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Ned Hall Didn't Have to Get a Haircut

Or, Why We Haven't Learned Much about International Marketing in the Last Twenty-Five Years

The growth in international trade during the last twenty-five years has been dramatic. During this period exports have become a more important part of the American economy (see table 1). In 1960 America exported \$19.6 billion of merchandise and \$213.1 billion in 1985. Exports as a percentage of GNP were 3.9 percent in 1960 and 5.8 percent in 1985. When exports of services are included, this latter figure approaches 10 percent. Despite this substantial growth, America's share of world trade has declined substantially during the period — from 15.4 percent to 11.0 percent. Even though saturated domestic markets and increasing foreign competition force managers of American firms to rethink their competitive scope¹ and strategies [74], U.S. industries continue to lose ground. It is our proposition that this decline in America's competitiveness is in part due to a regression in the country's knowledge in international marketing.

The remainder of this article is divided into three principal sections. The first section includes a description of the decline in knowledge

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¹By competitive scope is meant the breadth of the company's activities, including the following dimensions: segment scope, vertical scope (degree of vertical integration), geographic scope, and industry scope (the range of related industries in which the company competes) [75, p. 151].

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TABLE I
International Trade Statistics

	U.S. GNP	World Trade	U.S. Exports	Exports/GNP	Exports/Trade
1960	506	127	19.6	3.9%	15.4%
1965	691	186	26.7	3.9%	14.4%
1970	992	314	42.7	4.3%	13.6%
1975	1549	877	107.7	7.0%	12.3%
1980	2631	1997	220.6	8.4%	11.0%
1985	3663	1939	213.1	5.8%	11.0%

NOTE: Figures not adjusted for inflation.

SOURCE: United Nations *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics*, 1987.

production in international marketing during the last twenty-five years. Explanations for the decline concern the lack of research in two fields — marketing and cultural anthropology. In the second section, fifty-nine doctoral dissertations in the area of international marketing are investigated. The contents of these dissertations, produced during the years 1974 to 1981, are analyzed and the academic success of their authors is reported. The final section begins with a discussion and interpretation of the findings of the study. The article is concluded with a series of prescriptions for increasing knowledge production in international marketing.

The Decline of Knowledge Production in International Marketing

Academic institutions (including business schools) produce and disseminate knowledge. The emphasis placed on research in academia recognizes that “relative advantages” (for individuals, firms, industries, and countries) may be created through superiority in knowledge. The report from the Commission on the Effectiveness of Research and Development for Marketing Management (a study group sponsored by the American Marketing Association and the Marketing Science Institute and headed by three senior professors of marketing at U.C. Berkeley, Harvard, and Stanford [cf. 68]) clearly demonstrates that a substantial amount of knowledge has been created in marketing. Even so, business schools have recently been accused of teaching irrelevant topics as well as doing inadequate research. Growth and continued survival of business schools depends on the support of their constituencies, business enterprises who use their products (that is, both students *and* the knowledge they possess).

During the last fifteen years, the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) has continuously called for “internationalization” of the curricula in American business schools. This

“new” accreditation requirement recognizes the internationalization of the American economy alluded to previously. International issues are of crucial importance to marketing, perhaps even more so than most other functional areas in business schools. Future business leaders learn about the “changing environment” and “how to deal with clients” in marketing classes. The focus of marketing is outside the firm. Yet the field of marketing has not responded to the needs of its constituencies — AACSB or business managers and their organizations.

How can the lack of focus on international marketing research be explained? One possible explanation might be that “international marketing” represents only a specific case of marketing, and thus “general” marketing insights may be applied in all countries [cf. 58]. However, the degree of generalizability ought to be examined. Until now, only a few attempts have been made to replicate findings across cultures [cf. 18]. Further, Myers et al. [68] distinguish between “context free” and “context specific” knowledge. International marketing implies a great amount of context specific knowledge — markets (their structures and functions) and actors vary substantially across countries [cf. 17, 19, 33, 92].

Knowledge Needed

Marketing is often seen as a subset of exchange [cf. 55, p. 4], and according to Hunt, “marketing science is the behavioral science which seeks to explain exchange relationships” [47, p. 129]. Exchange as such implies:

- *identification* of exchange partners;
- identification and evaluation of *exchange media*;
- *establishment* of, and
- *maintenance* of exchange relationships.

The various marketing activities may all be related to this exchange perspective. Analyses of markets, competitors and regulatory forces may be seen as devices to learn about the value of, and possible ways of, accessing exchange arenas. Insights into buyers’ values and preferences are of crucial importance to position products and services to be accepted by customers. Knowledge about distribution systems is needed for bringing the seller and buyer together and thus making transactions and continued exchange possible.

International marketing implies exchanges *outside* the domestic market. Thus, the international marketer has to establish relationships

in order to enhance exchange in a context which may differ dramatically from the domestic scene with regard to culture, political and economic conditions, and spatial distance. All contribute to increased uncertainty [cf. 17]. Moreover, in most cases the domestic marketer knows more — much more — about home markets, than about potential foreign markets [cf. 20].

Knowledge is needed to reduce uncertainty. The mere growth in importance of international markets, as well as the associated higher degree of uncertainty, demands that research be directed towards international marketing. Yet this does not seem to be the case. Wind [92] has identified international marketing as a “step-child” in the marketing literature. Further, Cunningham and Hunt [27] and Wind and Robertson [94] have claimed the marketing literature to be “almost exclusively domestic.” Most recently, Engle [31] contends that the consumer behavior literature (which may be seen as *the* basis of the marketing literature) is Western-bound and ethnocentric in orientation (p. 1).

A series of review articles has been published on the topic of international marketing. The several authors are unanimous in their negative appraisals of this literature. Albaum and Peterson state, “investigation of international marketing phenomena has lagged considerably behind that of domestic marketing phenomena” [4, p. 161]. Boddewyn concludes: “A perusal of marketing and consumer behavior texts reveals little integration of cross-cultural comparative findings” [12, p. 73]. Cavusgil and Nevin [18] have noted several weaknesses in international marketing research, such as absence of conceptual and theoretical frameworks, lack of attention to previous studies, as well as several methodological flaws. Finally, based on a survey of international business firms in Ohio, Ricks and Czinkota conclude, “The executives also tend to agree consistently that past academic research in the field of international business has not been helpful” [80, p. 98].

Research and Decision Makers

By far the single most important barometer of marketing thought is the content of the *Journal of Marketing* [cf. 22, 68]. It is the oldest, most widely read, and most influential journal for marketing academics and practitioners alike. In figure 1 is presented a history of the international content of *JM* since its inception. The graph begs the question: Why the increased attention given international topics during the 1960s? However, even more important is the explanation for the steep decline in international content during the 1970s, even as exports con-

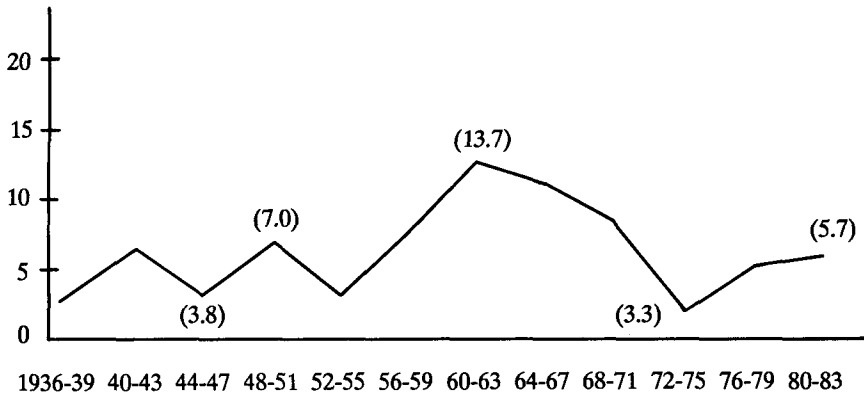


FIG. 1. The Percentage of International Articles in the *Journal of Marketing*, 1936-1983

tinued to grow faster than GNP.² Finally, is it just coincidence that international competitiveness (America's share of world trade) declined with the decline in international content in *JM*? We think not, given the crucial role of the *Journal* in leading marketing thought and education in the United States.

