

MARKETING MANAGEMENT JOURNAL

VOLUME 26
Issue 2
Fall 2016

Effort, Optimism and Sales Performance: Rethinking the Role of Manager Support

Feisal Murshed and Vinita Sangtani

Perceptions of Millennials' Media Attitudes and Use: A Comparison of U.S. and Indian Millennials

Rajesh Iyer, Jacqueline K. Eastman, Heather Monteiro, Heidi Rottier, and Seema Singh Zokarkar

Satisfaction as Reasons For and Against Generosity Decisions: A Behavioral Reasoning Theory Exploration

Jeananne Nicholls and Kurt Schimmel

Viral Marketing in the Nonprofit Sector: Crafting Messages That Create Awareness and Call an Audience to Action

Hannah Diane Parker, Kathy Wachter, Hugh Sloan, and Vahid Ghomi

The Effects of Nonprofit Brand Personality and Self-Brand Congruity on Brand Relationships

Mya Pronschinske Groza and Geoffrey L. Gordon

Retaining College Students: The Role of Student Readiness and Participation

Samaneh Torkezadeh, Mohammadali Zolfagharian, and Ramiro de la Rosa

Assessing the Link between a Public University's Brand-Building Activities and Alumni Gift Giving

Young Han Bae, Michelle Hough, and Sang-Uk Jung

MARKETING MANAGEMENT JOURNAL

Volume 26, Issue 2
Fall 2016

EDITOR

Gail Zank

Texas State University

ASSOCIATE EDITOR

Michael Messina

Gannon University

SPECIAL SECTION EDITOR

Tim Aurand

Northern Illinois University

PRODUCTION EDITOR

Lynn Oyama

The Marketing Management Journal (ISSN 1534-973X- print; ISSN 2329-9762- online) is published semi-annually by the Marketing Management Association. Issues are posted online as published; print version published following release of the fall issue combining spring and fall issues. Subscriptions, address changes, reprint requests and other business matters should be sent to:

Dr. Alex Milovic

Executive Director

Department of Marketing

College of Business Administration

Marquette University

PO Box 1881

Milwaukee, WI 53201-1881

Telephone: (414) 288-8052

Manuscript Guidelines and Subscription Information: see pages v-vi.

Copyright © 2016, Marketing Management Association

Published by the Marketing Management Association

PUBLICATION COUNCIL OF THE MARKETING MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION

Paul Hensel
University of New Orleans

Gail Zank (Ex-officio)
Texas State University

Riley Dugan
University of Cincinnati

Lyle Wetsch (Ex-officio)
Memorial University of Newfoundland

Alex Milovic (Ex-officio)
Marquette University

Archana Kumar
Montclair State University

Debra Zahay-Blatz
St. Edwards University

Matt Elbeck (Ex-officio)
Troy University

Kesha Coker
Eastern Illinois University

Lisa Lindgren (Chair) (Ex-officio)
College of St. Benedict/St. John's University

EDITORIAL REVIEW BOARD

Raj Agnihotri
*The University of Texas
at Arlington*

Alfred Guiffrida
Kent State University

Timothy Reisenwitz
Valdosta State University

Vishag Badrinarayanan
Texas State University

Roscoe Hightower
Florida A&M University

John Schibrowsky
University of Nevada-Las Vegas

Nora Ganim Barnes
*University of Massachusetts
Dartmouth*

Rajesh Iyer
Bradley University

David Shepherd
Georgia Southern University

Michelle Beauchamp
Mississippi College

Haeran Jae
*Virginia Commonwealth
University*

Jeremy Sierra
Texas State University

Vince Carter
*California State University
Bakersfield*

Eliane Karsaklian
*Universite de la Sorbonne
Nouvelle*

J. Garry Smith
University of Houston-Downtown

Pavan Chennamaneni
*University of Wisconsin-
Whitewater*

**Vijaykumar Krishnan
Palghat**
Northern Illinois University

Ursula Sullivan
Northern Illinois University

Jacqueline Eastman
Georgia Southern University

Michael Levin
Otterbein University

Cheryl Ward
*Middle Tennessee State
University*

Diane Edmondson
Middle Tennessee State University

Phylis Mansfield
Penn State Altoona

John Wellington
*Indiana University-Purdue
University Fort Wayne*

Susan Geringer
*California State University
Fresno*

Claudia Mich
Purdue University Calumet

Guang-Xin Xie
*University of Massachusetts
Boston*

Wolfgang Grassl
St. Norbert College

Robert M. Peterson
Northern Illinois University

Lin Zhang
Truman State University

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Effort, Optimism and Sales Performance: Rethinking the Role of Manager Support <i>Feisal Murshed and Vinita Sangtani</i>	51
Perceptions of Millennials' Media Attitudes and Use: A Comparison of U.S. and Indian Millennials <i>Rajesh Iyer, Jacqueline K. Eastman, Heather Monteiro, Heidi Rottier, and Seema Singh Zokarkar</i>	69
Satisfaction as Reasons For and Against Generosity Decisions: A Behavioral Reasoning Theory Exploration <i>Jeananne Nicholls and Kurt Schimmel</i>	86
Viral Marketing in the Nonprofit Sector: Crafting Messages That Create Awareness and Call an Audience to Action <i>Hannah Diane Parker, Kathy Wachter, Hugh Sloan, and Vahid Ghomi</i>	101
The Effects of Nonprofit Brand Personality and Self-Brand Congruity on Brand Relationships <i>Mya Pronschinske Groza and Geoffrey L. Gordon</i>	117
Retaining College Students: The Role of Student Readiness and Participation <i>Samaneh Torkzadeh, Mohammadali Zolfagharian, and Ramiro de la Rosa</i>	130
Assessing the Link between a Public University's Brand-Building Activities and Alumni Gift Giving <i>Young Han Bae, Michelle Hough, and Sang-Uk Jung</i>	144

FROM THE EDITORS

Marketing Management Journal, first published in Fall 1991, is dedicated as a forum for the exchange of ideas and insights into the marketing management discipline. Its purpose was and continues to be the establishment of a platform through which academicians and practitioners in marketing management can reach those publics that exhibit interests in theoretical growth and innovative thinking concerning issues relevant to marketing management.

Submissions to *Marketing Management Journal* are encouraged from those authors who possess interests in the many categories that are included in marketing management. Articles dealing with issues including, but not limited to marketing strategy, ethics, product management, communications, pricing, distribution, sales management, buyer behavior, marketing information, and international marketing will be considered for review and possible inclusion in the journal. Empirical and theoretical submissions of high quality are encouraged.

In addition, MMJ features a special section in the fall issue each year that focuses on specific topics of interest within the marketing discipline. This issue contains five articles accepted for the special section on Marketing of Nonprofit Organizations: Challenges Surrounding Branding, Attracting and Retaining Donors, Volunteers, and Clients. Three of the papers focus on important university issues: retaining college students, linking university brand building activities and alumni gift-giving, and service learning projects and the impact on future volunteering and future donation intentions. Another paper examines the brand relationships that donors and volunteers have with a nonprofit organization. The last paper provides guidance for nonprofits in developing online content. The special section for fall 2017 will be the Use of Social Media and Strategic Marketing Initiatives: Insights into State-of-the-Art Marketing Communication Practices. The deadline is March 1, 2017; go to <http://www.mmaglobal.org/publications/MMJ/Call-For-Papers/MMJ-Special-Issue-Social-Media-Due-March-1-2017.pdf> to find the call.

Thanks to Lynn Oyama for her help with the production of the Marketing Management Journal.

Gail Zank
Editor

Michael Messina
Associate Editor

Tim Aurand
Special Section Editor

MANUSCRIPT AND SUBMISSION GUIDELINES

MARKETING MANAGEMENT JOURNAL

January 2016

Scope and Mission

The mission of the *Marketing Management Journal* (MMJ) is to provide a forum for the sharing of the academic, theoretical, and practical research that may impact the development of the marketing management discipline. Manuscripts that focus upon empirical research, theory, methodology, and review of a broad range of marketing topics are strongly encouraged. Submissions are encouraged from both academic and practitioner communities.

Submission Guidelines

Manuscripts that do not conform to submission guidelines will not be distributed for review. Authors should submit manuscripts via email to mmjjournal@gmail.com. Each submission should consist of two files:

1. A file containing the cover page listing the manuscript title, each author's name, institution affiliation, mailing address, telephone number, and email address. If there are multiple authors, the editor will consider the author originating the manuscript submission the contact author unless otherwise noted.
2. A file containing the manuscript title, an abstract of no more than 150 words, keywords, and manuscript. Author identification or affiliation should not appear anywhere in this file.

Manuscripts should be submitted using 12-point Times Roman font and should not exceed 30 typewritten pages inclusive of body, tables and figures, and references. Margins must be one inch. Preparation of the manuscript should follow style guidelines in the most recent *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 6th edition. Tables and figures used in the manuscript should be included on a separate page and placed at the end of the manuscript. Authors should insert a location note within the body of the manuscript to identify appropriate placement. Tables and figures should be constructed in table mode of Microsoft Word.

The MMJ editorial board interprets the submission of a manuscript as a commitment to publish in MMJ. Editorial policy prohibits publication of a manuscript that has already been published in whole or in substantial part by another journal. Each manuscript is first assessed by the editor to determine its potential for successful completion of the review process. A manuscript that goes beyond the initial review goes through a double-blind review conducted by members of MMJ's review board. Feedback from reviewers and the editor team's evaluation are used to make a decision on whether a manuscript will be accepted for publication in MMJ.

In order for an accepted paper to be published in MMJ, authors must authorize copyright protection for MMJ prior to manuscript being published. Manuscripts accepted become the copyright of MMJ.

The editorial board reserves the right for stylistic editing of manuscripts accepted for publication in MMJ. Where major stylistic editing becomes necessary, a copy of the accepted manuscript will be provided to the author(s) for final review before publication.

Publication Information

The Spring issue each year will be published online on the MMA website upon completion of the issue. The fall issue will also be published online on the MMA website upon completion. A print edition containing the spring and fall issues of a volume will be printed upon completion of the fall issue. Each author of an article published in MMJ will receive one copy of the issue in which the article appears. General access to MMJ is available online at: <http://www.mmaglobal.org/publications/mmj/current-past-issues/>.

Subscription Information

Communications concerning subscription, changes of address, and membership in the Marketing Management Association, should be addressed to:

Alex Milovic
Executive Director, MMA
Marquette University
PO Box 1881
Milwaukee, WI
53201-1881
Email: ExecDirector@mmaglobal.org

The annual membership fee for the Marketing Management Association is \$50. The subscription rate for print format of MMJ is \$35. The library rate is also \$35. International subscriptions are \$50. Please note that the Marketing Management Association only accepts payments via checks or money orders in US Dollars.

EFFORT, OPTIMISM AND SALES PERFORMANCE: RETHINKING THE ROLE OF MANAGER SUPPORT

FEISAL MURSHED, *Kutztown University of Pennsylvania*
VINITA SANGTANI, *University of North Georgia*

Varied forms of organizational resources (i.e., manager support) and self-regulated resources (i.e., effort and optimism) available to salespeople combine to influence salesperson performance. Using insights from organizational support theory and social exchange theory, this paper proposes an interactive relationship whereby manager support will differentially interact with effort and optimism in influencing salesperson performance. More specifically, our overarching research propositions are: manager support (1) positively moderates the link between sales effort and performance and (2) negatively moderates the link between optimism and performance. The empirical results obtained, from a sample of 81 B2B field salespeople in an emerging market, provide support for both the propositions. This research reveals important insights into how sales performance is shaped by the interplay of external and internal resources available to salespeople. Key implications are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Understanding the factors influencing salesperson performance has been the object of sustained research interest for a long time (e.g., Churchill Jr., Ford, Hartley, & Walker Jr., 1985; Stan, Evans, Arnold, & McAmis, 2012; Verbeke, Dietz, & Verwaal, 2011; Wachner, Plouffe, & Grégoire, 2009). Much sales force success depends on how well salespeople balance accessible external and internal resources (e.g., Arndt & Harkins, 2013; Stan et al., 2012). To illustrate, a salesperson integrates personal and organizational resources (Plouffe & Barclay, 2007) and coordinates interfirm activities to meet the differing behavioral expectations of diverse role partners, i.e., clients and firms (e.g., Lewin & Sager, 2009; Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014; Singh, Marinova, & Brown, 2012). In the same vein, salespeople engage in “exploratory navigation” (Plouffe, Sridharan, & Barclay, 2010) and work through the “white spaces” (Maletz & Nohria, 2001) of organizations to discover resources and contribute to the firm’s ability to provide value added solutions. Similarly, based upon conservation of resource theory, (Mallin & Mayo, 2006) document how “net resource loss” influences the attributions that account for sales setbacks.

Congruence between salespeople and sales managers plays a significant role in reducing role conflict and ambiguity, thereby exerting a positive influence on salesperson performance (e.g., Ahearne, Haumann, Kraus, & Wieseke, 2013; Hamwi, Rutherford, & Boles, 2011; Kemp, Borders, & Ricks, 2013; Mullins & Syam, 2014; Shannahan, Bush, & Shannahan, 2013). At the same time, internal resources such as knowledge, skills, and motivation, each in a distinct way, also influence sales performance. Among the variety of internal resources, two of the most vital are effort and optimism, which are the focus of this research. Extensive studies have shown effort (e.g., Jaramillo & Mulki, 2008) and optimism (e.g., Stajkovic, Lee, Greenwald, & Raffiee, 2015) to be associated with superior sales performance.

The purpose of this research is to understand how the interactions between the external (i.e., manager support) and internal resources (i.e., sales effort and optimism) available to salespeople may affect sales performance. To this end, we draw on literature from organizational support (Eisenberger, Stinglhamer, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002) and social exchange theories (Blau, 1964) and develop and empirically test a conceptual model, which demonstrates that manager support will strengthen (weaken) the relationship between effort (optimism) and sales performance. This potential tension between the external and internal resources available to salespeople is of considerable

theoretical and practical interest and yet research insights into this intriguing issue are scarce. We test the proposed model using a sample of automobile salespeople operating in India. The empirical results offer strong support for our hypotheses and underscore the importance of these interactive relationships.

Four aspects of this research enhance its contribution. First, although there is consensus that intraorganizational factors can shape employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Piercy, Cravens, Lane, & Vorhies, 2006; Ryals & Humphries, 2007), this understanding has not been translated adequately into the role that sales managers can play. Our understanding of interpersonal identification processes between sales managers and salespeople and their linkage to performance is limited and insights for managers remain scarce (e.g., Ahearne et al., 2013; DeConinck, 2010). In advancing this inquiry, the current research adopts a new perspective of manager support by examining its moderating role in explaining two important sales management links. In so doing, this study enhances a deeper understanding about the mechanism through which manager support can enhance or hinder sales performance. We argue that this approach provides more insightful outcomes than extant research, which has tended to focus on different main effects of manager support. Furthermore, we conduct a qualitative study to conceptualize the construct at a greater depth by documenting various activities carried out as manager support. By offering new insights into the sources of enhanced salesperson performance, we address scholars' calls for gaining more meaningful understanding of factors that shape sales performance (e.g., Stewart, 2006).

Second, delineating the relational process involving internal and external resources available to salespeople brings into sharp focus the multifunctional and interconnected problems that organizations often face. A more profound understanding of such phenomena will help sales managers coordinate various sales related functions. The contingent model advanced in this research enables us to extend the theoretical understanding of when higher levels of manager support may create conditions that may not always lead to better sales outcomes. This research broadens recent

research on organizational support and its potential to interfere with salesperson performance (Stan et al., 2012).

Third, this research uncovers a condition under which high optimism might be potentially ill suited. To the best of our knowledge, this is a first such attempt in the literature; by empirically demonstrating a possible negative interaction between optimism and manager support, this research makes conceptual advances pertaining to the optimism-sales performance link. This contribution adds to the existing literature, which has thus far focused mainly on the positive association between optimism and sales performance (e.g., Dixon & Schertzer, 2005). Furthermore, by assessing the moderating role of manager support, we enrich the current understanding about effort-performance link (e.g., Powers, Jennings, & DeCarlo, 2014).

Fourth, owing to the study's context, fleet salespeople in India, the insights gained from the empirical analysis is an opportunity to test our theory in an emerging market. Sheth (2011, p. 180, emphasis added) asserts that research on emerging markets is not just a "Nice thing to do; it is increasingly becoming a *necessity*." Most extant sales research is grounded in certain countries, such as the United States or "similar, Western developed economy" (Baldauf & Lee, 2011, p. 212), calling into question the generalizability of findings to other economies. As emerging markets are evolving from the periphery to the core of marketing practice, and experiencing rapid growth, they pose serious challenges to theoretical development, strategic choices, and to the practices of multinational firms (Sheth, 2011). Sales functions assume important roles in the emerging markets of India and China where product options are abundant (Gopal & Srinivasan, 2006). Our findings are of interest to both academics and practitioners as multinational firms expand to foreign markets through direct investments and employ local salespeople.

The remainder of the article proceeds as follows: We begin by advancing our conceptualization of manager support. Next, drawing on interviews with practicing managers, we report the key findings about

manager support. We then propose our conceptual framework and develop an account of our interactive hypotheses as summarized in Figure 1. The next section describes our study methodology and findings. We conclude by discussing the article’s implications, summarizing its limitations and identifying directions for further research.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

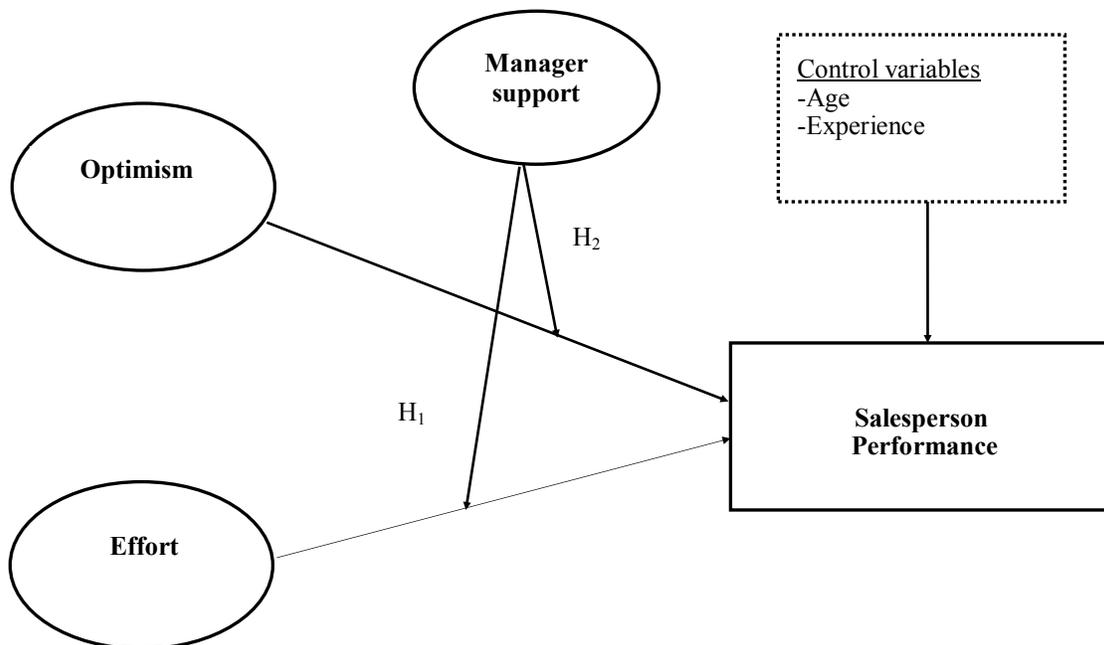
Manager Support

We define manager support as the “degree to which the salesperson’s immediate supervisor assists them with selling-related tasks and challenges and provides them with guidance, mentoring, and reassurance,” (Plouffe et al., 2010, p. 541). In the context of sales management, manager support can take many forms, including clarifying his or her own, and salespeople’s roles and responsibilities, setting clear task guidelines, specifying procedures, and providing direction for task completion. In essence, by providing a trusting and respectful atmosphere, manager support seeks to improve salespeople’s critical skills related to planning,

negotiating, closing and maintaining customer relationships. Research conducted to date suggests that sales managers play an important role in defining the work environment and shaping organizational effectiveness, and in turn, directly or indirectly account for salesperson performance (e.g., Kraus, Haumann, Ahearne, & Wieseke, 2015). In the same vein, Ingram, LaForge, Locander, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff (2005), in their analysis of sales leadership literature, indicate that sales managers play a pivotal role in influencing salespersons to become successful at selling.

Another construct, labeled as perceived organizational support, used extensively in the management literature (Maertz Jr, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007) and in the marketing literature in a limited way (DeConinck, 2010; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009), describes the equivalent generalized concept. Although different constructs are reported in this space, the general consensus is pervasive: how much do employees value supervisors’ contributions? Sales managers help salespeople perform not only different sales functions at different stages of a sales encounter and customer solution

**FIGURE 1:
Conceptual Model**



**TABLE 1:
Qualitative Study Findings on Manager Support**

Salesperson activities during sales encounter (Tuli, Kohli and Bhadravaj, 2007, p. 5).	Manager Support Activities
Need identification definition	Support salespeople in lead generating activities inside and outside the firm. Assign outside leads to appropriate salesperson. Review and approve prequalification activities and risk assessment of the prospects. Help salespeople to identify low hanging fruit. Help salespeople to delineate customers’ current and future needs. Settle disputes in regards to sales territory issues.
Presentation	Allow salespeople time to prepare and provide them with the resources for developing the presentation. Discuss the current situation and strategy pertaining to prospects. Assist salespeople in adapting the presentation according to the need rather than having a scripted presentation. Encourage salespeople not to have a non-customized presentation.
Handling Objection	Collaborate with salespeople in finding integrative solutions to possible customer objections at different interfaces. Assist salespeople in developing lyrics to combat common objections. Help salespeople to turn the most common objections into your ammunition for the sale: When the client says, “I cannot afford your program.” Coach salespeople to be comfortable in putting that right out there from the beginning: “You can’t afford to not have my program”
Negotiation	Guide salespeople in deal structuring and carrying out the proper financial conversation. Delegate the necessary authority to salespeople. Be accessible as salespeople seek to achieve a possible agreement. Aid salespeople to maintain composure in presence of a negative emotion.
Closing the sale	Provide salespeople necessary information to close the sale. Teach salespeople the appropriate closing technique that sets up a satisfactory purchase decision. Prepare salespeople to say “thank-you” as soon as customers agree and execute the paperwork so that they do not talk clients out of buying something by talking too much after the sale. Build an effective follow-up system.
Post deployment support	Help salespeople to: Lead multiple and concurrent sales campaigns. Track customers’ first 30 days experience, as well as on-going customer satisfaction monitoring beyond the first 30 days. Maintain multi-level relationships across different functional units to meet customer needs on a prompt basis. Develop a complaint resolution plan.
Non-sales activities (Weitz, Castleberry and Tanner, 2011)	
Paperwork	Build an effective processing order and billing practice to expedite the administrative process. Implement automation tool to encourage online submission of paperwork. Increase efficiency of salespeople by modifying reporting rules as needed. Standardize reporting and documentation, and problem-solving meetings. Develop seamless reporting for salespeople and ensure access to records that are pertinent to any accounts that they manage.

TABLE 1: (Continued)
Qualitative Study Findings on Manager Support

<p>Training and Development</p>	<p>Help salesperson to know ins and outs of all the products and competitors’ offerings. Emphasize salespeople’s learning about the innovative and differentiating aspects of newly introduced products. Train salespeople on-the-job through instruction and demonstration. Identify training needs of salespeople and design appropriate training program. Improve the social skills of salespeople so that high pressure-selling can be avoided. Conduct monthly account review and one-on-one meetings. Educate salespeople about intraorganizational dynamics so that they can navigate well within their own organization.</p>
<p>Relationship Management</p>	<p>Assist salespeople: In building relationships with key decision-makers in key accounts. In exploring cross-selling and up-selling opportunities. In getting involved with influential communities such as government and trade organizations, to help develop leads and relationships.</p>

process (Tuli, Kohli, & Bharadwaj, 2007), but also carry out several non-sales activities (Weitz, Castleberry, & Tanner Jr., 2011). Table 1, based on our interviews with four sales directors, three sales managers, and five entry-level sales executives operating in the USA, expands on manager support activities. The contributing sales professionals have a significant amount of work experience and represent a broad cross-section of firms and industries and the table reflects their perspectives grounded in field-based-knowledge. Although the interviews were recorded, interviewees were assured confidentiality.

Researchers have explored employee relationships with immediate managers at some depth (e.g., Richard, Ismail, Bhuiyan, & Taylor, 2009). We believe that the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), and organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 2002) provide powerful theoretical lenses for viewing a variety of employee work attitudes. These theories rely on norms to explain exchange behaviors and specifically posit that human interactions are based on exchange of social and material resources that include both the notion of a relationship, and shared obligation, in which both parties perceive responsibilities to each other (Falk and Fischbacher, 2006). In addition to explaining relationships between individuals, these theories also provide important insights into relationships between an organization and its employees. Manager support plays an important role in shaping salespersons’ attitudes and subsequently influencing important organizational outcomes

such as perception of well-being (Kemp et al., 2013) and higher retention (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

Effort and Manager Support

Effort is conceptualized as the amount of energy expended by salespeople on both the physical and cognitive demands of performing sales related activities (Rangarajan, Jones, & Chin, 2005). Effort represents the force, energy, or activity by which work goals can be accomplished by salespeople. (Sujan, Weitz, & Kumar, 1994, p. 40) have aptly put it as “persistence -- in terms of the length of time devoted to work and continuing to try in the face of failure”. They conceptualize the direction chosen to channel effort as “working smart,” while the overall amount of effort that salespeople devote as “working hard.” In this paper, the conceptualization is based on the latter. Superior sales performance is associated with salespeople’s willingness to put forth effort into their jobs (e.g., Jaramillo & Mulki, 2008; Mulki, Caemmerer, & Heggde, 2015). Salesperson effort can play a critical role in stimulating consumer interest in the product and converting needs into purchases by reinforcing customers’ desires and addressing their concerns. Serving the vital boundary-spanning role (Singh et al., 2012), salespeople occupy a central role in forging long-lasting relationships with customers (Palmatier, Scheer, & Steenkamp, 2007) and generating revenue (Raynor & Ahmed, 2013).

Based on prior research, we suggest three accounts through which manager support can

positively moderate the relationship between effort and sales performance: (1) by increasing salesperson confidence; (2) by providing the salesperson with a more clearly defined work structure; and (3) by reducing salesperson's perceived role ambiguity and conflicts.

