

Unconsciously Competent: Academia's Neglect of Marketing Success in the Professions

SILVIA HODGES

Department of Marketing Communication, Emerson College, Boston, MA, USA

LAURENCE YOUNG

Independent Practitioner and Author, London, United Kingdom

The professional service sector is vast and varied. Estimates put its revenues at \$700 billion worldwide—or approximately 11.4% of the gross domestic product in the United States. Professional services are based on skill and people rather than scaleable processes. Their knowledge is the barrier to entry, earning them large profits from this “asymmetry of information.” The professions include some of the most successful, enduring, and profitable businesses that have evolved a number of unique strategic approaches. The partners, being some of the most driven, sophisticated, and intelligent of businesspeople, become unconsciously competent at service marketing and go-to-market strategy. Yet this phenomenon is not well researched by service marketing specialists.

KEYWORDS professional services, professional service firms, go-to-market strategy, asymmetry of information, thought leadership, relationship marketing, partnerships, trusted advisors

INTRODUCTION

The world's professional service industry is vast and varied. It is 11.4% of the gross domestic product in the United States, according to the Bureau of Economic Analysis, and estimates put its worldwide revenues at \$700 billion (Scott, 1998). It encompasses a wide variety of businesses ranging from executive search firms, recruitment agencies, and training and coaching

Address correspondence to Silvia Hodges, Department of Marketing Communication, Emerson College, 120 Boylston Street, Boston, MA 02446-4624. E-mail: silvia.hodges@emerson.edu.

providers to consultancies in various specialties. It includes legal, accountancy, engineering, marketing, and architectural practices plus an array of medical practitioners.

These businesses are all based on skill, knowledge, and people rather than scaleable processes or support to products. Their knowledge, based on years of professional training and membership of carefully regulated institutes, is the barrier to entry into their industry. This “asymmetry of information” is the basis of large profits, making leading practitioners both enormously wealthy and hugely influential.

The professions include some of the world’s most successful, enduring, and profitable businesses. Many are more profitable and enduring than either public corporations or leading family businesses. For example, some European legal practices are nearly 300 years old and throughout their entire histories have earned their owners vast profits. Moreover, the net margins of leading professional practices are normally 2 to 3 times those of the business clients they serve, whatever the economic conditions of the countries in which they are based. So this is a large, influential, successful, and profitable sector of the world’s economy.

Yet despite this remarkable market success, few of these businesses deploy recognized marketing techniques or give any real authority to marketing practitioners. As a Harvard Business School case showed, some even proudly claim not to be doing any marketing (Lorsch & Graff, 1995)—and what a potent form of marketing that claim can be!

It is extremely rare for functional specialists to join the leadership of these firms, which are dominated by the businesses’ owners (called *partners*). Normal behavior is to have “marketing directors” running aspects of the function, but these persons, although highly rewarded, do not have the status, influence, or decision-making authority of chief marketing officers in public corporations. Excluded from the real dialogue of the organization’s top leadership, marketing specialists are normally limited to tactical work in support of partners. Go-to-market strategy, sales, publicity, and client relationship are all jealously owned by partners, and the influence of marketing specialists in significant strategies is negligible.

Nevertheless, there is evidence that the very best professional practices use and adapt some of the most sophisticated marketing principles. For instance, they combine elements of reputation or brand management with thought leadership, viral marketing, and relationship marketing to generate sales of high-margin business from the leadership of the world’s most influential organizations, and have done so for decades. So although most marketing in the professions is not done by marketers, it is, nevertheless, highly sophisticated and effective. The partners, being some of the most driven, sophisticated, and intelligent of businesspeople, become “unconsciously competent” at go-to-market strategy, routinely delivering outstanding wealth to their businesses.