Indeed, the work of Weiss and Bucuvalas [88] supports such a notion. They studied the influence of academic research on policy making in mental health institutions. Although they report that only 14 percent of the decision makers had heard of the various research papers used in the study, they still conclude that such papers have a profound, albeit indirect influence on the decision makers:

As the decision makers whom we interviewed reported, a much more common mode of research use is the diffuse and undirected infiltration of research ideas into their understanding of the world. They reported few deliberate and targeted uses of the findings from individual studies. Rather they absorbed the concepts and generalizations from many studies over extended periods of time and they integrated research ideas, along with other information, into their interpretation of events. This gradual sensitization to the perspectives of social science, they believe, has important consequences. Over time it affects what they think and what they do. It is not planned and conscious use, not directed toward immediate applications, but the research information and ideas that percolate into their stock of knowledge represent a part of the intellectual capital upon which they draw in the regular course of their work.

²The same lack of international orientation has also been observed for research on management. Adler [2] found less than 5 percent of the articles published in top American management journals to focus on international issues.

Weiss and Bucuvalas also cite findings of related studies which corroborate their results [for example, 16, 21, 25, 49, 53, 72, 79].

The argument that the *Journal of Marketing* influences trade performance is analogous to Weiss's and Bucuvalas's, but augmented by still another medium — college textbooks. Although it is true that decision makers themselves read the *Journal* (in 1986, there were more than fifteen thousand subscribers), so do marketing textbook authors. The *Journal of Marketing* is the single most frequently cited journal in marketing textbooks. A good example is the Chapter Notes from Berkowitz, Kerin, and Rudelius's [10] *Marketing*. The book is presently the most widely adopted basic text in the country (users in 1986 \approx 75,000, total users of all basic marketing texts in 1986 \approx 350,000). Perhaps even more interesting is that Roger Kerin, one of the authors of the text, is now the editor of the *Journal of Marketing*!

Thus, we would argue that the contents of the *Journal* influence managers and their performance directly as described by Weiss and Bucuvalas [88], but also indirectly via marketing textbook writers, professors, and their classroom interactions with future managers.

Explanations — Marketing

How can it be that knowledge production in marketing differs from the needs of the field's constituencies? Albaum and Peterson [4] ascribe the lagging development of international marketing to difficulties of conducting research on international marketing phenomena. Terpstra [86] adds that research in international finance is easier because data from secondary sources are used, whereas international marketing requires data from firms or consumers — a tougher source. Wind and Perlmutter [93] also list important obstacles to international marketing research, for example, the complexity of the multinational environment, the considerably higher monetary and time costs involved in multicountry studies, the conceptual problems of comparability across languages and cultures, and the operational difficulties of implementing multicountry studies.

Myers et al. [68] and Tauber [85] imply a production mentality on the part of marketing journals and their editors — preaching the “market concept,” but not following it. In particular, the latter attributes the decline in readership of the *Journal of Marketing Research* to its “not satisfactorily meeting the needs of its audience” (page 525).

Cunningham and Green [26] disagree with Tauber's assignment of culpability to journal management. Indeed, they call for more submissions of international marketing studies:

The paradox is that despite the obvious increase in international marketing activities, this trend has not been reflected in the marketing literature. The *Journal* receives relatively few manuscripts with an international orientation, which suggests a dearth of activity among authors in regard to this growing area.

Farley and Wind echoed this complaint, "During 1979, only 9 percent of the manuscripts had an international focus; of these, only 10 percent were of adequate quality to be accepted" [33, p. 5].

Reference to Kuhn [57] Merton [65], and more recently Whitley [91] and Arndt [6] suggests associated, but deeper explanations — specifically, that knowledge production is constrained by the social system of scientists and the environment of scientific activity. Merton states:

social organization of intellectual activity is significantly related to the character of the knowledge which develops under its auspices. . . . Increasingly, it has been assumed that the social structure does not influence science merely by focusing the attention of scientists upon certain problems for research. In addition to the studies to which we have already referred, others have dealt with the ways in which the cultural and social context enters into the conceptual phrasing of scientific problems [65, p. 539].

Merton provides copious examples to support his contentions. However, the present focus is on the lack of international marketing knowledge. We now turn to a discussion of that topic, invoking Merton's ideas and arguments for analysis of this specific case.

We see three principle impediments to the production of knowledge in international marketing. First is the heavy borrowing of theories and methods from psychology and sociology. Second are differences in academic systems across countries. Third, and we feel most important, are the several, substantial constraints on the choice of doctoral dissertation topics by American Ph.D. students. The three impediments are interrelated, and their discussion will be appropriately integrated.

Theories and Methods on Loan. The sharp decline in the percentage of international marketing articles in the *Journal of Marketing* after 1960–63 coincides with an equally sharp increase in the percentage of consumer behavior articles. Grether mentions the growing influences of other social sciences during this period: "Most important was the strong shift toward the application of the social and behavioral sciences" [39, p. 67]. Accompanying this shift were three key developments: (1) An emphasis on the logical empiricist (deductive) approach to the study of marketing; (2) the widespread adoption of the computer allowing for increasingly elegant statistical analyses; and (3) a de-

emphasis of foreign language requirements and training in colleges and universities.

The logical empiricist approach to science emphasizes deduction; that is, theories are proposed and *then* tested. This approach presupposes well-formed theories about human behavior. The fields of psychology and sociology provided a substantial foundation for hypotheses regarding a specific aspect of human behavior — the behavior of consumers. So theories were borrowed and fashioned to fit marketers' questions, rather than developed from scratch. Methods of statistical analyses were also being developed in these other fields to test the theories "rigorously." And such methods were readily applied to testing social and psychological theories in marketing settings. Indicative of the logical empiricists' paradigm is Albaum and Peterson's [4] criticism of the extant literature in international marketing: "There was, moreover, a preponderance of descriptive and exploratory research designs as opposed to validation research designs" (p. 165); and "when analyzing data, considerations should be given to more powerful techniques that would permit evaluating the covariation of numerous variables that are less than intervally scaled (that is, the use of AID, conditional logit analysis, and nonparametric multivariate techniques should be encouraged)" (p. 170).

Meanwhile, the social science most closely related to international marketing questions — cultural anthropology — had no such tradition of deduction or logical empiricism. Rather, inductive reasoning and interpretation were emphasized. Moreover, anthropologists emphasized the study of primitive cultures which made borrowing theories and methods more difficult. That is, marketers were studying the same people as the psychologists and sociologists — just a subset of their behavior. Alternatively, anthropologists were considering different groups of people in remote locations, and therefore relatively little was borrowed from cultural anthropologists.