By way of genuine care and respectful treatment of the salesperson, manager support lends confidence to the salesperson in his effort and engagement. Recognition and positive feedback from managers can create a climate of psychological safety for a salesperson (Mulki et al., 2015). Consequently, when salespeople feel they can work without fear of retribution, the impact of their effort is enhanced. Further, manager willingness to make adjustments will make salesperson effort and engagement more effective and enduring, which in turn will lead to superior sales performance. This is in line with Mayer & Gavin's (2005) assertion that workers' ability to stay focused on value-adding activities is influenced by supervisor support. Conversely, a lack of trust in supervision will leave employees spending time and mental energy speculating about their future in the firm. In this view, under the condition of low manager support, effort will be misdirected.

Manager support includes a defined work structure and a clear direction for interacting with different organizational parties. Thus, manager support enhances the salespeople's ability to navigate within their own organization to make things happen and get what they need to be successful (Mehra, Dixon, Brass, & Robertson, 2006; Plouffe & Barclay, 2007), thereby enhancing the positive effect of effort. As salespeople frequently experience a high degree of role ambiguity and role conflict in resolving company and customer requirements, they worry excessively about reducing stress, and may spend cognitive and behavioral resources to draw up mechanisms to protect themselves. We argue that manager support is of sufficient salience to reduce the negative impact of role conflict. Conversely, salespeople who are not certain about the tasks at hand and do not expect fair treatment from supervisors, will develop stress (Schmitz & Ganesan, 2014; Singh et al., 2012). As a result, the impact of effort on sales performance is tempered.

The preceding discussion leads us to predict that manager support is likely to enhance the impact of effort on sales performance. That is, salespeople exerting more effort are likely to achieve higher sales success under the condition of high manager support. Formally:

H₁: Manager support will positively moderate the relationship between sales effort and salesperson performance: under condition of high manager support, effort will have a stronger effect on salesperson performance than under condition of low manager support.

Optimism and Manager Support

Optimism is viewed as a general disposition to expect positive outcomes regardless of circumstances (Alarcon, Bowling, & Khazon, 2013; Carver, Scheier, & Segerstrom, 2010; Strauss, Niven, McClelland, & Cheung, 2015). Given the psychological demand and uncertainty associated with it, a typical sales job is perceived as challenging and prone to failure (Boichuk et al., 2014). Engaging in the process of a sales call and interacting with different types of customers can be demanding. An optimistic explanatory style helps a salesperson interpret the causes of success and failure and subsequently select more active coping strategies (e.g., rebounding quickly and persisting versus giving up following rejections from prospects). In one of the few studies in the sales arena, by Seligman and Schulman (1986), life insurance sales agents who were viewed as having an optimistic attribution style were shown to stay at the company longer and to outsell their pessimistic counterparts. By employing more problem-focused coping tactics, dispositionally optimistic salespeople tend to be more resilient and productive; for example, dispositionally optimistic students were more likely to return the following year and predict higher income years later (Carver et al., 2010).

With this line of research established, we investigate the contextual effect of manager support on the optimism-performance link. We argue that optimistic salespeople are self-motivated and may not actively seek out the manager's input to perform tasks. That is, they are likely to operate best in the absence of or at

a minimal level of managerial presence. The emerging selling landscape, with salespeople working in remote locations with fewer interactions with managers, warrants salespeople to be self-empowered and able to deal with task difficulties independently (Ingram et al., 2005; Panagopoulos & Ogilvie, 2015).

Consequently, we propose that manager support may create an environment wherein the usually positive effects of optimism will be suppressed. Optimistic salespeople perceive situations to be under control, and their strategies have usually worked well in the past. In light of this, manager support may be misconstrued as an attempt to undermine salesperson confidence, as ineffective micromanagement, as curtailing autonomy and flexibility, and not as value adding. This suggests a potential incongruity between manager support and optimism and, as such, high manager support will cause a disingenuous behavioral intention among optimistic salespeople, which in turn will nullify the positive performance impact of optimism. Prior research has asserted that in the context of established products, close guidance from a sales manager is interpreted as surveillance, causing motivation of salespeople to diminish (Merchant & Van der Steede, 2012).

In a similar vein, Plouffe et al. (2010) argue that overdoing management support could dampen sales performance. Their argument is based on the notion that ‘overprotecting’ salespeople does not prepare them well to deal with internal process-related hurdles. We contend that optimistic salespeople prefer to learn on their own about “cutting through the red tape” and getting things done. Based on this, manager support will not stimulate any internal drive for optimistic salespeople; rather likely elicit a negative response.

The preceding discussion leads us to predict that manager support is likely to diminish the impact of optimism on sales performance. Therefore,

H₂: Manager support will negatively moderate the relationship between optimism and salesperson performance: under condition of strong manager support, optimism will

have a weaker effect on salesperson performance than under condition of weak manager support.

METHOD

Sample Selection and Data Collection

To test the proposed linkages, we surveyed automobile fleet salespeople operating in India. Salesperson effort, optimism, and manager support, focal constructs of this study are relevant to the context. Sampling frame consisted of three large automobile dealers, located in Mumbai, India, within 50 miles of each other. At the time of the study, participating dealerships had 120 active salespeople working with assigned territories of small and mid-sized organizations and under identifiable managers. Data collection efforts were facilitated by the active support of general managers of these dealerships. They introduced the paper-and-pencil survey, and encouraged participation. A week later, we delivered the cover letter and hard copies of the survey. The cover letter explained the purpose of the study, emphasized the voluntary nature of participation, and guaranteed full confidentiality and anonymity of individual responses.

A total of 81 surveys were returned, for a 67.5% response rate. Twenty questionnaires were returned by mail while others were picked up from the dealerships over a period of three weeks. We conducted a series of *t*-tests to see if there was a significant difference in the means of early respondents and late respondents. In addition, mean ratings provided by salespeople responding by mail were compared with those of others. The comparison indicated that no significant differences existed between the two groups ($p > 0.05$). Thus, nonresponse bias did not appear to be a concern (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). Overall, 92% of the respondents were below 35 years of age, and 66% were males. Sample salespeople had average sales experience of 4.3 years, of which 1.8 were with the present dealership.

Survey Development and Measure Purification

We developed a self-administered cross-sectional survey to measure all variables at the individual level. Although established scales were used for all measures, we had to adapt a couple of items. Accordingly, to examine validity, first, item-to-total correlations were calculated and the items were submitted to an exploratory factor analysis. This resulted in factor solutions as theoretically expected. Internal consistency values for all four multi-item reflective scales were respectable, exceeding the recommended .70 benchmark (Nunnally, 1978). Next, all scale items were subjected to principal component analysis with a varimax rotation. All items loaded on their intended factors with substantial loadings, and all cross-loadings with non-intended factors were below maximum cross-loading (< .40) thereby confirming convergent and discriminant validities, respectively. Table 2 reports the complete measurement statistics.

To minimize potential common method bias, we used a series of procedural remedies in developing the instrument (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Jeong-Yeon Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). First, following Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan, and Moorman (2008) recommendations, we used a combination of semantic differential and Likert scales for different constructs. Second, through the pretest, we ensured that there was no ambiguous item. Third, we informed respondents that there was no right or wrong answer and fourth, predictor variables did not precede the criterion variable on the survey instrument. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) showed only four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 and the largest contribution to variance (sales performance, variance explained = 22.06%) was less than half the sum total of the variance explained by all four factors (69.52%) (Menon, Bharadwaj, Adidam, & Edison, 1999, p. 31). Thus, method bias does not pose a risk to interpretation of the data. However, we could not include an MV marker, a construct that is theoretically unrelated to our study; therefore, we could not apply the method recommended by Lindell & Whitney (2001) to further test for common method bias. Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics and correlation matrix.

Measures

We employed a four-item scale from Dixon, Spiro, and Jamil (2001) to measure effort. The seven-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7), asked respondents to indicate their level of agreement with the statements. We measured optimism by adapting Rich's (1999) scale by adding one item: “I always look at every experience as a learning opportunity.” All responses were obtained on a seven-point Likert scale “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7). We added one item to Rich's (1999) manager support scale: “My manager usually trusts me to do the right thing.” All responses were obtained on a seven-point Likert scale “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7). We measured sales performance based on the scale developed by Behrman and Perreault Jr. (1982). This self-report scale has been extensively used in past research (e.g., Wachner et al., 2009). Respondents were asked to rate each dimension of their sales performance as “Compared to most salespeople I ...” on a seven-point semantic differential scale (1 = “much worse” to 7 = “much better”). Adaptations were made to capture the automobile sales context and one item, “Converting prospect to customer,” was added. Consistent with prior research, in order to rule out well-known effects of demographic variables on performance, we controlled for salesperson's age and tenure with the firm.

Analyses and Results

The model was estimated using ordinary least squares (OLS) regression. The basic model required to test our research hypotheses can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sales Performance} = & b_0 + b_1\text{Effort} + \\ & b_2\text{Optimism} + b_3\text{Manager Support} + \\ & b_4\text{Effort} \times \text{Manager Support} + \\ & b_5\text{Optimism} \times \text{Manager Support} + \\ & b_6\text{Age} + b_7\text{Tenure} + e. \end{aligned}$$

Although we had no a priori theoretical reason to model the three-way interaction among effort, optimism, and manager support, in the interest of being comprehensive, we ran the analysis to test the three-way interaction. Sure enough, the three-way interaction term was not

TABLE 2:
Measures, Sources, Factor Analysis and Reliability Results

Construct and Measures	Factor Loadings			
Sales Performance (Behrman and Perreault, 1982: $\alpha = 0.89$) ^a				
Compared to most car salesperson I contribute to my dealership's acquisition of market share.	0.505	0.081	0.222	0.398
Compared to most car salesperson I sell high profit margin products.	0.67	0.247	0.115	-0.102
Compared to most car salesperson I generate high volume of sales dollars.	0.79	0.101	-0.048	0.107
Compared to most car salesperson I quickly generate sales of new additions to car inventory.	0.673	0.004	-0.004	0.314
Compared to most car salesperson I correctly identify prospects.	0.823	-0.049	0.007	0.241
Compared to most car salesperson I convert prospects to customers (Newly developed scale).	0.822	0.174	0.061	0.168
Compared to most car salesperson I exceed sales targets.	0.743	0.117	0.053	0.033
Compared to most car salesperson I assist the sales manager at achieving goals.	0.66	0.111	0.062	0.277
Optimism (Rich, 1999; $\alpha = 0.75$) ^b				
I always look on the bright side of things.	0.274	0.013	0.099	0.689
I'm always optimistic about the future.	0.21	0.106	-0.159	0.792
I always look at every experience as a learning opportunity. (New item)	0.125	0.106	0.074	0.796
Manager Support (Rich, 1999; $\alpha = 0.95$) ^b				
My manager demonstrates genuine care about me.	0.082	0.825	0.239	0.012
My manager shows respect for my individual needs.	0.061	0.937	0.099	0.027
My manager shows respect for my individual feelings.	0.096	0.909	0.106	0.112
My manager usually trusts me to do the right thing. (Newly developed scale)	0.257	0.83	0.127	0.128
My manager treats me like a real person, not a subordinate.	0.136	0.927	0.107	0.058
Effort (Dixon et al., 2001; $\alpha = 0.88$) ^b				
About last sale-I tried very hard to make this sale.	-0.019	0.245	0.845	0.025
About last sale-I put in a lot of effort for this sales calls.	-0.01	0.072	0.885	0.05
About last sale-I put in the time needed to make the sale.	0.042	0.12	0.88	0.009
About last sale-I gave the effort needed to make the sale.	0.217	0.145	0.768	0.003
Eigenvalues	4.4	4.19	3.08	2.2
^a Seven-point semantic differential scale ranging from "much worse" (1) to "much better" (7)				
^b Seven-point Likert scale anchored by "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly disagree" (7)				

TABLE 3:
Correlation Matrix and Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.SP	5.32 (.73)	1					
2.Opt.	6.1 (.77)	.553**	1				
3.MS	5.50 (1.47)	.342 ^C	.255*	1			
4.Effort	5.70 (1.04)	.229**	.183	.376**	1		
5.MS x Opt.		.125	.366**	.051	.104	1	
6.MS x Effort		.371	.112	.355**	.113	.252	1

Note: * $p < 0.05$; and ** $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed distribution)

significant ($p > .10$) and all other first order and second order coefficients remained unchanged.

Results from the regression are summarized in Table 4. We have followed step by step the recommendations of testing multiple regressions with interaction terms (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken L.S., 2003): control variables were first entered followed by the main-effects, and then the full model with the two-way interaction terms. Constituent variables were mean-centered before creating the interaction terms to minimize multicollinearity between predictors (Cohen et al., 2003). Variance inflation factor (VIF) for all variables was below the suggested cutoff value of 5 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010), indicating that multicollinearity among the variables was unlikely to be a concern.

We compared the models to examine whether addition of the interaction terms significantly increased explanatory power of the full model over the main effects model. Results in Table 4 show that the control-only model explains 3% of the variance. Addition of the independent variables increased R^2 , the explained variance, by 35% ($\Delta F = 13.73$, $p < .01$). We added the interaction terms in the full model, which resulted in a further increase in R^2 by 13% ($\Delta F = 10.04$, $p < .01$). This indicates that the full model with the two-way interaction terms has significantly more explanatory power than the main effects model. Because both interaction effects are significant, we focus on the description of the full model.

Overall, the set of predictors displayed a strong relationship with sales performance, with R^2_{Adj}

= .47, ($F[7,79] = 10.83$; $p < 0.01$). The regression analysis revealed a significant main effect of optimism ($b_2 = .43$, $p < 0.01$) on sales performance; while we did not find support for the effects of effort and manager support (both $p > 0.15$). More important, in support of our hypotheses, both the two-way interactions were significant. The interaction between effort and manager support was positively related to sales performance ($b_4 = .18$, $p < 0.01$), in support of H_1 . As we predicted in H_2 , the interaction between optimism and manager support was significant and in the predicted direction ($b_5 = -.11$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, H_2 was also supported, thereby suggesting a negative moderating effect of manager support.

In terms of control variables, age did not exhibit any impact, but tenure at the company had a positive impact on sales performance ($b_7 = 0.01$, $p < 0.05$). This is in line with previous literature (e.g., Wachner et al., 2009). Average sales experience of our sample is on the lower side (1.8 years). This leads us to conclude that salespeople in our sample were still learning their jobs and had not reached a state of 'disengagement' (Carver et al., 2010) that may negatively impact sales performance.

Post-hoc Analysis

To facilitate interpretation of the interactions, we conducted a post-hoc analysis where two significant moderation effects were analyzed with simple slope analysis (Cohen et al., 2003). This technique overcomes the need to create subgroups of continuous independent variables. It indicates whether and how intercepts and

TABLE 4:
Regression Analysis Results: DV Sales Performance

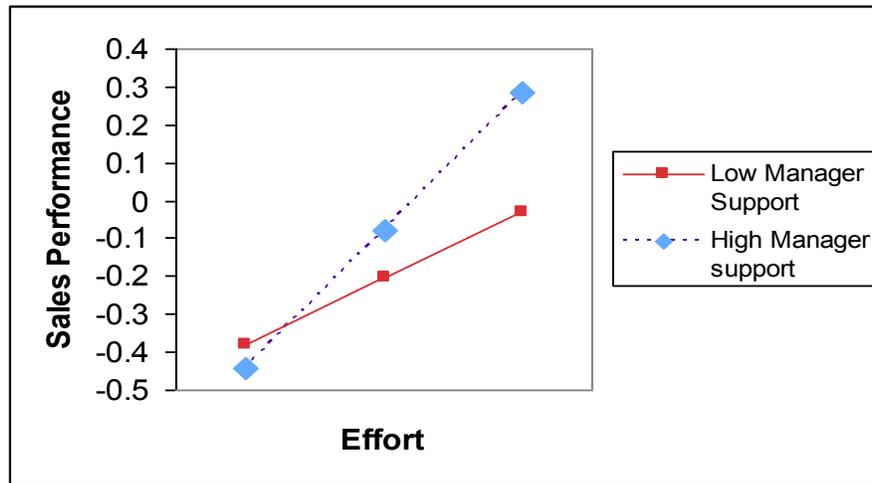
Predictor Variable	Hypotheses	Control-only Model	Main-effects-only Model	Full (main + interaction effects) Model
Control variables				
Age		-0.14 (-0.79)	-0.08 (-0.63)	-0.17 (-1.31)
Experience		0.00 (1.49)	0.00** (2.07)	0.01*** (2.67)
Main effects/Independent variables				
Effort			0.06 (0.97)	0.08 (1.42)
Optimism			0.43*** (4.93)	0.47*** (5.68)
Manager support			0.09** (1.97)	0.02 (0.32)
Interaction effects				
Effort x Manager support	H ₁			0.18*** (4.36)
Optimism x Manager support	H ₂			-0.11** (-2.09)
Model R ²				
		0.03	0.38	0.51
Model R _{Adj.} ²				
		.05	.34	.47
F-value				
		1.19	8.96***	10.83***
Change in F				
			13.73***	10.04***
F critical				
			1.44	1.45
Note 1: For each variable, the reported values are unstandardized beta (<i>t</i> -values in parentheses). <i>N</i> =81.				
Note 2: Two-tailed significance tests ** <i>p</i> < 0.05; *** <i>p</i> < 0.01.				

slopes of the regression equation differ at various levels of moderators. We fixed the contingent variable at high versus low levels, defined as one standard deviation above or below the mean. For this, first the coefficient of the moderator (in case of H₁, the moderator is manager support and its coefficient = 0.01) is multiplied by values of Z (moderator, manager support) one standard deviation (1.47) below and above the mean, to obtain two equations in X (independent variable, effort in H₁) terms. Next, the X coefficients in the two equations are multiplied by values of X one standard deviation (1.04 for effort) below and above the

mean, and at the mean (X=0), to obtain a two by three matrix of coefficients. We placed effort on the horizontal axis and sales performance on the vertical axis. Two lines were then positioned on the graph to illustrate how the slope changes at different levels of manager support. The corresponding plot appears in Figure 2.

Consistent with H₁, Figure 2 shows that 'high effort and high manager support' are associated with the highest levels of sales performance. A high level of effort leads to greater sales performance only when it is accompanied by a

FIGURE 2:
Interaction of Manager Support x Effort



high level of manager support. Salespeople with low effort do not appear to benefit from manager support. This supports our notion that the strength of the positive relationship between effort and sales performance is more pronounced when manager support is high.

In a like manner, Figure 3 shows the interaction plot of manager support moderating the relationship between optimism (standard deviation = 0.77) and performance. Optimism is on the X-axis and sales performance is positioned on the Y-axis with two lines representing the differing levels of manager support. Specifically, it indicates that for lower levels of optimism, a higher level of manager support is more beneficial. In contrast, this effect is reversed for higher levels of optimism, at which, lower level of manager support is more favorable. This provides clear evidence that manager support weakens the relationship between optimism and salesperson performance, substantiating H₂.

DISCUSSION

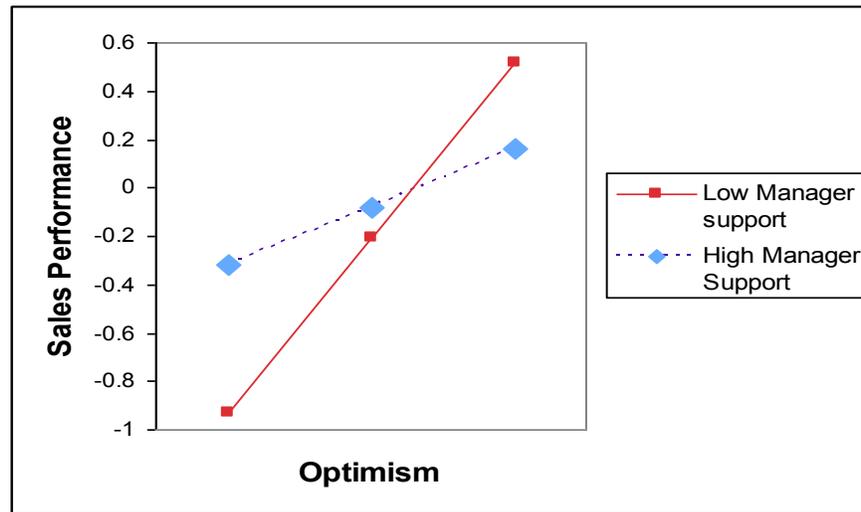
Implications

As salespeople increasingly assume the role of relationship managers rather than that of order-takers to maintain complex relationships with customers (Storbacka, Ryals, Davies, & Nenonen, 2009), it is imperative that firms

deploy effective management practices to configure appropriate sales support structures (Arndt & Harkins, 2013). As such, understanding how internal and external resources may influence sales performance is a key strategic imperative for marketers. We anchor our work on theories of organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 2002) and social exchange (Blau, 1964) and investigate the broad role of manager support, paving the way for understanding of factors that enhance salesperson performance. At a more granular level, the research reported herein investigates the contingent effect of manager support on the relationship between effort and sales performance, as well as the relationship between optimism and sales performance. The post-hoc analysis of the interactions ratifies the moderating role of manager support. Despite much work and interest in positive impact of effort and optimism on performance, research thus far has neglected to examine whether manager support improves or impedes these two links. We identify limiting conditions on these links. Specifically, our results indicate that manager support positively moderates the effort-performance link; and negatively moderates the optimism-performance link. Thus, this research adds an important caveat to known positive effects of manager support.

The most significant contribution of our research is to offer a theoretical account and

FIGURE 3:
Interaction of Manager Support x Optimism



empirical support for the extent to which manager support can enhance or mitigate the impact of two very valued internal resources (i.e., effort and optimism) on sales performance. Our findings illustrate the impact of manager support to be far from a simple one, and suggests that firms should refrain from forming a blanket assumption that manager support always exerts a positive influence.

By taking account of interdependencies between salespeople and sales managers, this research builds on recent scholarly interests in intra-organizational behavior of sales managers (Ingram et al., 2005; Plouffe & Barclay, 2007) and the relational aspect between salespeople and sales managers (Kashyap, Puga Ribeiro, Asare, & Brashear, 2007; Mulki et al., 2015). Of particular interest is the observed positive interaction between manager support and sales effort. Contrary to past research, this finding shows that expending effort does not automatically lead to better performance, rather in interaction with manager support, it will have a greater predictive value in explaining performance. That is, sales managers spur the effect of salesperson effort, and thereby, facilitate positive sales outcomes. In essence, success of salespersons will depend on how manager support might marshal firms' resources. This notion is also captured in our qualitative study such that manager support is perceived as a key resource in overcoming

customers' competitor-related objections and in closing a sale.

Our results also challenge the conventional wisdom that manager support always leads to higher performance. We uncover a situation in which the performance impact of manager support could be restraining. Our findings empirically document that higher levels of manager support weaken the positive effect of optimism on sales performance. For highly optimistic salespeople, a higher level of manager support seems to get in the way of psychological empowerment and reduces its positive effect on performance. This negative interaction between manager support and optimism is markedly different from a traditional view and offers important implications for sales management practice: It draws managers' attention to the fact that optimistic salespeople may not have to be jump-started. They are self-assured, can take the rejection on a daily basis, and primarily like to rely on themselves to flourish. Thus, a higher level of manager support may disrupt their momentum and derail their overall game plan. Our results support and enrich Stan et al.'s (2012) findings that too much support provided by an organization may interfere with salespeople's internal resources. That is, organizational support may generate a sense of performance obligation within the salesperson such that the desire to work for the benefit of

the organization may override the desire to satisfy customer needs (Falk & Fischbacher, 2006; Stan et al., 2012). Such an obligatory feeling may induce a salesperson to focus on short-term reward, to the detriment of long-term outcomes.

This research adds depth to extant literature examining managers' influence on salesperson performance (e.g., Chakrabarty, Oubre, & Brown, 2008) by enabling a new perspective on the role of manager support and its complex ramifications. Prior work in this vein has tended to focus on various main effects. Our focus on boundary conditions of two widely researched links is novel and offers a more nuanced view. Our findings are of direct importance to managers as they identify conditions under which manager support is a benefit or a hindrance. A firm might focus attention on training and development to enhance managers' behavioral control skills. This may provide more effective governance systems for firms. This is in accordance with prior findings that social mechanisms may be used as control tools to influence a variety of sales outcomes (Brashear, Boles, Bellenger, & Brooks, 2003).

Our model and results suggest that improved performance may depend not merely on diligent efforts, but also on key organizational support in the form of manager support. In this way, managers can play a transformational role in improving salesperson performance. However, in tandem with this finding, this research also suggests that optimistic salespeople tend to prefer being self-supported. Therefore, a key priority for sales managers will be to engage in empowerment of optimistic salespeople. Our findings bring a new understanding to the work of Panagopoulos & Ogilvie (2015), who show that leadership can originate in individuals and salespeople can lead themselves to better performance.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

While this research demonstrates some meaningful effects and offers interesting insights into sales management practices, it is important to consider several limitations

related to the scope and depth of this research. At the same time, our findings pave the way for several worthwhile avenues for further research. First, our model was constrained to a few constructs of theoretical importance and did not attempt to represent possible antecedents of manager support. Further research should include other intervening factors to obtain a better understanding of mechanisms through which manager support may influence job consequences. For example, a robust area of inquiry would be to explicitly consider the distinction between "process effort" and "outcome effort" and the corresponding interactions with manager support. Second, in studying the role of manager support, we considered only the traditional mold of dyadic relationships. Recent research has emphasized a network of simultaneous relationships that sales managers have to manage (Flaherty, Lam, Lee, Mulki, & Dixon, 2012). Future researchers should develop a way to consider other stakeholders in sales managers' constellation of relationships and how they may influence sales performance. Third, we wish to acknowledge the limitations associated with cross-sectional design that relies on a single informant measurement. Although our methodology reduced subjective biases by offering respondent anonymity and curtailed the motivation of self-presentation, as recommended by Singh (2000), more objective measures are desirable. Our study's design enables us to examine the salesperson side of the story, but it does not permit us to match these thoughts with supervisors'. Our results may be strengthened by inclusion of supervisor perspectives. Thus, future researchers should examine these linkages from a dyadic perspective. Furthermore, our approach does not facilitate testing of the causal sequence and thus, cannot capture the temporal dynamics and the underlying process explanation. Use of longitudinal data will enable researchers to tease out these linkages more clearly and yield richer process information. As an emerging market, it is very likely that India's industrial sales context has also evolved since the data was collected. More recent research would add value and might also lend a form of longitudinal perspective. Finally, this study employed a one-industry research design. Although we believe automobile salespersons are quite appropriate to study manager support, and the controlled extraneous variations

afforded us with a cleaner environment in which to examine the focal effects, every industry has its own idiosyncrasies: cost structure, compensation systems, rate of new product introduction, to name a few. Thus, caution must be exercised in generalizing these findings. Even though the fundamentals of selling in other settings are not dramatically different, further research is warranted to explore how these relationships hold across multiple settings, and industries.

