors can set performance-centered goals for reporting their results. In completing a marketing plan in principles or marketing management, students often present a summary of their report orally in class. Too often these presentations can be a stream of turn-taking at the podium that all too realistically imitates the traditional lecture format used by the professor! But if the instructor sets performance-based requirements for the presentation, students can be rewarded for both imaginative and integrated presentations. Again general rules that require certain objective performance of the oral presentation can insure active learning experiences.

One of the simplest performance-based rules for presentations then, is to not allow students to use a podium. A further enhancement of this feature is to not allow students to use notes. To avoid panic, students can be allowed to present outlines of discussion topics in visual aids such as charts, transparencies, computer-generated graphics, or even student produced videos. To enhance the integrative goals of the performance approach the instructor should require use of a minimum of three different visual aid media. This helps provide variety and stimulates imaginative use of transitions between each visual aid.

Just as the tools of presentation should be varied, so too should the presenters themselves avoid static presentation. Student presenters can be required to engage in direct audience eye-contact, use physical movement by the group to direct audience attention to a particular visual aid, and a question and answer session that demands on the spot application of concepts. A variation on question and answer can assign another student group responsibility for questioning the presentation group. In this way, students must learn to analyze and evaluate marketing plans (performances) in a real time situation.

Preparing these performance-centered requirements for presentations takes more time than some approaches but can pay off in better assimilation of course content and better retention of workable decision making skills.

CONCLUSION

This paper describes how typical approaches to marketing education may be conceptualized as either sender-centered or receiver-centered and suggests that a performance-centered approach to marketing education enhances student learning of marketing as an action-oriented set of decision-making skills. It describes how to implement the performance-centered approach in both course planning and selecting and using course instructional materials. Problems implementing the performance-centered approach include increased time spent planning and preparing materials to meet performance-centered goals and risks that the instructor's innovation will not be perceived favorably by administrators. Advantages include engaging students in real-time, present moment integration of marketing concepts in a holistic manner. During present moment integration, students and instructors can maximize the potential for information exchange as described in the communication process model.

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DELIVERING DISTANCE EDUCATION VIA INTERACTIVE TELEVISION: CONSIDERATIONS IN FACULTY PREPARATION, COURSE ADMINISTRATION, AND STUDENT EVALUATION

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ABSTRACT

As distance education continues to grow in popularity and importance, more and more marketing faculty will be given the opportunity to teach "at a distance." One distance format growing in importance is interactive television which offers the advantages of real-time visual and audio interaction among instructor and students. This paper reviews important considerations from the literature regarding faculty preparation, course administration and student evaluation so that marketing faculty may be better prepared to undertake interactive television delivery of distance education and perform these assignments with distinction.

INTRODUCTION

As we enter the new millennium, distance education programs seem to have become the darling of college administrations all over the United States. Over 1500 institutions now offer courses via distance (Larsen 1999), and 300 accredited universities now offer degrees in approximately 750 different fields (Charp 1999). Business schools have joined the party, with 80 schools offering MBAs via distance (Larsen 1999).

The delivery of distance classes has evolved from traditional mail-based correspondence courses, to include audio/video-taped lectures, and newer formats that take advantage of advances in communications technology so as to incorporate interactive television and the internet (Charp 1999). Of special interest to business education is the use of interactive television (I-TV) because this format has gained wide acceptance in industry as a time-saving means to facilitate meaningful communication among managers at different locations. The I-TV format allows full interactivity among students and instructor at multiple sites, and seems to be ideally suited for business education where point/counterpoint discussion of business issues is a necessary requirement in the education process.

The key economic advantage of any type of distance learning over traditional on-site schooling is that it saves students' time (Becker 1999). Cost/benefit analysis further suggests that I-TV formats may be constructed in such a way that marginal costs to the university are less than hiring new faculty, building new classrooms, and providing instruction in a traditional setting (Hobbs and Christianson 1997). However, some of the literature has been critical of I-TV distance education, especially with respect to the quality and appropriateness of the courses offered (Clow 2000), adequacy of faculty preparation (Charp 1999), and the appropriateness of institutional support (Wilson 1998).

In the coming years, many marketing faculty will be given the opportunity to teach in I-TV settings as the popularity of this format grows. The purpose of this paper is to illustrate some of the differences in faculty preparation, course administration, and student evaluation that are involved with interactive distance teaching as compared to traditional classroom teaching. In this way, perhaps those offered I-TV teaching assignments will go into the experience with open eyes.

THE INTERACTIVE TV CLASSROOM

The authors of this paper are faculty members at a university that has been a leader in I-TV course delivery since 1993. Each year this university delivers more than one hundred courses to two hundred sites throughout its state and to locations as far away as Hawaii, the Philippines, and Japan. In 1998, the college of business began offering a complete I-TV MBA program, and the authors teach in that program.

With I-TV, most of the limitations that are present with educational television, videotaped or satellite programming are overcome by the ability of teachers and students to interact spontaneously, as well as use a multitude of additional instructional technologies (Hobbs and Christianson 1997). A television signal is broadcast from the instructor's location to the students' remote location (or locations), and each location is equipped with I-TV equipment. The instructor's location normally contains a camera focused on the instructor and two TV monitors. One monitor presents the signal going out to students so the instructor can see at any time what is being broadcast. The other monitor presents the incoming signal from the students' remote location(s). If multiple remote locations are used, the monitor can be set to cycle through the locations at a predetermined time interval. This way the instructor can see what is happening in each remote location.

Remote locations have at least one TV monitor for the incoming signal from the instructor and possibly more, depending on the size of the room. Microphones are also located on desks throughout the students' room. When a student keys a microphone to answer a question, ask a question, or make a comment, the camera in that location becomes active and the incoming picture for the instructor switches to that room, so the instructor can see the student talking.

The signal broadcast to remote locations may come from many sources: the camera focused on the instructor (or home site class), a computer, a videotape player, or a document camera. The incoming signal from students is normally from a camera focused on the room, but it may be from a computer (used during student presentations), videotape player, a document camera, or other source instruments depending on the level of sophistication of the students' classroom.

Interaction between instructor and student is slightly slower than the traditional classroom, because of the transmission delay which is the result of the signal being conveyed at distance through the telephone lines. A remote location in Japan has a noticeable delay in reaching an instructor's location in the United States (on the order of two to three seconds) and instructors must exhibit some patience in waiting for student response to any questions asked.

FACULTY PREPARATION FOR I-TV TEACHING

Unfortunately, faculty are often ignored in the initial design of distance education programs. We often fail to recognize that distance education does not automatically equate to distance learning (Wilson 1998). Economies of size and scope potentially favor distance programs over traditional on-campus programs, but at the institution level. Research suggests that faculty time commitments are much greater when teaching in distance formats such as I-TV, and the standard compensation programs offered to faculty do not adequately compensate the faculty member for participation. When compared to on-campus instruction, distance courses require three to four times more dollars to develop and three to eight times more faculty and support personnel resources to operate on a day-to-day basis (Wilson 1998).

First, there's the need for instructor training in advance of course preparation and delivery, with greater emphasis on feedback, assignments, testing, and facilitating discussions (Charp 1999). Our university offers a 40-hour course for faculty members preparing to teach via I-TV which addresses multiple topics of interest: technology, distance syllabi, teaching techniques, handling presentations, using additional resources, and managing logistics. In addition, a number of other universities offer similar training programs designed for high school teachers. Costs for these range from $500 to $1000 (Hobbs and Christianson 1997).

As a result of training, instructors learn that they may have to change their standard teaching approach. Instead of the "sage on stage" approach used in more traditional education, they likely must become more like a "guide on the side" (Alexander 1999). Students used to seeing Hollywood-developed fare on television, with its polished news reporters and fast-paced video clips, will lose interest more quickly if the instructor's strategy is simply to televise what he or she has been doing in the traditional classroom. Distance teaching requires the development and use of interesting interactive activities and course materials; and contingency plans in case communications channels become temporarily out of commission.

The use of I-TV does require a certain degree of restructuring of course material. Distance students need to have all class material accessible and require quick response on questions – much quicker than with traditional teaching environments (Alexander 1999) – and, consequently, the demands for instructor contact in a distance-learning format are typically much higher than for a traditional class (Berger 1999). A course web page is an appropriate solution that facilitates studying, note taking, class discussions and "catching up" after a missed class (Karuppan 1999). Faculty should provide materials with real substance, not just lecture outlines, and this effort requires a considerable amount of developmental time. These materials may include reading assignments, in-class activities, lecture notes, study guides, quizzes, web links, cases, and exams – anything that you would normally handout to students in a traditional classroom. Of course, the material placed on the web must be in a format accessible through the web (e.g., html, pdf, Word, WordPerfect, etc.). To avoid word processing conflicts, many instructors use the pdf format from Adobe, as the Adobe Reader is a free download and provides a universal method for students to read files.

The actual delivery of instruction also requires additional preparation. One has to remember that the chalkboard or whiteboard is not an alternative for displaying information because it is very difficult for the camera to pick up the image. Although special "electronic boards" are available, our experience suggests that the use of these boards is more difficult to integrate into the presentation. Accordingly, we recommend the use of presentation graphics software (such as Microsoft's PowerPoint™) along with a computer to augment lecture delivery. This requires the development of appropriate images before the class, and instructor preparation must take this into account.

The time required to convert traditional classroom materials to a I-TV format is a large portion of the preparation time for a distance class. Distance education classes typically require between 200 and 300 hours of faculty and staff development time per credit hour (Fornaciari and Forte 1999), significantly more than traditional classroom environments. In attempting to respond to that additional commitment, some universities are providing additional funding for course development. For instance, Penn State splits revenues with faculty who develop and teach courses (Charp 1999), and Mississippi State provides a one time $2000 course development stipend, plus a $2000 fund to be used for faculty software or hardware.

ADMINISTRATION OF A DISTANCE CLASS

In addition to redesigning their course for a distance learning format, instructors must become familiar with the technology and develop an information management system. Students learn quickly to rely on e-mail communication to submit assignments, ask questions, ask clarification and make comments, and the added volume of e-mail correspondence can be a daily challenge for the instructor. Students have reported that electronic communications freed them to be more revealing and to communicate more with the instructor than they would have had they been in a typical classroom situation (Berger 1999). As a rule of thumb, you can plan on receiving an average of one e-mail per student per week for each three-hour class delivered by I-TV. So, if you're delivering three classes with 30 students each, you may be receiving (and replying to) approximately 90 additional e-mails each week.