Not only did computers influence how marketing scientists analyzed data, but also how data were collected. Statistical significance at the 0.05 level became the primary criterion for the publication of research. This emphasis has led to a wholesale tradeoff of external validity for the sake of internal validity. "Measurement problems" have taken the study of marketing phenomena out of the field and put it on paper (questionnaires) or in laboratories (experiments). Larger sample sizes and experimental designs almost always necessitate shallow investigations of human behavior.

Even more disturbing are the subtle influences of computers on the development of theories in the social sciences and marketing in particular. The resulting constraints on thinking are troubling. For example, a crucial breakthrough in the field was the elaboration of comprehensive models of consumer behavior by Nicosia [70], Howard and Sheth [44] and Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell [32]. The resemblance of these models to computer programs and data processing is no coincidence. The entire field of management science assumes that concepts can be quantified and measured. But consider for a moment the problems advertising researchers have had in quantifying copy effects or emotional responses to ads. Moreover, all our present models of communication response (for example, cognitive, affective, parallel, low-involvement, and social — [see 9]) assume sequential or computer-like processing of information. Structural equation modeling, perhaps currently the most elegant and rigorous technique of statistical analysis, rests completely on an assumption of linear relationships. And only in the last few years are we beginning to question these underlying assumptions of the field — that human thinking and behavior are computer-like, quantifiable, sequential, and linear. Others have made these arguments in more detail [cf. 6, 13, 28], so they will not be dwelt upon here.

Finally, along with the adoption of the computer came a demphasis of foreign language training (and the humanities in general [cf. 52]) in United States universities in the late 1960s and the 1970s. Bowen and Delaney report that “Fewer than half of all colleges and universities now require foreign language study for the bachelor’s degree, down from nearly 90 percent in 1966 [14, p. 91].³ Indeed, where a foreign language was required for a doctoral degree, many universities gave students the option of learning “Fortran.” Communicating with an IBM 6400 became more important than communicating with a consumer, business person, or marketing scientist in another country.⁴ The consequences of this change in the educational requirements of our marketing scientists is deeply driven home by Albaum and Peter-

³McCaughey [63], Backman [7], and others attribute much of the decline of international studies to withdrawal of support of the Ford Foundation’s International Training and Research Program, which had a substantial impact on American universities between 1953 and 1966. The 1950s and 1960s also saw contributions and support from Rockefeller and Carnegie Foundations, the National Defense Education Act (Title VI), and various Fulbright programs.

⁴Indeed, it is interesting to note that in 1921 the curriculum at the University of Southern California School of Business consisted of forty-six courses, nine of which were international business oriented. *Four* language courses were offered — Commercial Spanish, Commercial French, Commercial German, and Commercial Chinese.

son's description of their review of the body of knowledge in international marketing:

The investigation is limited to articles and papers published in journals and conference proceedings that are reasonably accessible to both academicians and practitioners. Thus, although journals such as the *Revue Française du Marketing* contain relevant articles, they were considered too inaccessible for inclusion in the investigation [4, p. 162].

“Too inaccessible!” — this is sad commentary indeed on the limits of American marketing science.

Most of these standards for good science, borrowed from psychology and sociology, do not fit the problems of international marketing. For example, how might we study the influence of family ties on distribution systems in Taiwan using a logical empiricist approach? Yet we know that kinship has a pervasive influence on business systems in Chinese cultures. “Standards” of comparability of samples of consumers across countries for all practical purposes prevent the comparative studies called for by Boddewyn [12], Engel [31], and others [cf. 38]. The predominant views and standards in the field to a large extent preclude study of such international marketing questions.

Related to the issue of knowledge production in universities is knowledge production in firms. Cavusgil studied the research practices of seventy Midwestern firms and concluded, “Perhaps the most striking finding of this study is that international marketing research . . . is less rigorous, less formal, and less quantitative when compared to domestic market research activities” [20, p. 267]. Is this lack of sophistication bad? From the logical empiricist point of view, yes. Alternatively, managers of firms argue that exploratory methods are more appropriate for the problems they face, and Bonoma [13], Arndt [6] and Holton [43] would agree.

Knowledge Production in Other Countries. The systems of knowledge production in other countries differ from those in the United States [36, 91]. Our two most important international competitors are West Germany and Japan. At least based on their successes in international markets, one would conclude that their systems effectively produce and disseminate knowledge relevant to the problems of international marketing. Yet American scholars know almost nothing about this knowledge. Not only do Americans not speak or read the languages, but the knowledge production systems themselves are incompatible. Plainly stated, even if Americans could read a German marketing journal they would not *believe* the authors. German standards of

proof, of academic rigor are different and incongruous with American standards. And from each ethnocentric perspective, knowledge without “our standards” is not knowledge.

Merton [65] well describes this problem concerning mass communications research in the United States and Germany. He points out the fundamental incompatibility of American empiricism and German theory-based interpretations. Indeed, Paul Lazarsfeld aptly summarizes the American response to German social science: “Where is the evidence?” [59, p. 340]. But perhaps the best (or worst, depending on your point of view) example of this problem is described in a recent *Business Week* article about superconductors. The key breakthrough in this fast evolving field was made by K. Alex Muller, a physicist from IBM’s Zurich research labs. Americans are now about a year behind other scientists because when Muller reported his results,

many U.S. scientists missed the paper when it was published last April because Muller chose a German journal not widely read in the U.S. Some who did read it doubted the findings. “I just couldn’t take the claims seriously,” says one physicist who now regrets his skepticism [83, p. 95].

Similarly, American marketing scholars do not read German journals of marketing. Moreover, because of different standards of proof, American scholars tend to denigrate the few German contributions written in English. Or as Pinch puts it: “Communication breakdown in this context refers not so much to the difficulties encountered by scientists in actually talking to each other (although this is part of the problem) but rather more to the difficulties encountered at the cognitive level, that is ‘conceptualizing,’ ‘understanding’ or ‘making sense’ of the work of other scientists” [73, p. 172]. In short, “careful logic” is the primary standard of rigor in Germany, whereas “ $p < 0.05$ ” is the comparable standard in the United States. Thus, Americans learn little from German marketing scholars because they do not value German theories without “*the evidence,*” because of the blinders of American empiricism.

And what about Japan? Is their success simply a matter of their implementation of our marketing knowledge? Perhaps Benjamin Nelson’s comments are pertinent here: “The contemporary situations in respect to the mixes in both the so-called ‘West’ and ‘East’ of the active elements and components of cultural complexes — the mixes of rational/non-rational, abstract/empirical, technology, magic, superstition — demand a wider understanding of the meanings and forms that sciences have taken in different settings than we possess today”

[69, p. 15]. Certainly, Galtung [36] agrees. If the Japanese do have a special knowledge of international marketing, American marketing scientists have no way of transferring that knowledge.⁵

Not only can Americans expect to learn more about international marketing from foreign scholars, they may also gain new insights regarding marketing in America. It is no coincidence that seminal authors in consumer behavior — Franco Nicosia and Jagdish Sheth — were raised in foreign countries. Indeed, their “foreign” perspective has allowed them to see aspects of consumer behavior which American scholars take for granted.

A final facet of this problem relates to the review process for articles in American journals. Seldom are foreign reviewers, with their different and valuable perspectives, included as reviewers for papers on international topics. Although most journals have foreign members on their editorial review boards (for example, the *Journal of Marketing* has one Canadian), often editors eschew foreign reviewers because of their reputed cavalier attitude about due dates and frequent delays in overseas mail.