REFERENCES

- Ahearne, M., Haumann, T., Kraus, F., & Wieseke, J. (2013). It's a matter of congruence: How interpersonal identification between sales managers and salespersons shapes sales success. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 41(6), 625–648.
- Alarcon, G. M., Bowling, N. A., & Khazon, S. (2013). Great expectations: A meta-analytic examination of optimism and hope. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 54(7), 821–827. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpaid.2012.12.004>
- Armstrong, J. S., & Overton, T. S. (1977). Estimating nonresponse bias in mail surveys. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 14(3), 396–402.
- Arndt, A. D., & Harkins, J. (2013). A framework for configuring sales support structure. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 28(5), 432–443.
- Baldauf, A., & Lee, N. (2011). International selling and sales management: Sales force research beyond geographic boundaries. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 31(3), 211–217.
- Behrman, D. N., & Perreault Jr., W. D. (1982). Measuring the performance of industrial salespersons. *Journal of Business Research*, 10(3), 355–370.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: Wiley.
- Brashear, T. G., Boles, J. S., Bellenger, D. N., & Brooks, C. M. (2003). An empirical test of trust-building processes and outcomes in sales manager-salesperson relationships. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 31(2), 189–200.
- Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Segerstrom, S. C. (2010). Optimism. *Positive Clinical Psychology*, 30(7), 879–889. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2010.01.006>
- Chakrabarty, S., Oubre, D. T., & Brown, G. (2008). The impact of supervisory adaptive selling and supervisory feedback on salesperson performance. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 37(4), 447–454.
- Churchill Jr., G. A., Ford, N. M., Hartley, S. W., & Walker Jr., O. C. (1985). The determinants of salesperson performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 22(2), 103–118.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken L.S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences* (3rd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- DeConinck, J. B. (2010). The effect of organizational justice, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support on marketing employees' level of trust. *Journal of Business Research*, 63(12), 1349–1355. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2010.01.003>
- DeConinck, J. B., & Johnson, J. T. (2009). The effects of perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and organizational justice on turnover among salespeople. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 29(4), 333–350.
- Dixon, A. L., & Schertzer, S. M. B. (2005). Bouncing back: How salesperson optimism and self-efficacy influence attributions and behaviors following failure. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 25(4), 361–369.
- Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamer, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 565–573.
- Falk, A., & Fischbacher, U. (2006). A theory of reciprocity. *Games & Economic Behavior*, 54(2), 293–315.
- Flaherty, K., Lam, S. K., Lee, N., Mulki, J. P., & Dixon, A. L. (2012). Social network theory and the sales manager role: Engineering the right relationship flows. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 32(1), 29–40.

- Gopal, A., & Srinivasan, R. (2006). The new Indian consumer. *Harvard Business Review*, 84(10), 22–23.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (7th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hamwi, G. A., Rutherford, B. N., & Boles, J. S. (2011). Reducing emotional exhaustion and increasing organizational support. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 26(1), 4–13.
- Ingram, T. N., LaForge, R. W., Locander, W. B., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2005). New directions in sales leadership research. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 25(2), 137–154.
- Jaramillo, F., & Mulki, J. P. (2008). Sales effort: The intertwined roles of the leader, customers, and the salesperson. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 28(1), 37–51.
- Kashyap, V., Puga Ribeiro, Á. H., Asare, A., & Brashear, T. G. (2007). Developing sales force relationalism: The role of distributive and procedural justice. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 27(3), 235–245.
- Kemp, E., Borders, A. L., & Ricks, J. M. (2013). Sales manager support: fostering emotional health in salespeople. *European Journal of Marketing*, 47(3/4), 635–654.
- Kraus, F., Haumann, T., Ahearne, M., & Wieseke, J. (2015). When sales managers and salespeople disagree in the appreciation for their firm: The phenomenon of organizational identification tension. *Journal of Retailing*, 91(3), 486–515.
- Lewin, J. E., & Sager, J. K. (2009). An investigation of the influence of coping resources in salespersons' emotional exhaustion. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 38(7), 798–805.
- Lindell, M. K., & Whitney, D. J. (2001). Accounting for common method variance in cross-sectional research designs. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1), 114–121.
- Maertz Jr, C. P., Griffeth, R. W., Campbell, N. S., & Allen, D. G. (2007). The effects of perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support on employee turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(8), 1059–1075.
- Maletz, M. C., & Nohria, N. (2001). Managing in the whitespace. *Harvard Business Review*, 79(2), 102–111.
- Mallin, M. L., & Mayo, M. (2006). Why did I lose? A conservation of resources view of salesperson failure attributions. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 26(4), 345–357.
- Mayer, R. C., & Gavin, M. B. (2005). Trust in management and performance: Who minds the shop while the employees watch the boss? *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(5), 874–888.
- Mehra, A., Dixon, A. L., Brass, D. J., & Robertson, B. (2006). The social network ties of group leaders: Implications for group performance and leader reputation. *Organization Science*, 17(1), 64–79.
- Menon, A., Bharadwaj, S. G., Adidam, P. T., & Edison, S. W. (1999). Antecedents and consequences of marketing strategy making: A model and a test. *Journal of Marketing*, 63(2), 18–40.
- Merchant, K., & Van der Steede, W. A. (2012). *Management Control Systems: Performance Measurement, Evaluation, and Incentives* (3rd ed.). London: Prentice Hall.
- Mulki, J. P., Caemmerer, B., & Heggde, G. S. (2015). Leadership style, salesperson's work effort and job performance: the influence of power distance. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 35(1), 3–22.
- Mullins, R., & Syam, N. (2014). Manager-salesperson congruence in customer orientation and job outcomes: The bright and dark sides of leadership in aligning values. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 34(3), 188–205.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Palmatier, R. W., Scheer, L. K., & Steenkamp, J.-B. E. (2007). Customer loyalty to whom? Managing the benefits and risks of salesperson-owned loyalty. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 44(2), 185–199.
- Panagopoulos, N. G., & Ogilvie, J. (2015). Can salespeople lead themselves? Thought self-leadership strategies and their influence on sales performance. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 47, 190–203.

- Piercy, N. F., Cravens, D. W., Lane, N., & Vorhies, D. W. (2006). Driving organizational citizenship behaviors and salesperson in-role behavior performance: The role of management control and perceived organizational support. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34(2), 244–262.
- Plouffe, C. R., & Barclay, D. W. (2007). Salesperson navigation: The intraorganizational dimension of the sales role. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 36(4), 528–539.
- Plouffe, C. R., Sridharan, S., & Barclay, D. W. (2010). Exploratory navigation and salesperson performance: Investigating selected antecedents and boundary conditions in high-technology and financial services contexts. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 39(4), 538–550.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Jeong-Yeon Lee, & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879.
- Powers, T. L., Jennings, J. C., & DeCarlo, T. E. (2014). An assessment of needed sales management skills. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 34(3), 206–222.
- Rangarajan, D., Jones, E., & Chin, W. (2005). Impact of sales force automation on technology-related stress, effort, and technology usage among salespeople. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 34(4), 345–354.
- Raynor, M. E., & Ahmed, M. (2013). Three rules for making a company truly great. *Harvard Business Review*, 91(4), 108–117.
- Richard, O. C., Ismail, K. M., Bhuian, S. N., & Taylor, E. C. (2009). Mentoring in supervisor–subordinate dyads: Antecedents, consequences, and test of a mediation model of mentorship. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(11), 1110–1118.
- Rich, G. A. (1999). Salesperson optimism: Can sales managers enhance it and so what if they do? *Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice*, 7(1), 53.
- Rindfleisch, A., Malter, A. J., Ganesan, S., & Moorman, C. (2008). Cross-sectional versus longitudinal survey research: Concepts, findings, and guidelines. *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, 45(3), 261–279.
- Ryals, L. J., & Humphries, A. S. (2007). Managing key business-to-business relationships: What marketing can learn from supply chain management? *Journal of Service Research*, 9(4), 312–326.
- Schmitz, C., & Ganesan, S. (2014). Managing customer and organizational complexity in sales organizations. *Journal of Marketing*, 78(6), 59–77.
- Shannahan, K., Bush, A., & Shannahan, R. (2013). Are your salespeople coachable? How salesperson coachability, trait competitiveness, and transformational leadership enhance sales performance. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 41(1), 40–54.
- Sheth, J. N. (2011). Impact of emerging markets on marketing: Rethinking existing perspectives and practices. *Journal of Marketing*, 75(4), 166–182.
- Singh, J. (2000). Performance productivity and quality of frontline employees in service organizations. *Journal of Marketing*, 64(2), 15–34.
- Singh, J., Marinova, D., & Brown, S. P. (2012). Boundary work and customer connectivity in B2B frontlines. In *Business to Business Marketing Handbook* (Lilien, G. and Grewal, R.). Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Stajkovic, A. D., Lee, D., Greenwald, J. M., & Raffiee, J. (2015). The role of trait core confidence higher-order construct in self-regulation of performance and attitudes: Evidence from four studies. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 128, 29–48.
- Stan, S., Evans, K. R., Arnold, T. J., & McAmis, G. T. (2012). The moderating influence of organizational support on the development of salesperson job performance: Can an organization provide too much support? *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 32(4), 405–420.
- Stewart, T. A. (2006). The top line. *Harvard Business Review*, 84(7/8), 10–10.
- Storbacka, K., Ryals, L., Davies, Iain A., & Nenonen, S. (2009). The changing role of sales: viewing sales as a strategic, cross-functional process. *European Journal of Marketing*, 43(7/8), 890–906.

- Strauss, K., Niven, K., McClelland, C., & Cheung, B. K. T. (2015). Hope and optimism in the face of change: contributions to task adaptivity. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 30*(4), 733–745.
- Sujan, H., Weitz, B. A., & Kumar, N. (1994). Learning orientation, working smart, and effective selling. *Journal of Marketing, 58*(3), 39.
- Tuli, K. R., Kohli, A. K., & Bharadwaj, S. G. (2007). Rethinking customer solutions: From product bundles to relational processes. *Journal of Marketing, 71*(3), 1–17.
- Verbeke, W., Dietz, B., & Verwaal, E. (2011). Drivers of sales performance: a contemporary meta-analysis. Have salespeople become knowledge brokers? *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 39*(3), 407–428.
- Wachner, T., Plouffe, C. R., & Grégoire, Y. (2009). SOCO's impact on individual sales performance: The integration of selling skills as a missing link. *Industrial Marketing Management, 38*(1), 32–44.
- Weitz, B. A., Castleberry, S. B., & Tanner Jr., J. F. (2011). *Selling: building partnerships*. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

PERCEPTIONS OF MILLENNIALS' MEDIA ATTITUDES AND USE: A COMPARISON OF U.S. AND INDIAN MILLENNIALS

RAJESH IYER, Bradley University

JACQUELINE K. EASTMAN, Georgia Southern University

HEATHER MONTEIRO, University of Nevada, Las Vegas

HEIDI ROTTIER, Bradley University

SEEMA SINGH ZOKARKAR, Balaji Institute of Telecom and Management

Previous research finds demographic characteristics affects perceptions of value and informativeness of advertising, thereby impacting the perception of media relevance. The purpose of this study is to update Wolburg and Pokrywczynski's (2001) work by comparing U.S. and Indian Millennials' perceptions of relatability of media depictions, ad informativeness, and differences by gender. We find multiple significant differences between the U.S. and Indian Millennial groups. Indian Millennials were significant more likely to be offended by ads, think ads increase prices, and dislike ads more than U.S. Millennials. U.S. Millennials, while not entirely positive in their attitude towards ads, perceived ads to be more informative and credible than their Indian counterparts. The managerial implications are that there are significant differences among Millennials between cultures that strongly impact their reaction to advertisements. These significant differences may affect the efficacy of advertisements to different groups.

INTRODUCTION

There are significant attitudinal and behavioral differences among generational cohorts typically attributed to pivotal events that occur in the developmental age of the group of individuals and the effect of current events on the same group (Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001; Norum, 2003; Moore & Carpenter, 2008) that are considered to persist for a lifetime (Jackson, Stoel, & Brantley, 2011). Schewe, Meredith, and Noble (2000) suggest that generational cohorts are a more efficient way to segment markets than just by age, as these different cohorts have been impacted in a similar way by external events. The most recent generational cohort to reach adulthood is Millennials (also called Generation Y), individuals born between 1977 and 1994 (Morton, 2002). In the U.S., they represent approximately 60 million (Neuborne & Kerwin, 1999) to 81 million individuals with an estimated spending power of \$1.3 trillion (Littman, 2008). Given their size and purchasing power, U.S. Millennials will have a significant impact on the economy (McCrea,

2011; Martin & Turley, 2004; Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001). As Millennials should not be considered one similar group, but a collection of unique submarkets (Debevec, Schewe, Madden, & Diamond, 2013), research is needed to gain a better understanding of their motivations and perceptions, especially for the submarket of college-aged Millennials (Noble, Haytko, & Phillips, 2009; Lodes & Buff, 2009).

In the U.S., there are many unique characteristics of the Millennial generation including a larger number of minorities, more racial diversity (Morton, 2002; Neuborne & Kerwin, 1999; Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001), diverse family structures, frequent and early computer literacy, and the ubiquity of media and marketing from a very young age (Neuborne & Kerwin, 1999; Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001; Morton, 2002). U.S. Millennials respond differently to ads than previous generations and have been exposed to ads through different media than past generations (Neuborne & Kerwin, 1999; Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001; McCrea, 2011). Additionally, media fragmentation and active channel surfing has made communicating with Millennials more difficult (Neuborne & Kerwin, 1999; Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001).

While the marketing literature discusses differences between generational cohorts (Eastman & Liu, 2012), there is little literature examining differences among a generational cohort in other countries, such as in the area of advertising. While Millennials in the U.S. make up approximately one-quarter of the U.S. population (McCrea 2011; Martin & Turley 2004), Millennials may be an even larger segment of the population in other countries, such as India, where 65% of its estimated population of 1.2 billion (CIA, 2014) is under the age of 35 (Arora, 2013) and 50% is under the age of 25 (Malik, 2012). The Indian Millennial market is critical for study as it is one of the largest market segments in the world (Malik, 2012). India is also relevant for study due to its transition from socialism to a market economy in the early 1990s (CIA, 2014; Khare, 2011; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013). While the size and growth of the Indian marketplace alone would be of interest to marketers, the economic changes that have taken place during Indian Millennials' youth could have significant generational cohort effects with long-range impact (Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001; Norum, 2003; Moore & Carpenter, 2008; Jackson et al., 2011; Neuborne & Kerwin, 1999; Schewe et al., 2000).

Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) conducted an empirical investigation of relevance of depictions in media and the informational value of various media types (television, newspaper, magazine, Internet, radio, direct mail, posters, and billboards) for Millennial college students. They found that demographic characteristics such as gender affected perceptions of the value of advertising and the informativeness of advertising; thereby impacting the perception of relevance of various media sources (Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001). More specifically, depictions in advertising were overall rated significantly worse than depictions of television or movies (Wolburg and Pokrywczynski, 2001). Since Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) study, the Internet's reach has expanded. To better understand Millennials, researchers and professionals must devote more attention to the knowledge, attitudes and behavior of this generation (Kilian, Hennigs, & Langner, 2012) and beyond the U.S. Millennial.

The purpose of this study is to update Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) work by examining current college-aged Millennials' perceptions of media depictions, ad informativeness, and differences by gender. We extend their study by investigating Millennials' attitude towards advertising, and more specifically whether they are offended by ads, whether ads help in their purchase decision, the effect of ads on prices, and the perceived truthfulness, accuracy and credibility of ads. We also address the gap in academic research on the Indian Millennial. There is little literature examining Indian consumers' attitudes toward advertising (Hilliard, Matulich, Haytko, & Rustogi, 2012). As the Indian Millennial cohort represents significant global buying power, it is important to understand how they may differ from U.S. Millennials in their perceptions of advertising. This research contributes to the literature through updating Wolburg and Pokrywczynski's (2001) research to include newer forms of advertising (blogs and social media), and extends it through consideration of additional advertising variables, and by comparing U.S. and Indian Millennials. This paper will first discuss the literature and research questions, present the methodology and results, and finally address the marketing implications.

LITERATURE REVIEW

We first discuss generational cohorts and the U.S. Millennial generation and the Indian millennial generation. Then we present the relevant literature on advertising informativeness, web advertising and social media, and our research questions relating to gender and Millennials' perceptions of advertising. We then discuss Indian perceptions of media. Finally, we present our research questions relating differences in media and advertising perceptions.

Generational Cohorts and Millennials

Generational cohorts are often defined as individuals born in a span of 20-25 years; however, this varies in length and is often more affected by external events that have a defining power over a generation (Beldona, Nusair, & Demicco, 2009, Eastman & Liu 2012; Schewe et al., 2000). Wolburg and Pokrywczynski

(2001) suggest three major influences found in generational marketing research: life stage, current conditions, and cohort experiences. The varying characteristics between cohorts lead to differentiation in terms of market segmentation (Norum, 2003; Schewe et al., 2000; Eastman & Liu, 2012). Because each cohort exhibits unique characteristics, it is essential to study different generations at varying ages to develop accurate research and effective marketing to fit the needs of each generation (Roberts & Manolis, 2000).

U.S. Millennials

U.S. Millennials are known for their technological expertise and are considered the first high-tech generation (Norum, 2003; Hershatter & Epstein, 2010; Lenhart, Purcell, Smith, & Zickuhr, 2010; Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010; Jackson et al., 2011; McCrea, 2011). Millennials are used to multitasking, which not only allow them to have an efficient and practical use of time, but also makes them more impatient (McCrea, 2011). They tend to be very pragmatic with short attention spans, a high need for structure, and low tolerance for ambiguity (Bell, Connell, & McMinn, 2011). U.S. Millennial characteristics include a very practical and realistic outlook on life including fiscal responsibility (Neuborne & Kerwin, 1999). They are also perceived as consumption-oriented and sophisticated shoppers (Jackson et al., 2011; Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001), that are media and technologically savvy, and able to see through advertising tactics (Noble et al., 2009; McCrea, 2011). They are also seen as the most protected and indulged generation, with an inability to delay gratification (McCrea, 2011). Finally, social networks are vital to Millennials (Hewlett, Sherbin, & Sumberg, 2009) as this group is socially motivated and have an immense need for affiliation (Borges, Manuel, Elam, & Jones, 2010).

Indian Millennials

Indian Millennials share many characteristics with U.S. Millennials including optimism, an entrepreneurial nature (Telefonica, 2013), and generally are positive and enthusiastic (Express News Service, 2013). Like U.S. Millennials, Indian Millennials are considered digital natives who are much more skilled at the

Internet than their parents' generation (Mitra, 2011). Though the Indian millennial has acculturated to some Western ideals, such as professional dress (Mitra, 2011), they are struggling to balance consumerism while still observing the cultural ideal of self-denial (Dhillon, 2005; Jin, Chansarkar, & Kondap 2006). As the Indian Millennial cohort did not experience the poverty-stricken years of protectionist economy that existed until the start of the 1990s (Dhillon, 2005), they are starting to embrace consumerism causing an avalanche of shopping malls, luxury brand shops, and significant increases in brand variations (Dhillon, 2005). Khare (2011) suggests that while young people in India seem to endorse Western values, brand meanings continue to be determined by family traditions, national traditions, and group values. Assuming all consumers across the country of India are similar and will respond in a similar way to a marketing campaign, however, is a mistake (Jin & Son, 2013; Khairullah, 2011). There are many different sub-cultures within India, each with distinct beliefs, norms, values, and behaviors (Banerjee, 2008). Marketers trying to reach the Indian market need to take this into account when marketing to the Indian market (Jin & Son, 2013; Khairullah & Khairullah, 2009).

Finally, in comparing India to the U.S. and what cultural differences may mean for advertising, India is significantly higher in power distance than the United States, suggesting that India has a great acceptance of unequal rights and expect communication to be more top down than those in the U.S. would (Hofstede, 2016). While the U.S. scores much higher than India on individualism and India illustrates collectivist tendencies in their interdependence with family, friends and social networks, there is an aspect of individualism in India, as many believe that the individual is responsible for how they live their life (Hofstede, 2016). This would suggest the need to address this need for interdependence and belonging in advertising. A final cultural dimension that differs greatly from the U.S. is the indulgence dimension with India being a more restrained society focusing on social norms while the U.S. is more indulgent where there is less control of desires and impulses (Hofstede, 2016). These cultural differences

between the U.S. and India may be reflected in how Millennials in each of these countries perceive advertising.

Advertising to Millennials

One difficulty in advertising to Millennials is getting their attention in an increasingly cluttered, fragmented media and keeping their attention (Littman, 2008). "The Millennials are one of the first generations to be targeted by advertisers since they were in Pampers; their parents have made them aware that they've been targeted, and have given them media education" (Littman, 2008, p. 80). Empirical research has shown that Millennials have overall negative attitudes of advertising, particularly in terms of believability and trustworthiness (Beard, 2003) with the most common attitude of Millennials being cynicism (Bennett & Lachowetz, 2004).

Research investigating this generation's attitude toward advertising commonly points to a belief that advertising is manipulative, untruthful (Beard 2003) and, in some cases, irritating (Chatterjee, 2008). Though they do have a more positive attitude towards advertising in general than their Baby Boomer parents (Loroz & Helgeson, 2013), other research shows that overall advertising is still an effective strategy to reach Millennials (Beard 2003; Chatterjee 2008). For Millennials, celebrity endorsements, even unfamiliar ones, can still lead to positive evaluations of advertising (McCormick, 2016). Thus, Millennials have reactions to media that differ from previous generations. Finally, gender has been shown to significantly effect attitude towards advertising (Brackett & Carr, 2001) and perception of advertising value (Shavitt, Lowrey, & Haefner, 1998).

The most effective form of advertising for Millennials is positive word of mouth (Neuborne & Kerwin, 1999; Morton, 2002), which today is often coming from social media and websites (Jackson et al., 2011; Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2011; Howe & Strauss, 2000). Compared to earlier generations (Lenhart et al., 2010), this generation is characterized by ubiquitous Internet and cell phone ownership and use (Lenhart et al., 2010; McCrea, 2011). Research suggests that Facebook advertising can have a positive influence on South African

Millennials purchase intentions and behaviors (Duffett, 2015). For marketers to be successful reaching Millennials, their efforts must respond to Millennials' specific tastes and close ties to the Internet (Neuborne & Kerwin, 1999; McCrea, 2011). Despite Millennials doubting the truthfulness of advertisements and believing that advertisements lead to higher product prices, research suggests that advertising remains to be an effective strategy for reaching them (Beard, 2003). In particular, this cohort seems to respond particularly well to ads displaying humor and a sense of local community (Neuborne & Kerwin, 1999; Gronbach, 2000). Bennett and Lachowetz (2004) suggest Millennials may have lost interest in traditional advertising and require unique marketing platforms such as lifestyle marketing (LM), large-scale events, tours or festivals. It becomes critical for marketers to engage Millennials wherever they are (Littman, 2008) as marketing opportunities via digital avenues are expanding (Loroz & Helgeson, 2013).

Advertising Informativeness

There are four primary values that affect consumers' attitude toward any advertising medium: credibility, entertainment, irritation, and informativeness (Koo, Knight, Yang, & Xiang, 2012). This paper focuses on advertising informativeness, i.e., advertising which provides helpful information (Koo et al., 2012). Previous empirical studies have shown that ad informativeness leads to higher advertising value and attitudes toward advertising (Brackett & Carr, 2001) with significant differences in attitudes based on demographics and exposure amount (King, Reid, Tinkham, & Pokrywczynski, 1987).

Research has concluded that advertising informativeness is most closely related to the value of advertising by Millennials, with entertainment shown to be a close second (Ducoffe, 1995; McCrea, 2011). Perceptions of advertising informativeness may help decrease the perception of deceptiveness (Ducoffe, 1995) which is important given Millennials' concerns with advertising (Beard, 2003). Different media types including posters, newspapers, magazines, billboards, radio, television, internet, blogs, and social media, exhibit various

perceptions of advertising informativeness. Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) found television to be rated highest, followed by newspapers, magazines, the web and radio (with billboards and posters rated lowest). Brackett and Carr (2001) ranked television as first most informative media, magazines and newspapers as the second most informative media, and radio tied with internet for the third most informative media.

In looking at gender differences in advertising informativeness, few studies had looked specifically at Millennials. Wolin and Korgaonkar (2005) studied a wide age range sample, and found that males, compared to females see web advertising as more enjoyable, useful, informative, and enjoyable than newspaper ads, and more useful than radio ads. Phillip and Suri (2004) found that women were more favorable than men in considering marketers' emails as a source of product information. In terms of Millennials specifically, Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) found that females perceive some media (the web, posters, and radio somewhat) to be more informative than males do.

Attitude Towards Advertising

There have been several research streams devoted to attitude towards advertising including emotions, product life cycles, believability and demographics. Emotions can create a more positive attitude toward advertisements which than can be transferred to the brand itself (Mitchell & Olson, 1981; Ray & Batra, 1983; Stout & Rust, 1993) and lead to more favorable attitudes and subsequent purchase intentions (Batra & Ray, 1986; Edell & Burke, 1987; Stout & Rust, 1993). Research reveals that current users of a product or brand maintain more positive attitudes than former users or those who never used that product or brand (Stout & Rust, 1993).

Digital Advertising and Social Media to Millennials

The internet is a central element in the lives of Millennials (Lenhart et al., 2010). In this age group, two-thirds access the internet with a laptop/netbook, 53% with a desktop computer, and 93% of them own a cell phone (Lenhart et

al., 2010). While Tanyel, Stuart, and Griffin (2013) note that Millennials may be more negative towards Internet advertising, Smith (2012) suggests that Millennials have a preference for online advertising. Smith (2011) recommends the use of coupons, side-panel ads, YouTube ads, and email updates are preferred by a majority of Millennials surveyed. Keith and Bush (2010) suggest that the synergy of interactive online mediums (social networks, email, and text messages) combined with traditional media will be the most effective in targeting Millennials.

Millennials are also influenced by online reviews (Smith, 2012) and this form of word of mouth has been shown to be much more influential on the current generation than traditional recommendations (Senecal & Nantel, 2004; Smith, 2011; Smith, 2012). For example, 66% of heavy social media using Millennials have recruited their peers to visit favorite sites (Littman, 2008). Finally, one of the most significant advantages of electronic or online commerce is the ability to offer a more personalized offering and relationship (Wind & Rangaswamy, 2001). In looking at gender differences of Millennials with online marketing communications, McMahan, Hovland, and McMillan (2009) find that while there are no significant differences between genders in terms of cognitive needs online, women may be more responsive than men with emotional online content suggesting the need to customize online content by gender.

Millennials exhibit patterns of social media use unique from the preceding generation (Kilian et al., 2012). Social media networks are vital for Millennials (Hewlett et al., 2009) as this generation is particularly socially motivated (Martin & Turley, 2004). This generation is highly influenced by social media (Kilian et al., 2012) in that social media peer group influence has socialization and marketing impact (Lachance, Beaudoin, & Robitaille, 2003, Pate & Adams, 2013). Social networking on the Internet has been related to the need for self-efficacy, the need for belonging, cognition, and collective self-esteem particularly for college-aged individuals (Gangadharbatla, 2008). Millennials are more likely to purchase a product if it was "liked" by their friends on social networking sites (Pate & Adams, 2013).