Although professional services are increasingly researched by marketing academics, they represent an area to which academia has paid relatively little attention. Study of this sector started in earnest during the latter half of the 20th century, but this body of work has concentrated largely on the assumption that professional services differ from other services in some important respects and that these special features carry implications for the marketing and management of professional services (Ettenson & Turner, 1997; Gummesson, 1978; Løwendahl, 2000; Verma, 2000; Wilson, 1972). Jaakkola and Halinen (2006) criticized that apart from a few exceptions (e.g., Thakor & Kumar, 2000), characterizations of professional services “are mostly based on intuitive thinking or practical experience, rather than any empirical justification” (p. 410). The effect of the typical governance and ownership form of professional service firms (PSFs), private partnerships, on marketing has been neglected, and we contend that this is a major omission.

We suggest that this phenomenon of an industry with unrivaled heritage and marketing success led by people with no formal marketing knowledge presents services marketing theory with a conundrum. Service marketing academics have seldom understood or studied these unique businesses, but there are insights that would enhance the whole body of knowledge.

WHAT ARE PROFESSIONAL SERVICES?

Professional services is a generic name for a wide and heterogeneous range of businesses. Although a commonly accepted definition does not seem to exist (Conchar, 1998; Jaakkola & Halinen, 2006), Scott (1998) distinguished seven types of services: investment banking; audit, tax, accounting advice; commercial legal advisory services; marketing communications; management, and information technology consulting services; recruitment, placement, and personnel services; as well as market research services. Gummesson (1978) and McDonald and Stromberger (1969) suggested five categories: accounting, auditing, and bookkeeping services; advertising agencies; business and management consulting services; engineering; and architectural services. Stock and Zinszer (1987) distinguished consumer professional services (sold to households) and producer professional services (sold to organizations and typically bought by industrial buyers).

THE DISTINCT CHARACTERISTICS OF PROFESSIONAL SERVICES

According to Kotler, Hayes, and Bloom (2002), distinct challenges set professional services apart from other products or services.

1. Third-party accountability limits professionals from satisfying their clients in ways conventional businesses are not (e.g., a lawyer or tax accountant cannot offer to overlook certain laws for a client). Professionals serve not only their clients but also a wider public and must avoid risking a loss of professional trust or a loss of their license to practice. Under certain circumstances, this may pose problems in the professional–client relationship, opposing attempts to “super-please” clients.
2. The autonomous status of professionals refers to professionals’ freedom to exercise individual judgment to define problems and harness the means for their resolution without external pressures from clients, non-members of the profession, or the employing organization (Harte & Dale, 1995; Ritsema Van Eck-Van Peet, Broekhuis, & Gruisen, 1992). Autonomy can also be considered a requirement of objectivity. According to Gummesson (1978), professional service providers are expected to be independent of suppliers of other goods and services. Often the autonomy and objectivity of the professional is the reason why the client seeks out him or her, and it may even be required by law.
3. A professional’s ability to demonstrate experience with similar situations is an important criterion in clients buying professional services, as it is the basis of clients’ confidence. Unlike in product marketing, newness is not a desirable attribute in most professions.
4. The differentiation of professional services offerings is difficult to achieve, which poses a challenge for marketing.
5. Conventional quality control mechanisms cannot be applied in the professions. Instead, quality is maintained through hiring and retaining good people, which means that PSFs have to focus not only on the client market but also on the talent market.
6. As regards the inseparability of doers and sellers, Kotler et al. (2002) believed that the use of salespeople is not advisable in professional services, as buyers want to meet and get acquainted with “their” professional. The challenge here is that “many professionals . . . simply do not want to have anything to do with selling, and many others do not have personal characteristics that would make them good at selling” (p. 18).
7. Professionals are distinguishable by their special qualifications to solve problems (Gummesson, 1981). Gummesson (1978), Hill and Neeley (1988), and Hill and Motes (1995) emphasized the lengthy, formal academic preparation instead of mostly technical/on-the-job training of professionals and their recognized group identity.