Common methods of presenting information are the computer, videotape player, document camera, and verbally. The instructor has the option of what is beamed out to students at remote locations. Computer-mediated presentations using presentation software (e.g., PowerPoint™) can be effective if the font and color combinations are specified for this application. Typically, a font size of forty is necessary for the print to be viewable on a TV screen, no matter what size the screen. A common color combination is a blue background with white letters. This is easy on the eye and provides sharp contrast so the print stands out.

A document camera requires the use of large print, though not as large as PowerPoint™ presentations. The instructor may use the document camera in situations that traditionally called for the chalkboard. The instructor may use a blank paper (preferably medium-blue in color for improved contrast) to write equations, drawings, figures, or notes. A limitation of the document camera is the viewable area, which is relatively small compared to a chalkboard.

Of course, the instructor will provide information verbally to the class. One must remember the rule of thumb that we retain 20 percent of what we hear and 50 percent of what we hear and see. When considering distance education, a decline in these numbers would not be unexpected. The instructor's presence is only through the TV monitor, which is normally not a big screen. A potential concern when delivering information verbally is physical movement. Depending on the bandwidth of the signal (full or compressed), physical movement may appear normal or blurred to the viewing audience. Movement is not a problem if the signal is full as we see with our TV we watch at home. But if the signal is compressed, which many universities use since it is cheaper, quick physical movement will not transmit clearly. The result will be a jerky, blurred movement. Consequently, quick hand and arm motions will lose effectiveness.

STUDENT EVALUATION

The instructor must also rethink the evaluation of students in distance classes. How will they get the exam, who will administer it, and how will cheating be controlled? It will still be the instructor's responsibility to prepare exams for the class, but the instructor cannot be physically present when the class takes the exam. Fairness requires that each remote class location will have the same amount of time to take the exam. Who monitors this?

Depending on your situation, distance classes may have a proctor available for exams. This person would receive the exam forms, administer the exam, and then return the completed exams to the instructor. Grading of exams is normally delayed in a distance setting. The exams have to be mailed to the instructor before grading can begin. While this may not appear as a problem, the mail from distant cities or foreign countries may take considerably longer than you think to be delivered. Receiving exams from multiple locations, grading those exams, then getting the results back to students is an exercise in coordinated logistics. Students require quick feedback so that they may make corrections in their understanding of the subject material before going on to other material in the course. But time lost in the mails can be a real negative. You may be able to post test scores and an answer key on a course website, and this reduces turn-around time. But whether posting answers on the website or mailing back tests, either way instructors must make new exams each time the class is taught. Rest assured a test file would develop at each remote location.

Alternatives to consider are posting brief exam answers on the web for students to read and send student exam results and comments through email. Posting brief exam answers would also result in an exam file. At least modification of questions could then render them usable in the future. One may also just send exam results with comments concerning deficiencies.

Where distance education has not altered the education process is in presentations. Most university faculty have been integrating technology into the traditional classroom and distance education is a giant integration of technology into the classroom. Student presentations using PowerPoint™ are easily accomplished with consideration given to the colors and size of font used, since it will be viewed on a TV monitor.

Student projects using local businesses can be a challenge. Many faculty are familiar with local businesses and have established relationships with them. Student projects are then a matter of contacting the local businesses and asking for their participation with a student group. Distance education places the burden of locating businesses on the students at the remote location. It is also harder for the instructor to monitor and evaluate the student/business interaction and thus ensure the quality of the project from the students' perspective and the business's perspective.

With respect to student evaluation of I-TV distance education, the results have been mixed. Although many studies have found no significant differences in student performance between distance and traditional formats (Heiens and Hulse 1996; Parrott 1995), there does appear to be a difference in completion rates that favors traditional instruction (Parrott 1995). Regarding student satisfaction, Clow (2000) found a significant difference between undergraduate and graduate course offerings, leading him to conclude that I-TV distance education is more appropriate for graduate education. Students do not learn all concepts equally well in a given medium. Adjusting teaching strategies to student learning styles can produce significant gains in student performance (Hobbs and Christianson 1997), and the I-TV format provides a great deal of flexibility in teaching strategy and style.

DISCUSSION

As we consider some of the key differences between I-TV distance teaching and other teaching formats, it is important to recognize that I-TV can be as effective as traditional formats where (1) the methods match instructional objectives; (2) student-to-student interaction is fostered; and (3) there is ongoing teacher-to-student feedback (Charp 1999). Distance education in any form is not likely to replace social integration, rite of passage and networking, which require long-term on-campus group interactions (Fornaciari and Forte 1999). However, most other roles of a university can be accomplished through an I-TV format. Accordingly, the evidence suggests that there is a place for I-TV distance teaching as part of a comprehensive program of business education, primarily in instances where saving student travel time is important.

However, we underscore the concerns expressed by Fornaciari and Forte (1999) that the costs associated with providing effective I-TV distance education are more likely to add strain rather than relief to the university budgets. When the true differential costs of faculty preparation and delivery time are included in the computation, I-TV distance education costs are likely to be more expensive than first anticipated. Tuition charges may need to be adjusted upwards to compensate for these added costs.

With respect to faculty who undertake the challenge of teaching at a distance, we echo the admonition of Larsen (1999) and Clow (2000) that effective distance education requires superior organization skills on the part of both the learner and the instructor. For the faculty member, this requires the investment of additional planning time. But for those universities that facilitate teacher effectiveness by providing the resources and reward structures, I-TV distance education may well widen the market for business education to students who would not normally participate in the educational process. And, in the final analysis, if anyone is concerned about the increasing costs of education, all they need to do is consider the costs of the alternative – ignorance – and the added value of distance education formats becomes self evident.

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THE NEW JOB DESCRIPTION FOR MARKETING FACULTY

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ABSTRACT

As we enter the 21st century, faculty are faced with a variety of challenges that will redefine their roles in the educational process. Whether these challenges come from new technologies, government, students or business, faculty must be prepared to change the way they approach their jobs. In this paper, we first describe the factors that are either forcing or creating a need for change. We then focus on the numerous changes that a faculty member will need to make in time allocation and job performance. Though these changes will eliminate some of the academic freedoms we are used to they are necessary to prepare ourselves for the new expectations and demands of our constituents.

INTRODUCTION

New and different technologies, stagnant or reduced government support and changes in our key constituents, are some of the many environmental forces that challenge faculty today. Rising to these challenges will require a radical restructuring of the time allocated to current tasks and will not be easy; but those faculty who ignore the challenges and fail to adapt to the changes they bring will find it increasingly difficult to perform at expected levels of competency. In contrast, the many new and different rewards systems taking place throughout academia will recognize those who are proactive and accelerate the change process.

Based on the various challenges facing our discipline, this paper presents a view of what a marketing faculty member should be in the future. First, we describe the many factors that are either forcing or creating a need for change. Next we move into a discussion and take a strong stand on the changes we recommend faculty make. Given differing institutions and faculty characteristics not all changes can be made by all faculty. However, there is a definite need for the majority of faculty to at least understand that change is imperative (AACSB 1996). Finally, we discuss the role that administration must play to facilitate these changes and allow faculty to succeed in the next millennium.

Why Is Change Important?

1. In a dynamic business environment with business processes changing constantly, our approach to research, teaching and job structure cannot be expected to stay static. Yet academia, B-Schools included, are among the slowest institutions to adapt and change (Guskin 1996).

2. We play multiple roles in student lives – beyond that of instructor. Students see us as mentors, friends or experts in our field. Many see us every day of the week and come to us for advice on classes, careers, or personal decisions. Faculty must be responsive and be able to adapt to changes in this, our most important target market.

3. Decreasing budgets and increasing scrutiny from bodies such as the government, private donors, and the general public have forced many colleges and departments to reanalyze resource allocations (Guskin 1996). In order to satisfy new pressures placed on them, faculty must change the way they spend their time.

FACTORS CREATING A NEED FOR CHANGE

Changing Student Body

Today's student is different from those of just a few years ago. These differences include:

1. Many students have traveled extensively – including time spent overseas (Desruisseaux 1998).

2. Knowledge and use of computers and other technologies is much more widespread. A great many students come to campus with their own computers and/or have their own personal web sites (Plater 1995; Fallik 2000).

3. Today's student has been raised on television, video games and the interactivity of the computer (Smart et al. 1999).

4. With the failure of the public school system in many parts of the country, the quality of undergraduate students has declined, with many lacking basic language and mathematical skills (Buzzell and Sisocia 1997).

5. With rising tuition and other education-related costs, students are demanding more return on their dollar including better facilities, equipment and most importantly, faculty who are well trained and capable of teaching skills that are current and transferable to today's workplace. Students will demand far more application and less theory which will create a need towards the teaching and use of marketing tools (Kelley et al. 1998; Smart et al. 1999).

6. Students typically are older and have more work experience (Buzzell and Sisocia 1997).

Environmental Issues

Technology. New technologies have opened up forms of education distribution that were not practical until now. Universities all over the world are beginning to offer classes through distance learning. Whether this is through the web, videos or other means, students can now earn credit without ever visiting the university (Adelman 1999). Some companies are now offering packages of lectures featuring outstanding teachers from throughout the world, while individual faculty copyright and/or sell their classes.

There is an increasing quantity of software available for faculty to use in both their research and teaching. Unfortunately, although the software is become more useful it is becoming more complex and takes longer to learn. Companies now expect students to come out of college computer literate and knowledgeable about many types of software (Borin and Watkins 1998).

Information. The amount of information available continues to grow exponentially due to increasingly sophisticated data gathering techniques such as kiosks and interactive media. Data delivery systems such as the web or CDs allow faculty to collect information that was previously unavailable or very difficult to obtain.

The number of business academic journals has increased from approximately 275 in 1981 to close to 1000 in 1997/1998 (Cabell's 1981, 1997/1998). Although this increases the number of outlets for faculty to publish in, it also increases the difficulty of staying current in one's area.

Demographic. In some parts of the country, a tidal wave of undergraduate students will place great strains on the university systems, as public universities will be forced to handle an increased numbers of students without significant increases in their physical plant and operating budgets.

Within a decade there will be an estimated 2 million more undergraduate students in the system than there are today (Adelman 1999).