Millennials consider social networking sites as providing unbiased, objective and comparative information about products (Truong & Simmons, 2010). While Millennials believe that social media is entertaining, interactive, and user-friendly, less than a quarter of them use it as a news source (Robinson, Keith, & Bush, 2010).

The Indian Market and Media

Research shows multiple factors affect the Indian market response to advertising campaigns including brand origin (Jin, Chansakar & Kondap, 2006) and the consumer's level of acculturation (Khairullah, 2011). Television has been shown to exhibit a significant influence in the consumption behavior of Indians as television access and use is widespread to most Indian homes (Khairullah and Khairullah, 2013). Indian consumers have deeply embraced social media (Kulkarni, 2012). Consumers in India use social media for many marketing related activities including dealing with customer service needs, sharing service and product reviews with other consumers (Kulkarni, 2012), and networking through LinkedIn and Facebook (Mitra, 2009; Mitra, 2012). India has the largest LinkedIn membership outside the U.S. with about 2 million registered users (Mitra, 2009), while Facebook has roughly 45 million registered users in India (Mitra, 2012). As there is little in the literature examining Indian millennial media perceptions, we pose our research ideas as research questions, rather than hypotheses.

Research Questions

RQ1. How do the U.S. and Indian Millennials evaluate the depictions by the media that they can relate to?

RQ2. Are there any gender differences about media depictions for U.S. and Indian Millennials?

RQ3. How do the U.S. and Indian Millennials evaluate ad informativeness?

RQ4. Are there any gender differences about ad informativeness for U.S. and Indian Millennials?

RQ5. How do the U.S. and Indian Millennials evaluate their attitude towards advertising?

RQ6. Are there any gender differences about attitude towards advertising for U.S. and Indian Millennials?

METHODOLOGY

For the purposes of both studies, we looked at ten media sources (which included the eight media sources that Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) examined in their study, and added two new sources: blogs and social media. These media sources were scaled on a seven point Likert scale (not informative at all to very informative). To measure media depictions, we used the same four items as Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001), i.e., “_____ (movies, television, magazines, advertising) depict people in their 20s that I can relate to” but scaled it on a seven point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree). Attitude towards advertising was measured using scales developed by Peterson, Wilson and Brown (1992), Beltramini (1982,1988), and Beltramini and Stafford (1993). These scales were adapted to fit the study.

U.S. Sample

Similar to Babin, Hardesty, and Suter (2003) and Iyer and Muncy (2016), data were collected by students in a Social Media course as a part of course credit at a private Midwestern university of about 6,000 students. Each student administered the questionnaire to 10 respondents between the ages of 18 and 22 as a part of the project. The respondents filled out the questionnaire using Qualtrics (an online data collection) software. Further, the students submitted the first name and email address of each respondent to verify participation. This resulted in a non-probability convenience sample of 212 respondents. After excluding incomplete or unusable responses (those outside the range of 18-24), the final sample size for analyses was 204, a 96% usable response rate.

As illustrated in Table 1, our sample skewed female (65%) similar to other Millennial studies including Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) with 57% female, Beard (2003) with 63.8%

**TABLE 1:
Sample Characteristics**

Age	Gender	Member of Greek Organization	Number of Hours Employed	Number of Handheld Devices
USA Sample Characteristics				
18 = 7%	Male = 35%	Yes = 36%	0 hours = 38%	1-2 = 93%
19 = 13%	Female = 65%	No = 64%	1-10 hours = 27%	3-4 = 7%
20 = 23%			11-20 hours = 18%	
21 = 39%			21-30 hours = 13%	
22 = 18%			30 + hours = 4%	
Indian Sample Characteristics				
20 = 4%	Male = 78%		Not Employed = 95%	
21 = 21%	Female = 22%		Employed = 5%	
22 = 28%				
23 = 24%				
24 = 14%				
25 = 9%				

female, and Koo et al. (2012) with 88% (USA) and 68% (Korea) female. The median age of our sample was 21. As our study was focused on college-aged Millennials, the use of a student sample was appropriate (Calder, Phillips, & Tybout, 1981). Noble et al. (2009) recommends examining a narrower group of Millennial subjects as college-aged Millennials (ages 18-22 years old) may consume differently than other Millennials and represent huge potential as a market segment (Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001).

Indian Sample

Following the same process as with the U.S. sample data collection, data were collected by students in a Business Management course as a part of course credit at a private university in the western part of India. Each student administered the questionnaire to 5 respondents between the ages of 18 and 25. The respondents filled out the questionnaire using Qualtrics (an online data collection) software. Further, the students submitted the first name and email address of each respondent to verify participation. This resulted in a nonprobability convenience sample of 174 respondents. After excluding incomplete or unusable responses (those outside the range of 18-25), the final

sample size for analyses was 154, an 88.5% usable response rate.

As illustrated in Table 1, our Indian sample was skewed male (78%) with a median age of 22, and most not employed (95%). While our study had a majority of male respondents, this is characteristic of an Indian college student population; nationally females make up 41.5% of Indian college population with the majority of Indian women majoring in the humanities (Najar, 2013). In terms of their Internet use, the majority used the Internet daily for at least five hours a week (only 25% used the Internet 5 hours or less). The majority of the sample uses Facebook, but they purchase online infrequently (the median response was one to two times a year).

RESULTS

Media Depictions

To address RQ1 (how do U.S. and Indian Millennials evaluate depictions by media that they felt they can relate to), the respondents rated how well advertising depicted people of their age group relative to other primary sources of entertainment and information (movies, TV programming, and magazines). As

shown in Table 2, the U.S. respondents rated TV programming (Mean=4.17, s.d. = 1.52) and movies (Mean=4, s.d. = 1.56) higher than magazines (Mean=3.46, s.d. =1.52) or advertising in general (Mean=3.50, s.d. =1.52). Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) also found that movies and television were rated significantly better than magazines or advertising in general for their depictions of people in their 20s that the respondents could relate to. In comparison, the Indian respondents rated advertising in general (mean = 4.41, s.d. = 1.54) higher than magazines (mean = 4.34, s.d. = 1.59), TV programming (mean = 4.30, s.d. = 1.62) and movies (mean = 4.30, s.d. = 1.62). Interestingly, 28% of the Indian respondents felt that movies did not depict their generation in ways they can relate to, while 25% were neutral. 27% of the respondents felt that TV programming did not depict their generation in ways they could relate to, while 25% were neutral. In comparison,

26% (23% neutral) of the Indian sample felt that magazines and 24% (21% neutral) of the sample felt that advertising in general did not depict their generation in ways they could relate to.

Gender Differences for Media Depictions

In response to RQ2 (gender differences in media depictions), there were no significant differences between males and females in terms of media depictions within country for either the U.S. or Indian Millennial sample (see Table 3). In comparison, Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) found gender differences only for TV depictions with females rating it higher than men.

Country Differences for Media Depictions

In looking at differences by country, Indian Millennials see magazines and advertising in

TABLE 2:
Differences between US and Indian Millennials on Media Depictions
(7 point scale; 1=Strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

	n	US Mean	S.D.	n	India Mean	S.D.	t-values
Movie depictions	206	4.17	1.508	161	4.26	1.645	-0.58
TV depictions	205	4.00	1.558	158	4.29	1.637	-1.7
Magazine depictions	206	3.46	1.522	161	4.34	1.609	-5.36
Depictions of advertising in general	207	3.50	1.523	159	4.42	1.592	-5.6

t-values in bold denote significance at the 0.05 level.

TABLE 3:
Differences between US and Indian Millennials based on Gender on Media Depictions
(7 point scale; 1=Strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

	Gender	n	US Mean	S.D.	n	India Mean	S.D.	t-values
Movie depictions	Male	72	4.13	1.491	130	4.23	1.616	-0.46
	Female	134	4.19	1.523	31	4.39	1.783	-0.64
TV depictions	Male	72	4.00	1.565	127	4.19	1.592	-0.81
	Female	133	4.01	1.559	31	4.71	1.774	-2.2
Magazine depictions	Male	72	3.42	1.508	130	4.28	1.550	-3.81
	Female	134	3.49	1.535	31	4.61	1.838	-3.55
Depictions of advertising in general	Male	72	3.56	1.500	128	4.45	1.556	-3.93
	Female	135	3.47	1.540	31	4.29	1.755	-2.62

t-values in bold denote significance at the 0.05 level.

general as depicting people like them more than U.S. Millennials and this relationship was stronger for both males and females. Indian females (not males) also saw TV depictions being more like them than U.S. females.

Advertising Informativeness

To address the RQ3 (what information does advertising hold for Millennials across different media), the respondents rated advertising informativeness across major media. Using ANOVA to test for the differences across media ratings for each country, Internet, TV and newspapers were the top three sources for the U.S. sample, in that order. Billboards and blogs were rated the lowest (see Table 4). This is similar to Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) who found TV to be rated the highest followed by newspapers, magazines, the web and radio, with billboards and posters rated lowest. For the Indian Millennials, Internet, TV and magazines were the top three sources, with posters, billboards and radio rated the lowest (see Table 4). For both the U.S. and Indian Millennial sample, the results emphasize the power of the Internet amongst Millennials regardless of country.

Gender Differences about Advertising Informativeness

To address RQ4 (evaluating gender differences in perceptions of advertising informativeness), ratings of advertising informativeness were

analyzed by gender for each country. U.S. females rated each medium more informative than males, except for posters. Significant differences between genders were found for magazines, radio, TV and direct mail (see Table 5). This differed from Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001) who found females rated only the web and posters more informative than males, suggesting that perceptions of advertising informativeness by gender may have changed. Indian females rated each medium more informative than males. Significant differences among gender in India were found for posters, newspapers and billboards (see Table 5).

Country Differences by Ad Informativeness

As shown in Table 4, there were significant differences in ad informativeness between Indian and U.S. Millennials. While Indian Millennials saw posters, billboards, direct mail, and blogs as significantly more informative, U.S. Millennials saw magazines, TV, Internet, and social media as significantly more informative than Indian Millennials did.

Attitude Towards Advertising

In extending the examination of Millennials perceptions of advertising beyond Wolburg and Pokrywczynski (2001), this study evaluated Millennials attitude towards advertising in RQ5. As shown in Table 6, the U.S. respondents provided information about various

TABLE 4:
Differences between US and Indian Millennials on Ad Informativeness
(7 point scale; 1=Strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

	n	US Mean	S.D.	n	India Mean	S.D.	t-values
Posters	205	4.84	1.304	160	3.83	1.768	6.334
Newspapers	205	5.40	1.251	160	5.24	1.789	1.05
Magazines	205	5.02	1.230	159	5.22	1.598	-1.32
Billboards	204	4.33	1.391	159	4.62	1.444	-1.92
Radio	204	5.10	1.288	158	4.74	1.485	2.483
TV	204	5.59	1.198	159	5.28	1.638	2.125
Directmail	205	4.70	1.605	160	5.05	1.663	-2.05
Internet	204	5.61	1.310	160	5.52	1.578	0.621
Blogs	205	4.35	1.509	157	4.94	1.588	-3.6
Social Media	204	4.74	1.413	160	5.02	1.710	-1.7

t-values in bold denote significance at the 0.05 level.

TABLE 5:
Differences between US and Indian Millennials based on Gender on Ad Informativeness
(7 point scale; 1=Strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

	Gender	n	US Mean	S.D.	n	India Mean	S.D.	t-values
Posters	Male	71	4.96	1.325	127	3.92	1.811	4.229
	Female	134	4.78	1.294	33	3.45	1.563	5.064
Newspapers	Male	71	5.23	1.333	128	5.10	1.839	0.499
	Female	134	5.50	1.200	32	5.78	1.475	-1.14
Magazines	Male	71	4.85	1.411	126	5.14	1.648	-1.28
	Female	134	5.12	1.117	33	5.52	1.372	-1.74
Billboards	Male	70	4.24	1.498	126	4.52	1.484	-1.27
	Female	134	4.37	1.336	33	4.97	1.237	-2.33
Radio	Male	71	4.86	1.552	125	4.60	1.503	1.147
	Female	133	5.23	1.107	33	5.27	1.306	-0.18
TV	Male	71	5.45	1.422	126	5.19	1.609	1.136
	Female	133	5.67	1.057	33	5.61	1.731	0.266
Directmail	Male	71	4.68	1.795	127	5.05	1.637	-1.48
	Female	134	4.71	1.501	33	5.06	1.784	-1.16
Internet	Male	70	5.50	1.316	127	5.47	1.563	0.125
	Female	134	5.67	1.308	33	5.70	1.649	-0.09
Blogs	Male	71	4.30	1.562	125	4.87	1.571	-2.47
	Female	134	4.37	1.485	32	5.19	1.655	-2.73
Social Media	Male	71	4.55	1.491	127	4.97	1.713	-1.73
	Female	133	4.84	1.364	33	5.21	1.709	-1.32

t-values in bold denote significance at the 0.05 level.

TABLE 6:
Differences between US and Indian Millennials on Attitude towards Advertising
(7 point scale; 1=Strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

	n	US Mean	S.D.	n	India Mean	S.D.	t-values
Offended by ads	209	2.18	.742	164	2.43	1.114	-2.65
Ads helping in purchase decision	208	2.82	.877	164	2.90	.922	-0.91
Confidence in purchase decision	208	2.59	.653	162	2.55	.756	0.572
Effects of ads on prices	208	2.62	.619	163	2.36	.837	3.434
Like/dislike advertising	207	3.14	.988	161	3.41	1.196	-2.37
Truthfulness of ads	206	3.69	1.265	162	3.82	1.470	-0.92
Accuracy of ads	206	3.79	1.258	161	3.94	1.333	-1.16
Credibility of ads	207	3.78	1.288	161	3.91	1.502	-0.93
Overall attitude towards advertising	207	3.71	1.22	154	4.21	1.2	-3.88

t-values in bold denote significance at the 0.05 level.

aspects of their attitude towards advertising: 28% of the respondents indicated that they were offended by advertisements, 32% of the respondents indicated that they never/seldom use information about advertising in their purchase decision, 37% of the U.S. respondents do not feel very confident to use the information that they see in the ad to make a purchase decision, 67% of the U.S. respondents believed that advertisements increased the prices of products, and 25% of the respondents dislike advertisements. Finally, 44% found ads not to be truthful, 42% found ads be not accurate and 24% found ads to be not credible.

Per Table 6, the Indian respondents also provided information about their attitude towards advertising: 10% of the respondents indicated that they were offended by advertisements, 21% of the Indian respondents indicated that they never/seldom use information about advertising in their purchase decision, and 39% of the Indian respondents do

not feel very confident to use the information that they see in the ad to make a purchase decision. 44% of the Indian respondents believed that advertisements increased the prices of products, 25% of the respondents dislike advertisements, and 22% found ads not to be truthful. 21% found ads to be inaccurate and 15% found ads to be not credible. While this suggests that Indian Millennials are wary about advertising, it does not suggest the same overall negative attitude towards advertising as for U.S. Millennials (Beard, 2003; Bennett & Lachowetz, 2004; Chatterjee, 2008).

Gender Differences and Attitude Towards Advertising

To address RQ6 (gender and attitude towards advertising), attitude towards advertising was analyzed by gender. No significant differences were found between U.S. males and females for attitude towards advertising (see Table 7). For the Indian sample, other than overall attitude

TABLE 7:
Differences between US and Indian Millennials based on Gender on Attitude towards Advertising (7 point scale; 1=Strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

	Gender	n	US Mean	S.D.	n	India Mean	S.D.	t-values
Offended by ads	Male	74	2.14	.746	131	2.47	1.105	-2.35
	Female	135	2.20	.741	33	2.27	1.153	-0.45
Ads helping in purchase decision	Male	73	2.75	.863	131	2.83	.921	-0.6
	Female	135	2.85	.885	33	3.18	.882	-1.92
Confidence in purchase decision	Male	73	2.59	.684	129	2.54	.760	0.432
	Female	135	2.59	.638	33	2.58	.751	0.131
Effects of ads on prices	Male	73	2.59	.620	130	2.35	.852	2.069
	Female	135	2.63	.620	33	2.36	.783	2.093
Like/dislike advertising	Male	72	3.01	1.000	128	3.34	1.213	-1.96
	Female	135	3.21	.978	33	3.67	1.109	-2.35
Truthfulness of ads	Male	72	3.71	1.192	129	3.78	1.468	-0.37
	Female	134	3.68	1.307	33	3.97	1.489	-1.11
Accuracy of ads	Male	73	3.93	1.182	129	3.88	1.338	0.254
	Female	133	3.71	1.296	32	4.19	1.306	-1.88
Credibility of ads	Male	73	3.84	1.247	129	3.82	1.487	0.068
	Female	134	3.75	1.313	32	4.28	1.529	-2
Overall attitude towards advertising	Male	72	3.644	1.236	126	4.28	1.15	-3.61
	Female	135	3.738	1.208	28	3.92	1.39	-0.71

t-values in bold denote significance at the 0.05 level.

towards advertising in which Indian Millennial males had a significantly more positive attitude towards advertising than females, there were no significant differences were found between males and females in terms of their attitude towards advertising

Country Differences for Attitude Towards Advertising

Both Indian and U.S. Millennials tended to have somewhat negative attitude towards advertising, with Indians significantly more likely to be offended by ads, think ads increase pricing, and dislike ads. U.S. Millennials were significantly more likely than Indian Millennials to see ads as more credible, helping their purchasing decision, and giving them confidence.

DISCUSSION

The results of this study suggest multiple managerial implications. First, in terms of media depictions (RQ1), there is a need for increased activity for product placement and tie-ins in television programming and movies for both U.S. and Indian Millennials. In both groups, approximately one-fourth of the sample that felt that among all media, advertisements are not relatable. Furthermore, there were no gender differences for media depictions (RQ2) in either country. Recognizing the unique response of Indian Millennials to advertising across media is valuable for marketers, because not all Millennial Indian consumers respond similarly to U.S. Millennials (Jin & Son, 2013; Khairullah & Khairullah, 2009).

Second, results suggest that Internet, television, and newspapers were the top three sources regardless of gender and nationality. Therefore, utilization of those media outlets is recommended, particularly with the use of informative type ads. Blogging was studied and was one of the lowest scoring media in terms of informativeness for U.S. Millennials. One explanation could be Lenhart et al.'s (2010) finding that blogging use for teens and young adults has decreased since 2006, suggesting Millennials no longer find this type of media informative.

Indian Millennials found Internet and TV to be the two most informative sources. These results make sense given the widespread access Indians have to television (Khairullah & Khairullah, 2013) and the growth of the Internet in India (Mitra, 2012). For marketers trying to reach Indian Millennials online, it is important to incorporate the importance of social media and networking sites (Kulkarni, 2012; Mitra, 2009; Mitra, 2012), and the use of social media to discuss discount retailers (Bapna, 2011). For both Millennial groups, marketers should incorporate digital media and television in their advertising strategy, taking into account cultural differences, level of acculturation, and language differences within the country (Jin & Son, 2013; Khairullah & Khairullah, 2009; Khairullah & Khairullah, 2013; Khairullah, 2011; Mitra 2012).

In looking at gender differences in advertising informativeness (RQ4), results show that U.S. females find magazine, radio, television, and direct mail significantly more informative than mail. For Indian Millennials, Indian females found all advertising mediums to more informative than males did, with significant differences for posters, newspapers and billboards (RQ4). Thus, for marketers trying to reach Indian Millennial females, broader use of advertising media would be appropriate. It is important for marketers to recognize that Indian consumers' level of acculturation may affect their response to cultural attributes presented in print advertising (Khairullah, 2011). Indian Millennials may be struggling to balance western-style consumerism with eastern cultural ideals (Dhillon, 2005; Jin et al., 2006), thus marketers need to be sensitive to this balance in their messaging.

Finally, in looking at attitude towards advertising (RQ5), both the U.S. and Indian Millennial samples were negative to neutral in terms of their attitudes. While the Indian sample had a somewhat better attitude towards advertising than the American sample, the Indian consumers were significantly more likely to be offended by ads, think advertising increases prices, and dislike advertising. Hilliard et al. (2012) with a broader age sample, likewise found Indian consumers believe advertising is misleading and passes its' costs onto consumers. This may be related to

cultural differences between India and the U.S. as the U.S. is more indulgent and short-term orientated than India (Hofstede, 2016). In terms of gender and attitude towards advertising (RQ6), Indian males were more likely to take a negative view than U.S. males, while Indian females were more likely to like advertising and see it as more credible than U.S. females.

Limitations and Future Research

One limitation of our study was the majority of our respondents were female in the USA and male in India. Another limitation is that this study drew each sample from only one school in each country. Therefore, the results cannot be generalized (Khare & Sadachar, 2014). Future research is needed to include Millennials from multiple universities to try to capture the within country cultural differences. Additional research is also needed to compare college-educated versus less-educated Millennials. Finally, research is needed to look at cohort differences comparing Indian Millennials to earlier generational cohorts that grew up under the previous, more protectionist economy (Dhillon, 2005) to examine media cohort differences.

Future research with a more diverse sample would be needed to determine to generalize the findings. Future research may examine additional media sources of interest to Millennials, such as video games (Littman, 2008), online reviews (Smith, 2012) and m-advertising (Koo et al., 2012). Research could examine other means to promote to Millennials, such as cause marketing, to tap into the civic-minded nature of Millennials (Littman, 2008). Finally, research is needed to look at cohort differences (Loroz & Helgeson, 2013) and cultural differences in Millennials' perception of advertising and media (Koo et al., 2012).

As this exploratory study looked at media and general attitudes towards advertising, another area for future research is to examine what message may be appropriate for different segments of the Millennial market. Khare (2011) suggests that as brand associations need to relate to family and group identifications, research may evaluate the applicability of this

result to advertising communications. Banerjee (2008) stresses the role of culture (such as language, rituals and customs, symbols and signs, and traditions) and values (such as family, conformity, success, age, adaptability, and religion) in providing insights into messaging. Additional research would need to relate cultural differences, such as through Hofstede's (2016) dimensions with perceptions of advertising. Given the size and importance of the Indian Millennial market, this study intends to spur research on the Indian Millennial in addition to the U.S. Millennial. It is important to recognize that while this research makes a contribution by examining Indian Millennials' media and advertising attitudes, additional research is needed on Indian Millennial media attitudes and use.

REFERENCES

- Babin, B. J., Hardesty, D. M., and Suter, T. A., (2003), "Color and shopping intentions: The intervening effect of price fairness and perceived affect", *Journal of Business Research*, 56: 541-551.
- Banerjee, S., (2008), "Dimensions of Indian Culture, Core Cultural Values and Marketing Implications: An Analysis", *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 15 (40): 367-378.
- Bapna, A., (2011). "Social media driving the growth of e-commerce", *Economic Times (India)*. Accessed at: http://articles.economictimes.indiatimes.com/2011-10-26/news/30324062_1_social-media-e-commerce-travel-sites.
- Batra, R., and Ray, M., (1986), "Affective responses mediating acceptance of advertising", *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13(September): 234-249.
- Beard, F. K., (2003), "College student attitudes toward advertising's ethical, economic, and social consequences", *Journal of Business Ethics*, 48(3): 217-228.
- Beldona, S., Nusair, K. and Demicco, F., (2009), "Online travel purchase behavior of generational cohorts: A longitudinal study", *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 18: 406-20.

- Bell, N. S., Connell, J. A., and McMinn, N. E., (2011), "How will the next generation vhnge the business world? A report on a survey," *Insights to a Changing World Journal*, (1): 45-55.
- Beltramini, R., and Stafford, E., (1993). "Comprehension and perceived believability of seals of approval information in advertising", *Journal of Advertising*, 22 (3): 3-14.
- Beltramini, R., (1982). "Response Television; Combat Advertising of the 1980's", *Journal of Advertising*, 11 (3): 47.
- Beltramini, R., (1988), "Perceived believability of warning label information presented in cigarette advertising," *Journal of Advertising*, 17(2): 26-32.
- Bennett, G., and Lachowetz, T., (2004), "Marketing to lifestyles: Action sports and Generation Y", *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 13(4): 239-243.
- Borges, N. J., Manuel, R. S., Elam, C. L., and Jones, B. J., (2010), "Differences in motives Between Millennial and Generation X medical students", *Medical Education*, 44 (6).
- Brackett, L. K., and Carr, B. N., (2001), "Cyberspace advertising vs. other media: Consumer vs. mature student attitudes", *Journal of Advertising Research*, 41(5): 23-32.
- Calder, B.J., Phillips, L.W., and Tybout, A.M., (1981), "Designing research for application," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 8 (2): 197-208.
- Chatterjee, P., (2008), "Are unclicked ads wasted? Enduring effects of banner and pop-up ad exposures on brand memory and attitudes", *Journal of Electronic Commerce Research*, 9(1): 51-61.
- CIA, (2014), *The World Factbook*. <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/in.html>.
- Debevec, K., Schewe, C.D., Madden, T.J., and Diamond, W.D. (2013), "Are today's Millennials splintering into a new generational cohort? Maybe," *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 12: 20-31.
- Dhillon, A., (2005), "India's new rich go on spending spree", *The Sunday Times*, April 3.
- Ducoffe, R. H., (1995), "How consumers assess the value of advertising", *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 17(1): 1-18.
- Duffett, R.G. (2015), "Facebook advertising's influence on intention-to-purchase and purchase amongst Millennials," *Internet Advertising*, 25(4): 498-526
- Eastman, J. K., and Liu, J., (2012), "The impact of generational cohorts on status consumption: an exploratory look at generational cohort and demographics on status consumption", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 29(2): 93-102.
- Edell, J., and Burke, M., (1987), "The power of feelings in understanding advertising effects", *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14 (December): 421-433.
- Express News Services, (2013), "For young India, life-work balance new mantra, work-life balance passé: survey", *Indian Express*, Accessed at <http://indianexpress.com/article/india/india-others/for-young-india-lifework-balance-new-mantra-worklife-balance-pass-survey/>.
- Gangadharbatla, H., (2008), "Facebook me: Collective self-esteem, need to belong, and internet self-efficacy as predictors of the iGeneration's attitudes toward social networking sites", *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 8(2): 5-15.
- Gronbach, K., (2000), "Don't underestimate Generation Y", *Business West*, 17(4).
- Hershatter, A., and Epstein, M., (2010), "Millennials and the world of work: An organization and management perspective," *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 25(2): 211-223.
- Hewlett, S.A., Sherbin, L. and Sumberg, K., (2009), "How Gen Y & Boomers will reshape your agenda", *Harvard Business Review*, July -August, 1-8.
- Hilliard, H. Matulich, E., Haytko, D., and Rustogi, H. (2012), "An International look at attitude towards advertising, brand considerations, and market expertise: United States, China, and India," *Journal of International Business Research*, 11 (1), 29-41.
- Hofstede, G. (2016), "What about India", Accessed at <http://geert-hofstede.com/india.html>.
- Howe, N., and Straus, W., (2000), *Millennial Rising: The Next Great Generation*, Random House, New York, NY.