THE UNIQUENESS OF PSFs

PSFs are usually private partnerships in which the professionals are also the owners of the firm and have a say in its governance. As a result, they are

different from “normal” hierarchical corporations, where the workforce and the ownership are typically different groups. (The discussion of other forms of governance is just being allowed in some countries but is outside the scope of this article.)

PSFs differ from corporations in regard to (a) selling and delivering on promises, (b) the importance of intellectual capital, (c) human capital management, and (d) relationships (DeLong, Nanda, & Landry, 2000). PSFs are mandated by clients to help them understand and capitalize on opportunities or to address challenges. They do this by using their internal expertise, or intellectual capital (i.e., their ability to think, conceptualize, and put those thoughts into action), as opposed to other organizations that create value by using machines and tangible resources. Its intangible nature makes work in PSFs hard to reverse engineer as well as difficult to evaluate. In addition, the constant interaction between service provider and client makes the management of expectations paramount.

The assets of PSFs are mainly human but also include knowledge, expertise, and reputation. This necessitates a strong recruitment and retention program as well as knowledge management programs to codify and share project learnings. Finally, in PSFs the relationships professionals have within their firms, within their profession, and with their clients are critical to achieving competitive advantage. Word of mouth and referrals are critical to their success. Maister, Green, and Galford (2002) recommended that professionals aim to become their clients’ “trusted advisors.” According to DeLong et al. (2000), “It is often unclear, until a given professional leaves a PSF, whether a client’s loyalty is to the individual professional or to the firm” (p. 2). PSFs can succeed either by attracting and retaining professionals who have these relationships or by making client relationships firm specific instead of professional specific.

THE NATURE OF PARTNERSHIP

The professional services sector is dominated by a unique governance and ownership structure: private partnership (even though some countries allow other governance models for some sectors).

For professionals in any field, the moment when they make partner is a defining point in their career. They earn the invitation to partnership after years of a demanding professional apprenticeship, traditionally in the same firm (although this is changing). They often have to invest capital as part of partnership ascendancy and become one of the owners of the firm. They then discover meetings, structures, debates, and insights that they typically did not know existed, even though they may have been with their firm a decade or so. Client management and income generation in this context have unique, often intuitive, rules that are seldom articulated in academia or the

business press because most partners are either too busy with client work, too focused on their own networks of clients, or, quite frankly, too rich to be bothered.

Partnerships can be collegiate, flexible, and professionally liberating environments. Their success seems to lie in the individual practices that, like cells in a living organism, evolve and respond to changes because they are run directly by an owner of the business. Partnerships even adjust when the leadership of the firm makes fundamental errors of strategy or management. They are, perhaps, one of the business world's few self-righting organizational structures. If, for example, the leadership makes fundamental errors of strategy, the individual partners, being co-owners of the business, are free to ignore this direction in their own practice area. In fact, there are examples of intolerant or inadequate leadership being overturned in nasty leadership revolts. This co-ownership, then, is a long-standing and successful example of shareholder democracy (albeit limited to an elite within each practice).

Partnerships work through mutual consent and consensus. Managing partners are, often reluctantly, elected by their peers and frequently continue to practice while managing the firm. As partners are owners of the firm, they feel that they should contribute to direction and that their views should be heard. Leaders have to carry their peers with them, even when the firm comprises 2000 partners working in many countries of the world. Aggressive or insensitive leadership is tolerated for only a short time, leading to change if it becomes abhorrent. As a result, leaders solicit the views of their partners much more extensively than would CEOs of public corporations. In fact, seeking consensus on most issues is second nature to the leaders of partnerships. As a result, there is often surprisingly little direct decision making. Initiatives are more often created by a wide consultation or buy-in process that creates a momentum for the idea. Providing no one strongly disagrees with the initiative, it will become, more or less, common practice within the firm.

Newly elected managing partners are sometimes surprised by the inordinate amount of time they need to put into this "strategic strength" (gaining consensus among partners on almost all decisions). One recently retired leader said that, as he tidied his office, he found the list of objectives he had set at the start of the job. He was shocked to find how little he had accomplished on his must-do list. He had spent so much time trying to achieve consensus on issues that he had been unable to take the practice as far as he wanted.