Doctoral Dissertations. Doctoral dissertations are the keystone of knowledge development in marketing. Because of the nature of the United States academic system, the choice of the topic for the dissertation to a large degree determines the direction of one’s research during the most productive years of an academic career — the first ten years after graduation.⁶ As an untenured assistant professor, all resources must be focused on publishing papers in the most important academic journals. These journals have review boards staffed with people holding specific perspectives on acceptable research [cf. 51, 68], whose perceived expectations thus are taken into account.⁷ In marketing, these

⁵The Wharton School appears to be opening a needed window to Japan by dedicating substantial resources to a new U.S.-Japan Management Studies Center. The University of California, San Diego’s Graduate School of International Relations and Pacific Studies is another innovative program integrating languages and business training.

⁶Finkelstein [34] reviewed several studies in a number of fields and concluded that research and publication productivity declines with age. Knorr et al. [54], and Bayer and Dutton [8] suggest a bimodal curve fit their academic productivity data best. The latter authors report the first peak of productivity occurred roughly ten years following receipt of the doctorate and the second peak just before retirement. However, generally motivation associated with the tenure decision is key. Shortly after tenure, the writing of textbooks, consulting, and administration take increasingly more time. At the same time, professors are trying to find their way back to their families, compensating for the long hours spent away from home in the early years.

⁷“Perceived” expectations are crucial. Hull reports that although editors’ and ref-

journals have been dominated by the logical empiricist approach [6]. Further, the time limits imposed by the “publish or perish” system motivate future associate professors to specialize in their dissertation topic areas. Knowledge of the background literature is crucial, and changing research areas requires a significant investment of time and energy in reviewing a new literature. So the dissertation is “mined” and extended quickly, this being the strategy most likely leading to tenure.

Education may be seen as investment in human capital [cf. 81], and choice of the dissertation topic may be seen as a specification of such an investment. To be rational, an investment should yield a high return, which, in academia, may be interpreted as the publications needed to get tenure. “Publish-or-perish” is perceived to be a “reality” by assistant professors.

Several factors may impact the candidate’s choice of dissertation topic. *Interests and experience* before entering the Ph.D. program may be one such source of influence. The impact of *the Ph.D. program* is another very strong source of influence. The program represents an important source for socializing the candidate into the academic community. Values for good research are acquired. New interests are awakened and encouraged by mentors. During the program the student stays in close contact with teachers and experienced researchers, and their norms, expectations, and even interests are often acquired. Thus the faculty, their research interests and skills — which partly will be reflected in the courses they offer — may to a substantial degree direct and influence the final choice of research topic.

The Ph.D. candidate is working under severe *constraints*. Time and money are limitations well recognized by doctoral students and professors alike. Indeed, this is a major reason why almost all dissertations consist of cross-sectional rather than longitudinal designs. Other constraints are the methodological insights acquired — and emphasized — as “sound methodology.”⁸ The perceived expectations of the members of the dissertation committee are often viewed as serious constraints. Doctoral dissertations (and the accompanying streams of research) re-

erees’ biases do not necessarily influence the content of journals in the long run, “instances of bias or at least injudicious behavior can be cited during the long history of *Systematic Zoology*. Such instances were sufficiently frequent to generate rumors of bias, but not so frequent that their effects can be discerned in summary data” [46, p. 337]. And such “rumors” about editorial preferences do influence dissertation topic choice and submissions.

⁸The emphasis on quantitative analysis and large samples [cf. 5] is now being questioned [cf. 71].

garding international topics are not favored in such an academic system. Many of the important topics in international marketing simply do not fit the predominant logical empiricist paradigm.

Bonoma [13] suggests that the “phenomena of interest” should (and often do) dictate the appropriate methods. Because theories of international marketing are not well formed [4], a more exploratory approach, rather than a confirmatory one, will often be appropriate. However, exploratory research is discouraged by most dissertation advisors — the risk of no findings and/or rejection in the journals is great. Moreover, because little international research has been published in the most respected marketing journals, a shortage exists of qualified reviewers with experience in international research. That is, qualification for review board duties to a large extent depends on previous publication in those journals. Whitley explains another dimension of this problem:

A major manifestation of the way reputational control limits the originality of contributions to collective intellectual goals is the necessity of referring to the previous work of colleagues. While this may be necessary to avoid prolix redundancies in the text, it is also a way of exerting social control over novel ideas. . . . In a sense, citations are a way of ritualistically affirming group goals and norms, of demonstrating group membership and identity [91, pp. 27–28].

Aside from the inherent riskiness of most international topics, a series of practical constraints on the dissertation research process exist. Data collection in another country will almost always take longer. Collaboration with academics in other countries requires travel and time [cf. 35]. Moreover, reward systems vary across academic institutions in different countries — not all professors of marketing are rewarded for articles in American journals. International travel for most doctoral students is prohibitively expensive; international mail to some countries is exasperatingly slow; and international phone calls across several time zones often cost not only dollars, but also lost hours of sleep. People in most countries around the world are questionnaire averse [29], precluding the favorite research method of American scholars in many cases. Finally, because American doctoral candidates are seldom fluent in a foreign language, others must be depended upon to help with translations, interviews, and so on.

Explanations — Cultural Anthropology

As mentioned previously, the field of social science most relevant to many of the questions in international marketing is cultural anthro-

pology. Yet that field has contributed little to marketing thought since the 1960s. Part of the explanation was alluded to previously — methods and theories in cultural anthropology are not dominated by logical empiricism. Thus, marketing scientists naturally discount knowledge produced by anthropologists. Or as Mitroff [66] might put it, research in international marketing has “slipped through the cracks between the two disciplines.” But another part of the explanation has to do with other circumstances — the refusal of anthropologists to study the business setting *and* the refusal of business people to allow anthropologists to enter the business setting.

Anthropology is an old social science. Useful ethnography was recorded in the early seventeenth century. The early anthropologists considered commercial settings. Indeed, throughout history, cross-cultural interactions have most frequently occurred during trading [cf. 37, 61, 67, 84]. Yet during the 1960s anthropologists stopped studying the commercial setting. Why? One of the primary focuses of cultural anthropologists during the twentieth century has been on the definition of culture (that is, what are its dimensions? [cf. 42]). From the anthropologists' point of view, the ideal laboratory for this inquiry has been the primitive society, one uninfluenced, “unpolluted” by the outside world. During the last eighty years, such societies have become almost nonexistent [cf. 30]. Multinational corporations have often been blamed. Indeed, the first sign of influence from outside has often been the Coke bottle. Anthropologists, particularly during the 1960s and 1970s accused the multinationals not only of destruction of traditional societies, but also exploitation and worse [50]. International business enterprise was to cultural anthropology then, as antivivisectionists are to cancer research today — companies destroyed anthropologists' laboratories. Thus, anthropologists naturally abhorred the study and the aid of international business enterprise during this period.

Perhaps the single most influential article on international marketing written by an anthropologist is E. T. Hall's “The Silent Language in Overseas Business” [40]. It is excerpted or quoted heavily in almost all international marketing textbooks. Nothing of comparable quality and influence has been published in the business literature by anthropologists since then. Hall's article is in part based on participant observation of sales negotiations. What Hall accomplished in the late fifties could not be done during the sixties and seventies. Ned Hall didn't have to get a haircut to observe unobtrusively. In 1959, all he had to do was put on a business suit. But in the sixties and seventies hair styles changed.