- Iyer, R. and Muncy, J., (2016), "Attitude toward Consumption and Subjective Well-Being," *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/joca.12079>.
- Jackson, V., Stoel, L. and Brantley, A., (2011), "Mall attributes and shopping value: differences by gender and generational cohort", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer*, 18(1): 1-9.
- Jin, B., Chansakar, B., and Kondap, N., (2006), "Brand origin in an emerging market: Perceptions of Indian consumers", *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 18(4): 283-302.
- Keene, K., and Sackett, V., (1981), "An editor's report on the Yankelovich, Skelly and White 'Mushiness Index'", *Public Opinion* (April/May), 50-51.
- Khairullah, D., (2011), "Acculturation and its relation to Asian-Indian immigrants' perceptions of advertisements", *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 11(2): 55-66.
- Khairullah, D., and Khairullah, K., (2009), "Cross cultural analysis of gender roles: Indian and US advertisements", *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 21(1): 58-75.
- Khairullah, D., and Khairullah, K., (2013), "Cultural values in Indian television advertising", *Journal of Promotion Management*, 19: 265-281.
- Khare, A., (2011), "Impact of Indian cultural values and lifestyles on meaning of branded products: Study of university students in India", *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 23(5): 365-379.
- Khare, A., and Sadachar, A., (2014), "Collective self-esteem and online shopping attitudes among college students: Comparisons between the U.S. and India", *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 26: 106-121.
- Kilian, T., Hennigs, N. and Langner, S., (2012), "Do Millennials read books or blogs?", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 29(2): 114-124.
- King, K. W., Reid, L. N., Tinkham, S. F., and Pokrywczynski, J., (1987), "The perceived informativeness of national and retail advertising", *Current Issues and Research in Advertising*, 10(1-2): 173-197.
- Koo, W., Knight, D. K., Yang, K., and Xiang, Z., (2012), "Generation Y Consumers' Value Perceptions toward Apparel Mobile Advertising: Functions of Modality and Culture", *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 4 (2): 56.
- Kulkarni, P., (2012), "Indian consumers who have turned social media savvy: U.S. Express survey", *The Economic Times* (New Delhi), May 3.
- Lachance, M.J., Beaudoin, P. and Robitaille, J., (2003), "Adolescents' brand sensitivity in apparel: influence of three socialization agents", *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 27(1): 47-57.
- Lenhart, A., Purcell, K., Smith, A., and Zickuhr, K., (2010), "Social media and mobile internet use among teens and young adults," *Pew Research Center*, (February 3), Accessed at www.pewresearch.org/millennials.
- Littman, S., (2008), "Welcome to the new millennials," *Response*, 16(8): 74-80.
- Lodes, M., and Buff, C.L., (2009), "Are Generation Y (Millennial) consumers brand loyal and is their buying behavior affected in an economic recession? A preliminary study," *Journal of Academy of Business and Economics*, 9(3): 127-135.
- Loroz, P., and Helgeson, J., (2013), "Boomers and their babies: An exploratory study comparing psychological profiles and advertising appeal effectiveness across two generations," *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 21(3): 289-306.
- Lyonski, S. and Durvasula, S., (2013), "Consumer decision making styles in retailing: Evolution of mindsets and psychological impacts", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 30 (1): 75-87.
- Malik, R., (2012), "Millennial generation in urban India: How marketers can tap them?", *Asian Journal of Research in Business Economics and Management*, 2 (8): 125-135.
- Martin, C. A., and Turley, L. W., (2004), "Malls and consumption motivation: an exploratory examination of older Generation Y consumers", *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 32(10): 464-475.
- Martin, W. C., Ponder, N., and Lueg, J. E., (2009), "Price fairness perceptions and customer loyalty in a retail context," *Journal of Business Research*, 62, 588-593.

- McCormick, K. (2016), "Celebrity endorsements: Influence of a product-endorser match on Millennials attitudes and purchase intentions," *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 32, 39-45.
- McCrea, B., (2011), "Millennial Marketing 101," *Response*, (November): 34-37.
- McMahan, C., Hovland, R., and McMillan, S., (2009), "Online marketing communications: Exploring online consumer behavior by examining gender differences and interactivity within internet advertising," *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 10(1): 61-76.
- Milner, T., and Rosenstreich, D., (2013), "Insights into mature consumers of financial services," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 30(3): 248-257.
- Mitra, K., (2009), "Waking up to social media", *Business Today*, (July 12).
- Mitra, K., (2011), "Bringing up father", *Business Today*, (December 25).
- Mitra, K., (2012), "Sultans of social networking", *Business Today*, (April 29).
- Mitchell, A., and Olson, J., (1981), "Are product attributes the only mediator of advertising effects on brand attitude: A second look," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 27: 109-219.
- Moore, M., and Carpenter, J., (2008), "Intergenerational perceptions of market cues among US apparel consumers", *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 12(3): 323-337.
- Morton, L., (2002), "Targeting Generation Y", *Public Relations Quarterly*, 47(2): 46-48.
- Myers, K. K., and Sadaghiani, K., (2010), "Millennials in the Workplace: A Communication Perspective on Millennials' Organizational Relationships and Performance," *Journal of Business Psychology*, 25(2): 225-238.
- Najar, N., (2013), "On India's campuses, female students speak out about "deep rooted" gender discrimination", *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, Accessed at <http://chronicle.com/article/Female-Scholars-Describe-Deep/138659/>.
- Neuborne, E., and Kerwin, K., (1999), "Generation Y", *Business Week Online*, Accessed at www.businessweek.com/stories/1999-02-14/generation-y.
- Noble, S.M., Haytko, D.L., and Phillips, J., (2009), "What Drives College-Age Generation Y Consumers?" *Journal of Business Research*, 62: 617-628.
- Norum, P.S., (2003), "Examination of generational differences in household apparel expenditures", *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, 32(1): 52-75.
- Pate, S. S., and Adams, M., (2013), "The Influence of Social Networking Sites on Buying Behaviors of Millennials", *Atlantic Marketing Journal*, 2(1): 7.
- Peterson, R.A., Wilson, W., and Brown, S.P., (1992). "Effects of advertised customer satisfaction claims on consumer attitudes and purchase intention", *Journal of Advertising Research*, 32(2): 34-41.
- Phillip, M.V., and Rajneesh, S., (2004), "Impact of gender differences on the evaluation of promotional emails," *Journal of Advertising Research*, 44(4): 360-368.
- Ray, M., and Batra, R., (1983), "Operationalizing involvement as depth and quality of cognitive response," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 10(1): 309-313.
- Roberts, J. A., and Manolis, C., (2000), "Baby boomers and busters: An exploratory investigation of attitudes toward marketing, advertising and consumerism", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 17(6): 481-497.
- Robinson, K., Keith, M., and Bush, V., (2010), "An investigation of social and traditional media interaction on Generation Y political intentions and behavior", *Society for Marketing Advances Proceedings*, 23-24.
- Schewe, C.D., Meredith, G.E. and Noble, S.M., (2000), "Defining moments: segmenting by cohorts", *Marketing Management*, 9(3): 48-53.
- Senecal, S., and Nantel, J., (2004), "The influence of online product recommendations on consumers' online choices", *Journal of Retailing*, 80(2): 159-169.
- Shavitt, S., Lowrey, P., and Haefner, J., (1998), "Public attitudes toward advertising: More favorable than you might think", *Journal of Advertising Research*, 38(4): 7-22.
- Smith, K. T., (2011), "Digital marketing strategies that millennials find appealing, motivating, or just annoying", *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 19(6): 489-499.

- Smith, K. T., (2012), "Longitudinal study of digital marketing strategies targeting Millennials", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 29(2): 86-92.
- Stout, P., and Rust, R., (1993),"Emotional feelings and evaluative dimensions of advertising: are they related?" *Journal of Advertising*, 22(1): 61-71.
- Tanyel, F., Stuart, E., and Griffin, J., (2013), "Have millennials embraced digital advertising as they have embraced digital media?", *Journal of Promotion Management*, 19(5): 652-673.
- Telefonica, (2013), "Connected, yet divided: Telefonica survey of the millennial generation reveals digital natives are optimistic about their individual futures", June 4, Accessed at <http://blog.digital.telefonica.com/?press-release=telefonica-millennial-survey-findings>.
- Truong, Y., and Simmons, G., (2010), "Perceived intrusiveness in digital advertising: Strategic marketing implications", *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 18(3): 239-256.
- Wells, W., Leavitt, C., and McConville, M., (1971), "A reaction profile for TV commercials," *Journal of Advertising Research*, 11(6): 11-17.
- Wind, J., and Rangaswamy, A., (2001), "Customerization: The next revolution in mass customization", *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 15(1): 13-32.
- Wolburg, J.M. and Pokrywczynski, J., (2001), "A psychographic analysis of Generation Y college students," *Journal of Advertising Research*, 41(5): 33-52.
- Wolin, L. D., and Korgaonkar, P., (2005), "Web advertising: Gender differences in beliefs, attitudes, and behavior", *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 6(1): 125-136.

SATISFACTION AS REASONS FOR AND AGAINST GENEROSITY DECISIONS: A BEHAVIORAL REASONING THEORY EXPLORATION

JEANANNE NICHOLLS, *Slippery Rock University*

KURT SCHIMMEL, *Slippery Rock University*

This study examines satisfaction as reasons in Behavioral Reasoning Theory (BRT) and the impact of satisfaction with the service-learning experience on future generosity behavioral intentions. In BRT, both reasons and global motives (attitudes) are drivers of behavioral intentions. Reasons and satisfaction can be either for or against an action. Prior experience influences both reasons and satisfaction. In this paper, the reasons construct is operationalized by satisfaction with the service-learning experience and examines the impact reasons (satisfaction) has on future intentions to volunteer or donate to charitable organizations. The analysis uses partial least squares structural equation modeling. Results indicate that reasons, operationalized as satisfaction, and attitudes drive both future volunteering and future donation intentions.

INTRODUCTION

This paper examines the role satisfaction plays in a volunteering experience with future generosity intentions using the behavioral reasoning theory (BRT) framework. BRT extends current intentions models (such as Theory of Planned Behavior and Theory of Reasoned Action) by incorporating beliefs, reasons, global motives, intentions, and behavior. In BRT, behavior reinforces reasons through a feedback loop. By adding the reasons construct, additional variance is explained when predicting behavioral intentions. In this study, reasons are operationalized as satisfaction with prior volunteering experiences (Briggs, Peterson, & Gregory, 2010; Westaby, 2005). The context for the study is a service-learning setting.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Nonprofit organizations are dependent on civic-minded individuals for both donations and volunteering to fulfill their missions (Bussel & Forbes, 2002). In this type of environment, nonprofit organizations recognize the importance of marketing (Pope, Sterrett-Isely, & Asamo-Tutu, 2009) and the need to heighten their visibility in the communities they

serve to increase volunteer and donor awareness (Wymer, Knowles, & Gomes, 2006).

Universities have developed service-learning programs to increase its impact on the community and increase its student's civic mindedness while also providing the students with experience in applying classroom material. Many of these programs are required of the students (Gujarathi & McQuade, 2002; Wittmer, 2004). However, the question remains, Do required service learning programs increase the future volunteering or donating intentions of the students? Alternatively, does "required" service create dissatisfaction with the experience and lead to lower intentions to volunteer and donate?

The consumer behavior literature includes investigations of both volunteer behavior and donating to nonprofits (Pho, 2004; Wymer et al., 2006; Wymer & Starnes, 2001). Volunteerism is considered a leisure activity and, as Stukas, Snyder, and Clary (2008) reported, increases social capital while helping people and communities function better. Assuming a person's time is finite, generosity and volunteer behavior may affect their ability to participate in other leisure activities. The trade-off is between perceived intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. This research extends this literature using BRT. It also describes the direct impact different post-experience reasons have on generosity behavioral intentions as well as indirectly through attitude. This paper

implicitly includes the feedback loop from behavior to reasons using the post-service-learning experience measure of satisfaction.

Behavioral Reasoning Theory, (BRT) is a behavioral intentions theory and is relatively new, and extends the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985) and the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). It presents an explanation of the “how” and “why” reasons that demonstrate the relationships among people’s beliefs, global motives, intentions, and behavior: In turn, BRT demonstrates how behaviors reinforce reasons as a feedback loop. With the addition of the reasons construct, BRT explains additional variance and predict behavioral intentions (Westaby, 2005a, 2005b; Westaby & Fishbein, 1996). BRT has been used to explain various decision processes, such as why people quite a job (Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012); why they drink (Liu, Wang, Bamberger, Shi, & Bacharach, 2015); why people use or do not use green strategies (Claudy, Peterson, & O’Driscoll, 2013; Claudy & Peterson, 2014) and why people do not make purchases (Chatzidakis & Lee, 2013).

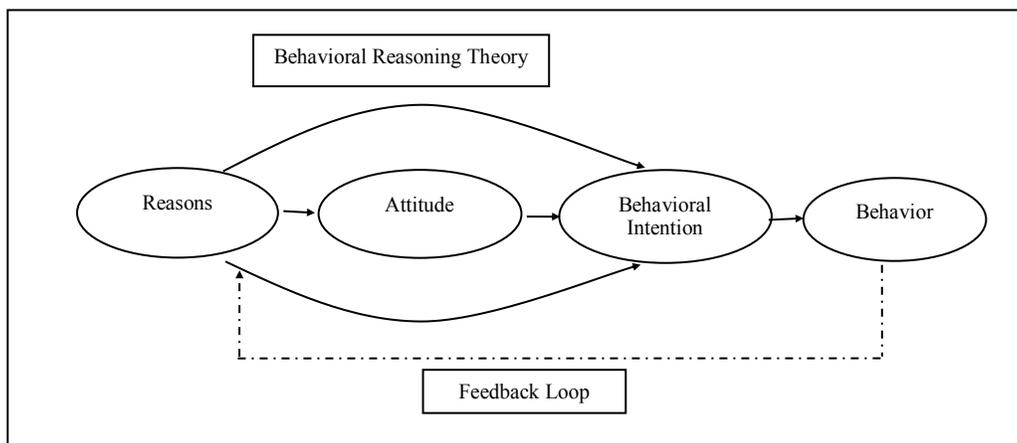
Several studies using BRT have been conducted focusing on the reasons construct. Reasons have been demonstrated to be directly and indirectly related to behavioral intentions and behaviors. Some of the behaviors found to be directly related include: employment of youth across organizations (Lee, Westaby, Chyou, & Purschwitz, 2007), the decision to work beyond

normal working hours (Zusman, 2009), generosity behavioral intention (Nicholls, Schimmel, & White, 2011), future volunteering intentions (Nicholls & Schimmel, 2012), underreporting of worksite accidents (Probst & Graso, 2013), and green decision making (Claudy & Peterson, 2014). Reasons also have been shown to mediate global constructs such as changes in attitude (Nicholls & Schimmel, 2012) and to predict both global motives and intention over and above the variance explained by constructs in the theory of planned behavior (Zusman, 2009).

Intentions approximate behavior in BRT, consistent with other behavioral intention models such as the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) and the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). The two behavioral intentions models in this study include two generosity behavioral intentions: Future Volunteering Intentions (FVI) and Future Donation Intentions (FDI).

It is well established that attitudes are antecedents of behavioral intentions (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Batra, Homer, & Kahle, 2001; Homer & Kahle, 1988; 2005a). Westaby (2005a) has shown that reasons lead to global motives and that attitudes constitute a global motives construct in BRT. Thus, as Briggs et al. (2010) reported, attitudes are shaped and predicted by reasons. This study operationalizes the construct of global motives as attitudes toward helping others (AHO) and attitudes toward charitable organizations (ACO) (Webb, Green, & Brashear, 2000).

FIGURE 1:
BRT Conceptual Model with Feedback Loop



This study investigates the relationship between AHO and ACO and between ACO and the (generosity) behavioral intentions of FVI and FDI. Webb et al. (2000) indicate that ACO and AHO are related to donor behaviors and behavioral intentions. Previous research has found AHO to be positively correlated with perceptions about the coverage of social issues in business classes (Sleeper, Schneider, Weber, & Weber, 2006). Ranganathan and Henley (2008) reported that ACO is an important determinant of intentions (to donate) precisely because AHO alone was not found to be a significant predictor of behavior and that ACO was an important determinant of intent to donate. ACO has also been found to be positively related to the number of charity donation categories and to the amount donated to those categories (Meijer, 2009). Thus, the following is hypothesized:

H₁: ACO will positively predict the generosity behavioral intention of (a) FVI and (b) FDI.

Webb et al., (2000) framed the relationship between these attitudes constructs as an attitude toward a behavior (helping others, or AHO) and an attitude toward a target (charitable organization, or ACO), similar to Eagly and Chaiken (1993). Furthermore, Webb et al. (2000) argued that people with high AHO have more than one way to attain the goal of helping others, including through charitable organizations, and theorized that ACO was predicted by AHO. In a study using AHO without ACO, researchers found AHO to be positively correlated with perceptions about the coverage of social issues in business classes (Sleeper et al., 2006). If charitable organizations help those who need it by using the resources given to them (from volunteers and donors) to assist those whom the organization serves (i.e., transfers help from donors of time and money to beneficiaries of the organizations) (Bendapudi, Singh, & Bendapudi, 1996), positive AHO will result in positive ACO. Indeed, Briggs et al. (2010) and Ranganathan and Henley (2008) specifically examined the relationship of the AHO and ACO attitudes constructs and found AHO to be positively related to ACO. Therefore:

H₂: AHO will positively predict ACO.

Westaby (2005a) defined reasons in BRT as the specific subjective factors individuals use to explain their behavior. Furthermore, BRT postulates that reasons are strongly related to global motives (Westaby, 2005a) given their role in influencing justifications. Previous research has found that strong reasons influence positive attitudes toward the motives for that behavior (Westaby et al., 2010) because of the justification role they perform. Research has also found that strong reasons for a behavior lead to positive attitudes toward the same behavior (Westaby et al., 2010). The processing of reasons can be explicit (conscious) or implicit (subliminal), depending on the situation (Westaby et al., 2010); in other words, justifications for behavior can be purposeful or automatic. The reasons construct is classified into three categories: (1) future-oriented reasons, conceptualized as anticipated reasons; (2) concurrent reasons, which explain behaviors currently being executed; and (3) post hoc reasons, which explain behavior after it is or is not executed.

Reasons perform several functions; they justify and defend anticipated, current, or past behaviors and behavioral intentions. This justification, in turn, protects a person's self-concept (Westaby et al., 2010). In this study, the reasons construct is operationalized by satisfaction with the service-learning experience that implicitly includes the feedback loop.

In BRT, reasons serve as an antecedent and predictor of attitudes (Westaby et al., 2010). Researchers have found that satisfaction influences attitudes directly (Oliver, 1980). Thus, it is hypothesized that post-experience satisfaction will have a positive relationship to attitude, specifically:

H₃: Satisfaction will positively predict AHO.

In this study, we examine satisfaction with the service-learning experience. Satisfaction is defined as a function of expectation and expectancy disconfirmation (Oliver, 1980). Disconfirmation and satisfaction are positively correlated such that satisfaction occurs when "actual outcomes exceed expectations (positive disconfirmation)" and are "dissatisfied when expectations exceed outcomes (negative

disconfirmation)” and “just satisfied (zero or simple disconfirmation) when outcomes match expectations” (Szymanski & Henard, 2001, p. 17). Expectations are activated through disconfirmation (i.e., do not happen until after exposure, behavior, or action) (Oliver, 1980), can be active or passive (van Raaij, 1991), and are an outcome of a cognitive (decision making) process (Oliver, 1980). In other words, regarding satisfaction, people have context-specific expectations and make decisions “about alternatives with uncertain outcomes, and they have to judge the consequences of their present choices” (van Raaij, 1991, p. 415), or they create reasons *for* or reasons *against* a particular choice and may or may not be satisfied based of their expectation and participation in the behavior. In addition, as Oliver (1999) found, and the BRT feedback loop would subsequently demonstrate, satisfaction can be updated (easily and significantly) in every new experience.

Westaby (2005a, p. 216) called for further research to “extend behavioral reasoning theory by examining additional contextual antecedents of behavior, based upon well-grounded theory and research.” This call is the basis for using satisfaction in the BRT Conceptual Model because satisfaction leading to behavioral intentions and to attitudes is well documented in literature. Indeed, a literature search identifies numerous studies using the TPB to evaluate satisfaction (customer satisfaction) as an important determinant of behavioral intention. For example, Cronin, Brady, and Hult (2000) found that satisfaction led to behavioral intention (service quality, value, and satisfaction), and Mittal and Kamakura (2001) showed that, although it may decrease over time, a link exists between satisfaction and intention.

As part of the traditional view of consumer satisfaction and attitudes, Bearden and Teel (1983) found that satisfaction correlated with attitudes (post-purchase) and found a strong relationship between attitudes and intentions within time periods. Suh and Yi (2006) found that customer satisfaction led to brand attitude under different levels of (product) involvement, and Bolton and Drew (1991) found a link between disconfirmation as result of an experience (feedback loop) and attitudes such

that favorable disconfirmation (satisfaction) experiences have positive effects on customer attitudes (which lead to behavioral intentions). Because satisfaction fulfills the requirements of the BRT definition of reasons (active or passive, reason for/against, and context specific), includes the feedback loop, and has been shown to influence both attitudes and behavioral intentions, and the reasons construct is operationalized as satisfaction.

Because students will have participated in a service-learning experience, the reasons measure includes the feedback loop from behavior to reasons, as is hypothesized in the BRT, and captures both reasons for and reasons against generosity behavioral intentions. To incorporate the feedback loop within this study, the reasons construct (reasons for/against behavioral intentions) is operationalized using satisfaction with the service-learning experience.

From a theoretical position, reasons directly and positively influence behaviors and behavioral intentions and have been empirically demonstrated in several studies using BRT (e.g., Costa-Font, Rudisill, & Mossialos, 2008; Kim, Kim, Myoung, & Lee, 2010; Lee et al., 2007; Wagner & Westaby, 2009). Satisfaction is a post-service-learning experience measure. Researchers have found that satisfaction predicts behavioral intentions and incorporates the feedback loop. Satisfaction assesses specific factors (reasons) volunteers use to explain anticipated behavior for/against behavioral intentions (Briggs et al., 2010; Westaby, 2005). It is hypothesized that satisfaction will lead to generosity behavioral intentions such that

H₄: Satisfaction will positively predict (a) FVI and (b) FDI.

METHODOLOGY

PLS-SEM was chosen over CB-SEM for several reasons. Research has indicated that satisfaction is not normally distributed (Hurley & Estelami, 1998), making it a candidate for PLS-SEM. PLS-SEM is a component-based least squares alternative and is more robust than CB-SEM: Because CB-SEM is a full-information procedure, one incorrectly specified structural path or one construct with weak measures could affect other estimates

throughout a CB-SEM. Figure 2 presents the inner and outer models for the PLS SEM.

Endogenous Variables—Generosity Behavioral Intentions

Generosity behavioral intentions of FVI and FDI are measured with four items in the post-service-learning experience survey. FVI is a dependent variable that uses an adaptation of the Stukas, Worth, Clary and Snyder (2009) scale. This two-item scale is anchored by 1 = *not at all likely* and 7 = *extremely likely*. The items include (1) “How likely is it that you will be volunteering for *this organization* in one year?” and (2) “How likely is it that you will be volunteering for *a different organization* in one year?” Additionally, FVI expands on these two items and includes how likely it is that participants will be volunteering for (3) “this” and a (4) “different” organization *after* graduation.

In the post-survey, FDI is a dependent variable uses two items with similar scales as the FVI measures and is anchored by 1 = *not at all likely* and 7 = *extremely likely*. The items are (1) “How likely is it that you will *donate to this organization* after you graduate?” and (2) “How likely is it that you will *donate to another organization* after you graduate?”

Endogenous Variable—Attitudes

The attitudes measures uses an adapted nine-item measure of AHO and ACO (Webb et al., 2000). These measures are assessed in the post-experience survey with a seven-point scale where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*. They include, for example, (1) “People should be willing to help others who are less fortunate,” (2) “Helping troubled people with their problems is very important to me,” (3) “The money given to nonprofit organizations goes for good causes,” and (4) “My image of charitable organizations is positive”

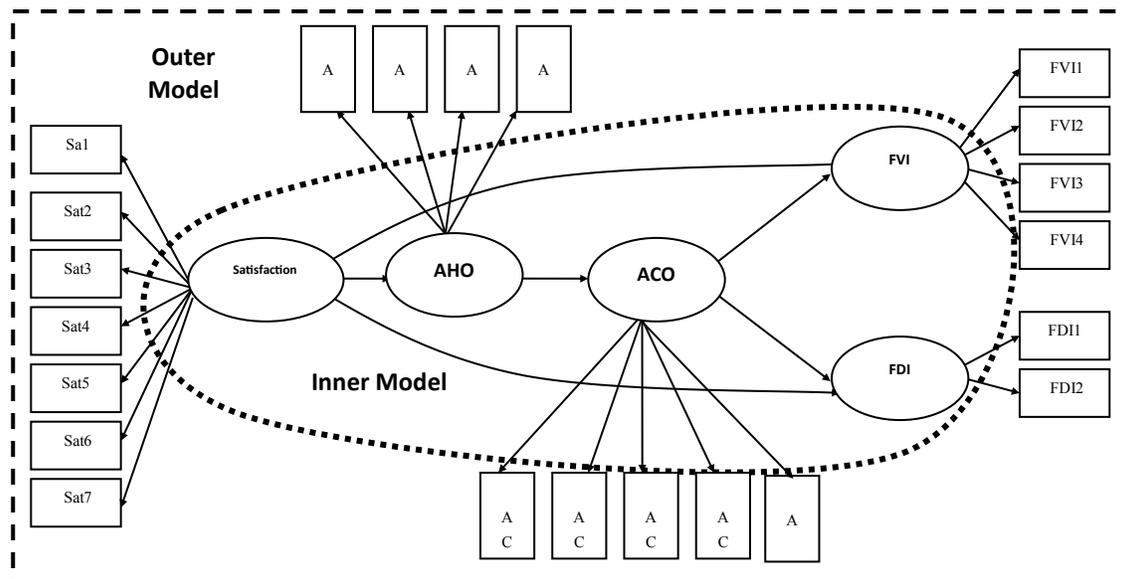
Exogenous Variables—Reasons

Volunteer satisfaction in the post-service-learning experience was assessed using a five-item adaptation of Omoto’s and Snyder’s (1995) seven-point scale that rates a specific dimension of satisfaction regarding the service-learning experience (e.g., “Overall, I am satisfied with my experience as a volunteer”).

METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS

The sample is from a private university in the Mid-Atlantic region that requires a service-learning experience to graduate. Not all students participate in a service learning

FIGURE 2:
Relationships of the Constructs



experience each semester. Since there is not a tracking method prior to the completion of the service-learning, the survey was sent to all students. Of the approximately 5000 surveys sent, only those who completed a service learning experience that semester completed the survey. The instrument was administered as an online survey. There were 658 completed surveys. There were no statistical differences between the response waves. Table 1 represents the demographic breakdown of the respondents.