Different leaders tackle this in different ways. One, for instance, parceled out parts of his job to ambitious partners. He privately told each one that the intended task was significant to the future of the practice and that only that partner could do it. Although each of these statements was only partially true, it ensured a greater buy-in to developing ideas. Another, by contrast, took inordinate care to ensure that leading voices of the various small networks

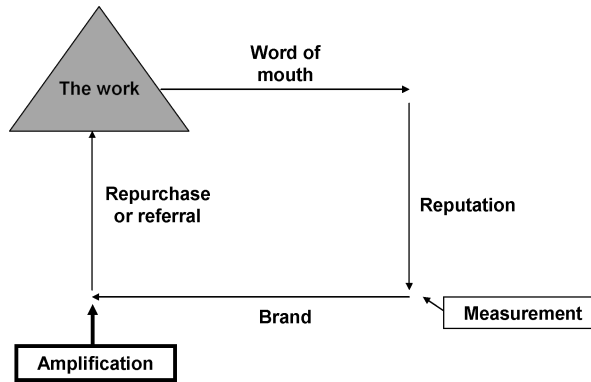


FIGURE 1 The Role of Reputation in Generating Work. From *Marketing the Professional Services Firm* (p.), by L. Young, 2005, Chichester, England: Wiley.

in his large firm were represented on governance groups. He would create posts or give support functions (such as marketing or human resources) to partners in order to ensure that the full voice of his large practice was heard. He said, “These small networks are based on trust which has developed during client work, sometimes over decades. They are a major part of my governance mechanism.”

HOW PROFESSIONAL PRACTICES GROW

Most successful professionals say that marketing starts with the work. The two main drivers of revenue growth in this industry are the technical excellence of the work and the quality of client service. Word of mouth creates a strong reputation (which may eventually turn into a brand), and this, in turn, draws in more work, as illustrated in Figure 1. This “demand pull” is the complete opposite of “product push” and has two very powerful benefits. First, it keeps the cost of sales low (because the firm does not have to go out and get work); second, it keeps prices high (because practitioners can focus on diagnosing need, and pricing becomes a consequence, not a focus, of discussion).

This marks the difference between an elite profitable practice and an “ambulance chaser.” As a result, all successful professionals focus their attention on it, albeit an intuitive emphasis. They ensure that any strategy or business initiative is aimed at enhancing the firm’s reputation or preserving it. Those who do not simply do not make good margins. So any marketing must lock into this business dynamic. It must understand the competitive reputation of the firm and its lead practitioners in hard, numeric terms and then build programs that enhance that reputation.

CASE STUDIES

Marketing Strategy in Executive Search

An international executive search firm had grown by creating local geographic offices with teams in major cities and by developing client relationships. However, like other professional services firms, the partners found that clients tended to come back to search consultants who had expertise in their industry sector. Also, as searches became increasingly international, clients valued search consultants who knew their industry sector (and key individuals within it) more than the local geography. So specialties grew naturally in certain industry sectors such as investment banking, technology, and consumer products.

Debate grew within the firm about how to prioritize opportunities and where to invest. How should the firm decide whether global telecommunications had more potential than, say, consumer products or geographies such as the newly liberated Eastern European markets? Where should the leadership team invest partners, staff, and marketing programs? What was the mechanism according to which scarce resources would be allocated?

By the mid-1990s, the firm had reached the point where it needed to reach a consensus on how to prioritize its approach to industry sectors. It decided to use the GE/McKinsey matrix as a tool to structure its thinking. In preparation for a strategy meeting of the firm's leaders, more than 60 clients across the world were interviewed, together with a large percentage of partners. Yet throughout the whole process, not one of the firm's marketing specialists was involved.