Particularly among academics in the social sciences, long hair was the rule, and long hair and a dark blue business suit were incongruous then as now. Indeed, Iacocca's [48] recent denigration of those "long hairs" is indicative of executives' general prejudice against and skepticism of the social sciences in general. So even if anthropologists had wanted to study questions relevant to international marketing during the sixties and seventies, such resistance on the part of business executives would have precluded the research. This "hair" issue raises the question, "but what about women anthropologists?" However, during this period there were few women anthropologists *and* women did not, and indeed still do not often [cf. 3] participate in international management settings. Indeed, only in recent years are we again beginning to see anthropologists consider questions pertinent to international business [cf. 41, 82].

Dissertations in International Marketing — 1974–1981

Doctoral dissertations are not only the keystone of knowledge production in marketing; they are the keystones of academic careers in marketing as well. Given the crucial role of dissertation research, three questions are considered in the present study. First, what factors influence doctoral students to select topics in international marketing? Next, what kinds of studies have been undertaken in international marketing dissertations? Third, what factors related to the doctoral dissertation lead to successful academic careers? Following is a brief description of the exploratory methods used to uncover answers to these three questions. The rationale for this research strategy was to allow for gradual enlightenment of the problems under examination.⁹

Data Collection

Between the years 1974 to 1981, 692 doctoral dissertation abstracts were published by the American Marketing Association. Although this series does not provide a complete listing of all dissertations completed during those years, it does come close. Of these 692 dissertations, 59 were determined to involve international topics (that is, marketing in another country — besides the U.S. — or exporting to foreign countries — including the U.S.). Addresses could be found for only 56 of the 59 dissertation authors. These 56 were sent a short question-

⁹Cf. Zaltman et al. [95] for an interesting discussion of the research process, and how insights may be gained gradually.

naire. Two questionnaires were returned as undeliverable. Of the 54 remaining, 37 questionnaires were returned completed, yielding a response rate of 63 percent. Information from the abstracts and the questionnaires comprises the data reported below.

Idea Sources

Table 2 reports the results related to the first research question — what factors lead to the choice of an international topic? The most often cited influential sources for ideas for dissertation topics were work experience, dissertation advisors, and literature reviews. It is encouraging to note that more than half the respondents saw a gap in the

TABLE 2
Sources of Ideas for Dissertation Topic (N=37)

"Influential sources for the idea for your dissertation topic. You can check more than one if appropriate":

Your own work experience (EXP)	45.9%
Consultation with business people (BUSP)	24.3%
Literature review (LIT)	51.4%
Suggestion of peers (PEERS)	5.4%
Suggestion of dissertation advisor (ADVSN)	48.6%
Suggestion of other faculty (FAC)	10.8%
Others	16.2%

literature in the international area. Surprisingly, more than half the sample were evidently *not* influenced by their dissertation advisors. This stands in stark contrast to the pervasive influence of the dissertation advisors in the hard sciences in the United States and in the social sciences in several other countries (for example, Germany), where doctoral students are assigned problems for study. Peers and other faculty appear to have had little influence in topic selection. Of the six respondents choosing the "other" category, five mentioned residence in another country in their explanation. Finally, one respondent noted, "I was advised (by my dissertation advisor) *not* to do the research because it was too 'complex'." This last comment is perhaps indicative of the kinds of barriers to selection of international topics described earlier.

The Contents of International Marketing Dissertations

There are several ways to summarize the content of the international marketing dissertations produced between 1974 and 1981.

1. Albaum and Peterson [4] classified 112 empirical international marketing studies published between 1976 and 1982 into seven topic areas. The 59 dissertations were likewise sorted. As can be seen in table 3, two additional categories were added to Albaum and Peterson's list.

TABLE 3
Topics of International Marketing Dissertations (1974-1981)

Topic	Articles Published ^a 1976-1982 (N = 112)	Dissertations Completed (N = 59)
Multinational corporations	8.9%	3.3%
Foreign direct investment	9.8%	0
Consumer and buyer behavior	22.3%	35.6%
Elements of the marketing mix	52.7%	27.1%
Research methodology	1.8%	0
Retailing	1.8%	1.7%
Markets and market structure in an area	2.7%	8.5%
Government and industrial associations' policies and practices	*	15.3%
Attitudes of exporters	*	8.5%

^a From Albaum and Peterson [4]

* Not considered

Nine of the dissertations (15.3 percent) regarded the policies and/or practices of government institutions or industrial associations. Five dissertations (8.5 percent) considered the attitudes of managers toward exporting. Albaum and Peterson may have classified these latter studies into the "marketing mix" category. As might be expected, the array of dissertation topics chosen corresponds roughly to literature published during the period. In both cases, the majority of studies concerned either consumer/buyer behavior or the marketing mix. This suggests the importance of the literature review as an influence on dissertation topic choice and the success of sixteen researchers in publishing papers from their dissertations during the period covered by Albaum and Peterson's review.

As indicated in table 2, businesspeople had relatively little influence on dissertation topics. This is further reflected in the lack of correspondence of both dissertation topics and empirical research with the "problem areas" identified by practitioners. Ricks and Czinkota [80] asked business executives representing the largest international business firms based in Ohio to rank thirty-three "problem areas" in their international operations. Five marketing issues were rated in the top fifteen: communications — No. 1, pricing — No. 2, availability of foreign data — No. 8, distribution channels — No. 14, and different product standards — No. 15. Although communication was rated as the most important problem, Albaum and Peterson [4] report that none of the studies reviewed was concerned with personal selling (see table 3). Likewise, only one dissertation considered this aspect of the marketing mix. International pricing was another important problem area ignored by the researchers. Regarding pricing in international markets,

only one dissertation was completed and one empirical study published during this period.

2. Adler [2] reviewed the international content of the management literature between the years 1971–80. Focusing on the five most important management journals (that is *Academy of Management Journal*, *Academy of Management Review*, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *Harvard Business Review*, and *Management Science*), 4.5 percent of the articles (that is, 136 of 3001) considered international issues. As indicated by figure 1, this percentage corresponds well with the paucity of international articles appearing in the *Journal of Marketing* during the same period. Adler broke down the international articles into three subcategories — foreign (involving one foreign country), comparative (comparing two countries), and intercultural (involving interactions between countries). The ratio of foreign/comparative/intercultural topics in these five management journals is 51 percent/37 percent/12 percent. The corresponding ratios for the marketing dissertations was 37 percent/15 percent/48 percent. The greater emphasis in intercultural topics for marketing dissertations may result from the basic orientations of the two disciplines. Management's focus is within the firm. Marketing's focus is outside the firm — exchange across cultural and national boundaries.

3. Albaum and Peterson [4] report that most of the empirical studies concerned either the United States or Western Europe (United Kingdom, Germany, France) as areas of interest. However, the doctoral dissertations demonstrate a better representation of America's most important markets as subjects of study. Table 4 lists the United States' twenty-five most important markets and United States exports to those countries during 1987. Also included is the number of dissertations considering marketing in each country. Seventeen of the studies regarded countries not among America's most important trading partners. A comparison of names and current addresses of the dissertation writers suggests that most of these seventeen studies were completed by natives of the subject countries. Sixteen of the dissertations did not specify a country or countries; for example, five of the studies considered American managers' attitudes toward exporting in general.