The ethnic makeup of the student body has also changed. From 1981 to 1995 the percentage of students who identify themselves as Caucasians has decreased from 82 to 73.7 percent (U.S. Census Bureau 1998).

The demographic makeup of the faculty is changing as well. Currently, one-third of all faculty are 55 or older with the majority expected to be over 60 by the year 2000 (Burkins 1999; Edelson 1992). Although some faculty may choose to teach longer there is a strong possibility that there will be a widespread shortage of qualified instructors within the next decade.

Globalization. With business becoming increasingly global, experience in and sensitivity towards other cultures becomes increasingly important. Business schools have responded to this situation by increasing the number of joint ventures and alliances with schools outside the U.S. and by increasing the number of opportunities for students to study abroad.

Government. Most state universities will never see the days again when the government funds the majority of their expenses. In 1995, the Select Committee on Higher Education held hearings on issues such as faculty teaching loads, sabbaticals and travel expenses. The committee leadership said that faculty were paid too much for too little work (Clausen 1996). Over the next few years we can expect greater governmental scrutiny in the internal affairs of colleges while at the same time budgets either remain stable or decrease (Healy 1995). This will increase the need for doing more with less and will further increase the examination of faculty workloads. Many faculty are seeing both their class sizes and number of classes taught increase, while teaching assistant hours and travel allotments go down (Altbach and Lewis 1992; Richardson 1999). Curriculum is often revisited as colleges reexamine and attempt to weed out unnecessary or duplicate classes. Pressures will mount on universities to demonstrate that effective student learning outcomes are being achieved in a cost-effective manner.

Social/Ethical. Whether it is due to changing norms in society, an increased pressure to perform or lack of respect for universities and/or faculty, many schools are reporting a rise in the levels of cheating whether in or out of the classroom (Schevitz 1999). Although it is difficult to draw a direct link, students who cheat in the classroom today, may be more likely to “cheat” in business tomorrow.

With the increased scrutiny of faculty workloads, the value of much faculty research, and indeed the role of research in universities, has come under increasing attack by the mass media and the public (Buzzell and Sisodia 1997).

Competition

Competition for both undergraduate and graduate students is increasing. For-profit universities, such as the University of Phoenix, will increasingly compete for students, and at the same time offer funding agencies visible examples of low-cost, efficient educational institutions that are user-friendly and market driven. We can also expect these schools to expand their efforts in in-house education programs for companies and in non-degree executive education. Schools with good reputations and high name recognition will attempt to increase their revenues by offering programs to increased numbers of students, primarily through distance education. These efforts will include both degree and non-degree, i.e., executive programs (Buzzell and Sisodia 1997).

Changing Role of Marketing Within Business

In many ways, marketing is a victim of its own success. Through the years marketing has evolved from focusing on the production of great products, to selling whatever is produced to our current state of focusing on consumer needs. All efforts within the company are directed at not only attracting new customers but satisfying current ones. As the marketing concept becomes pervasive throughout the organization, there is less need for a fully staffed marketing department (Greyser 1997).

Job Related Issues

Tenure. Many schools are beginning to revisit the traditional retention/tenure/promotion of academia. Recently schools such as Boston University have offered faculty members higher salaries by accepting multi-year contracts in lieu of tenure. The Minneapolis College of Art and Design offers faculty substantial salary increases in return for a contract terminable without cause (Finkin 1997). The concept of tenure has come under increasing attack, and we can expect further pressure and restrictions on tenure as we know it (Magner 1998; Leatherman and Wilson 1999; Richardson 1999; Schmidt 1998).

Rewards for Performance. In many universities, salary increases are increasingly tied to performance. Chancellor Reed of the 22-campus California State University System supports the position that 40 percent of all faculty raises be allocated to faculty who meet specific performance levels. In order to receive a portion of this pool, faculty most demonstrate strong performance in the traditional areas of professional development, teaching and service.

Integration. As companies increasingly move away from functional structures, some schools have also moved towards removing the walls we have set up between business disciplines. Many schools such as Case Western, the University of Tennessee, the University of Denver, and California Polytechnic have developed either individual courses or complete curriculums that are cross-functional (Buzzell and Sisodia 1997).

Increase Number of Part-Time Instructors. As costs increase and governmental budget allocations stay fixed or decreased, many universities have increased the use of adjunct instructors. One estimate suggests that part-time and adjunct professors make up 50 percent of all those working in academe (Hickman 1998). This trend suggests that governments and university administrators are saying that there are limits to the need for research and scholarship in many areas, and that what is really needed is teaching; and this can be accomplished less expensively through the use of part-timers.

FACULTY IN THE FUTURE

How will faculty deal with this changing world? What types of new behaviors and activities will be required? What changes should faculty begin to embrace now before new ones are imposed on them? We will offer our suggestions under the traditional headings of teaching, research, and service, adding some thoughts on the general area of faculty development.

Teaching

Teaching Internships. Students demand faculty who are current in both content and pedagogy. One possible solution is to require that all faculty be required to have taught under the complete or partial supervision of a teaching mentor prior to accepting a tenure track position. Few doctoral programs have pedagogy classes and new faculty are literally thrown to the wolves without any guidance on how to teach or structure a class (Gaff and Lambert 1996). Coursework in teaching must become part of every doctoral program. It has also been suggested that doctoral students might be required to have a minimal level of business experience before acceptance to the program (AACSB 1996).

Teaching Improvement. Faculty with low teaching ratings, measured by a combination of student evaluations or peer review should be strongly encouraged to attend teaching improvement seminars. Many universities offer these as either brown bag sessions dealing with specific topics or as quarter/semester long courses. Departments should also hold periodic seminars on teaching topics e.g., evaluation tools, workload, and pedagogical techniques. These types of teaching improvement sessions have been developed in some doctorate programs (Gaff and Lampert 1996). When individuals cannot or will not improve over time the existing tenure system must be modified to permit universities to remove these faculty from the institution.

Year Round Teaching. Fiscal pressures and increasing numbers of undergraduate students will force many universities to move towards year-round operation. Where this occurs, faculty should be able to elect to teach full-time year round and minimize their research requirements. In other cases, many faculty will be required to rotate through summer sessions. Certainly, the move to year-round operation will eliminate the summer as a period during which research work can be done without the pressure of other work.

Self Paced Learning. The "class" may well disappear as a standard measure of faculty workload. Faculty should be held responsible for seeing that certain learning outcomes are achieved by a given number of students. Faculty will need to structure their instructional work so that students can proceed at their own pace. Thus, above average students can be consistently challenged while weaker students are not overwhelmed. This can be accomplished by providing introductory materials on-line or by using CD-ROM technology, which would free the instructor from reviewing basic material and allow more time to be spent with individual students and groups of students.

The increased focus on student learning implies a much greater emphasis on the student role in the education process than is currently the case. Given the increased need to demonstrate student learning, faculty will need to find ways to increase student commitment to the learning process, including behavioral contracts and stricter attendance requirements.

Integrative Teaching. The use of cross-functional teams in industry demands that business schools produce students who understand how all the functional areas operate in a coordinated fashion to ensure organizational success. Many colleges have responded and created integrated curricula (Buzzell and Sisodia 1997). The need to effectively demonstrate how the marketing function works with other functions in the organization will not go away, and marketing faculty will need to work with faculty from other business disciplines to develop materials that will allow students to learn how to operate in a cross-functional business environment. Faculty should be encouraged to increase their usage of integrative tools such as cases and cross-functional computer simulations. Faculty should be required to periodically teach a course or part of a course with members from other disciplines.

As the use of the Web becomes more widespread, the need for more interaction between marketing faculty and faculty from computer science and computer engineering becomes more obvious. Developing and using more effective marketing information systems requires similar increased interaction.

If the marketing concept has indeed become pervasive in organizations, then we must insure that each and every student who would work in those organizations after graduation has a fundamental grasp of the marketing concept. This means, of course, that marketing faculty in schools that are concerned about the employability of their graduates must place increased emphasis on the basic marketing courses that all students must take. Some of this effort will take place in integrated curricula, but where it does not, the basic marketing course must become the preserve of the best and brightest full-time faculty.

Curriculum. Employers will increasingly value graduates who have the capacity to be effective immediately upon joining the organization. Thus, the curriculum of tomorrow will need to place as much emphasis on application as theory. To maximize learning, students will need opportunities to apply the concepts they learn, and to apply them immediately and repeatedly. The curriculum will also have to provide students the opportunity to develop skills such as problem-solving, critical thinking, and teamwork. The days of teaching from textbooks and using multiple choice tests must end. All faculty should be encouraged to incorporate hands-on client based projects within their classes.

Research

Faculty in many schools will no longer have the luxury of engaging in undirected, unconstrained research. First of all, the pressure for efficient education and increased student learning will require faculty to spend more time on students. Secondly, as schools become niche players, all faculty will need to show how their research will help the college achieve its goals.

Applied Research. Pressures on universities to become more relevant and useful will increase. Each faculty member will be required to publish articles in trade journals or other non-refereed managerially focused publications. Faculty must clearly demonstrate the value of their research to business or other organizations, and show how the research findings can be implemented.

Research Partnerships with Business. One of the functions of research is to insure that faculty are in touch with and part of developments in their academic specialty. The increasing focus on the usefulness and applicability of research demands more research partnerships between universities and business. In some cases, such partnerships can provide opportunities for students to engage in hands-on learning. In others, they might provide for the development of teaching materials as well as faculty learning. One of the barriers to these types of partnerships has been the reluctance of universities to agree to work in situations where the research findings may be regarded as proprietary. Similarly, such research has often not been regarded as bona fide scholarly activity. For such research partnerships to occur and be successful, the academy must change its attitude and behaviors in this regard.

Integrative Research. Just as the curriculum faces pressure to be truly integrated, marketing faculty will face demands for functionally-integrated research. This suggests that marketing faculty must seek out research partners from other functional areas, and that schools require faculty members to periodically co-author articles with faculty from other areas.