**TABLE 1:
Demographics of Sample**

	Frequency	Percent
Age		
15-19	492	57.6
20-24	280	32.8
25-29	35	4.1
30+	16	5.5
Gender		
Male	378	44.3
Female	476	55.7
Status		
Full Time	824	96.5
Part Time	30	3.5
Year		
Freshman	372	43.6
Sophomore	163	19.1
Junior	130	15.2
Senior	152	17.8
Other	37	4.3

The first step in PLS-SEM (Ringle, Wende & Becker, "SmartPLS 3" 2015) assesses the measurement model (outer model) and shows the relationships among indicators and the latent variables. The second step assesses the structural model (inner model) and shows the relationship among latent variables (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Henseler & Fassott, 2010). The structural model is assessed if the analysis in the first step meets measurement and significance requirements (Hair et al., 2011). The constructs in this study are reflective and follow the Hair et al. (2011)

"Rules of Thumb" for reflective measurement models.

Indicator Reliability

Internal consistency reliability assesses whether measures consistently represent the same construct and usually require loadings greater than 0.70 to be retained. In certain circumstances, indicators with loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 may be retained on the basis of face, content, or expert validity, but those less than 0.40 must be removed (Hair et al., 2011). One indicator is less than 0.40 and is deleted in the Model (ACO2Money Wasted_Post, 0.2125).

Composite Reliability

Table 1 shows the composite reliability from the model overview report. The composite reliabilities are greater than 0.85 and is considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2011) in both exploratory and advanced research. The Cronbach's alphas are all greater than 0.77.

Convergent Validity

Convergent validity assesses the extent to which a construct is positively correlated with the other indicators of the same construct. Convergent validity is evaluated using the average variance explained (AVE). An adequate degree of convergent validity is demonstrated with AVEs of 0.50 or greater (Hair et al., 2011). As Table 2 shows, all the measurements have AVEs greater than 0.50.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity evaluates the degree to which the construct is not correlated with measures different from it (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2010) and is distinct from those constructs. To assess discriminant validity, the cross-loadings were examined using the Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion. Table 3 presents the squared correlations matrix that includes the AVEs (shown on the diagonal) for each measure in the model. The AVE for each latent construct is greater than each of the latent construct's highest squared correlation with any other latent variable. In addition, no indicator's

TABLE 2:
Loadings and Validity

	Loading	AVE	CR	Alpha
Attitude toward Charitable Orgs.		0.7837	0.9354	0.9078
ACO1	0.8458			
ACO3	0.9044			
ACO4	0.8956			
ACO5	0.8941			
Attitude toward Helping Others		0.8282	0.9507	0.9308
AHO1	0.9025			
AHO2	0.9152			
AHO3	0.9346			
AHO4	0.8874			
Future Donation Intentions		0.8173	0.8995	0.7764
Donate1	0.9024			
Donate2	0.9056			
Satisfaction		0.8928	0.9831	0.9799
GenSatis1_Cont	0.9448			
GenSatis1_Grat	0.9648			
GenSatis1_Happy	0.9692			
GenSatis1_LookFor	0.8912			
GenSatis1_OvrallExp	0.9283			
GenSatis1_Plisd	0.9664			
GenSatis1_Rewrd	0.9468			
Future Volunteer Intentions		0.6044	0.8592	0.7864
Vol1This1Yr	0.8058			
Vol2ThisGrad	0.7366			
Vol3Dif1Yr	0.7715			
Vol4DifGrad	0.794			

loadings are higher than any of its cross loadings.

Bootstrapping

Six hundred and fifty eight (658) cases were used for bootstrapping and the number of samples is 5,000. All indicators had *t*-values greater than 1.96 and are significant at the .05 level. Although PLS-SEM is not a co-variance based model and no strong assumptions are required with it regarding data and sample size, the cases exceed the suggested minimum requirement (658) and the bootstrapping

samples follows the suggested number (5,000) (Hair et al., 2011).

Assessment of Path Coefficients

All six hypotheses tested are statistically significant (*t*-values and associated significance are included in Table 4). Table 4 shows the hypotheses and associated path coefficients (β).

Results

The results indicate that ACO is a positive driver of both FVI and FDI (H_1 , β 0.113). In addition, hypotheses corresponding to AHO as

TABLE 3:
Test for Discriminant Validity: Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	ACO-P	AHO-P	FDI	FVI	Satisfaction
ACO-P	0.7837				
AHO-P	0.4986	0.8282			
FDI	0.1707	0.1981	0.8173		
FVI	0.1912	0.2281	0.5118	0.6044	
Satisfaction	0.3235	0.2614	0.2371	0.4024	0.8928

Squared correlations with the diagonal representing the AVE

TABLE 4:
**Inner Model Bootstrapping Output for Model
as a Result of Reflective Model Measurement Specification**

	Original Sample β	Sample Mean β	Standard Deviation	T Statistics
ACO-P \rightarrow FDI	0.2014	0.2017	0.0406	4.773 ***
ACO-P \rightarrow FVI	0.113	0.1143	0.0339	3.331***
AHO-P \rightarrow ACO-P	0.7061	0.704	0.0239	29.5289***
Satisfaction \rightarrow AHO-P	0.5113	0.5099	0.034	15.0294***
Satisfaction \rightarrow FDI	0.3724	0.3726	0.0395	9.434***
Satisfaction \rightarrow FVI	0.5702	0.571	0.0317	18.0029***

Critical t -values for a two-tailed test are as follows: $p = .10^*$, $p = .05^{**}$, and $p = .01^{***}$.

a driver of ACO are also positive and significant and thus support the hypothesis (H_2 , β 0.7061). Satisfaction is found to be a driver of AHO (H_3 , β 0.5113). Furthermore, satisfaction is also a driver of the dependent variables FVI and FDI (H_{4a} , β 0.5702 and H_{4b} , β 0.3724). The R^2 for constructs range from 0.26 to 0.49 (Table 4).

Blindfolding

The last step in the evaluation of the structure model is blindfolding. Because there is no goodness-of-fit measure for PLS-SEM similar to that found with CB-SEM (which provides a measure of validation for the structural model), blindfolding is done and is the measure of quality (predictive relevance of only the endogenous latent constructs' indicators; Hair et al., 2011; Henseler & Fassott, 2010) for the reflective constructs in the PLS-SEM. With the endogenous construct's cross-validated redundancy (Q^2 values greater than zero), the

explanatory latent construct is considered to exhibit predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2011). Table 5 shows the Q^2 values for the latent constructs in the Model. Based on Hair et al., (2011), the Q^2 values in the model are greater than zero and, therefore, exhibits predictive relevance for each variable to its dependent variable. AHO has moderate predictive relevance. FDI and FVI also have moderate predictive relevance, while ACO is strong.

Mediation

The next stage is to assess the impact of mediation in the model. Since PLS SEM does not assume normal distribution, Sobel tests are not recommended to examine mediation in the model (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Starstedt, 2016). Instead, random bootstrapping is conducted per Preacher and Hayes (2007). There are two advantages of this technique over the Sobel test. First, it is appropriate for techniques that do not assume normal distributions and second, the

TABLE 5:
Construct Cross-Validated Redundancy Report

Total	SSO	SSE	1-(SSE/SSO) = Q^2	R Square
ACO-P	2632	1659.653	0.3694	0.4985
AHO-P	2632	2092.044	0.2052	0.2614
FDI	1316	1052.135	0.2005	0.2645
FVI	2632	2007.975	0.2371	0.4112

Note: Omission distance = 8

number of inferential tests is reduced limiting the likelihood of a type one error (Buffardi & Campbell, 2008). Mediation was tested for Satisfaction à Attitude à FVI, and Satisfaction à Attitude à FDI.

The bootstrap results for Satisfaction à Attitude à FDI indicate both the direct and total effects as significant with direct effect .1063, p .0000, and confidence intervals with a lower bound of .0837 and an upper bound of .1289. The total effect .1462, p .0000, had confidence intervals with a lower bound of .1261 and an upper bound of .1664. The bootstrap results for Satisfaction à Attitude à FVI indicate both the direct and total effects as significant with direct effect .1479, p .0000, with confidence intervals with a lower bound of .1288 and an upper bound of .1669. The total effect .1786, p .0000, had confidence intervals with a lower bound of .1617 and an upper bound of .1954. These results indicate complementary mediation for both sets of relationships (Hair et al., 2016).

Discussion

This study fills a gap in the literature. Specifically, an extensive body of academic research exists regarding generosity behaviors or behavioral intentions, including what motivates people to volunteer (Davis, Hall, & Meyer 2003) and to donate (Hibbert & Horne, 1996; Pelozo & Steel, 2005; Pitt, Keating, Bruwer, Murgolo-Poore, & De Bussy, 2002; Ranganathan & Henley, 2008). Surprisingly, there is less academic research on the impact of the service-learning experience on future behaviors (Tomkovick, Lester, Flunker, & Wells, 2008), even though increasing numbers of colleges and universities are requiring student participation in service-learning

experiences. Although some evidence shows that this service-learning experience requirement may negatively affect generosity behaviors (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999), this study did not support this concern. Further, this study extends BRT by utilizing satisfaction in the service-learning experience as a driver of future behavioral intention, specifically FVI and FDI.

The study also provides insight into the reasons and attitudes that drive future generosity behavioral intentions. Satisfaction is positively related to both attitudes and behavioral intention. These findings support those proposed in BRT and responds to the call to examine the relationship between people's reasons for or against a given position (Westaby & Fishbein, 1996; Westaby, Fishbein, & Aherin, 1997).

In BRT, the reasons construct helps people justify and defend actions and are narrow and context specific (Westaby, 2005a). This research also answers calls to integrate other constructs involving volunteering in the BRT framework (Westaby, 2005a) as well as to "further refine reason scales in efforts to maximize" the reason construct (Westaby, 2005a, p. 117). It also provides a response to the challenge that "researchers should also ensure that beliefs, reasons, and global motives are assessed prior to intentions when testing predictive assumptions in BRT" (Westaby, 2005a, p. 117).

Satisfaction influences FVI and FDI directly as well as AHO. Moreover, AHO is a driver and affects ACO directly. These research findings are also consistent with prior research (Briggs et al., 2010; Webb et al., 2000) and BRT. The findings also imply that the more service-

learning experience programs help students meet these expectations/reasons, the more satisfaction they will have and the more likely they will be to participate in future volunteering and future donations. The more satisfied students are with the service-learning experience, the better. Administrators of service-learning experiences and nonprofit organizations should pay attention to matching students' service-learning experience expectations to their service options to obtain or improve satisfaction as well.

Managerially, this study addresses the concern that certain reasons, attitudes, and experiences people use to justify their volunteer behavior may have long-term (potentially negative) consequences. Reasons were related to FDI and FVI, providing further evidence that the relationship between reasons and future behavioral intentions exists.

The findings show that reasons are direct drivers of future generosity behavioral intentions. Service-learning experiences are an important antecedent to subsequent choices made about generosity behaviors. As this study indicates, reasons are also important antecedents to generosity behavioral intentions. The formative nature of these early student experiences is important for nonprofits and NGOs, which rely on people interested in and committed to community to lead and staff their organizations. In addition, the research shows satisfaction to be a valid means to assess the reasons. Furthermore, if these reasons are not taken into consideration and matched with a student's expectations before a service-learning experience, there will be (potentially negative) implications for future (generosity) behavioral intentions and, according to TPB and BRT, future (generosity) behaviors.

In BRT, the reasons construct helps people justify and defend actions and are narrow and context specific (Westaby, 2005a). The results from this study provide practical insight into the mechanisms underlying college students' intentions to volunteer and donate in the future. In the context of these decisions, results showed that students use their reasons to inform both their attitudes and behavioral intentions. Attitudes, in turn, influenced students' future behavioral intentions to volunteer and donate,

which fully supports other behavioral intention models.

The current study uses AHO and ACO to assess BRT's attitudes construct. As mentioned previously, AHO is "a global and relatively enduring evaluation with regard to helping or assisting other people" and represents a broad attitude toward a behavior, and ACO is "a global and relatively enduring evaluation with regard to the nonprofit organizations [nonprofit organizations] that help individuals" (Webb et al., 2000, p. 300) and is an attitude toward a target, which is consistent with the Eagly and Chaiken (1993) conceptualization of attitude. The results in this study indicate that AHO is a driver of both FVI and FDI, and AHO (the broad attitude) is a driver of ACO. Specifically, attitude (ACO) is related to both future generosity behavioral intentions, that of giving money and the personal and more time-intensive volunteering, and supports prior findings in which attitudes were positively related to behavioral intentions.

Limitations of This Study

As is the case with any research study, there are some limitations. The sample is from one private university that requires a service-learning experience, which limits its generalizability. The timing of the pre-/post-service-learning experience was only one semester, limiting the temporal nature of the behavioral feedback loop. As with any survey requiring pre-/post-matching of surveys, the nature of the participant attrition could prove to be a challenge because only completed and matched pre- and post-experience survey responses could be used. Of the three aspects of the global motives construct (attitudes, perceived control and subjective norms), only attitudes is evaluated.

For greater generalizability, this study could be extended to include a national sample and/or examine cross-cultural/sub-cultural similarities and differences in terms of college-level service-learning experiences. Institutional-, program-, and discipline-based idiosyncrasies also deserve attention. Longitudinal studies, comparing freshmen and seniors, or even alumni, would further contribute to the literature. In addition, a national service organization or geographically

dispersed, multi-university study would be worthwhile.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study evaluates BRT, in the context of the service-learning experience, using two reason constructs. The results provide support for the BRT. The potential value of the use of satisfaction and the TMI as BRT reasons is also supported because of the ability to explain variance in attitudes and generosity behavioral intentions. However, satisfaction is the more parsimonious and more familiar consumer behavior construct. With a more traditional mode of managing service-learning experience, volunteer and donor satisfaction makes good sense.

These results have implications for administrators of college service-learning experiences. Administrators of the service-learning experience would be well served to seek comprehensive information from service-learning experience participants about BRT components—especially the rich set of VFI reasons underlying behavioral intentions. This information could readily be collected before a student's first college service-learning experience with a survey. Alternatively, and similar to other consumer behavior models, administrators should focus on the salient features of the service-learning experience to ensure satisfaction. Common pedagogy practices used in colleges and universities have evaluated students' service-learning experiences in terms of applied knowledge but not future civic behaviors, in which generosity behaviors are included. Because attitudes drive future generosity behavioral intentions and reasons shape attitudes, universities (and nonprofit organizations) should work with students and develop service-learning experiences that more closely match the students' reasons (meet expectations/reasons) for participating in, and satisfaction with, the service-learning experience to allow students to maintain positive attitudes toward helping others and their future generosity behavioral intentions. In other words, the more service-learning experience programs help students meet these expectations/reasons and improve satisfaction as part of the feedback loop, the

more likely students will participate in FVI and FDI and maximize the academic and civic benefits of the experience, as college administrators tout. The reasons match is especially important given that a match/mismatch with the experience side of service-learning experiences may have long-term implications regarding reasons for/against future generosity behavioral intentions. With this same rationale, faculty involved in service-learning instruction should align their course objectives and learning outcomes with students' BRT-related reasons (expectations) for volunteering and service-learning experience options offered.

In the short run, nonprofit organizations would be well advised to focus on matching the expectations of their volunteers and donors and on the satisfaction of these stakeholders. Managers of nonprofit organizations could also market and promote their organizations in ways that more closely match what college students, and volunteers and donors, want and/or indicate is important to them in terms of participation in volunteer experiences and how donations are used. Knowing why people volunteer or donate and who is volunteering and donating are important factors for nonprofit organizations in the pursuit of recruiting the right people to do the right job for an extended period, as well as finding sustaining donors. Because of the lifetime value of a customer (volunteer or donor in this case), when an organization obtains that donor of time or money, it is imperative to retain them, encourage them to donate more hours/money, and keep volunteers from burning out (Fuentes & Jiménez, 2000).

Sophisticated marketing tools require the organizations using them to know something about their target market, and marketing communications that target people's attitudes and specific reasons result in changes in behavioral intentions and, ultimately, behavior (Westaby, 2005a). This study provides the kind of information that can be used to focus marketing communications targeting college students' specific reasons for participating in service-learning experiences—resulting in positive experiences and favorable behavioral intentions. People stay, or stay longer (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas & Haugan, 1998), in organizations when their motivations

and expectations match (Gidron, 1985) and are more satisfied when they perceive congruence between their role expectation and actual experience (Peterson, 2004; Stevens, 1991). In the long-run, nonprofit organizations aiming to developing lifelong relationships with students, as well as developing long-term relationships with volunteers and donors in general, can use these findings and the study itself to recruit and retain volunteers by focusing on the salient functions of these generosity behavioral intentions.

There are several opportunities to extend BRT research. The timing of the pre/post-service-learning experience in the current study was one semester; a longer-term study could better evaluate the temporal nature of the behavioral feedback loop. This longer-term study could also provide a greater understanding of the impact of the feedback loop in the generation of reasons. Only one aspect of the global motives construct (i.e., attitudes) is evaluated in the BRT Conceptual Model presented. Researchers in the future should include measures of perceived control and subjective normative measures. In addition, future studies could also include measures of the belief/values construct in the BRT framework to test the complete BRT model.

Future studies using the constructs included in these existing survey instruments, and this theoretical framework, should consider adding other formative indicators to include in those determined to be formative constructs. Moreover, construct measures should be evaluated and/or created to be uniformly reflective or uniformly formative, because a construct may not comprise both types of indicators. When this occurs, constructs are treated as reflective.

REFERENCES

- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior* (Vol. 278). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). Action-control: From cognition to behavior In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior* (pp. 11-39). Berlin, Germany: Heidelberg: Springer.
- Batra, R., Homer, P. M., & Kahle, L. R. (2001). Values, Susceptibility to Normative Influence, and Attribute Importance Weights: A Nomological Analysis. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 11*(2), 115-128.
- Bearden, W. O., & Teel, J. E. (1983). Selected Determinants of Consumer Satisfaction and Complaint Reports. *Journal of Marketing Research, 20*(1), 21-28.
- Bendapudi, N., Singh, S. N., & Bendapudi, V. (1996). Enhancing helping behavior: An integrative framework for promotion planning. *The Journal of Marketing, 33*-49.
- Bolton, R. N., & Drew, J. H. (1991). A longitudinal Analysis of the Impact of Service Changes on Customer Attitudes. *The Journal of Marketing, 55*(1), 1-9.
- Briggs, E., Peterson, M., & Gregory, G. (2010). Toward a Better Understanding of Volunteering for Nonprofit Organizations: Explaining Volunteers' Pro-Social Attitudes. *Journal of Macromarketing, 30*(1), 61.
- Buffardi, L.E. & W.E. Campbell (2008). "Narcissism and social networking web sites" *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin 24* 1303-1314.
- Bussell, H., & Forbes, D. (2002). Understanding the volunteer market: The what, where, who and why of volunteering. *International Journal of Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Marketing, 7* (3), 244-257.
- Chatzidakis, Andreas, and Michael S.W. Lee. "Anti-consumption as the study of reasons against." *Journal of Macromarketing 33.3* (2013): 190-203
- Clary, E., Snyder, M., Ridge, R. D., Copeland, J., Stukas, A. A., Haugen, J. (1998). Understanding and assessing the motivations of volunteers: A functional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*(6), 1516-1530.
- Claudy, M. C., Garcia, R., & O'Driscoll, A. (2015). Consumer resistance to innovation—a behavioral reasoning perspective. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43*(4), 528-544.
- Claudy M. C. & Peterson M. (2014) Understanding the utilization of urban bicycle commuting: A behavioral reasoning perspective *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing Vol. 33* (2) 173-187

- Costa-Font, J., Rudisill, C., & Mossialos, E. (2008). Attitudes as an Expression of Knowledge and 'Political Anchoring': The Case of Nuclear Power in the United Kingdom. *Risk analysis*, 28(5), 1273-1288.
- Cronin Jr, J. J., Brady, M. K., & Hult, G. T. M. (2000). Assessing the Effects of Quality, Value, and Customer Satisfaction on Consumer Behavioral Intentions in Service Environments. *Journal of Retailing*, 76(2), 193-218.
- Davis, M. H., Jennifer A. Hall, Marnee Meyer (2003). The First Year: Influences on the Satisfaction, Involvement, and Persistence of New Community Volunteers. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(2), 248-260.
- Eagly, A., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The Psychology of Attitudes*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Fuertes, F. C., & Jiménez, M. (2000). Motivation and Burnout in Volunteerism. *Psychology in Spain*, 4(1), 75-81.
- Gidron, B. (1985). Predictors of Retention and Turnover Among Service Volunteer Workers. *Journal of Social Service Research*, 8(1), 1-16.
- Gujarathi, M. R., & McQuade, R. J. (2002). Service-learning in business schools: A case study in an intermediate accounting course. *Journal of Education for Business*, 77(3), 144-150.
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J., Hult, G.T.M., Ringle C; & Starstedt, M. (2016) *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS SEM)* Sage Publications 2nd ed.
- Hair, J., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a Silver Bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 19(2), 139-152.
- Henseler, J., & Fassott, G. (2010). Testing moderating effects in PLS path models: An illustration of available procedures. In *Handbook of partial least squares* (pp. 713-735). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Hibbert, S., & Horne, S. (1996). Giving to charity: questioning the donor decision process. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 13(2), 4-13.
- Homer, P. M., & Kahle, L. R. (1988). A structural equation test of the value-attitude-behavior hierarchy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(4), 638-646.
- Hom, P. W., Mitchell, T. R., Lee, T. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (2012). Reviewing employee turnover: focusing on proximal withdrawal states and an expanded criterion. *Psychological bulletin*, 138(5), 831.
- Hurley, R. F., & Estelami, H. (1998). Alternative Indexes for Monitoring Customer Perceptions of Service Quality: A Comparative Evaluation in a Retail Context. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26(3), 209-221.
- Kim, Y., Kim, S., Myoung, H., & Lee, H. (2010). Perceived Service Quality and Its Influence on Behavioral Intention in South Korean Public Dental Hospitals. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Public Health Asia-Pacific Journal of Public Health*, 24(2), 391-405..
- Lee, B., Westaby, J., Chyou, P., & Purschwitz, M. (2007). Agricultural Employers' Hiring and Safety Practices for Adolescent Workers. *Journal of Agricultural Safety and Health*, 13(1), 25-32.
- Liu, S., Wang, M., Bamberger, P., Shi, J., & Bacharach, S. B. (2015). The dark side of socialization: A longitudinal investigation of newcomer alcohol use. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(2), 334-355.
- Meijer, M. M. (2009). The Effects of Charity Reputation on Charitable Giving. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 12(1), 33-42.
- Mittal, V., & Kamakura, W. A. (2001). Satisfaction, Repurchase Intent, and Repurchase Behavior: Investigating the Moderating Effect of Customer Characteristics. *Journal of Marketing Research*, XXXVIII(February), 131-142.

- Nicholls, J., D., White D.S. & Schimmel K. (2011) "Using Behavioral Reasoning Theory and PLS to Examine the Drivers of Generosity Behavioral Intentions of Business Students' College SLE" American Marketing Association Educator's Conference, San Francisco, CA. Delivering Value in Turbulent Times, Conference Proceedings Extended Abstract. AMA Educators' Proceedings, Vol. 22.
- Nicholls, J. & Schimmel K. (2012) "Match/Mismatch of the College Business Student Service-Learning Experiences: Drivers of Perceived Attitude Change, Satisfaction, and Future Volunteer Intentions" *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice* 12, 6, pp. 91-99.
- Oliver, R. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 17 (4), 460-469.
- Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence Consumer Loyalty? *The Journal of Marketing*, 63, *Fundamental Issues and Directions for Marketing*(1999), 33-44.
- Omoto, A., & Snyder, M. (1995). Sustained helping without obligation: Motivation, longevity of service, and perceived attitude change among AIDS volunteers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(4), 671-686.
- Pelozo, J., & Steel, P. (2005). The Price Elasticities of Charitable Contributions: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, 24(2), 260-272.
- Peterson, D. (2004). Recruitment Strategies for Encouraging Participation in Corporate Volunteer Programs. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 49(4), 371-386.
- Pho, Y. (2004). *Volunteer Output and the National Accounts: An Empirical Analysis*. Washington, DC.
- Pitt, L., Keating, S., Bruwer, L., Murgolo-Poore, M., & De Bussy, N. (2002). Charitable donations as social exchange or agapic action on the internet: The case of Hungersite. com. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 9(4), 47-61.
- Pope, J. A., Sterrett-Isely, E., & Asamoah-Tutu, F. (2009). Developing a Marketing Strategy for Nonprofit Organizations: An Exploratory Study. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 21(2), 184-201.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40, 879-891.
- Probst T.M. & Graso, M. (2013) Pressure to produce = Pressure to reduce reporting Accident Analysis and Prevention 59 Oct. 580-587.
- Ranganathan, S., & Henley, W. (2008). Determinants of charitable donation intentions: a structural equation model. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 13(1), 1-11.
- Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., and Becker, J.-M. 2015. "SmartPLS 3." Boenningstedt: SmartPLS GmbH, <http://www.smartpls.com>.
- Sleeper, B. J., Schneider, K. C., Weber, P. S., & Weber, J. E. (2006). Scale and Study of Student Attitudes Toward Business Education's Role in Addressing Social Issues. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 68(4), 381-391.
- Stevens, E. S. (1991). Toward Satisfaction and Retention of Senior Volunteers. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work*, 16(3), 33 - 41.
- Stukas, A., Snyder, M., & Clary, E. (1999). The Effects of 'Mandatory Volunteerism' on Intentions to Volunteer. *Psychological Science*, 10(1), 59-64.
- Stukas, A., Snyder, M., & Clary, E. (2008). The Social Marketing of Volunteerism: A Functional Approach. In C. Haugtvedt, P. Herr & F. Kardes (Eds.), *Handbook of Consumer Psychology* (pp. 959-979). New York, NY: Psychology Press, Taylor & Francis Group.
- Stukas, A., Worth, K., Clary, E., & Snyder, M. (2009). The Matching of Motivations to Affordances in the Volunteer Environment: An Index for Assessing the Impact of Multiple Matches on Volunteer Outcomes. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 38 (1), 5-28.
- Suh, J. C., & Yi, Y. (2006). When Brand Attitudes Affect the Customer Satisfaction-Loyalty Relation: The Moderating Role of Product Involvement. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 16(2), 145-155.
- Szymanski, D. M., & Henard, D. H. (2001). Customer satisfaction: A meta-analysis of the empirical evidence. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 29(1), 16-35.