4. The Albaum and Peterson study considered empirical research wherein data were collected from primary sources. Several of the published studies they reviewed included more than one data collection method. As can be seen in table 5, by far the most common methods used were mail questionnaires and personal interviews. Twenty-one of

TABLE 4
Countries Studied, Top 25 U.S. Markets

Country	U.S. Domestic and Foreign Merchandise Exports,		Number of Dissertations Considering
	1987 f.a.s. Value \$ billions		
1. Canada	59.8		5
2. Japan	28.2		4
3. Mexico	14.6		3
4. United Kingdom	14.1		3
5. West Germany	11.7		1
6. Netherlands	8.2		1
7. South Korea	8.1		0
8. France	7.9		2
9. Taiwan	7.4		1
10. Belgium & Luxembourg	6.2		0
11. Italy	5.5		0
12. Australia	5.5		0
13. Singapore	4.1		0
14. Brazil	4.0		1
15. Hong Kong	4.0		1
16. Venezuela	3.6		1
17. China	3.5		0
18. Saudi Arabia	3.4		1
19. Switzerland	3.2		1
20. Spain	3.1		0
21. Israel	3.1		0
22. Egypt	2.2		0
23. Malaysia	1.9		0
24. Sweden	1.9		0
25. Ireland	1.8		0

SOURCE: U.S. Commerce Department

TABLE 5
Methodological Characteristics of International Marketing Dissertations (1974-1981)

Primary Data Collection	Articles Published 1976-1982*	Dissertations Completed 1974-1981	
<i>Method</i>			
Survey—Mail	49%	47%	(N = 38)
personal	56%	42%	
telephone	2%	0	
hand delivered	7%	3%	
Observation	1%	0	
Experiment	4%	8%	
<i>Sample Sizes</i>			
less than 30	11%	30%	(N = 33)
30-50	9%	3%	
51-100	14%	21%	
101-250	22%	18%	
215-500	19%	18%	
501-1000	18%	6%	
greater than 1000	8%	3%	

*From Albaum and Peterson [4], the "methods" percentages total more than 100% because several of the studies used more than one method.

the international marketing dissertations were based upon analysis of secondary data. The percentages listed in table 5 regard the remaining 38 dissertations, and only the *principal* method of data collection was considered. Despite these “counting” differences, the emphasis of the dissertations on mail surveys and personal interviews is similar to that of the articles reviewed by Albaum and Peterson.

Particularly disturbing in both cases is the lack of either observation or experimentation. Given the wide variety of problems in international marketing and the great variance in the qualities of our theories regarding these problems, one would expect variation in methods of data collection. That is, where theory is weakest, field observation of behavior is often the best place to start [cf. 11]. When theories are well formed, then the most rigorous methods of verification (that is, experimentation) are appropriate. However, the research in international marketing (both dissertation and published studies) is dominated by survey methods. This leads to two potential knowledge production problems. First, reliance on survey methods constrains the kinds of research problems which can be considered. Perhaps this “methods bias” explains the lack of research considering international personal selling referred to by Albaum and Peterson [4]. Or second, when studies are “method driven,” methods inappropriate for specific research problems are often used. Indeed, Albaum and Peterson [4] suggest this to be the case in their review.

5. A surprisingly large percentage of the doctoral students collected data in foreign countries — 33 of 59 or 56 percent. Given the time and resource constraints on dissertation research, these efforts are admirable. Based on a comparison of the names and current addresses of the dissertation writers, much of the data collection in the foreign countries was accomplished by natives of those countries doing their doctoral studies at American universities. That is, most of these students spoke the language and had contacts in the foreign countries.

6. The array of sample sizes of the doctoral dissertations is presented in table 5. Sample sizes were not listed in 26 of the abstracts, thus the percentages consider the remaining 33 studies. Given this limitation, the array is very similar to that of the empirical studies reviewed by Albaum and Peterson [4]. Five of the ten dissertations with sample sizes less than 30 are case studies involving one to five firms.

7. Finally, the unit of analysis in each dissertation was considered. Eighteen of the studies included both sellers and buyers as separate units of analysis — a dyadic/exchange approach. As evident in table 6, the firm was most often used as the seller unit of analysis (49 percent of

TABLE 6
Units of Analysis Considered in International Marketing Dissertations (1974–1981)

	Number of Studies
<i>Seller Unit</i>	
Individual	3
Firm	29
Industry	4
Country	3
Sellers not considered	20
Total	59
<i>Buyer Unit</i>	
Individual	21
Household	2
Firms	9
Industry	2
Country	2
World	2
Buyers not considered	21
Total	59

the cases), and the individual was most often used as the buyer unit of analysis (36 percent) of the time.

Factors Leading to Success

The nature of the data collected from the dissertation abstracts and from the questionnaires allows for an exploratory investigation into the factors leading to academic success for the fifty-nine authors of international marketing dissertations. The discussion below is divided into three sections. First, the measures of academic success are described. Next, the various independent variables are defined. Finally, results of correlation and regression analyses are reported. Hypotheses are not stated even though several may appear obvious. Rather, an inductive approach is taken, interpretation is favored, and the findings considered suggestive only.

Dependent Measures. The several measures considered in the study are described in greater detail in table 7. Knorr et al. argue at some length the merits and demerits of using the number of publications as a measure of academic productivity. Although simple counts of publications do not reflect the quality thereof, they suggest that “fairly consistent evidence has come up in the literature for a high or moderate correlation between the sheer volume of a scientist’s published papers and the quality of his or her work, as measured by ratings of competence by peers or citation counts” [54, pp. 59–60]. Thus, the dependent construct considered, academic success, was measured in two ways. A computer search for each author’s publications was conducted using

TABLE 7
Measures Considered in Doctoral Dissertation Study

Variables	Descriptions
<i>Dependent Variables</i>	
Publications (PUBS)	Number of citations in AIB Inform [1]
Publications (TOP/YR)	Number of articles published in <i>Journal of Marketing</i> , <i>Journal of Marketing Research</i> , <i>Journal of Consumer Research</i> , <i>Columbia Journal of World Business</i> , and <i>Journal of International Business Studies</i> , divided by the number of years since the dissertation was completed (i.e., 1984—dissertation completion year)
<i>Independent Variables</i>	
School Ranking (RANK)	Ranking of the university granting the degree [cf. 62]
Advisor Productivity (ADVP)	Number of citations of dissertation advisor listed in AIB Inform [1]
Topic (AC)	Study conducted in a foreign country = 0, Comparative study = 1, Intercultural study = 2 [cf. 2]
Data Collection Method (DATA)	Primary data included = 1, secondary data exclusively = 2
Topic (MGT)	Studies wherein American managers were surveyed regarding export marketing activities, practices, attitudes, yes = 1, no = 0
Location of Data Collection (LOCATION)	Data collected in a foreign country, 1 = yes, 0 = no
Unit of Analysis—Sellers (SELLER)	Seller unit of analysis considered, 1 = individual, 2 = firm, 3 = industry, 4 = country, 5 = world (i.e., imports)
Unit of Analysis—Buyer (BUYER)	Buyer unit of analysis considered, 1 = individuals, 2 = households, 3 = firms, 4 = industry, 5 = country, 6 = world
Unit of Analysis—Buyer (BUYER 2)	Dichotomous version of BUYER, individual or households = 0, others = 1
Idea Sources	See table 3
Submissions (SUBS)	Total number of articles written from dissertation submitted to journals

the AIB Inform Data Base. The first measure of success was the number of citations found for each author considering the more than five hundred business publications indexed in the data base.¹⁰ The second measure of success counted articles published in the most important marketing and international business journals (that is, in the *Journal of Marketing*, the *Journal of Marketing Research*, the *Journal of Consumer Research*, the *Columbia Journal of World Business*, and the *Journal of International Business Studies*), divided by the difference between 1984 and the year of dissertation completion. The latter measure takes into consideration the qualities of the journals and the productivity of the author per year since graduation.