Service Through Community Activity

Most universities evaluate faculty on the basis of research, teaching and service with the latter being primarily a function of university or department committees. However, consistent with many companies adopting the concept of social marketing, i.e., making decisions with the public interest in mind, we advocate that community service not only be considered an equal "partner" in the service component but become a required activity. This community service can be accomplished in a number of ways:

1. Advising student projects that assist local private or non-profit companies.

2. Periodic free seminars put on for local business owners, perhaps set up with the local chamber of commerce.

3. Faculty service on boards of directors of non-profit companies or cultural organizations.

The benefit to the community is clear but faculty will also gain new insights into real life problems and issues. All too often we teach theories that cannot be applied or applications that will only work in a perfect world of unlimited resources and information. Faculty community involvement is the norm in Europe which has been instrumental in gaining visibility for academia (Clausen 1996). This type of interaction can also educate and continue to reinforce the importance of the marketing function in any firm.

Faculty Development

Faculty must consistently strive to stay at the forefront of not only their fields but business and society in general.

Cultural Awareness. As the student body becomes more diverse faculty must be adept at handling a variety of cultural norms. A faculty member can select from a number of possible methods to insure this:

1. Teach at least one quarter every three years in an overseas university.

2. Become a co-advisor for a minority club on campus.

3. Host a foreign student.

4. Teach a distance learning class with overseas students. The University of California at Davis has one such program in which over 200 Irish students complete their coursework from Ireland (Keogh 1999).

Industry Contact. In order to avoid ivory tower mentality it is essential that faculty stay in touch with corporate realities. One solution is to encourage faculty to periodically participate in one or more of the following:

1. Faculty internships similar to those offered through the Advertising Education Foundation.

2. Write and publish case studies.

3. Teach cases.

4. Mandatory sabbaticals. Not all faculty currently take sabbaticals. Faculty should be required to take a sabbatical leave every six years, with some portion of that sabbatical involving work at or with a profit or non-profit institution.

5. Joint research project with a company as discussed in prior section.

Professional Standards. Many faculty spend time with students discussing the importance of professionalism in the work place. Yet some faculty fall short of real professionalism themselves. Faculty show up late and unprepared for class, miss office hours, dress slovenly, and speak disrespectfully of and to their colleagues and students. Perhaps this is the ultimate downside of the tenure system. Faculty in schools and departments need to take time to work out, clearly state, and support the enforcement of professional standards in the daily conduct of professorial work. Along with this, faculty should be required to spend a minimum number of hours per week on campus – beyond office hours and class time. This time can be devoted to interacting with students and/or colleagues.

THE ROLE OF ADMINISTRATION

The coming years are clearly going to put more pressure on faculty, and those pressures must be both shared and mitigated by university administrators. Without the adequate support of administration, many of the recommended changes cannot be accomplished. Given the large number of changes advocated here, there is likely to be considerable faculty resistance. In addition, junior faculty may be quite vociferous in their objections due to possible incompatibilities between the changes outlined here and the traditional expectations of the tenure process. Thus, faculty and administration must work in concert to develop a system of rewards that motivate all faculty to adopt many of the aforementioned proposals.

Reward Systems

Reward systems will have to be reworked, as the days of expecting all faculty to be effective at all tasks will disappear. Faculty must be allowed to select their own area of focus, e.g., teaching and the development of devices and techniques for effective learning. The area of focus should be allowed to change as an individual progresses through his or her career. Thus, a junior faculty member can be allowed to emphasize research and teaching during his/her probationary period. We believe that to be successful, such a system needs to:

- Drive the college toward its goals.
- Minimize paperwork.
- Allow faculty and lecturers the freedom to choose the method by which they feel they can best contribute to the goals of the College. For example, as discussed in prior sections, faculty may choose any number of ways to achieve cultural awareness but this should be built into the rewards system.
- Get faculty buy-in throughout the development process.

Each faculty member would be required to submit an activity report outlining his/her accomplishments in teaching, professional development (PD), service. Possible activities would now include the suggestions discussed in this paper. Faculty development, as described in the prior section, would be included in one of these three areas. A key feature of this new rewards system would be that each faculty member be allowed to select the percentage of his/her performance that will then be used to calculate an overall score. The actual percentage categories a college allows should reflect its overall focus i.e., teaching or professional development. Table 1 provides an example for a school that emphasizes teaching: (note: even at this school a faculty member may choose to have 40% of their evaluation be based on professional development).

Each of the three areas is broken up into a quantitative and qualitative component and rated on a 0–4 scale, with 4 representing excellent performance. A zero score would be received if the faculty member does not meet established minimum expectations the college sets. A weighted sum, using the table above, is then calculated for each faculty member to arrive at a total score. Faculty would be ranked in the order of their final score.

Teaching effectiveness would be composed of both a quantitative and qualitative component. Teaching effectiveness' quantitative score would be calculated using a spreadsheet that lists student evaluations over the most recent two-year period. Number of classes, course preps, average grade point in class and number enrolled would be used to make adjustments to these numbers. Qualitative measures of teaching effectiveness would be determined from a narrative that allows each faculty member to discuss achievements for the prior and future teaching plans and develop-

TABLE 1
EXAMPLE PERCENTAGE ALLOCATIONOF PERFORMANCE

	Teaching	PD	Service
Emphasize Teaching	70%	20%	10%
Emphasize PD	40%	50%	10%
Emphasize Service	40%	20%	40%
Dual Emphasis: Teaching & PD	55%	35%	10%
Dual Emphasis: Teaching and Service	55%	20%	25%
Dual Emphasis: PD & Service	40%	35%	25%

mental goals. These narratives would be used to help determine how well faculty were meeting the new directives outlined in this paper.

Due to lengthy publication cycles, a five year period of time would be used to evaluate professional development. Accomplishments and activities are placed into one of four categories (0–4 scale) based on their level of contribution. Accepted activities will be expanded to include types of professional development beyond research as indicated in the prior section. Faculty may provide a narrative that explains why they feel an outcome deserves to be placed in a specific category. Long-term goals are also discussed.

Service activities are listed for the prior two years. Information reported would include both the number of activities and the hours spent on each activity. Narratives may be included to expand upon both past and future plans.

We recommend that there be a two-stage evaluation process. Each area's department head evaluates the report and rates the faculty member. Then a committee of all department heads evaluates it. There should be opportunities for a faculty member to provide a rebuttal if s/he disagrees with the final score. The actual reward, of course, will be contingent upon funds available but could be traditional items such as travel, student help, teaching loads, number of preps. Although there will be a great deal of work the first time through, we believe that the time will required time involved will be reduced dramatically in subsequent years.

Committee Work

The demands from outcomes-based learning, year-round operation, and the need to stay current in a rapidly changing environment means that faculty time will be incredibly constrained. To provide the time necessary for critical tasks, faculty will have to abandon much of the committee work that consumes so much time, and the slack will have to be picked up by administrators. Faculty cannot abandon their traditional role in peer evaluation and oversight of the curriculum, but the computer committee, the library committee, the commencement committee, the status of women committee all have to go. Administrators will actually have to make decisions in these and other areas and be held accountable for them. New ways of obtaining faculty input – most probably electronically – will have to be found

Other

Internship opportunities for both faculty and students, research partnerships with business, and an increase in community outreach will require the development of strategic alliances with enterprises of all kinds. The focus of much of the external interaction of administrators will have to shift from fund raising to opportunity-finding. The opportunity-finding activities will also have to focus on international opportunities for faculty.

Administrators are also going to take a strong stand against non-performing faculty who have retired on the job and students whose poor performance is the result of refusal to take an active part in the learning process.

SUMMARY

Much of what we see changing in the environment and in the expectations of the key constituencies of universities strongly suggests that universities and their faculty must become much less of an ivory tower and more connected to the real world. This will require dramatic changes in the manner in which faculty have become accustomed to operating. These types of changes must be pervasive throughout the university system and will unlikely be successful if only adopted locally. The future of the Academy is at stake. We must either change the way we operate voluntarily or have perhaps much more wrenching and dysfunctional change thrust upon us by government or – shudder – the market place.

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A NOTE ON STARTING AND BUILDING A RESEARCH AGENDA

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ABSTRACT

Starting and building a successful research agenda is extremely challenging for most new marketing academics given the number of pressures they face upon assuming an assistant professor position. Based on recommendations from the literature and the authors' own personal observations and experiences, several suggestions and guidelines are presented here that may help new marketing faculty members establish the beginning of a strong research record.

A NOTE ON STARTING AND BUILDING A RESEARCH AGENDA

Marketing academics just embarking on a career often face difficulties with getting their research agendas "off the ground." Although they may be entering the academy with their dissertation behind them, freshly minted doctorates are confronted with a new and challenging environment. As if moving, settling in, and becoming acclimated to a different environment were not enough, new faculty are also expected to meet the scholarly demands of their new institution, maintain effective performance in the classroom, fulfill institutional and professional service activities, and build a new network of colleagues. Balancing these substantial responsibilities is clearly a primary challenge facing new faculty.

However, after having experienced the first few years of a "life-after-dissertation," many academics quickly realize that this balancing act is only part of the story. The many years invested in a dissertation now must be translated into publications. Having a solid dissertation and well-developed research agenda is a good beginning. Unfortunately, too often dissertations remain unpublished, related working papers lay dormant, and research agendas remain unfulfilled. Hence, converging on this and related research is a major challenge to be met. This includes getting the dissertation into a publishable format, completing other manuscripts in the "pipe," selecting appropriate publication outlets, and actually getting the work out under review. Perhaps even more difficult is keeping the research stream going for many years to come.

This note provides some insights from the literature as well as observations of common problems and difficulties we have witnessed in others and personally faced during the first several years as a new faculty member. We also provide several important ideas to consider in getting the research agenda off and running. First, the starting point for many research agendas is the dissertation, and several areas to consider are discussed. These include topic breadth and interest, cooperation with the advisor, and the conceptual linkage to related areas of research. Next, a number of issues are discussed regarding keeping the research agenda going. This includes understanding general threats to research productivity, building collaborative relationships, "learning" how to publish, and understanding the research pressure of a tenure-track faculty member.

STARTING OUT

The Dissertation

Whicker (1993) recommends avoiding the development of a very narrow research topic (referred to as the scalpel model). We agree, having observed that the dissertation topic needs to be of sufficient breath as to lead to multiple publications. Given that the first few years as a new assistant professor are so demanding, it is difficult to begin new large-scale research projects. Thus, publishing more than one article from the dissertation puts new faculty members at a distinct advantage. In addition, because so much time and effort are dedicated to the dissertation, the new Ph.D. is often an expert in the area. This often makes publishing articles in the area much less burdensome. According to Fechter (1999), if your research is linked to a very narrow area, you may be limiting yourself in terms of ability to publish multiple items from your dissertation and in your ability to continue to publish related research in the future. In addition, if your area of specialization is too narrow you may also be limiting your ability to move to other institutions in the future.