The first step was to define each industry sector, something that the firm had not done before. Partners were surprised by two things: the actual number of claimed industry specialties, and the difference in the understanding of what such sectors comprised. The discussion among the industry leaders in the firm revealed differences about which clients would belong to which sectors. After debate, the group produced an agreed upon, defined list of the main sectors.

Lead partners then began to consider the criteria that made any of those markets attractive to them. The technique required the group to produce a clear, ranked, and graded set of criteria. Again, this was a very useful debate because it helped to make explicit the different assumptions made by partners about what made the markets attractive. The debate produced criteria about what made a market attractive to the firm, something that had previously been unarticulated and diverse.

The final list included criteria such as "potential growth," "client size," "ability to generate revenue," "earn fees," and "sector turbulence." Once the criteria were agreed upon, each was then rated on a scale of 10 to produce a prioritized list. The next step was to decide which characteristics make a practice strong in each of the markets. After debate, the final criteria included

“brand strength,” “dominance in sector,” and “partner expertise.” As with the market criteria, the final list was ranked on a scale of 10.

The industry leaders then ranked each practice against those criteria. So, for example, the industry leader for investment banking (the firm’s strongest practice) was asked to indicate how the practice stood against each of those criteria on a scale of 10. By multiplying each practice’s score against the criterion score, they produced a plot on a matrix. Once all of the practices were plotted, a final matrix was agreed upon. This proved to be a useful basis for debate and decisions. Investment strategies were naturally discussed and agreed upon by the group. For instance, at the time, the technology practice was seen to be in a highly attractive market, but it was weaker than investment banking. The group therefore decided to invest partners, staff, and marketing programs in the technology practice. Other, less attractive areas were denied funding or had resources depleted.

The power of the exercise was the use of a tool to generate debate among the leaders of the sectors and to reach consensus about investment strategy. As each practice was ranked, colleagues challenged their peers and reached a workable consensus.

Thought Leadership in Brand Consultancy

PSFs tend not to use recognized marketing techniques, such as above-the-line advertising, as extensively as other industries. However, they have pioneered one of the world’s most influential marketing techniques: thought leadership. Thought leadership has been responsible for new concepts such as *inter alia*, shareholder value, and process reengineering. It has influenced the thinking of both leading business executives and academic researchers. At the same time, it has increased the wealth and brand recognition of those practices that are particularly adept at practicing it.

A small niche consultancy has developed expertise in a diverse range of brand skills, including brand valuation, over the years. What has secured the firm’s place as an authority on brands is its annual survey of the world’s 100 most valuable global brands. It conducts the survey in conjunction with a well-respected international business publication to ensure global scope and wide exposure. In the survey, the firm uses a brand valuation process to determine as closely as possible the true economic value of what it describes as “the complex array of forces that make up a brand” (Young, 2005, pp. 276–278).

One of the firm’s advantages is that now, when people think about brands, they will often think about the company’s league table valuation. Not only can this be used as a calling card to attract new clients, but it also gives the firm credibility in the boardrooms of its intended clients. This is in line with the company’s objective of creating more in-depth relationships with

clients, traditionally the preserve of management consultancies, as branding becomes more integrated into overall business strategy.

The firm's thought leadership program was created by the lead practitioners in the firm as part of their "practice development" activities. As in accountancy and law, it is the norm in the practice for these practitioners to publish their expertise to establish their reputation and to attract further clients. It is rarely the province of marketers.

Creating Scenarios

One of the world's largest accountancy firms was traumatized by the fallout from the Enron debacle, which led to the collapse of Arthur Andersen. In response, the global leadership team (which comprised partners who were all accountants) used scenario planning to chart a new course for their large business. It molds the views of different leaders into pictures of the future for which different plans can be laid. For instance, the leadership team took presentations on likely global changes in their market. They then met to siphon their views of the implications of these forces into a few scenarios—stories or verbal pictures of how their firm might develop in different possible evolutions of their market.