Independent Measures. Eleven independent variables were considered. Nine were measured based on the information in the abstracts while two were measured using the mail questionnaires.

1. The quality of the academic institution granting the degree

¹⁰The data base indexes all the journals listed in Albaum and Peterson [4].

(RANK) was measured by considering the number of *Journal of Marketing* articles published by the faculties at each of the schools during the years 1960 to 1981 as reported by Marquardt and Murdock [62]. It should be noted that Webster [87] argues that no rating system of academic quality of universities is perfect. Indeed, our rating does not consider the size of the departments (that is, large schools have an advantage). However, we found no other measure more appropriate (that is, specific and timely) for our studies.

2. Each abstract listed the student's dissertation advisor. Articles written by each advisor were counted based on a computer search using AIB Inform (1971 to the present) to gain a measure of advisor productivity (ADVP).

3. Adler [2] suggests a continuum of international research (AC) — studies in a single foreign country being simplest, comparative (involving two or more countries) studies being more difficult, and intercultural research being most difficult. All the dissertations were classified into these three categories based upon the information provided in the abstracts.

4. Data collection methods were determined based on the abstracts (DATA). When secondary sources of data were used exclusively, DATA was classified as secondary. If *any* primary data were collected, then DATA was classified as primary.

5. During the content analysis of the abstracts, several studies were found not to fit well any of Albaum and Petersons' [4] topic categories. These several studies regarded government policies and management of exports and export operations. Methods used included surveying American managers. Reid [76] is perhaps the best example of this sort of study. Because of the large number of such studies (25 of 59), they were put in a category by themselves (MGT).

6. The location of data collection was considered, whether in a foreign country or in the United States. (LOCATION).

7. Thirty-nine of the studies considered sellers as a unit of analysis. The unit studied varied from individual sellers to the world as a seller. In the latter case the researchers considered *imports* to a number of countries as the unit of analysis. An ordinal variable (SELLER) was constructed using this information (see table 2). Twenty-nine of the studies considered firms as sellers.

8. Thirty-eight of the studies examined buyers as a unit of analysis. An ordinal variable (BUYER) similar to the previous one was constructed using the information in the abstracts. Twenty-one of the researchers studied individual buyers as the unit of analysis.

9. A second variable regarding the buyer unit of analysis was constructed categorizing the studies according to the consumer/ industrial dichotomy (BUYERS).

10. On the mail questionnaire each respondent was asked to identify the "influential sources for the idea for your dissertation topic." This information was used to construct six different dichotomous variables. These are listed in table 2 and in the Appendix, question No. 1.

11. Each respondent was also asked to indicate the number of manuscripts submitted (SUBS) to journals "written from your dissertation" (see table 7).

Results. Table 8 includes the results of the correlation and regression

TABLE 8
Factors Leading to Academic Success

Independent* Variables	Dependent Variables ^a			
	PUBS		TOP/YR	
	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	Regression Beta Coefficient	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	Regression Beta Coefficient
(Abstracts are source of data, $N = 59$)				
RANK	0.043		0.283*	0.239*
ADV P	0.039		0.158	
AC	0.398*	0.267*	0.218*	
DATA	-0.131		-0.269*	
MGT	0.321*		0.110	
LOCATION	-0.133		-0.022	
SELLER	-0.112		-0.279*	
BUYER	0.210		0.037	
BUYER2	0.349*		0.158	
(Questionnaires are source of data, $N = 37$)				
EXP	-0.185		-0.057	
BUSP	-0.164		-0.197	
LIT	0.022		0.178	
PEERS	-0.146		-0.077	
ADVSN	0.042		-0.011	
FAC	-0.087		-0.111	
SUBS	0.580*	0.488*	0.595*	0.595*
Regression equation R^2		0.40*		0.40*

^aSee table 7 for descriptions of variables.

* $p < 0.05$

analyses. Four factors were found to be associated with the number of publications (PUBS) of each dissertation author. The kind of problem considered made a difference. Doctoral dissertations with an intercultural perspective (AC), which surveyed American managers (MGT), and which considered institutions (rather than consumers) as the buyer unit of analysis (BUYER2) appear to lead to a greater number of pub-

lications after the dissertation. Perhaps most important, however, is the number of manuscripts submitted *from the dissertation* to academic journals. More submissions (SUBS) appear to have led to greater numbers of publications. Ranking of the degree granting university (RANK), the productivity of the dissertation advisor (ADVP), the location of data collection (LOCATION), and the source of the dissertation idea were all found to be unrelated to numbers of publications.

A regression equation was calculated using PUBS as the dependent variable. Because MGT and BUYER2 were both highly correlated with AC, they were dropped from the analysis. The intercorrelations of these three independent variables is not surprising given the several studies embodying all three characteristics. Reid's dissertation and subsequent journal article [76], which include a survey of managers' attitudes toward exporting, is representative. As can be seen in table 8, two of the independent variables explain 40 percent of the variation in the number of publications. Doctoral students who considered intercultural problems and maximized the number of manuscripts submitted to academic journals tended to publish more articles.

A second measure of academic success (TOP/YR) was also included in the analysis. Five factors were found to be related to the number of articles in top journals per year. The ranking of the student's school (RANK), an intercultural research topic (AC), primary data collection (DATA), firms as the seller unit of analysis (SELLER), and a greater number of submissions *from the dissertation* (SUBS) all appear to favor higher productivity. Only two of these factors proved to be significantly related to productivity in the regression equation. The number of submissions and rank of the university explained 40 percent of the variation in productivity.

The high percentage of variation explained is encouraging because important variables included in comparable studies were not included here. Finkelstein [34] suggests the most important influences on "publication activity" across all fields to be institution type and prestige of university employing the author *after* doctoral studies. He reviews some three dozen studies whose authors concur that a teaching position at a high prestige (measured using reputational ratings) university (as opposed to a college) has a significant influence on productivity. Others report that publishing early, perhaps prior to receipt of the doctorate, influences positively later productivity [23, 77]. This latter relationship is consistent with our findings regarding submissions *from the dissertation*.

Journal of Marketing Publications

Given the central role of the *Journal of Marketing* in the field, it is worthwhile to review the success of the dissertation authors in placing articles there. Thirteen of the thirty-seven (that is, 35 percent) authors who returned questionnaires reported that they had submitted manuscripts based on their dissertations to *JM*. If we assume that the submission rate of the sample ($n = 37$) is similar to the submission rate of the population ($N = 59$), then this translates to twenty-one articles submitted, (that is, $49 \times 0.35 = 21$). Four of the fifty-nine authors had papers published in *JM* — a “hit rate” of 19 percent ($4 \div 21$). This is comparable to the published acceptance rate for *JM* (that is, 20 percent, *Marketing News*, August 1984), and supports the editors’ pleas for more submissions [for example, 26, 33].

The four authors are cited and their dissertations briefly summarized: White [90] surveyed American purchasing managers to determine country of origin effects. Hoover [45] surveyed American and Mexican housewives to investigate brand loyalty issues. McGuiness [64] surveyed Canadian managers on the impact of technology and other product characteristics on export sales. Reve [78] surveyed dyads (that is, professional buyers and sellers) in the context of channels of distribution in Norway to determine qualities of relationships. Three of the four received degrees from top ranked [cf. 62] U.S. business schools — Northwestern — No. 1 and Texas — No. 7. All four studies employed survey methods, and three sent mail questionnaires to managers in the authors’ home countries. Finally, three of the four dissertations have the word “empirical” in their title. This emphasis on empiricism is telling.