Interest in the dissertation topic is also of utmost importance. Beatty (1999) strongly recommends that students pick something they enjoy, something they believe in, something fun. She urges students to think about questions such as "What can I bring to the topic? Is it interesting to me? Do I believe in it?" (Beatty 1999). Lutz (1990) also suggests that, when choosing a topic, a student should look within him- or herself. "A topic isn't hot for you unless you decide it is," (p. ii). Lutz goes on to say that it is likely that the experts in our field develop their knowledge by becoming completely committed and immersed in their respective areas. This would be a difficult task if a person does not enjoy the topic area.

Connection to the "big picture" is also essential. We have observed that when the topic is logically connected to other related, important topics and there is overlap in substantive areas, extending one's research agenda is much easier. Beatty (1999) recommends that marketing academics eventually develop about three main research streams that merge and complement each other.

Obviously the topic must also be important. It is writer's job to convince readers/reviewers that we do not know everything about the specific area. Lutz (1990) suggests that researchers "test market" their ideas with peers to ensure that research on the topic is indeed needed and that the idea is exciting to others. He recommends obtaining feedback by telling others about the idea and showing them the research model before collecting data (this also applies to other research, in addition to the dissertation).

We also feel that cooperation with dissertation chair is extremely vital, both during the dissertation process, and after completion when working on publications. Building and maintaining a positive relationship with your dissertation chair and continuing this after graduation it is helpful to new academics in completing and submitting manuscripts in a timely manner. Further, maintaining precise scheduling and deadlines with the dissertation chair and adhering to these is imperative. Scheduling meetings (in person or via phone and/or e-mail) and creating an agenda for each meeting (this also applies to other co-authors) are extremely beneficial actions. In addition, knowing what needs to be accomplished before the meeting and what should be addressed at the meeting are also very useful tactics. Finally, recording spontaneous ideas that emerge in between sessions that may be discussed at the next meeting is highly constructive.

We have also seen that having a good relationship with your chair is very advantageous with regards to networking. Beatty (1999) suggests that Ph.D. students, as well as new faculty, ask their chairpersons to introduce them to others in field who may serve as future co-authors, peer reviewers, or mentors. She contends that even the most highly regarded scholars in the field are frequently willing to assist new academics.

Publishing as a Doctoral Student

It is our opinion that one of the most critical aspects to hitting the ground running is for doctoral students to be actively involved in research and publication activity early in their program. This research activity ideally would be related to the dissertation, but does not absolutely have to be lockstep with the dissertation topic. In fact, some variance in research interests is healthy for doctoral students and new faculty.

Even though doing additional research is extremely difficult for many doctoral students, particularly given the demands of most doctoral programs, it nevertheless appears to be critical to launching a successful research agenda. This is so for many reasons, one of which is the relatively "short" tenure clock most new marketing academics encounter (Wilson 2001).

Key to establishing a research presence early is building close working relationships with faculty with similar research interests. We suggest being proactive by approaching key faculty with ideas. It is very useful for doctoral students to indicate a willingness to be involved with a faculty member's research activities, to be enthusiastic, and to be willing to continue with a project once the opportunity surfaces. A good place to begin building collaborative relationships with faculty is by writing conference papers. Over time this can lead to more papers and ideas, as well as publishable research.

KEEPING THE RESEARCH GOING

Threats to Career Productivity

Much has been written about threats to career productivity in the marketing academic area. A useful framework to explore these pitfalls is to view these influences as falling into one of three categories: "bombs," "burnouts," and "bigamists" (AMA Task Force 1988). Collectively these influences may result in limited leadership (seasoned marketing academics assisting green scholars), limited programmatic research, limited credibility with external constituencies, and limited aspirations among marketing scholars (AMA Task Force 1988). Here, we focus on bombs and burnouts, as these are more likely to occur earlier in the career of a marketing academic.

Bombs are academics that "fall from great heights to great depths," resulting in early failure as a productive scholar. This is due to a number of factors, including weak doctoral training, entering the job market too soon or accepting a job before completing the dissertation, assuming heavy teaching assignments too soon or doing too much consulting and other non-research activities, or facing accelerated tenure clocks. Interestingly, most of these issues identified by the AMA Task force (1988) can be minimized, or avoided outright, by new scholars by (1) completing the dissertation in a timely manner, and subsequently (2) focusing on research during the first years out of school. Research in other disciplines has also shown that mentoring has advantages for new faculty in terms of long-term research productivity as well (Williams and Blackburn 1988).

Burnouts are academics, who after a period of productivity, "overheat" and breakdown. Research has shown that one out of every eleven associate/full professors in marketing may be burned out (Singh and Bush 1998). While many academics successfully emerge from the tenure process, they find that they are in a state of complete physical and emotional exhaustion. A number of factors contribute to burnout, including the journal review process itself, a focus on textbook writing, growing frustration over minimal impact, becoming obsolete, limited funding and collegial encouragement for research, misplaced rewards, and changing personal priorities.

Additional factors have been identified by others, including psychological burnout, work-family conflict, lack of rewards commensurate with publishing in the top-tier journals, and weak doctoral training (Singh and Bush 1998). In fact, doctoral training has recently been the focus of criticism, as statistics increasingly show dissatisfaction among doctoral students (across all disciplines) regarding the organization of their doctoral program and preparation for research careers (Magner 2000). As a result, in many disciplines the best and brightest are leaving for careers in industry (Magner 2000). Other consequences of burnout include a negative attitude toward research, less time spent on scholarly endeavors, lower job satisfaction, and higher turnover (Singh and Bush 1998).

Again, while many of these forces may be inevitable for many scholars, it is our observation that a calculated, programmatic stream of research that begins early in doctoral education may provide a buffer against many of these forces. Others have also noted the advantages of establishing collaborative relationships early in one's career as reducing burnout. Institutional efforts to grant more sabbatical leave, to provide better support for professional development, to hold regular departmental brown-bag workshops, and to employ flexible teaching schedules have also been found to be useful (Singh and Bush 1998). There are comprehensive resources that address these and many other issues associated with research productivity. See, for example, *The Full-Time Faculty Handbook* (Bianco-Mathis and Chalofsky 1999).

Research Collaboration

One area that appears to be critical to keeping the research fires burning is ongoing research collaboration. Building strong collaborative relationships has many benefits: sharing the workload of a major research project, providing critical and different perspectives on the same phenomena, providing motivation for future research, and producing an overall better research product. In fact, lack of collaborative effort in research has been found to be associated with research burnout (Singh and Bush 1998).

We advise starting collaboration by looking for synergies with others. It is important to identify strong co-authors with complementary skills and to find an agreeable style of working with people. Co-authors should also clearly designate expectations. Beatty (1999) urges faculty members to quickly eliminate those co-authors who do not fulfill these expectations. Some working relationships can be highly specialized. In a manner akin to an assembly line, one person collects data, one person does the analysis, and one person writes the manuscript.

Collaborating with colleagues at one's respective institution is very productive and convenient. Although each person's interests will probably not be exact, overlaps can oftentimes be found. An exciting research environment can be created if new scholars attempt to capitalize on synergies and inspire and motivate each other. Collaboration is not limited to those at the same institution, but should include colleagues at other institutions as well. We feel that new scholars should attend conferences regularly to meet people and look for other faculty members who might have common interests.

Another good idea is to solicit assistance, such as guidance in developing research ideas, from senior faculty. Malone (1999) urges new faculty to ask a colleague with similar research interests to review a draft of a paper before submitting it. At conferences, making an effort to network with colleagues from other universities and volunteering to chair conference sessions will help establish ties with others in the field. Fechter (1999) recommends seeking outside sources for professional advice, whereas Beatty (1999) suggests asking for interaction from experts in the area and continually searching for your next collaborator.

Publishing Tips and Advice

Equally important to the above issues is the realization that most new Ph.D.'s are relatively inexperienced at publishing. Hence, while "on the job" training regarding publishing is often the *modus operandi* for new marketing faculty, new scholars should be aware that the literature is replete with wisdom and guidance from those who have learned how to be successful at publishing.

While we do not provide a comprehensive list of tips and advice regarding getting a manuscript published, we do provide a short overview of some thoughts on this topic that have appeared over the years in the literature. We focus discussion on the major steps that an author goes through in publishing, including idea generation, research design, targeting journals, writing the manuscript, and submitting and revising the manuscript. Each of these is now briefly discussed.

Idea Generation, Research Design and Targeting. From the beginning, having a clear focus regarding the intended contribution of the research is imperative. This area has been identified too often as the basis for fatal flaws. Lutz (1990) notes that fatal flaws are often of the form where the stated research problem is not judged to be innovative, interesting, or important. This may result from a lack of clear focus regarding the contribution of the research

Lutz (1990) also states that scholars should think more about the audience of the research. All studies should be designed with a constituency in mind, whether it is other academics, practitioners, managers, or policy officials. To this end, it is often beneficial to "test market" the research prior to executing it, seeking insight and advice from peers during the idea-generation and research-design stages (Lutz 1990).

The research should also be creative, unique, and offer a fresh perspective – originality counts (Beatty et al. 1992). When writing the manuscript, Beatty (1999) urges researchers to always ask what the contribution is. Questions such as "What can I tell my audience that they do not already know? What is the 'neat twist' here?" should be posed (Beatty 1999). It is important to build contribution. Authors should avoid understating what is previously known on the topic and remember that the present state of knowledge is the benchmark for measuring the contribution of the paper.

Finally, authors must target the desired journal from the study design phase. They should also aim as high as feasible with regards to publication outlet, but should never submit a manuscript to a specific journal just to get feedback (Beatty 1999). "Special issues" in journals present unique opportunities as research outlets. Further, special issues often have strict deadlines that will keep junior faculty motivated and on track.

Writing. Communicating clearly is the most important goal. Authors are well-advised to give the reviewers a reason to read the manuscript in the first three paragraphs. Seriously pondering such questions as "What do we already know and where does this lead?" and "What does this study bring to the area?" will help. Authors should also consider stating the intended contribution of the work in terms of whether it identifies how theory applies to the marketplace, extends theory, investigates important moderator or mediator variables, or identifies boundary conditions for theory (Varadarajan 1996). Further, it is helpful if there is a practical hook that clearly relates the findings to marketing practice.