The process was chosen to help create consensus and summarize (or make explicit) the views of leaders on the course they should take. It also facilitated communicating to the thousands of partners across the world who moved quickly to separate the massive audit and advisory businesses. It was a significant contribution to a major market-based strategy, but, once again, it involved no specialist marketing staff. The leadership team developed and implemented highly significant marketing strategy using experience and intuition.

MARKETING OF PROFESSIONAL SERVICES

Marketing of the professions was first discussed in the 1970s (e.g., Gummesson, 1978; Kotler & Connor, 1977; Wilson, 1972), but most research was not undertaken until the early 1990s. After initial conceptual publications (e.g., Bloom, 1984; Hill & Neeley, 1988; Van Doren & Smith, 1987; Van Doren, Smith, & Biglin, 1985; Wilson, 1972), empirical research examined the advertising of professional services (Bullard & Snizek, 1988; Bush, Moncrief, & Zeithaml, 1987; Hite, Fraser, & Bellizzi, 1990; Milliman, Fugate, & Rahim, 1991), the buying behavior of CEOs (Fisk, Cermale, & Prince, 1994), the search and selection/referral process (Beltramini, 1989; Day & Barksdale, 1992; Webster, 1993; Wheeler, 1987), the evaluation of service quality (Brown & Swartz, 1989; Woodside, Wilson, & Milner, 1992), as well as aspects of risk and risk reduction (Mitchell, 1994, 1995, 1998a, 1998b, 1999; Mitchell & Greatorex, 1993; Mitchell, Moutinho, & Lewis, 2003). Day and Barksdale

(1992, 2003); O'Donohoe, Diamantopoulos, and Petersen (1991); Van Doren and Smith (1987); and Van Doren et al. (1985) provided recommendations for marketing to clients.

A number of researchers have studied decision-based differences between the marketing of services and the marketing of goods. Fewer (e.g., Professional Services Marketing Group, 2005) have examined the differences between professional services and fast-moving consumer goods ("The drivers for buying services can be different, the method of purchasing is different, and the way in which the product or service itself is experienced is totally different," p. 10), the dissimilarities relative to professional versus nonprofessional services (e.g., Sheth & Sobel, 2000), or the effect of private partnership culture on marketing.

Even though professional services marketing is an area of growing interest (Ghose, 1994; Halinen, 1996), the literature in this area is less developed than that of service marketing in general (Day & Barksdale, 2003). Although Özer, Koçak, and Çelik (2006) also criticized the general lack of research in the professional services sector, they suggested that the application of general marketing principles to professional services has been extensively discussed and agreed on, and they referred to research studies on the development of market orientation in the (general) service sector.

In fact, the marketing literature commonly portrays professional services as a subcategory of the services sector. Considered the most intangible service, service production is described as involving extensive customer contact, customization, and a high degree of individual judgment on the part of the service provider (Clemes, Mollenkopf, & Burn, 2000; Lovelock, 1983; Schmenner, 1986; Verma, 2000). A typical challenge in marketing professional services is said to be clients' lack of expertise to perform services on their own, and therefore their inability to evaluate the competence of the professional on the basis of objective criteria. Clients instead are seen to rely on more subjective and/or intangible cues to assess competency (Day, Denton, & Hickner, 1988; Hill & Motes, 1995).

SUMMARY

In many ways it appears that professionals are better marketers when not intending to market, but become poor(er) marketers when consciously deciding to use marketing as a way to face increasing competitive markets. Doing so, their focus shifts from client service to often mostly promotional marketing communications activities.

It is our contention that the unique nature of ownership and governance in private partnerships has been a major contribution to the remarkable success of private professional partnerships. Partners in leading firms are not trained in marketing but intuitively succeed at marketing strategy, sales, and

client relationships. Several centuries of high-margin service business should command the attention of service marketing specialists. The following seem to be several questions for important and interesting research:

- Is it possible to decant the intuitive behaviors of professional partners into generic principles?
- Will this improve the success of these businesses?
- What is the role of service marketing in these firms, and can it make a greater contribution?
- Is there insight from this success that will provide insight into general service marketing theory?