- Tomkovick, C., Lester, S. W., Flunker, L., & Wells, T. A. (2008). Linking collegiate service-learning to future volunteerism: Implications for nonprofit organizations. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership, 19*(1), 3-26.
- van Raaij, W. (1991). The Formation and Use of Expectations in Consumer Decision Making. In T. Robertson & H. Kassarian (Eds.), *Handbook of Consumer Behavior* (pp. 401-418). New York: Prentice Hall.
- Wagner, M., & Westaby, J. (2009). The willingness to relocate to another country: The impact of cultural similarity, destination safety, and financial incentive. *International Journal of Psychology, 44*(4), 257-265.
- Webb, D., Green, C., & Brashear, T. (2000). Development and Validation of Scales to Measure Attitudes Influencing Monetary Donations to Charitable Organizations. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28*(2), 299-309.
- Westaby, J. (2005a). Behavioral reasoning theory: Identifying new linkages underlying intentions and behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 98* (2), 97-120.
- Westaby, J. (2005b). Comparing Attribute Importance and Reason Methods for Understanding Behavior: An Application to Internet Job Searching. *Applied Psychology, 54*(4), 568-583.
- Westaby, J., & Fishbein, M. (1996). Factors Underlying Behavioral Choice: Testing a New Reasons Theory Approach. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 26*(15), 1307-1323.
- Westaby, J. D., Fishbein, M., & Aherin, R. (1997). Self-reported reasons: A test and application of reasons theory on occupational behavior. *Basic and applied social psychology, 19*(4), 483-494.
- Wittmer, D. P. (2004). Business and community: Integrating service learning in graduate business education. *Journal of Business Ethics, 51*(4), 359-371.
- Wymer, W., Knowles, P., & Gomes, R. (2006). *Nonprofit marketing: Marketing management for charitable and nongovernmental organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Wymer, W., & Starnes, B. (2001). Conceptual Foundations and Practical Guidelines for Recruiting Volunteers to Serve in Local Nonprofit Organizations: Part 1. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing, 9*(1-2), 63-96.
- Zusman R. R. (2009) "The choices between our work and non-work roles: Applying behavioral reasoning theory and the life role concept." Dissertation Columbia University p. 182.

VIRAL MARKETING IN THE NONPROFIT SECTOR: CRAFTING MESSAGES THAT CREATE AWARENESS AND CALL AN AUDIENCE TO ACTION

HANNAH DIANE PARKER, Fordham University

KATHY WACHTER, University of Mississippi

HUGH SLOAN, University of Mississippi

VAHID GHOMI, University of Mississippi

The nonprofit organization (NPO) sector has seen growth and with growth an increased need for nonprofits to compete with other NPOs when looking for clients, volunteers, and donors. Nonprofits often lack resources (knowhow and execution) for a marketing campaign. The emergence of controlled viral marketing offers a number of possibilities for NPOs looking to spread awareness and increase involvement. The purpose of this research is to explore common themes among previous viral marketing campaigns and identify factors likely to lead to viral spread. The research uses Berger and Mills NPO frameworks to qualitatively and quantitatively assess NPO marketing sector efforts. Results indicate that successful NPO viral campaigns should create an emotional connection, use credible sources, have social relevance to the viewer, and make it easy to distribute/share viral content with others. This research gives NPOs guidelines in developing compelling online content with the potential to go viral, thereby increasing their visibility and call to action.

INTRODUCTION

This research concerns nonprofit organizations potential to use social media content to generate a call to action. The section that follows addresses the literature on nonprofit marketing, issues they face with marketing, implementation and adaption of traditional marketing to the nonprofit sector, to present the idea of using viral marketing to generate a call to action using Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) frameworks applied to a chosen nonprofit organization.

Marketing in the Non-Profit Sector

This article addresses new marketing opportunities using ‘viral marketing’ for nonprofit organizations (NPOs) to move their constituents toward productive action and interchange. The phrase “viral marketing” was first introduced in 1996 by Draper, Fisher, and Jurveston to describe how Hotmail used advertising on the bottom of users’ outgoing emails to promote their free email service (Mills, 2012). The term itself refers to content

that spreads through social media, that when shared, spreads like a virus. Our working definition of viral marketing is as defined by Mills (2012, p. 163): “the strategic release or seeding of branded content into the socially networked online consumer ecosystem, followed by the potentially multiplicative spread of the content through the ecosystem as hosts (consumers) receive the content and are motivated to share the branded content with other consumers.”

Nonprofits contribution in goods and services within communities and across the country are becoming more important given cuts to service agencies once supported by the government. Budget issues and lack of resources creates intense competition for donor contributions. Intense competition for the limited donations and grants available necessitate an emphasis on marketing. Thus NPOs have had to rethink donor and donation strategies and how to market to these new realities.

Market Issues in the Non-Profit Sector

The goal of traditional marketing efforts has always been to improve a firm’s bottom line. Since NPOs are not necessarily seeking profit, implementing a marketing strategy was seen as

ill-equipped for the nonprofit sector. A reason for this is nonprofits different target markets: clients/customers, volunteers, and donors (Pope, Isely, & Asamo-Tutu, 2009). First, they must understand the different ways their target markets respond to the marketing mix. Second, they must communicate the nonmonetary benefits that consumers receive from donating or volunteering. Ultimately NPOs must craft messages that appeal to clients, volunteers, and donors simultaneously.

Conducting nonprofit market research can be difficult. Obtaining data about consumers, their behaviors, and preferences is difficult compared to research by for profit sectors. Tailoring NPO research to specific needs is challenging. Respondents may be inclined to answer in a self-serving or socially desirable way. Such responses might dilute the accuracy of results. For example, there is only one method for the American Red Cross to obtain blood from donors. However NPOs can adapt other aspects of the service, such as the physical location in which the Red Cross administers blood drives.

The intangible benefits of donating or volunteering for a nonprofit are hard to demonstrate and evaluate. Transactions made in the nonprofit sector are more complex and difficult to assess compared to transactions that occur in the commercial sector. NPOs offer consumers the chance to spend their money, with little benefit for the donor other than a tax deduction. The NPO benefit goes to a third party recipient, not the donor or volunteer. NPOs looking to drive brand awareness and donations must develop a captivating marketing strategy that will call their audience to action. One way NPOs can do this is by incorporating social media and the internet into their marketing strategies.

Market Implementation in the Non-Profit Sector

Social media and the internet present NPOs vast opportunities to extend reach and drive donations. NPOs surveyed by the Case Foundation reported that their most important communication tools were their websites and email (Sharma, 2014). Ninety-seven percent of respondents using the social media site

Facebook didn't see this as crucial in getting donations. Fifty percent had no one specifically responsible with social media efforts. Their major reason was lack of manpower and the knowledge to extend their marketing via social media. Furthermore 74% of respondents claimed to use social media primarily for information or to publicize events. They acknowledged that their Facebook and Twitter accounts do not focus on involving either donors or volunteers in the conversation (Sharma, 2014).

According to Constant Contact (2012) 64% of NPOs indicate they struggle connecting supporters with their fund initiatives. Managerially, 59% want to be able to engage supporters but lack marketing capability to do this for funding purposes. A little over one-third of these trying to develop effective marketing strategies have difficulties implementing their plans. Furthermore, 22% want to make their marketing dollars go further, yet lack the skillset to measure impact from these efforts.

NPOs are using the internet to raise funds, increase awareness, and improve relationships. A lack of expertise and financial resources hinder NPOs capitalization of Web content. Running a viral marketing campaign requires NPOs recognize the uncertainty of the strategy, with their ability to maximize chances of success (Liu-Thompkins, 2012). To aid NPOs viral marketing efforts, research is needed to examine optimal decisions one can make when designing a viral marketing (VM) campaign.

A report by Pope et al. (2009) with NPO employees identified money, time, and resources as major limitations in marketing efforts. A majority acknowledged marketing was important to their organization, but often confused about how to market and tailor their efforts given multi-targets (volunteers, donors, clients). To them, marketing was fundraising primarily focused on friends, board members, or using a purchased list from PR firms (Pope et al., 2009).

Pope et al, (2009) also found NPOs rarely use websites to their potential. NPO websites lacked specific links and had no link or information for online donations. NPOs lack

of volunteers was the most frequent reason as to why they lacked this capability. Research suggestions to NPOs were: 1) to make their website marketing efforts easy to use, 2) easy to implement, and 3) easy to measure. With NPOs variety of constituents (volunteers, donors, clients), crafting a marketing strategy for each of these is a challenging task. It is important that NPOs (particularly local ones) take advantage of the many resources available online. There is no major compelling reason that NPOs should not have an online presence in some form. NPOs struggle with “a general lack of understanding of the true functions of marketing, difficulties in branding, and (their) inability to reach out to all of their target markets”, makes viral marketing a useful strategy (Pope et al., 2009, p. 198).

Viral Marketing (VM)

Mills (2012) says viral marketing (VM) can be used to build a connection between organizations and consumers (clients, donors, and volunteers). The core of viral marketing is transmitting messages through the internet via peers (Daniasa, Tomita, Stuparu, & Stanciul, 2010). Social media applications (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, etc.) are vehicles that offer a variety of ways to spread and create buzz that is shared with others. Social media platforms can help nonprofits visually present information that would otherwise seem an intangible service at little or no expense to the organization via videos or online clips (Hausmann, 2012). These techniques can visually and emotionally engage consumers such that they feel compelled or called to action to share/spread the information to, on, with their social networks. Furthermore a call to action reaction can influence their decision to donate, volunteer, or support the cause.

The advantage of VM compared to traditional marketing strategies is a benefit and a risk to NPOs. The risk is lack of control when their information is shared or spread to others. VM can lower the costs of promoting the NPO brand and increase NPO speed of adoption. Brands most susceptible to viral marketing are unique and highly visible (Daniasa et al., 2010). For VM to work, the marketing message needs to be uniquely powerful.

Yet, not all VM campaigns gain traction. What differentiates campaigns that go viral from those that do not? What makes a product, idea, or behavior diffuse through an entire population? Since viral content is so dynamic and there is no “one right way” to design a viral message, this research looks at two perspectives present in current literature. Jonah Berger’s (2012) approach looks at what makes online content go viral. He identifies six key “STEPPS” that make content go viral: social currency, triggers, emotion, public, practical value, and stories. Adam Mills (2012) proposes an alternative, yet complementary framework. Mills identifies four key drivers of viral marketing success: spreadability, propagativity, integration, and nexus (SPIN). This research will apply their two frameworks to assess viral marketing strategy for NPO call to action.

Berger’s Framework

Every hour, there are over 100 million conversations and over 16,000 words shared about brands. Word of mouth is responsible for between 20 to 50 percent of all purchasing decisions (Berger, 2012). Moreover, word of mouth is much more persuasive and credible than regular advertisements. A friend’s candid, objective recommendation of a brand is much more believable than an advertisement coming directly from the company itself. Thus, positive word of mouth proves to be a mode of transmission that comes at little cost to the company. The challenge is getting people to talk. Once they are talking, though, the advertising and the targeting are being done by loyal brand enthusiasts. Obviously, the key question for NPOs is “how do we get people to talk?” Through his decade-long research on the subject, Jonah Berger has identified six principles that are often at work in successful “contagious” online content (Berger, 2012). Berger looked at hundreds of viral messages, products, and ideas. From YouTube videos, to political messages, and even popular baby names, Berger formulated his six key STEPPS for sharing content: Social currency, Triggers, Emotion, Public, and Practical value, and Stories. We outline a brief analysis of these constructs next.

Social Currency: People want to seem sharp and up-to-date. NPOs should craft content that reinforces this impression. At least 40 percent of what people talk about and share with others is based on their own personal experiences (Berger, 2012). Word of mouth, in effect, is an excellent tool (social currency) to make a good impression among peers. NPOs must mint their own social currency by giving consumers a way to look good while simultaneously making their idea seem so extraordinary or novel that people who share it are perceived as extraordinary or novel as well.

Triggers: While social currency starts the conversation, triggers keep people talking about a brand. Each day, the average American has sixteen or more conversations where they mention a brand, organization, or product (Berger, 2012). Key to sharing their brand word-of-mouth is to know what triggers compel sharing. Triggers are environmental cues or reminders that relate to a particular concept or idea (Berger, 2012). Mars candy bars (1997) exemplifies the use of triggers when they saw a huge uptick in sales with no change in their marketing effort. This occurred due to a trigger: the planet Mars and NASA's space mission to collect soil samples on Mars. The news outlets featured the story with Mars candy bars reaping the benefit/reward. For NPOs crafting VM content, their messages need to integrate ideas from popular culture.

Emotion: Contagious messages typically evoke an emotion. When a person feels passionately about an idea, they are much more likely to share it with others. Positive and negative emotions can effect what people discuss and share. Berger (2012) calls these emotional feelings, "a state of activation and readiness for action" (p. 108).

Henke (2013) reinforces this idea saying the intensity of the viewer's experience is more important than the particular emotion the message evokes. Engagement is conceptualized as "flow", or the state where people are so involved in the message that nothing else matters. Individuals experiencing flow lose self-consciousness and the concept of time (Cameron, 1991). Henke (2013) found participants who experienced "flow" were more likely to pass along a message and

express brand interest. The more intense experience of positive feelings generated positive comments about and toward the brand. *Public:* "Social proof" is a term coined by psychologists to explain how people resolve uncertainty (Berger, 2012). Individuals naturally look to others when they are uncertain of what to do. They assume that if other people are following a certain brand, it must be a good idea. By this logic, designing products or services that advertise themselves is a powerful strategy. NPOs with scarce resources to expend on marketing campaigns, can capitalize on this strategy by creating content that users want to follow and learn about. Conversely, this strategy can have unintended consequences. The "Just Say No" campaign was designed to teach kids how to handle peer pressure and avoid drug use using public service announcements (Berger, 2012). Kids saw the ads and saw their peers were using marijuana. Seeing their peers using the drug encouraged them to use as well. In this case, making the private public actually had the opposite effect than what the campaign intended. Thus, preventing a behavior actually requires making others' behaviors less observable (Berger, 2012).

Practical Value: People want content that is useful. Accordingly, marketers must highlight the value offered in their content and package it in such a way that makes it easy to pass along. Social currency has the individual sharing information, whereas practical value concerns the receiver. Sharing online content is an easy way to help others and show we care about them. Whether from a sense of altruism or not, if a brand gives consumers messages with practical value they will often pass that message along.

Stories: Some stories have been shared and passed along for thousands of years. From the story of the Trojan Horse (beware our enemies even with gifts) to the Three Little Pigs (hard work and diligence pay off); these stories offer an entertaining way to deliver an underlying message or moral. Integrating messages and morals within the context of their story, delivered in an easy to remember format, makes them easy to remember and share. Stories are narratives and the information is naturally packaged inside (Berger, 2012).

Marketers, NPOs in particular must build their own Trojan horses. They must create a story that carries content that people will want to tell and share (Berger, 2012). While it is possible to craft a compelling story that gets people talking, it is important to make sure that the story gets consumers talking about what actually matters: the brand. Ensuring the NPOs story is entertaining or touching a chord with the reader such that they feel compelled to share with others.

Mills Framework

Viral content must have four qualities to facilitate its spread: spreadability, propagativity, integration, and nexus. While Berger's focus is on message content, Mills emphasizes the importance of facilitating message dispersion.

Spreadability: Messages that spread across social networks rest on the message being, 1) likeable and 2) shareable. If a message appeals to a viewer (likeability) and s/he feels that his/her peers will feel the same (shareability), it is seen to be spreadable (Mills, 2012).

Propagativity: To propagate a message, it must be easy for the user to share with others. To share content marketers must ensure their message is easy to spread/propagate, have an adequate network to support, deliver rich content, and make it timely and urgent.

Integration: While it is important that content be shared across a wide range of social media sites (Facebook, Twitter, etc.), it is also beneficial to consider content that will likely be shared across traditional media outlets as well (newspapers, magazines, etc.). Messages that are not only "share worthy" but also "news worthy" have the potential to reach an even larger audience.

Nexus: Reinforcing a campaign by releasing sequential units of viral content will leave viewers eager for more, and any organization can capitalize on that by launching additional viral content later on. If it can find a way to do so consistently, it has the potential to raise brand awareness. The distribution of this viral content is both self-propelled and widely received.

In a marketing campaign that has gone viral, the information spreads at an exponential rate. It is not bound by geographic locations and can spread to an international audience in minutes. These viral messages influence public opinion about products and brands (Botha & Reynecke, 2013). Despite its potential for success, most campaigns intended to go viral do not. Little empirical research has been conducted to identify reasons that some message content spreads while other content does not. How might NPOs develop shareable leverage using viral marketing?

Berger (2012) and Mills concepts of virality are each separately powerful. When applied together, NPOs could gain even more traction with their online content. While Berger's framework concerns message content, Mills' highlights tools for dispersion. NPOs that successfully integrate the two frameworks could potentially craft messages that are both conceptually stirring and easy to spread. Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) frameworks will support our two research objectives based on creating a successful NPO viral market campaign and getting viewers 'call to action' by sharing with others. Having people sharing your story can drive others to action. NPOs have an incredible opportunity to publish great online content that people will actually want to share (Scott, 2008). "If you can boil your message down to just its syrupy goodness, you can achieve life – the irresistible force of millions of viewers selling your product for you" (Scott, 2008, p. 12).

Viral Marketing Campaigns

Waters and Jones (2011) content analyzed YouTube's 100 most viewed nonprofit videos. They acknowledge YouTube is the fourth most viewed website in the USA. Their analysis of NPOs use of YouTube videos found they were primarily used to inform and educate. Videos have an advantage over images for creating strong mental impressions of a firm (NPO) in the consumers mind and thus can be used to persuade viewers thinking. Videos are verbal, vocal and visual creating multiple audience experiences. They concluded these three elements have the largest impact on viewer's ability to remember message content. Sharing these facilitates conversations and enhances

awareness with the ability to exponentially increase the viral marketing phenomenon (Waters and Jones, 2011). Their conclusions found NPOs didn't engage, nor had a call to action (contact, where to go) for information. Of the 100 videos viewed, four explicitly asked viewers to connect with the NPO and their social media accounts. Another 37% asked viewers to share, 15% asked for feedback, 11% for volunteer information, and 9% for donations. An NPO social media study by Lovejoy and Saxton (2012) categorized social content. Information, community, and action were common themes to spread information, organizations could use to create communities, and call them to action through donations or volunteering.

Despite Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) frameworks, posting information content only generates poor results. NPOs rely heavily on informational content when creating video content. Only eight of 100 organizations in the study were primarily 'community builders' with three categorized as 'promoters and mobilizers', and only 15.6% of messages sent actually had a call to action (Lovejoy and Saxton, 2010, p. 348). Most of the NPOs used Twitter for information and community engagement purposes only.

Clearly NPOs are not using social media to their maximum potential. NPO sites can be used to create interactive content that gets consumers talking about a brand and inspire them to action. Information is the core activity used to attract followers. Community focused messages engage followers and action focused messages mobilize followers to action. NPOs can and should treat viral marketing as a strategic process with immense potential (Liu-Thompkins, 2012). A significant knowledge gap remains regarding how NPOs can craft marketing campaigns with the potential to go viral.

This research investigates how these frameworks can be used to 1) leverage these frameworks for NPO viral marketing, and 2) generate an NPO 'consumer call to action'. How might NPOs capitalize on viral marketing strategies to influence viewers, donors, and others in their organization? How might they engage and create the buzz a viral campaign

needs to get views, likes, and sharing of NPO marketing content?

The research explores previously executed NPO viral marketing campaigns using Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) frameworks for NPO viral marketing awareness and call to action to increase donations, clients, and volunteer bases. Results from the analysis were used to design and distribute a survey to assess respondents overall feelings toward one NPOs attempt at a viral marketing campaign and their reactions for a call to action. The next section outlines the process used to assess how NPOs can leverage viral marketing to get the call to action from consumers.

Study Analysis

This section involves the content analysis of an NPO video. From this content analysis comparison, a quantitative survey measure was created. The questionnaire used Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) frameworks, asked respondents their general attitudes toward social causes, what influences their likelihood of visiting, donating, or volunteering, to charitable causes, and how NPOs might leverage their behavioral change as a call to action for them. The survey asked their overall attitudes toward NPO causes (pre-test, baseline benchmark) using the NPO text mission statement. They were then asked to view an NPO video. After viewing the video, they were asked to assess their overall feelings and reactions to the viewed video. To assess behavioral change post video, they were asked the same pre-test questions with an additional question on their likelihood of sharing the NPO video with others that mirror the call to action. This last question supports Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) framework for message content on the propagation and spreadability of the video (viral potential).

Qualitative Evaluation: Content Analysis

The qualitative content analyzed four NPO videos shared through corporate YouTube postings by the respective NPO's. Each hoped to gain traction and go viral. Two NPO videos went viral with over 1 million views. The first video: Invisible Children KONY (2012) campaign, concerned people caring about and

responding to child slavery issues. The second, *Water is Life* (2012) has as its mission to provide clean water, sanitation, and hygiene programs to impoverished people. The one minute video features Haitians reading actual tweets with the hashtag “#first world problems”. One young man, sitting on a dirt mound, reads aloud: “I hate when my leather seats aren’t heated”; another shows a young female, surrounded by children, washing clothes in a river, stating: “When I leave my clothes in the washer so long they start to smell” (*Water is Life*, 2012). The marketing campaign attempts to shed light on the irony and ignorance of #firstworldproblems.

The other two NPO videos, the Boys and Girls Club of America (2014) and United Way (2014) were not successful with less than 15,000 views each. The Boys and Girls Club of America launched a Public Service Announcement with the message that “every afternoon is a chance to change America’s future” (Boys and Girls Club, 2014). The video shows children leaving school at 3 PM and explains that one-third of these children have nowhere to go afterward. It shows children wandering around in alleys and on train tracks. It then shows children at a local Boys and Girls Club. At the end of the video, the narrator explains, “great futures start here” (Boys and Girls Club, 2014). In 2014 United Way posted on their YouTube channel titled “What is United Way?” (United Way, 2014). The video is informative in nature, explaining its origins, successes, and announces itself as the “World’s Largest Nonprofit Organization”. The video expresses the organization’s mission and strategic initiatives. It ends thanking its volunteers and asking viewers to join the movement. The video is solely text and involves no live action. These four video NPO campaigns were evaluated and judged subjectively on their quality, content, and overall messages using Berger and Mills frameworks.

During multiple viewings of the videos selected by the primary research, evaluations were done using guidelines from Berger’s (2012) effects of content (social currency, triggers, emotion, public, practical value, and stories), and Mills (2012) ease of diffusion (spreadability, propagativity, integration, and nexus). For this

study, each framework was evaluated component by component and subjectively given an evaluation of high, medium, or low by the primary researcher (Parker). The goal: to assess the likely overall effectiveness of each video. The viewings of the videos, already ranked by viewed frequency on the Internet, would also reflect an assessment of their performance (high, medium, low) on the Berger (2012), as well as the Mills (2012) frameworks. These rankings were compared to each videos number of views to gauge the accuracy of the two frameworks to predict viral content.

Applying Berger and Mills Frameworks to the Videos

According to Berger’s Six STEPPS framework, KONY 2012 and First World Problems Anthem both exhibit the elements necessary to make content go viral. This influence comes from the number of views each video received. United Way and the Boys and Girls Club, conversely performed much worse on Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) framework dimensions and one could argue that low viewership is a direct result. [The detailed analysis used for the four videos are available from the authors upon request.]

An important note in Table 1 below, none of the videos studied contained much practical value. This might be due to NPOs VM content offering little practical value to the viewer/donor. Their information seeks to inspire individuals to help others, rather than to help themselves. If a nonprofit could develop techniques toward helping others versus themselves, it could further increase its chance to reach millions.

Results of applying Mills’ SPIN Framework, agrees with Berger’s six STEPPS. KONY (2012) again scored the best and United Way (2014) scored the lowest. It should be noted that Mills’ framework is oriented to message transmission while Berger’s STEPPS framework oriented to message content. Integrating the two frameworks together could be very helpful for nonprofit organizations looking to create viral campaigns. The following section outlines the quantitative process, measures, and procedures followed for

TABLE 1:
Four NPO videos content analysis using Berger and Mills Frameworks.

Berger (STEPPS) & Mills (SPIN) Frameworks	Kony 2012 (Invisible Children)	1st World Problem Anthem (Water is Life)	What is United Way?	Great Future Campaign Boys & Girls Club)
Social Currency	High	High	Low	Medium
Triggers	High	High	Low	Low
Emotion	High	High	Low	Medium
Public	High	Low	Low	Low
Practical Value	Low	Low	Low	Low
Stories	High	High	Low	Medium
Rank/Views	1/100 Million	2/6 Million	4/12,000	3/13,000
Spreadability	High	High	Low	Medium
Propagivity	High	High	High	High
Integration	High	Medium	Low	Low
Nexus	High	High	Low	Low
Rank/Views	1/100 Million	2/6 Million	4/12,000	3/13,000

an NPO (Wish of a Lifetime) marketing campaign hoping to go viral.

Quantitative Constructs and Survey Development

As a check for the initial NPO viral content evaluation a quantitative survey was designed to incorporate results from the qualitative content analysis. Items from Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) frameworks were incorporated to assess consumer’s attitudes regarding NPO viral marketing campaigns, as well as the NPOs viral marketing campaigns ability to change attitudes toward NPO viral marketing.

A quantitative analysis of overall attitudes toward the NPO, Wish of Lifetime (2015) online marketing campaign effectiveness was used (www.vimeo.com/74885374). The survey items were designed to assess, first, respondents bias through a social desirability responding measure; second, attitudes toward NPO’s in general; third, feelings and reactive responses to the NPO viral marketing campaign; and fourth judgements toward the NPO video campaign.

Wish of a Lifetime (2015, www.vimeo.com/74885374)

A Denver, Colorado NPO, Wish of a Lifetime (WOAL), was chosen for quantitative study. WOAL’s mission is to: “Foster respect and appreciation for senior citizens by granting life enriching wishes.” WOAL currently lacks significant brand awareness, so would benefit from the exposure that viral marketing offers (Wish of a Lifetime, 2015). The organization grants wishes for individuals 65 and older. Four categories of wishes considered are recognizing service, fulfilling lifelong dreams, reconnecting loved ones, and renewing and celebrating passions. WOAL has granted over 1,000 wishes, ranging from skydiving to visiting long lost relatives.

WOAL has released several videos on social media, but none have gained much traction or reached the standard of over 1M views for viral status. In order to benefit WOAL and other small NPOs like it, a survey was created, pre-tested, and then used to measure respondents overall attitudes before and after a WOAL video. The chosen video, titled “Start Seeing Seniors” has garnered 23,900 views. Understanding how consumers perceive the

NPOs existing efforts toward viral may suggest how to craft message content to enhance future viral marketing campaigns. Themes and elements are identified that may intensify or reduce virality.

Quantitative Survey Measures

The metrics for this research come from existing scales, adapted to this research objective. The following section discusses the metrics used in our research.