Carelessness in writing and presentation not only make the manuscript difficult to read and interpret, but perhaps more importantly, may create a negative halo effect on the reviewers' comments and opinions of the research as a whole (Beatty et al. 1992; Lutz 1990). In fact, the most important communication barrier to publishing is the quality of the exposition of the manuscript (Lutz 1990). Communication barriers also occur at the global level when the manuscript does not flow well, or when it is confusing and not persuasive (Lutz 1990). Therefore, an author must do an excellent job in crafting a manuscript, viewing it a work of art, carefully pieced together and planned.

According to a study by Beatty et al. (1992), the most important criteria in the review process are the significance of the contribution and the conceptual rigor of the paper. In this study, reviewers often talked about the need for the application of sound theory, with poor theory being a leading cause of rejection. Further, while the length-to-contribution ratio is an important consideration (Lutz 1990), authors should provide a coherent synthesis of the extant research on the topic (Varadarajan 1996). Further, the study must be credible and trustworthy. Claims must be believable. Authors should also acknowledge any disadvantages of the research and turn them into advantages (i.e., “Here’s what we can learn . . .”).

Submitting. According to Lutz (1990), all manuscripts should be peer-reviewed before being submitted. He recommends asking two to four trusted and respected colleagues to critically review a paper before submitting it. Effective peer reviews should inspire critical thoughts about the manuscript or motivate considerable revisions. It may be advantageous to consider peer reviewers who are less familiar with the topic, as these colleagues often have great insights (Beatty 1999). When asking your colleagues to read the manuscript, clearly request that they provide reasons they would reject it. Then arguments can be constructed, in advance of submitting the paper, to counter these reasons.

Revising. When a manuscript comes back with a request for a major revision, all is not lost. Making concerted efforts to turn the revision around as quickly as possible is strongly advised. If the reviewers suggest collecting new data, try to collect it, if possible. All of the reviewers’ concerns should be carefully, civilly, and fully addressed and elaborated upon in the response. Remember that reviewers are not always enemies and the editor can be an important friend (Beatty 1999).

Getting Tenure and Research Pressure

Not only is learning to write and publish important, but new marketing academics must mentally prepare themselves for a different kind of pressure in a tenure-earning faculty position. It is no secret that the bar for earning tenure is rising with each passing year. At some institutions, the hurdle has risen nearly exponentially in the past five years, creating pressures on new faculty that previously were not experienced (Cassulo 1998; Wilson 2001). In fact, at many institutions the common procedure is to accelerate the whole tenure process, evaluating new faculty years before going up for tenure and “showing them the door” if it appears that they will not meet future promotion and tenure requirements. Wilson (2001) reports that at many nationally-recognized institutions, junior faculty are evaluated in their fourth year by all tenured faculty in the department, with a concurrence by a college-level committee also required to continue employment. Some universities have instituted third-year reviews that require outside letters of recommendation for continued employment (Wilson 2001).

New scholars should learn about tenure and the tenure process at their respective institutions. Tips on tenure policies can be found in the report “Good Practice in Tenure Evaluation: Advice for Tenured Faculty, Department Chairs and Academic Administrators,” published by the American Council on Education, the American Association if University Professors, and the United Educators Insurance Risk Retention Group (a firm that provides insurance to universities including coverage for legal disputes over tenure), at http://www.acenet.edu. Advice for two-career academic couples can also be found in *Colloquy in Print* (Chronicle of Higher Education, May 26, 2000).

CONCLUSION

Based on suggestions from the marketing education literature and on our own personal experiences and observations, we have offered several guidelines and recommendations for new faculty. These include dissertation topic breadth and interest, cooperation with the advisor, and the conceptual linkage to related areas of research. In addition, we addressed several issues that relate to sustaining the research agenda, including understanding general threats to research productivity, building collaborative relationships, "learning" how to publish, and understanding the research pressure of a tenure-track faculty member. We hope that these are useful. In addition, we hope that perhaps our ideas lead others to qualitatively and empirically investigate factors essential to success in the marketing academic area.

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A THEORY ON WHAT MAKES A MASTER TEACHER

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ABSTRACT

Being considered a "master teacher" in your field represents a goal many educators strive for their entire careers. The current paper reviews the origins of the term, its widespread use, and some perspectives from master teachers and their students on what it means. Several models from the literature are presented and compared with the goal of uncovering significant underlying dimensions. Finally, a role-based model of master teaching is developed, drawing on the tasks and strategies of bureaucrats, traffic cops, martial arts sensei, and Vegas lounge singers.

CONCEPT ORIGINS

Evolving from its Middle English origins prior to the 12th century, modern usage of the term "master" includes a variety of definitions. The ones most pertinent to the subject of this paper involve, "a worker or artisan qualified to teach apprentices; an artist, performer, or player of consummate skill; and a great figure of the past (as in science or art) whose work serves as a model or ideal" (*Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* 2000). When used as a superlative, "master" is associated with dominance, proficiency at the highest level, and skill deriving from an in-depth knowledge of some subject.

A review of literature databases employing master teacher as a search term yielded a significant number of citations covering many disciplines (see Figure 1). The articles ranged from the obituaries of prominent educators who had been identified as master teachers during their lives to profiles of their current counterparts. In many cases, the authors attempted to capture, in somewhat informal terms, the quintessential quality or qualities that set their subjects apart from the ranks of competent educators and warranted the term master teacher.

PERSPECTIVES FROM MASTER TEACHERS AND THEIR STUDENTS

It is a commonly held view that through experience and training, teachers understand both their subject matter and how to teach it effectively. Master teachers make it a priority to update their knowledge and refine classroom skills through ongoing professional development. Furthermore, they infuse their instruction with authority and discipline and use cultural experiences to link new concepts and make them live for students (Draper 2000). Some researchers have asserted that a key differentiating factor for master teachers is the practice of incorporating their own value orientation and invitational teaching style (Pissanos and Allison 1993) or their ability to reduce problems to manageable size (Strohm 1992).

In a review of the literature, many authors highlighted other pedagogical differences and philosophical underpinnings that separate master teachers from their more "conventional" counterparts. One author cited such facets of master teaching as an innate sense of logical organization and clear communication of each concept via graphics, demonstrations, and animation

FIGURE 1
SELECTED MASTER TEACHER FIELDS AND ARTICLE CITATIONS

Field of Study/Expertise	Citations
Accounting	Hunt (1990)
Acting	Klein (1999)
Art	Nathan (1999); Morris (1989)
Ballet	Mattingly (2000); Harris (1995)
Baseball	Johnson (1998)
Belly Dancing	Greist (1997)
Capoeira (Dance/Fighting)	Dunning (1998)
Child Psychology	Cantor (1994)
Chinese Opera	Gargan (1998)
Choreography	Tommasini (1998)
Elementary Education	Porter and Foster (1998)
English	Webb (1998)
Football	Stockard (1996)
Geometry and Algebra	Whitaker (1999)
Golf	Ott (1997)
History	Boyd (2000)
Indian Odissi (Dance)	Dunning (1996)
Information Systems	Hunt (1990)
Karate	Wren (1994)
Language Arts	Whitaker (1999); Uffen (1997)
Physical Education	Pissanos and Allison (1993)
Piano	Davoine (1998)
Sociology	Donal (1986)
Theater (Movement/Clowning)	Gehman (1994)
Track and Field	Moore, Cook, and Mravic (2000)
Violin	Anonymous (1995)
Writing	Klein (1999)

(Musil 2000). Another author (Davoine 1998) focused on the ability of master teachers to develop skills in students such as ways of identifying a problem, of making students ask ourselves the right questions, and have them find their our own answers. She expresses the view that master teachers consider themselves more like a coach than a professor (Davoine 1998). This perspective transcends pedagogy or content and includes other personality facets.

Students of a language arts master teacher spoke of the energy and enthusiasm he brought to the lesson. The teacher spoke of the love and respect and appreciation that goes in his classroom and that he makes it a point to reach out to students and make them feel like they're special in order to ignite a spark in students. In the case of Kimya Moyo, a geometry and algebra teacher, she stats her belief that education is almost spiritual. To her, for teaching to be effective, it has to be about establishing relationships with students that take you into that child's world. She believes that if you can take kids to that place where they can verbalize and conceptualize and problem-solve, it's better than if they're doing a dozen drills. You have to adjust to where they are and get them to trust you." Many also spoke of this individual consideration of students – "every student is different" (Whitaker 1999). A different master teacher explained it this way, "each one has different problems to face, a different way of learning or understanding, and a different perception of what you are trying to explain. In my opinion, it takes great effort from both the teacher and the student to adapt to each other. There is certainly no pattern" (Davoine 1998).

Borrowing from some of the business management literature and concepts of continuous improvement, some take the term master teacher with a grain of salt.

> "I don't like to call anyone a 'master,' really. I'd rather call them a person on the path to mastery, but we'll use the term anyway. I think that no one can ever totally master anything, but we can all be on a path to mastery. I think one of the things that characterizes almost all of them is that they're not only willing to stay on a plateau in between spurts upwards for a long time and are not only willing to practice, but also love to practice. And, if I can make a radical statement, they can love the plateau. Almost always those who are at the top of their field are the ones who love to practice" (Akiyama 2000).

FORMAL ATTEMPTS AT SPECIFICATION

Excellence for teachers is demonstrated by bringing out the best learning of each student. While the search for criteria specific to effective teaching has been a serious research question for close to half a century, identifying those central to the excellent, or master teacher, has been elusive. According to White (1991) the concept of excellence will be a multivariate measure of the classroom environment created by an individual called a master teacher.

In a study reviewing more than 140 journal abstracts in the period 1986–1989 relating to the key words, "master teacher," (White 1991) only one study identified the characteristics of master teachers (Allen 1987). Other studies have examined the question of what role master teachers play in the educational process and include staff developer (Caldwell 1985), effective teacher (Doyle 1986), curriculum leader (Abeles 1987), and strong provider of instructional leadership (Zumwalt 1986).