REFERENCES

- Beltramini, R. F. (1989). Professional services referrals: A model of information acquisition. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 3, 35–43.
- Bloom, P. N. (1984). Effective marketing for professional services. *Harvard Business Review*, 62, 102–110.
- Brown, S. W., & Swartz, T. A. (1989). A gap analysis of professional service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 53, 92–98.
- Bullard, J. H., & Snizek, W. E. (1988). Factors affecting the acceptability of advertisements among professionals. *Academy of Marketing Science*, 16, 57–63.
- Bush, A. J., Moncrief, W. C., & Zeithaml, V. (1987). Source effects in professional services advertising. *Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 10, 153–171.
- Clemes, M., Mollenkopf, D., & Burn, D. (2000). An investigation of marketing problems across service typologies. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 14, 573–594.
- Conchar, M. P. (1998). Conceptual foundations for professional services: Criteria for identification, classification scheme and definition. In R. C. Goodstein & S. B. Mackenzie (Eds.), *Enhancing knowledge development in marketing: Proceedings of the AMA Summer Educators' Conference* (pp. 253–261). Boston: American Marketing Association.
- Day, E., & Barksdale, H. C., Jr. (1992). How firms select professional services. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 21, 85–91.
- Day, E., & Barksdale, H. C., Jr. (2003). Selecting a professional service provider from the short list. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 18, 564–579.
- Day, E., Denton, L. L., & Hickner, J. A. (1988). Clients' selection and retention criteria: Some marketing implications for the small CPA firm. *Journal of Professional Service Marketing*, 3, 283–295.
- DeLong, T., Nanda, A., & Landry, S. (2000, September). *Professional services module one: Introduction to the challenges facing PSFs* (Harvard Business School, 9-801-007). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School.
- Ettenson, R., & Turner, K. (1997). An exploratory investigation of consumer decision making for selected professional and nonprofessional services. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 11, 91–104.

- Fisk, K. M., Cermale, D. S. P., & Prince, R. A. (1994). Word-of-mouth effects in professional services buyer behaviour. *Service Industries Journal*, 14, 301–314.
- Ghose, S. (1994). Visually representing consumer perceptions, issues and managerial insights. *European Journal of Marketing*, 28, 5–18.
- Gummesson, E. (1978). The marketing of professional services—An organisational dilemma. *European Journal of Marketing*, 13, 308–318.
- Gummesson, E. (1981). The marketing of professional services—25 propositions. In J. H. Donnelly & W. R. George (Eds.), *Marketing of services* (pp. 108–112). Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- Halinen, A. (1996). Service quality in professional business services: A relationship approach. In T. A. Swartz, D. E. Bowen, & S. W. Brown (Eds.), *Advances in services marketing and management: Research and practice* (pp. 315–341). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Harte, H. G., & Dale, B. G. (1995). Improving quality in professional service organizations: A review of the key issues. *Managing Service Quality*, 5, 34–44.
- Hill, C. J., & Motes, W. H. (1995). Professional versus generic retail services: New insights. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 9, 22–35.
- Hill, C. J., & Neeley, S. E. (1988). Differences in the consumer decision process for professional versus generic services. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 2, 17–23.
- Hite, R. E., Fraser, C., & Bellizzi, J. A. (1990). Professional service advertising: The effects of price inclusion, justification, and level of risk. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 30, 23–31.
- Jaakkola, E., & Halinen, A. (2006). Problem solving within professional services: Evidence from the medical field. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 17, 409–429.
- Kotler, P., & Connor, R. A. (1977). Marketing professional services. *Journal of Marketing*, 41, 71–76.
- Kotler, P., Hayes, T., & Bloom, P. N. (2002). *Marketing professional services* (2nd ed.). Paramus, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Lorsch, J. W., & Graff, S. A. (1995, November). “Marketing” at Wachtell, Lipton, Rosen & Katz (Harvard Business School Case Study, 9-496-037). Boston: Harvard Business School.
- Lovelock, C. H. (1983). Classifying service to gain strategic marketing insights. *Journal of Marketing*, 47, 9–20.
- Løwendahl, B. R. (2000). *Strategic management of professional service firms*. Copenhagen, Denmark: Handelshøjskolens forlag.
- Maister, D. H., Green, C., & Galford, R. (2002). *The trusted advisor*. New York: Free Press.
- McDonald, H. E., & Stromberger, T. L. (1969). Cost control for the professional service firm. *Harvard Business Review*, 47, 109–121.
- Milliman, R. E., Fugate, D. L., & Rahim, M. A. (1991). An empirical investigation into the advertising of legal services. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 31, 51–60.
- Mitchell, V.-W. (1994). Problem and risks in the purchase of consultancy services. *Services Industries Journal*, 14, 315–339.
- Mitchell, V.-W. (1995). Organisational risk perception and reduction: A literature review. *British Journal of Management*, 6, 115–133.