Discussion and Interpretation

At the beginning of the article, we identified a gap between knowledge needed and knowledge produced with regard to international marketing. Indeed, academics [cf. 4], and practitioners [for example, 80] alike bemoan the paucity of relevant and high quality research in international marketing. Several reasons for this gap were posited. International marketing research is more difficult [cf. 93]; too few international articles are submitted to the journals [cf. 26]; the journals suffer from a production orientation and ignore the needs of their constituencies [cf. 85]; and finally, anthropologists have ignored the business setting.

The study focuses on deeper explanations relating to the crucial role

of doctoral dissertations in the knowledge production system. The findings of our study support the model presented in figure 2. Dissertation topics are influenced by the candidate's background and training, by the dissertation advisor, and to a lesser extent by businesspeople. Publications appear to result from topics and methods chosen, the number of manuscripts submitted, and the review process. The academic community and its values (that is, logical empiricism) influence the knowledge production process at each step [cf. 24, 91]. Doctoral students are selected by faculty. Faculty train *and* socialize doctoral students. Dissertation advisors influence the topic and methods of the dissertation. Advisors, faculty, and the socialization during doctoral

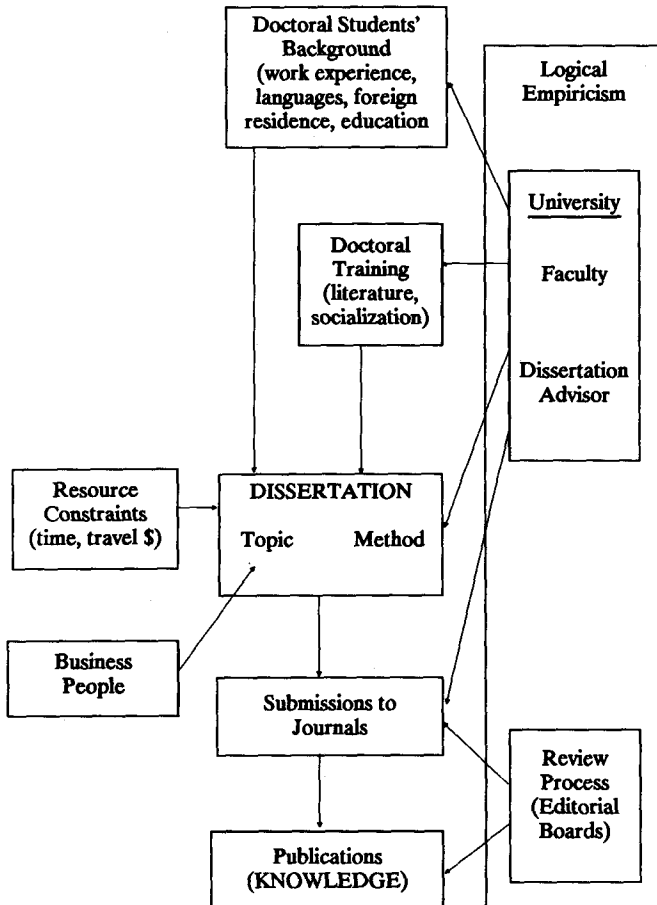


FIG. 2. The Knowledge Production System in International Marketing

studies influence the number of submissions. Finally, journal review boards and processes influence acceptances, and, in turn, future submissions.

The pervasive influence of the academic community on knowledge production in international marketing is strongly indicated by the findings of our study. Academic success in international marketing has been favored by designing studies which (1) fit into the logical empiricist mold and (2) can be done quickly and easily. Arndt attests to the difficulties of breaking the mold. "In our enlightened age, the dissident marketing scientist is not burned at the stake. Instead, he or she is rather likely to suffer the slow burnout of never emerging from the journals' revision purgatories" [6, p. 19]. Research methods standards are driving knowledge production rather than the problems and the needs of business students, managers, and government policy makers.

The gap can be closed through a series of actions.

1. Business schools should place higher values on language training and overseas living in the selection of doctoral students. The current emphasis on GMAT scores, and in particular, quantitative aptitudes, limits the topics chosen and the skills available for dissertation research.

2. Arndt points out, "The main power base of paradigms may be the fact that they are taken for granted and not explicitly questioned" [6, p. 19]. Therefore, it is only prudent that the limitations of and alternatives to the logical empiricist paradigm be clearly pointed out during doctoral training programs. A broader array of international marketing problems may then be addressed using a broader array of methods [cf. 13]. Additionally, anthropological methods may prove to be useful as well [cf. 60].

3. Resources should be provided to support the extra requirements of international dissertations. A key aspect of this support will be a network of collaborators at academic institutions in other countries.

4. Business managers and other constituents should be consulted regarding dissertation topics. Issues related to their problems should be emphasized. Dissertations should be topic-driven rather than constrained by method considerations.

5. Faculty advisors should stress the importance of maximizing the number of manuscripts submitted from the dissertation.

6. Both Kozma [56] and Cameron [15] suggest that administrators can influence adaptation in educational institutions. Business school administrators and faculties should require all business students (both MBA and undergraduate) to take at least one international business

course. Such a requirement will cause staffing problems in the short run, but will provide the strongest kinds of incentives for faculty training — teaching vacancies and associated higher compensation.

7. Administrators can also promote intellectual creativity in general, and international research in particular, by rewarding faculty for publication in a broader array of journals. Whitley [91] warns of the problems associated with dependence upon publication in a single, highly prestigious journal as an indicator of performance.

8. Relatedly, journals and their editorial boards must avoid slipping into the pit of academic chauvinism as described by Whitley: “As audiences have become more narrowly academic and professionalized, so too have scholars tended to become more technical and esoteric in their methods and languages” [91, p. 146]. He argues that when journals lose their appeal to lay audiences, which demand “common sense descriptions of objects and interpretive practices,” they also lose their creativity. Indeed, this is a clear recommendation for the American Marketing Association-sponsored journals and specifically the *Journal of Marketing*, which has dropped from almost twenty-six thousand subscribers in 1979 to just over fifteen thousand subscribers in 1986. The importance of the practitioner audience is manifest.

9. Finally, and perhaps most important, journal editors should take affirmative action relative to international marketing. Hull [46] clearly points out their key role in selecting reviewers, and thereby controlling journal content. Providing space dedicated to or special issues for international topics is another viable approach. But most important, applying the same standards of rigor to international as to national marketing studies is inappropriate. Rigor is still important, but different standards must be applied.

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Appendix

1. Influential sources for the idea for your dissertation topic. You can check more than one if appropriate:

- Your own work experience
- Consultation with businesspeople
- Literature review
- Suggestion of peers
- Suggestion of dissertation advisor
- Suggestion of other faculty
- Other, please specify

2. To which journal(s) did you submit manuscripts *written from your dissertation*? Check if one, put the number if more than one.

- Columbia Journal of World Business (CJWB)
- Harvard Business Review (HBR)
- Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science (JAMS)
- Journal of Consumer Research (JCR)
- Journal of International Business Studies (JIBS)
- Journal of Marketing (JM)
- Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)
- Others, please specify

3. In the space below please briefly explain the review process for your manuscripts.

Example: One article was submitted to JMR with 2 revisions then rejected, then sent to JIBS with 2 revisions, then accepted.

4. Your comments

5. Your name and mailing address.