In the educational research on criteria for teaching effectiveness, one conclusion seems valid – personality and attitudes are inextricably bound to classroom evaluation (Anderson, White, and Wash 1966; White, Kenney, and Gentry 1966; White and Anderson 1967; White 1969, 1971; Torrance and White 1969; White and de la Serna 1976; White and Holman 1978; White and Burke 1984; White, Burke, and Karlin 1985). Surveying a random sample of teachers and schools from 48 states, Ryan (1960) found that the three highest factors in teacher effectiveness at the elementary school level were personality traits: (1) warm, sociable, and deferring as opposed to cool, aloof, and reserved, (2) business-like, orderly, and evaluative vs. careless, slipshod, and unplanned, and (3) enthusiastic and exciting vs. dull, routine, and boring.

More structured investigations have been conducted by George (1997), Weaver et al. (1993), Lavely et al. (1990), and Allen (1987), (see Figure 2). Common threads found among all of the studies include a commitment of time and effort that occurs outside the classroom, both before (in terms of preparation and planning) and after (for interaction with students and follow-

FIGURE 2
FOUR APPROACHES TO MASTER TEACHING

George (1997)	Weaver et al. (1993)	Lavely et al. (1990)	Allen (1987)
♦ Design a highly structured teaching setting that also allows students to enjoy the learning process. ♦ Align the curriculum such that all class time is aimed at the knowledge, skills, or attitudes to be taught and learned. ♦ Create a classroom climate that ensures that everything gets off to the right start. ♦ Maintain the forward progress, or structured momentum, of the class. ♦ Engage students in carefully using what they have learned. ♦ Make sure that individualized instruction is highly targeted.	♦ Demonstrate effective delivery/ presentation skills. ♦ Show enthusiasm for subject matter and job. ♦ Get down to students' interest level including demonstrating listening skills. ♦ Use rigorous standards, tough but fair exams and policies. ♦ Use concrete, everyday examples and illustrations. ♦ Demonstrate commitment through time spent in preparation, organization, and fresh material.	♦ Expert pedagogy. ♦ Subject mastery demonstrated by testing. ♦ Roles and duties. ♦ Professional activities. ♦ Demographic data.	♦ Superior preparation. ♦ Exceptional teaching strategies. ♦ Motivation and communication skills. ♦ Sound curriculum knowledge. ♦ Interpersonal competence. ♦ Classroom management proficiencies.

up) as well as organization and creativity in the classroom. Given the diverse skill set needed to implement the various strategies identified in the studies and the singular nature of the individual master teacher, a role-based model, one that incorporates many of these identified factors, is warranted.

A ROLE-BASED MODEL

Given the number and variety of strategies and tasks identified by the four authors cited in Figure 2, educators striving to implement them (or a substantial majority) will have a significant challenge ahead of them. One way to envision the solution is to separate the components according to the major dimension of place, i.e., those that take place in the classroom and those that take place out of the classroom. A further inspection of Figure 2 will reflect a second major dimension to the strategies identified, namely focus, i.e., whether the strategies are content-based or stylistically-based. The resulting two by two matrix results in four quadrants with each sufficiently

FIGURE 3
MASTER TEACHER ROLE/ACTIVITIES MATRIX

	Outside the Classroom	**Inside the Classroom**
	Bureaucrat	**Traffic Cop**
Content Issues	♦ Syllabus construction (policies, assignments, calendar). ♦ Assessment activities (tests, quizzes, projects, feedback). ♦ Reading, conferences, seminars, interaction with other faculty, listserve activities designed to staying current in field and keeping materials (content) up-to-date.	♦ Organization of material and activities. ♦ Adaptive management of people, technology, and materials. ♦ Contingency planning for unanticipated “opportunities” to facilitate learning. ♦ Enforcement of policies.
	Martial Arts Sensei	**Vegas Lounge Singer**
Stylistic Issues	♦ Maintaining office hours/before-after class accessibility for consultation and/or coaching. ♦ Reading, conferences, seminars, interaction with other faculty, listserve activities designed to continually improve delivery methods (pedagogy) ♦ Classroom visits to colleagues’ classes.	♦ Knowing your audience. ♦ *Working the room* to include participation and multiple voices. ♦ Conveying a sense of enjoyment of the material and the experience.

unique to warrant a separate role label, capturing the essence of the tasks and strategies appropriate to the cell, and description (see Figure 3).

Lessons Learned from a Bureaucrat

The bureaucratic role is a necessary one for the master teacher. Centering around content-based issues outside of the classroom environment, the overall course planning, scheduling, and general administering of the education experience takes place when the educator is playing this role. It also incorporates the continuous improvement component mentioned in numerous articles as key to master teachers.

Lessons Learned from a Traffic Cop

As anyone who has taught in a classroom with more than one student can attest, working through a planned session requires an innate sense of organization, adaptability, and thinking on your feet. To obtain the class or course outcomes, directing the process, to whatever degree is required by the circumstances, so that students sense the direction without feeling stifled in their contribution or the experience, requires the talents of a traffic cop.

Lessons Learned from a Martial Arts Sensei

The spiritual, some would say Zen-like, qualities associated with master teachers stems in part from the continuous improvement aspect of their behavior directed at pedagogy. It also encompasses the coaching and nurturing aspects of the teacher-student relationship, taking into account accessibility outside of the classroom, whether it is face-to-face or electronically.

Lessons Learned from A Vegas Lounge Singer

Perhaps the most under appreciated role of the master teacher is that termed the Vegas lounge singer. Vegas lounge acts draw in quite a lot of people (they must be doing something right). True they are performing, but they are also delivering value to their audiences. The conveying of enthusiasm and enjoyment of what they are doing is significant. Remember that is was that enthusiasm and enjoyment that led us to this career path/profession and allowed us to sustain ourselves through the rigors of the PhD program, while for many juggling family, social life, work, and other responsibilities. The Vegas singer is polished, adaptive, and in the best sense of the word they "work the room" (the parallel to large section introductory classes is not lost on this author).

CONCLUSIONS

Whether in marketing or another teaching field, identification as a master teacher represents and ideal to be strived for. And for those who attain this pinnacle in professional development it represents not an ending point but a benchmark for their ongoing efforts. The range of tasks and strategies connected to teachers at this level requires they take on many roles, both in and out of the classroom. The goal remains the same however, to bring about the best learning possible for each student.

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SIGNING A CONTRACT TO WRITE A TEXTBOOK: PLANNING, CO-AUTHORS, NEGOTIATIONS, AND CONTRACT PROVISIONS

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ABSTRACT

At some point in their career, many marketing professors consider writing a textbook. Some go ahead with their projects, while others are discouraged because they do not know how to initiate the process. This article provides some basic background information that will allow potential authors to assess the viability of their proposed texts, and explain how to get started.

Textbook publishing is based upon contracts between authors and publishers. This paper examines the key steps in reaching such an agreement: picking a publisher; the co-author decision; contract negotiations; and, the specific provisions that make up a textbook contract.

INTRODUCTION

Many marketing professors reach a point sometime in their career where they give some thought to writing a textbook. The typical reasoning goes like this: I have devoted x number of years to teaching marketing; I think I am a pretty decent classroom instructor; so, why not cash in on my experience? For most, the idea quickly passes, but for a few, the venture begins.

The Beginning and Ending Scenario for Most Book Projects

The initial inclination for most would-be authors is to visit with your favorite local publishing rep. Typical questions include:

- Would your company consider signing me to a contract?
- What kind of advance could I get?
- What about royalties?

The reps are familiar with such inquiries. In fact, it is part of their jobs to find potential manuscripts. Publishers have set procedures for reporting such inquiries to the appropriate editor. Aspiring writers might be surprised to learn that reps get "signing bonuses" if you reach an agreement with their employers. But reps also know that most publishing ideas are long-shots at best. Some profs seem to make their publishing inquiries on an annual basis. Eventually, they retire without ever writing the book they talked about for so many years.

Getting Serious and Getting Started

Let's look at a more realistic approach to your textbook project. Start with an honest assessment of your career stage and writing skills. In today's academic marketplace, no one should contemplate writing a textbook until they are a tenured associate professor. In schools with a significant research orientation, even this career point may be too early.

Also, consider if you have the necessary writing skills. Textbook writing is vastly different from writing for journal publication. So, it is probably best to write a couple of chapters of your proposed text – complete with pedagogy, examples, tables, figures, and end-of-chapter materials. Then ask a couple of people to critique your work. Colleagues who have written textbooks before, or professors renown for their classroom skills, would be good picks. Certainly, one or more revisions of your initial effort will be in order.

These sample chapters need to be picked from your proposed table of contents (TOC). By the way, the TOC should go down to at least number 2 sub-heads. Chapter titles are not enough. Sometimes, the TOC evolves as you write the sample chapters. So, which chapters should you pick?

1. Chapter 1 is a likely candidate since it sets the format for what is to come later in the book.

2. Then, pick a chapter dealing with your speciality. After all, if you can't do a good job with that one, you will certainly have a tough time with less familiar topics.

What About Co-Authors?

Most editors will tell you that good co-authors have offsetting skills. Maybe one is strong in behavioral areas, while another is strong in strategy and research. So, the most basic questions you need to answer are "Do I need a co-author?" And if so, "why?"

♦ The co-author decision may be the toughest decision you will make as an author. A multitude of issues must be considered.

♦ Does your proposed co-author have a similar work ethic? The arrangement won't work if you are working weekends while your co-author plays golf.

♦ Do you get along with this person? Are you in regular contact with him or her? Do you trust this person's professional judgement? Remember you will be partners in the toughest writing venture you will ever undertake. A colleague of this paper's author once remarked: "I have written numerous academic articles, but nothing I ever did prepared me for the effort required to write my textbook."

♦ Publishing contracts have a no divorce clause. In essence, your co-author is your partner for as long as the book is in print. You can't divorce a co-author and look for a new partner. The bottom line is that co-authoring a textbook is a marriage with the tightest pre-nuptial agreement you could ever imagine.

Creating the Prospectus

Once you have reworked your table of contents and sample chapters to the point that you are satisfied with them, then move on to a prospectus. This document basically outlines the target market for your text. In what courses would it be used? Are there secondary markets? Maybe fashion merchandising or communications programs? Will the book have trade potential? (in other words, could it be revised as a "How-to" paperback?) Will it have a market abroad?

As an aside, if you are a first time author, it is highly unlikely that you will be signed to do a principles or basic book. The uncertainty and investment is too high for the publisher. The more likely first book scenario is an advanced offering in your area of specialization.