- Mitchell, V.-W. (1998a). Buy-phase and buy-class effects on organisational risk perception and reduction in purchasing professional services. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 13, 461–478.
- Mitchell, V.-W. (1998b). Segmenting purchasers of organisational professional services: A risk-based approach. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 12, 83–97.
- Mitchell, V.-W. (1999). Consumer perceived risk: Conceptualisations and models. *European Journal of Marketing*, 33, 163–195.
- Mitchell, V.-W., & Grotorex, M. (1993). Risk perception and reduction in the purchase of consumer services. *Services Industries Journal*, 13, 179–200.
- Mitchell, V.-W., Moutinho, L., & Lewis, B. R. (2003). Risk reduction in purchasing organisational professional services. *Services Industries Journal*, 23, 1–19.
- O'Donohoe, S., Diamantopoulos, A., & Petersen, N. (1991). Marketing principles and practice in the accounting profession: A review. *European Journal of Marketing*, 25, 37–54.
- Özer, A., Koçak, A., & Çelik, O. (2006). Determinants of market orientation in accounting firms. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 24, 591–607.
- Professional Services Marketing Group. (2005, December). *Perceiving and demonstrating value*. London: Author.
- Ritsema Van Eck-Van Peet, H. P., Broekhuis, M., & Gruisen, M. J. J. (1992). Problems of quality management in the professional services. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 9, 23–36.
- Schmenner, R. W. (1986). How can service businesses survive and prosper? *Sloan Management Review*, 27, 21–31.
- Scott, M. (1998). *The intellectual industry, profiting and learning from professional services firms*. Chichester, England: Wiley.
- Sheth, J. N., & Sobel, A. (2000). *Clients for life: Evolving from an expert for hire to an extraordinary advisor*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Stock, J. R., & Zinszer, P. H. (1987). The industrial purchase decision for professional services. *Journal of Business Research*, 15, 1–16.
- Thakor, M. V., & Kumar, A. (2000). What is a professional service? A conceptual review and bi-national investigation. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 14, 63–82.
- Van Doren, D. C., & Smith, L. W. (1987). Marketing in the restructured professional services field. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 1, 67–75.
- Van Doren, D. C., Smith, L. W., & Biglin, R. J. (1985). The challenges of professional services marketing. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 2, 19–27.
- Verma, R. (2000). An empirical analysis of management challenges in service factories, service shops, mass services and professional services. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 11, 8–25.
- Webster, C. (1993). Buyer involvement in purchasing success. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 22, 199–205.
- Wheiler, K. (1987). Referrals between professional service providers. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 16, 191–200.
- Wilson, A. (1972). *The marketing of professional services*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Woodside, A. G., Wilson, E. J., & Milner, P. (1992). Buying and marketing CPA services. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 21, 265–272.
- Young, L. (2005). *Marketing the professional services firm*. Chichester, England: Wiley.