The prospectus should also describe the market for the text. How big is the market? What are the competitive books? Which ones are the market leaders?

Next, describe your overall approach to the books. For example, is it a behavioral or quantitative approach? Then, compare your approach to that of the market leaders. What will be your major selling points?

Finally, outline a realistic writing schedule. Assuming you still have your day job, you will need to allow at least a month per chapter. Also, remember that most publishers review chapters by parts or groups of chapters. So six months into your project, you could be revising first drafts of your initial chapters at the same time you are trying to write new material.

Once you have your prospectus, table of contents, and sample chapters, you are ready to talk to a publisher. But which one?

Targeting a Publisher

This stage becomes a real wake-up call for most beginning authors. There simply are not a lot of options these days. College publishing has gone through a massive consolidation in recent years. You can count all the major players on one hand. You can use your second set of fingers to delineate the entire industry for your particular volume.

A second wake up call comes when the budding author realizes that most of the publishers have existing books in their fields. Since most publishers operate on three year production cycles, you can figure on three existing texts per publisher; but, some major firms have multiple books in any given year.

So, your pick of a publisher may not be based on your favorite local rep. Instead, you should look at where you will have the best chance of being signed. Also, who will sell the most books for you?

Here are some general rules for picking the best publishing option. Simply answer the following questions:

1. Which publishers seem to have an "opening" for your book?

2. How many sales reps does a publisher have in the field?

3. When was the last time you saw a rep from a particular publisher?

Pick your primary target. Then make a preference list from No. 2 to whatever seems reasonable. When you are ready, contact your first pick probably through the local rep. Remember those signing bonuses. With a complete editorial review packet, you may quickly have an advocate in your local rep. Ask the rep to transmit your proposal to the appropriate editor. Tell the rep that you are serious about the project and you would like to his or her company to be your publisher. Yes, it is acceptable to say this to two or three of the reps at the same time.

Meeting the Editor

Once your materials are "in-house" at the publisher, the editor for your discipline will give it an initial review. If the project looks promising, the editor will send it out for reviews. In fact, you might have prepared one or more such publisher reviews in the past. At this point, the editor may have invested some time and say, a $1,000 in your project.

If the reviews look promising, the editor will usually call to discuss the project further. Prior to this point, most communication will probably be by e-mail. During this phone call, it is important for the potential author to express enthusiasm for the project. In short, adopt a selling mode. You will need to convince the editor that the project is viable, and you are the person to do it.

Prior to or after the call, the editor (typically called an "acquisitions editor") will have made a proposal to publish your textbook to his or her management. This proposal will assess the book's likelihood of success, forecasted sales, and publication costs (including royalties.)

If a go-decision is reached by the publisher, a contract is proposed. Some editors like to present the contract in person, particularly to first time authors. Remember that editors are also salespeople. At this point, they are selling you. So, a warning is necessary here! Yes, the nice dinner and pleasant conversation was great. But most editors stay in a discipline for 5 years or less, so don't expect this person to be around for your third or fourth edition. Also, remember as soon as you sign the contract, the editor takes off the sales hat, and puts on a production supervisor's cap. In other words, your next conversation will be about your writing schedule.

Basic Guidelines for Reviewing a Publishing Contract

It is probably best to review a publishing contract in private and when you have adequate time. Save the nice dinner with the editor until you have worked out all the contract details. Have the editor send the contract to you overnight. As soon as you get it, make a photocopy, so you have a draft on which to make notes.

First time authors often ask the following:

1. Do I need an agent? Agents are still relatively rare in college publishing. Yes, there are good ones out there. The Text and Academic Authors Association, headquartered in St. Petersburg, Florida, can provide a list. In the opinion of this writer, an agent would be most useful in signing a major, basic text – not your first publishing effort.

2. Should I have an attorney review the contract? Of course, there are excellent attorneys that practice in areas related to college publishing. But, one needs to remember that you are dealing with a very small industry, so a local attorney in general practice can not be expected to be knowledgeable about all the specific clauses in a publishing contract.

Still, over the years, publishing contracts have become longer, more detailed, and much more legalistic – leaving few things to chance from the publishers' perspective. Most authors will tell you that college publishing contracts are extremely one-sided. For example, did you know at least one publisher withholds 20 percent of royalties on a first edition book? The rationale is that if the book fails, the publisher would not have to pay royalties on texts that were later returned from bookstores. If this does not prove to be a problem, the 20 percent holdback is eventually paid to the author.

Here are a couple of other publisher-oriented provisions:

- ♦ Publishers have begun inserting clauses that cut the author's royalty rate in half if the book does not reach a certain sales level, say 1,000 copies per year. This clause really hurts authors of advanced books at the end of their publishing cycle.

- ♦ If you have multiple books with a publisher, your contracts may allow the company to offset unearned advances and other changes against your more successful books.

Negotiating the Big Ticket Items

Prospective authors should be concerned about three major contract provisions: royalties, advances, and grants. A royalty is a commission paid on net revenues received by the publisher. In other words, royalties are paid on the amount the publisher receives from the bookstore, not what the student pays at retail. By contrast, an advance is an author payment that is charged against future royalties. A $5,000 advance paid to the author means that the publisher gets to recoup a similar amount from the initial sales of the title.

The third major contract provision concerns grants. A grant is also a flat payment to an author. But, unlike advances, grants do not have to be repaid from future royalties. Grants are often provided to cover secretarial or research assistance, pay permission fees, or similar reasons.

Royalties

The standard royalty rate is now 15 percent. Some market leaders that have been around a long time carry much higher royalties. So do highly sought after titles.

Some editors initially offer a 12 percent royalty with a sliding scale provision. Initial sales might be paid at 12 percent, but after a certain sales point is reached, the rate goes to, say, 15 percent. Some contract provisions have a lengthy array of royalty rates: say, 12 prcent, 13 percent, 14 percent, 15 percent, 16 percent. Most of the unit thresholds are relatively high.

Typically, they are based on life-of-the-edition-sales, which seems favorable. But today, roughly 80 percent of life-of-the-edition sales occur in the first year.

Most authors should skip the escalating scale (even if it goes above 15%) and go straight to a 15 percent counter offer. Remember that highly competitive projects may command even higher royalty rates.

Prospective authors need to remember that the agreed upon royalty rate is binding on all future editions with one exception. In recent years, some publishers have attempted to renegotiate royalty rates downward on marginal books. Many authors have been forced to accept lower royalties to keep their books in print.

Advances

New authors are enamored with advances. Advances of $20,000 or more are common – even on advanced level books. A editor might offer 1/3 of the total upon contract signing, 1/3 upon completion of 50 percent of the manuscript, and another third upon manuscript completion.

The obvious caveat is that advances may impress your colleagues and allow you to make major purchases, but advances are really just loans. Admittedly, they are no-interest loans. Still, prospective authors should remember that what really counts is how many books the publisher is going to sell for you.

Grants

Grants are a better deal than advances. You do not have to pay them back. Prospective authors are advised to get as much grant money as possible. In addition, to the reasons cited earlier, grants might be paid for indexing, photo research, glossary preparation, and so on. It is also a good idea to ask for a provision that makes the grants payable on all future editions. Assume your book will be successful and go into multiple editions, so negotiate accordingly.

The Fine Print Adds Up

A publishing contract is a legal document that stacks the deck in favor of the publisher. Author-negotiators should try to level the contractual playing field as much as possible. Here is a list of contract changes to which publishers will often agree:

1. Start with a simple one. Most so-called “boiler-plate” (or standard) contracts call for paying one-half royalty rate on foreign sales. So, ask that the full rate be paid on Canadian sales. Remember, this refers to export sales, not Canadian adaptations. Still, this provision can be worth a lot to an author over several editions.

2. Now let’s skip to a similar item, but one that will likely be significant in the future. Wording varies among publishers, but be sure you are paid the full royalty on electronic books. Some industry sources estimate that so-called

"e-books" will eventually account for 5 percent or more of all textbook sales.

Electronic publishing also means that students can also often buy your work on a chapter-by-chapter basis. Ask that your pro-rata chapter payments be based on the retail value of the bound volume. Consider that in the future a publisher might use electronic publishing as a discount version of your text.

3. Custom publishing – the combining of your work with other volumes – is commonplace today. Be sure that your pro-rata payment is reasonable. If your content is 20 percent of the custom volume, then you should get 20 percent of your royalty rate.

4. Author alterations (AAs) are changes made to galley or page proofs. Perhaps, while proofing your manuscript in print, you see where some material could be updated. These changes are coded AAs. Traditionally, authors were allowed AAs equal to 15 percent of the composition expenses. Modern contracts have knocked that allowance down to 2 ½ percent. In short, authors who make significant changes can end up with a hefty chargeback on their first royalty check.

   As threatening as this provision may be to an author's financial health, publishers will often accept changes. So, ask for 15 percent. If currency is significant in selling your title, this will allow you to update your text even late in the page proof stage.

5. Authors are responsible for securing the permissions for copyrighted work used in their texts. This is a time consuming and frustrating process. Here is a valuable tip: Give up some advance money and ask the publisher to get the permissions for you. You will still be responsible for any permission fees, but getting an experienced permissions editor to do this task is a non-negotiable item for most established authors. By the way, it is reasonable to ask for a grant to cover at least part of your permission fees.

6. Just as you think you have completed your manuscript, publishers will call and say that they need the index and glossary on some expedited schedule. Ask the publisher to handle this task – even if they pass the freelance charges on to you. However, many publishers will agree to grants to cover these costs.

7. Many business and economic books include photos and ad reprints. Someplace, you need to define such items as production art making it the publisher's financial responsibility.

CONCLUSION

Writing a textbook is a tough job. The process is lengthy, frustrating, and oftentimes, lonely. If you are writing a book from scratch, figure it will take two years of your life. Revisions get a bit easier. So before you sign a contract, be sure you really want to undertake this task. Also, be sure your family is on the same page with you. There will be lots of sacrifices for everyone throughout the process.

If you decide to write your book, review the suggestions offered in this paper. Also, you may want to join the before-mentioned Text and Academic Writers Association. This organization is a great source of ideas for authors at any career stage.

Yes, it will be a stressful effort. However, there is no greater reward than when the first copy of your book arrives on the doorstep. You will no doubt spend a day or more looking over what you created. Enjoy it . . . you deserve it!