Social Desirability Response Bias (SDR) (Robinson, Shave & Wrightsman, 2013, p. 43): Respondents sometimes seek to favorably impress researchers. They respond with their perception of the socially desired answer on an item. For example subjects tendency to give lower scores on metrics of undesirable behaviors (e.g. selfishness) and higher scores to desirable behaviors (e.g. altruism). Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) research emphasizes a need for consumer attitudes about message content being likeable enough to be shared. The Responding Desirably on Attitudes and Opinions scale (16 items, dichotomous 0=agree, 1=disagree) was used as a check for social desirability bias. The SDR scale assesses dejection, social estrangement, social opportunism, trust, social contentment, anomie, expediency, and self-determination. Higher scores on these items indicate that the respondent is trying to respond more desirably. Respondents' SDR scores will be correlated with behavioral intention (BI) scores to identify biases likely resulting from an SDR tendency.

Attitudes Toward Donations to Charitable Organizations (Bearden, Netemeyer & Haws, 2011, p. 165): What might influence consumers' attitudes toward donating to charitable organizations? NPOs need both volunteers to serve at no cost and donations to cover program and service delivery. To assess donor behavior, the survey used Likert scale, strongly disagree (SD) to strongly agree (SA) to address attitudes toward: 1) helping others (4 items, 1=SD to 6=SA); 2) charitable organizations (5 items, 1=SD to 6=SA); visiting website (6 items, 1 to 7 bipolar adjectives e.g. unlikely--likely); volunteering (6 items, 1 to 7 bipolar adjectives); and donating (6 items, 1 to 7 bipolar adjectives); for visiting

website, volunteering, and donating pre-video. The intent is to benchmark the baseline measure and the effect that 'preconceived attitudes' toward NPOs may have on responses.

Behavioral Intention (BI). Pre-test Benchmark: How might the intention to volunteer (time) and/or donate (money) to NPOs be influenced? Prior to respondents viewing the NPO WOAL video, they were asked about their intentions based on WOAL's text mission description. Bruner et al, (2005, p. 106) behavioral intention (BI) scale was adapted to identify a baseline for visiting, volunteering, and donating to WOAL given the written text mission statement only. After gathering these benchmark (pre-test) responses, respondents were then instructed to watch the WOAL video embedded in the survey by clicking on the link. The same Bruner et al., (2005) scale items were used for the post-test, with the additional question concerning their attitudes toward sharing the video with others (1 to 7 bipolar adjectives, e.g. unlikely--likely). This question supports Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) frameworks for the ability of stories to generate sharing and spreadability. BI scores (pre and post) were averaged to assess their behavioral change after watching the video compared to their benchmark scores.

WOAL Video View: (www.vimeo.com/74885374): Respondents then viewed the WOAL video (approximately 3.3 minutes duration). The black and white video shows senior citizens holding paper signs with words written on them. The first sign asks, "What do you see when you look at me?" Other seniors then appear, holding papers with written adjectives: old, weak, dependent, and incapable. Then a paper sign stating, "Maybe you don't notice me". "But did you know?" another paper asks. With a change in music (up-tempo), seniors tell how they: helped win a War, mentored at risk children, volunteered to save the country. Despite World Wars and the great depression, they built what future generations have today. The video ends with the statement: "Making dreams come true... One wish at a time". WOAL then displays their website and the video fades to black.

After watching the video the survey asked respondents their feelings about what they had

viewed. We used the Emotion Quotient and Reaction Profile scale from Bearden et al., (1999).

Emotion Quotient Scale (EQ) and Reaction Profile Scale (RP) (Bearden et al., 1999, p. 282): Respondents were surveyed to measure the impact of the WOAL video. Important dimensions of ad (video) recall, especially for NPO videos intended to go viral, is the emotional appeal and reaction sharing. The Emotional Quotient (EQ) scale and Reaction Profile (RP) scales were adapted to assess: a) both overall emotions about the video (attractiveness, meaningfulness, and vitality) and b) specific reactions related to video content (e.g. interest, liking, coldness) vitality. The 25 item EQ scale (with favorably worded, e.g. beautiful and unfavorably worded, e.g. ugly) items can give insights on how well the WOAL video complemented Berger (2012) and Mills (2012): social currency, emotion, and spreadability, comparing the 12 items for attractiveness, 9 items for meaningfulness, and 4 items for vitality. Items are eight point scales and the appropriate items for each dimension are summed to form scores. The RP used a 12 item Likert scale rating (1=SD to 7=SA) assessed viewers reactions to the WOAL video (e.g. liking, appeal).

Viewer judgement of (video) ads (Bearden et al., 1999, p. 289): The Persuasive Disclosure Inventory (PDI) scale measures viewers' judgements of the video. The items are designed to model the persuasive discourse perspective (PDP). The PDP is based on the Aristotelian theory of rhetoric, encompassing Ethos, Pathos, and Logos. Ethos items focus on the source 'character' in WOAL. Pathos items try to capture viewers' emotions of the WOAL experience and suffering. Logos items relate to the appeal of the persuasive logical content in the WOAL video. The three constructs encapsulate Berger's social currency, emotion, and practical value framework. There are 17 bipolar adjective sets using an 8 point scale consisting of Ethos (5 items, e.g. Unbelievable-Believable); Logos (5 items, e.g. Not informative-Informative), and Pathos (7 items, e.g. Is not moving-Is moving). Summed scores represent each construct.

Post Video Behavioral Intention (Bruner et al., 2005, p. 106) : Did the WOAL NPO video move viewers to action? This section serves as a post hoc analysis of attitude change after viewing the video. Respondent's responses after video viewing address the influence upon behavioral intention post-video compared to behavioral intention pre-video (mission text). A semantic differential scale measured their expressed inclination to engage in specific behaviors after the video: visiting the webpage, volunteering, donating, and sharing the video. Sharing the video question was asked to assess the ability of the WOAL video to go viral. Important insights can be gleaned on the video's ability to change respondent's behavioral assessments. Any significant change in behavioral intention (pre and post video) can be detected by a paired t-test statistic. Changes in behavioral intention were calculated using paired t-tests analyses to determine attitude behavior changes. The survey questionnaire is available on request from the authors.

Sample and Methods

A pre-test was used to address/examine the validity of the study content, clarity, and wording. Fifty undergraduate students viewed and completed the survey. Analysis results made minor changes to clarify wording due to confusion, length, and order of questions. The pre-test sample from a southern university were believed to be a good population to study attitudes and intentions as they are very present on social media and entering a stage in their lives where they will come into resources to donate to and volunteer for NPOs.

For the formal study, 261 undergraduate students attending a southern university completed the survey. A recruitment email and the link to the Qualtrics survey were sent to students in undergraduate business courses. Respondents were offered ten points extra course credit for completing the survey. Participation was voluntary with 131 people (50.2% response) completing the survey. Of the 131, 14 were eliminated due to missing or incomplete information. The final sample of 117 was used to analyze the survey data. For those who completed the survey, average age was 22 with 40.7% male and 59.3% female.

Quantitative Survey Results: Wish of a Lifetime

The first analysis assessed respondent tendency to respond in a socially desirable manner. Table 2 below is the correlation matrix and descriptive statistics for all constructs with means, standard deviations, and Cronbach's alpha, reported. For the SDR analysis correlations for all subsequent survey constructs were computed. Results suggest little or no impact on response bias. The first two items weakly, but significantly, correlate with the SDR metric and their attitudes toward: Helping others (Help_pv) ($r=.186$, $n=117$, $p<.05$) and Charitable Organizations (Charity_pv) ($r=.195$, $n=117$, $p<.05$). A number of respondents' SDR inclinations may have been triggered more strongly by two such opening items. One exception, is Logos (PDI) ($r=.265$, $n=117$, $p < 0.01$), a component of the Persuasive Disclosure Inventory, a scale measuring viewers' judgements of the video (Bearden et al., 1999). Our conclusion is SDR had little or no effect on these results.

Pre- and Post-video View Evaluation

The pre-video (mission text) and post-video (YouTube) constructs of web viewing, volunteering, and donating, are critical needs of NPOs. The Behavioral Intention (BI) metrics for the three pre-video are based on mission text questions and post-video (WOAL) are on the same constructs averaged for each construct. See Table 2 for means and standard deviations. First, we look at these three constructs averaged separately. Pre-video (mission text) overall mean score ($\bar{x}=4.69$) and post-video WOAL mean score ($\bar{x}=4.99$) do suggest a positive gain of 6.4% overall on visiting, volunteering, and donating. Table 3 reports the percentage change pre and post video for donating, volunteering, and visiting the website. This suggests initially that video content framed in Berger (2012) and Mill's (2012) constructs and using interactive content (video) can generate attitudinal shifts in NPOs results with viral marketing. To assess whether the 6.4% overall positive change was significant a t-test was computed on pre and post BI scores. They were weakly correlated and nominally insignificant ($r=.221$, $n=117$,

$p<.055$). Yet, due to the nature of this study at $p < .10$ would approach significance.

The pre-video and post video behaviors paired t-tests, while moderately but significantly correlated, had significantly differing means in visiting ($r=.510$, $n=120$, $p<.05$), volunteering ($r=.683$, $n=120$, $p<.10$), and donating ($r=.571$, $n=120$, $p<.05$). See Table 4. Multiple t-tests can be misleading if many are calculated, but with the three tests and weak findings, overall assessment outcomes (summed values versus summed values) would likely be weak as well. A stronger test for paired relationships, Eta-squared, is not encouraging, showing low though insignificant findings for the same pairs. But it is the raw differences in response range from about 7% to 6%, which encourages consideration of NPO viral campaigns in potential strategy. The results are only marginally encouraging, but perhaps useful to decision makers (Table 2), who can note the positive direction. The WOAL video had a deleterious effect. What effects might a more powerful, emotional video with a strong call to action achieve?

Post video: Emotion quotient (EQ), Reaction Profile (RP), and Persuasive Discourse Inventory (PDI) Evaluations

The Emotion Quotient post-viewing WOAL scores for attractiveness, meaning, and vitality correlate quite low across the board in pre and post video viewing, but fail to attain significance (Table 2). EQ as a cluster of attractive, meaningful, and vital, show moderately high and significant positive correlations among themselves, which the individual Cronbach's support. Therefore, EQ as an index seems a good metric. Comparing EQ as a summated score to Post Behavior Intention to share in a paired t-test, we find the difference ($\bar{x}=0.247$, $SD=1.39$, $n=120$) resulted in values: $t(119) = 1.949$, two-tailed $p<.054$, with a 95% C.I. about the mean difference between EQ and Post BI is $(-.00392, 0.49781)$. Though disappointing at $\alpha=.05$, in an exploratory context, a $\alpha=.10$ could be reasonably used in this context, especially with the WOAL video. A lower standard with the WOAL video (having no call to action) would be useful because the finding is then

TABLE 2:
Correlation Matrix and Descriptive Statistics for Constructs

	Mean	SD	SDR	Help_pv	Charity_pv	Visit_pv	Volun_pv	Donate_pv	RP	Attract	Meaning	Vital	Ethos	Logos	Pathos	Bi_Share	Visit_pv	Volun_pv	Donate_pv	
SDR	0.779	0.124	1																	
Help_pv	4.947	0.774	.186* (0.045)	1																
Charity_pv	4.670	0.676	.195* (0.035)	.358** (0.001)	1															
Visit_pv	4.658	1.326	0.126 (0.175)	.455** (0.001)	.218* (0.018)	1														
Volun_pv	4.714	1.250	0.15 (0.107)	.410** (0.001)	.362** (0.001)	.572** (0.001)	1													
Donate_pv	4.702	1.472	0.112 (0.231)	.277** (0.002)	.258** (0.005)	.488** (0.001)	.577** (0.001)	1												
RP	5.024	0.848	0.079 (0.394)	.314** (0.001)	.351** (0.001)	.293** (0.001)	.413** (0.001)	.261** (0.004)	1											
Attract	5.619	1.063	-.034 (0.718)	-.105 (0.258)	-.068 (0.054)	-.068 (0.463)	0.016 (0.865)	0.071 (0.449)	0.072 (0.438)	1										
Meaning	6.571	1.269	0.085 (0.365)	-.074 (0.428)	-.082 (0.379)	0.022 (0.818)	0.114 (0.222)	0.075 (0.423)	0.056 (0.549)	.688** (0.001)	1									
Vital	5.786	1.237	0.023 (0.803)	0.001 (0.996)	-.067 (0.47)	0.02 (0.827)	0.095 (0.306)	0.105 (0.259)	0.064 (0.494)	.739** (0.001)	.807** (0.001)	1								
Ethos	6.497	1.311	0.151 (0.104)	.282** (0.002)	.246** (0.008)	.306** (0.001)	.347** (0.001)	.284** (0.002)	.477** (0.001)	-.005 (0.961)	0.164 (0.077)	0.127 (0.172)	1							
Logos	6.118	1.163	.265** (0.004)	.255** (0.005)	.202* (0.029)	.235* (0.011)	.335** (0.001)	.267** (0.004)	.422** (0.001)	0.018 (0.843)	.227* (0.014)	0.144 (0.122)	.679** (0.001)	1						
Pathos	6.119	1.154	0.072 (0.438)	.252** (0.006)	0.174 (0.061)	.336** (0.001)	.386** (0.001)	.278** (0.002)	.645** (0.001)	.227* (0.014)	.339** (0.001)	.278** (0.002)	.603** (0.001)	.598** (0.001)	1					
Bi_Share	4.814	1.550	0.021 (0.822)	.288** (0.002)	0.17 (0.067)	.522** (0.001)	.569** (0.001)	.418** (0.001)	.546** (0.001)	0.038 (0.688)	0.029 (0.756)	0.09 (0.336)	.430** (0.001)	.275** (0.003)	.488** (0.001)	1				
Visit_pv	4.942	1.512	0.057 (0.538)	.294** (0.001)	0.134 (0.149)	.510** (0.001)	.574** (0.001)	.364** (0.001)	.514** (0.001)	0.076 (0.415)	0.07 (0.454)	0.133 (0.152)	.379** (0.001)	.339** (0.001)	.515** (0.001)	.764** (0.001)	1			
Volun_pv	5.041	1.593	0.07 (0.452)	.350** (0.001)	.210* (0.023)	.380** (0.001)	.683** (0.001)	.439** (0.001)	.499** (0.001)	0.001 (0.99)	0.005 (0.957)	0.045 (0.628)	.438** (0.001)	.239** (0.009)	.446** (0.001)	.676** (0.001)	.770** (0.001)	1		
Donate_pv	4.980	1.487	0.095 (0.307)	.272** (0.003)	.208* (0.025)	.429** (0.001)	.481** (0.001)	.571** (0.001)	.375** (0.001)	0.073 (0.433)	0.014 (0.882)	0.103 (0.27)	.363** (0.001)	.252** (0.006)	.444** (0.001)	.595** (0.001)	.625** (0.001)	.705** (0.001)	1	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). A KR20 test (Dichotomous data). KR20 derived formulaically from Q1 and Score 1 data. N=117.

TABLE 3:
Behavioral Intentions Pre- and Post-NPO Video (WOAL)

7 point Likert Mean Differences:	Pre-Video Mean	s.d.	Post-Video Mean	s.d.	Change +
Visiting website	4.66	1.33	4.94	1.51	6.0%
Volunteering	4.71	1.25	5.04	1.59	7.0%
Donating	4.70	1.47	4.98	1.50	5.95%
Sharing	NA	NA	[4.81]	[1.51]	-----
BI_1 and BI_2 Overall	4.69	1.16	4.99	1.33	6.4%

TABLE 4:
Paired t-tests, Pre- and Post-NPO Video (WOAL)

		Paired Differences					t Stat	df	P 2-tail T ≤ t
		Diff in Means	Eta ² 's	P<	Correlations - Differences				
					Corr. r =	Sig. p =			
Pair 1	Average Probability of Visiting Webpage (Before & After)	.3519	.009	.142	.510	.000	-2.202	119	.03
Pair 2	Average Probability of Volunteering (Before & After)	.2810	.010	.126	.683	.000	-2.757	119	.01
Pair 3	Average Probability of Donating (Before & After)	.2467	.007	.197	.571	.000	-1.959	119	.05

significant. Clearly, more research is needed with different NPOs.

Scores in the EQ measure for attractiveness (\bar{x} =5.62), meaningfulness (\bar{x} =6.57), and vitality (\bar{x} =5.79) suggest WOAL’s video performed best on the meaning dimension and worst on the attractive dimension. These results are better for having been explored, most clearly in the positive direction as to outcomes, though often the desired impact was insufficient to show significant differences. These results can influence thinking in viral campaign creation.

The RP was moderately correlated and significant (p<0.001) for all constructs except EQ. Both pre- and post-video constructs (visit, volunteer, donate) were all significant (p<0.001). See Table 2.

Viewer judgements toward the NPO video results for Persuasive Discourse Inventory (PDI) elements ethos, logos, and pathos are all significant at the p < 0.01 level for visiting, volunteering, and donating post video viewing. BI post video is also positive and significant for all three (p < 0.01). Pre-video and PDI results were significant for all pre-test constructs for visiting, volunteering, and donating. See Table 2.

Discussion and Conclusions

Aided by the review of literature and the results of both qualitative and quantitative analyses, several insights are possible regarding how NPOs can craft original online and powerful content that possesses certain qualities making it more likely to go viral. First, NPOs need to create messages that not only go viral but also call viewers to action. Incorporating Berger (STEPPS) and Mills (SPIN) themes making them relevant to their own brand, smaller nonprofits have the opportunity to have their message heard by millions. One approach to accomplish this is to create a connection with the viewer about your NPO, use social currency (events relevant to viewers), get them to react and promote (propagate) to others, who then share or spread distribution of the content to their audiences.

Respondents' RP scores significantly correlated with behavioral intentions for the WOAL video. The content analysis of the successful and unsuccessful NPOs suggests the Boys and Girls Club and United Way both failed to create a reaction (RP) that resonated with viewers and hence, failed to go viral. Creating reactive stimuli instead of relying upon content to express the NPOs mission is crucial. One may conclude that content needs to get viewers to react. This reaction will have viewers feeling like they have no choice but to find and share the video, donate, or volunteer. From laughter to anxiety, strong emotions increase the likelihood of video sharing. For local NPOs, reactive stimulation can be achieved through using familiar concerns and themes. The issue may be in viewers' backyards, heightening the probability of reacting. For most, reactions are often closely related to many of their daily activities.

Another theme among viral videos in the nonprofit sector is whether or not it is relevant to the viewer and their network. Berger (2012) identifies this as social currency and practical value; Mills (2012) defines this as spreadability. Whatever the name, it is apparent that a message needs to be socially relevant in order to be shared. If an individual does not feel that a message would be of interest to their friends, there is little reason to share it.

Fundamentally, NPOs must create content that is relevant to society. Develop a message that comes across as important and necessary to anyone who views it that spurs them to some form of action. One way is through popular culture. For local nonprofits, using current events in the community can help increase social relevance. Again, being present and involved is necessary.

A message needs to be easy to share in order for it to go viral. Social media makes this easier. Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, and many more sites allow viewers to share your message with the click of a button. Beyond the scope of social media, nonprofits should consider how easy it would be to share their content with relevant news outlets asking themselves: Is my content socially relevant so that even newspapers and magazines would want to distribute it? Smaller, more locally focused nonprofits have a greater advantage when it comes to connecting with news outlets. Local news stations are often easily accessible (via phone call or email) and are always looking for stories relevant to their communities.

If an NPO viral marketing campaign changes consumers' attitudes about a brand does it follow up with a call to action? Even if an NPO's campaign succeeds in going viral, it has little practical value if it does not call consumers to action. Viral videos may increase awareness, but awareness without public reaction and measureable results will do little good for NPOs and their missions. The message needs to resonate affectively and cognitively before leading to behavioral action. For example, content that is simply informational may induce cognitive responses, but without any level of heightened sense of feeling leading to affective responses, viewers are unlikely to express much behavioral intention.

Nonprofits need to create a message that informs the audience of its mission, demonstrates that participation or donation will benefit a community or network at large, and expresses a dire need for action. Paramount to successfully calling consumers to action is developing measurable goals. Looking again to scale, a video campaign reaching over a million views is great goal, but this alone is not

enough. It must also appeal in such a way those viewers feel compelled to donate, volunteer, and visit.

Local nonprofits have access to a body of volunteers and potential donors. Local NPOs can and should work with local schools. These students often have time to volunteer. The time invested and experience gained during their volunteering could also turn them into future donors. Many high schools and colleges often require students to accumulate volunteer hours, so by helping your organization they are also fulfilling a need for themselves. The key is to have a compelling message that resonates with this audience and makes them want to volunteer with your NPO in particular.

Achieving such objectives requires stimulating, personally, and socially relevant video that makes a call to action crystal clear. In this process, you may provide a direct link to a donation page, a phone number, text message or social media contact across all platforms for volunteering. NPOs need to help facilitate the process of donating, and one way to do this is to leave no doubt or question about what individuals need to do, a specific call to action. Using these techniques should help move an online audience to offline action in the form of donating and/or volunteering. Viewers appreciate honesty and cannot help your organization if you do not ask for help and provide a clear way to make it happen.

To conclude, viral marketing is a relatively new phenomenon for marketers who are planning for, positioning, and supporting their NPOs. They very often possess many of the qualities necessary for their appealing content to go viral. Hopefully this research will assist NPO marketers of any size, using the idea of crafting messages that go viral. This can lead to desired actions that provide tangible outcomes to viewers and NPOs.

Limitations and Future Research

One major limitation is the bias that often comes with a convenience sample, thus our research reflects responses of university students, limiting the generalization to other populations. Millennials are users of social media and the internet, which NPOs admit is

their weakness. NPOs should focus efforts on using this talent. The Berger (2012) and Mills (2012) frameworks alone, with their approach to effective content, are worth further research and can add to the study of NPO viral video campaigns.

Future research could significantly add to the study of potential NPO viral video campaigns. A study with a larger demographic and sample size could more adequately and accurately encapsulate the average NPO's target audience. This could lead to stronger inferences regarding generalizations and assumptions that enable NPO content to go viral and call consumers to desired actions. This study only looked at feelings toward one NPO's campaign. Future studies should incorporate several different campaigns to allow for better comparisons.

Subsequent research should investigate such differences attributable to size and the influence this may have on the research results. There are potentially both similarities and differences in strategy and success between the local/domestic and global types of NPOs. NPOs can adapt and customize strategic elements from regional and global nonprofits, to suit their needs. Further research is needed.

REFERENCES

- Bal, A.S., Archer-Brown, C., Robson, K., & Hall, D.E. (2013). Do good, goes bad, gets ugly: Kony 2012. *Journal of Public Affairs* (14723891), 13(2), 202-208.
- Bearden, W.O., Netemeyer, R.G. & Haws, K.L. (1999). Handbook of Marketing Scales: multi-item measures for marketing and consumer behavior research. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Bearden, W.O., Netemeyer, R.G. & Haws, K.L. (2011). Handbook of marketing scales: multi-item measures for marketing and consumer behavior research. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE. p. 165.
- Berger, J. (2012). Why things catch on. Simon & Schuster: New York.
- Botha, E. & Reyneke, M. (2013). To share or not to share: The role of content and emotion in viral marketing. *Journal of Public Affairs*, 13(2), 160-171.

- Boys & Girls Club of America. (2014). *Great Futures Campaign PSA* [Video File]. Retrieved from <http://youtube/r8li9r5LRsg>.
- Brigham, M.P. & Noland, A.K. (2014). Making humanitarian advocacy less “abstract and remote”. KONY 2012’s Representation of an Agent-Centered Approach. *Florida Communication Journal*, 42(2), 51-67.
- Bruner, G.C., Hensel, P.J., & James, K.E (2005). Marketing scales handbook: A compilation of multi-item measures, volume IV. Gordon C. Bruner II, Paul J. Hensel. Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association, p. 106.
- Cameron, C. (1991). Flow. *Magill’s Literary Annual 1991*, 1-3.
- Constant contact nonprofit pulse surveys attracting new supporters keeping nonprofits up at night. (7 August 2012). *Constant Contact Media Newsroom*.
- Daniasa, C., Tomita, V., Stuparu, D., & Stanciu, M. (2010). The mechanisms of the influence of viral marketing in social media. *Economics, Management, and Financial Markets*, 5(3), 278-282.
- Hausmann, A. (2012). Creating ‘buzz’: opportunities and limitations of social media for arts institutions and their viral marketing. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 17, 173-182.
- Henke, L. (2013). Breaking through the clutter: The impact of emotions and flow on viral marketing. *Academy of Marketing Studies*, 17, 111-118.
- Invisible Children. (2012). *KONY 2012* [Video File]. Retrieved from <http://youtube/Y4MnpzG5Sqc>.
- Liu-Thompkins, Y. (2012). Seeding viral content: The role of message and network factors. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 52 (4), 465-479.
- Lovejoy, K., & Saxton, G. (2012). Information, community, and action: How nonprofit organizations use social media. *Journal of Computer Mediated Communication*, 17, 337-353.
- Mills, A.J. (2012). Virality in social media: the SPIN framework. *Journal of Public Affairs (14723891)* 12(2), 162-169.
- Pope, J., Isely, E., & Asamoah-Tutu, F. (2009). Developing a marketing strategy for nonprofit organizations: An exploratory study. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 21, 182-201.
- Robinson, J., Shave, P., Wrightsman, L. (2013). *Measures of Personality and Social Psychological Attitudes*. Academic Press, p. 43.
- Scott, D. M. (2008). The new rules of viral marketing: How word-of-mouth spreads your ideas for free. *An e-book available at http://www.davidmeermanscott.com/products_ebooks.htm*. Socialtext, Fortune, 500.
- Sharma, R. (2014). How nonprofits use social media to engage with their communities. *Nonprofit Quarterly*. March.
- United Way. (2014). *What is United Way?* [Video File]. Retrieved from <http://youtube/tDxOTD6dYm>.
- Water is Life. (2012). *First World Problems Anthem* [Video File]. Retrieved from http://youtu.be/fxyhfiCO_XQ.
- Water is Life. (2012). *First World Problems Response to @DanJordan2001* [Video File]. Retrieved from http://youtube/VmdkRQ_6-qE?list=PLNefYveISOJn_0MLwPYoAySIssiDXGKi2.
- Waters, R. & Jones, P. (2011). Using video to build an organization’s identity and brand: A content analysis of nonprofit organizations’ youtube videos. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 23, 248-268.
- Wilson, R. (2012). ‘KONY’ surprises as record-setting viral. *Advertising Age*, 83(11), 2.
- Wish of a Lifetime (2015). Webpage. Retrieved on 27 February 2015. <http://seniorwish.org/video>: www.vimeo.com/74885374.

THE EFFECTS OF NONPROFIT BRAND PERSONALITY AND SELF-BRAND CONGRUITY ON BRAND RELATIONSHIPS

MYA PRONSCHINSKE GROZA, Northern Illinois University

GEOFFREY L. GORDON, Northern Illinois University

Nonprofits are facing a competitive marketplace in which securing resources has become a key concern. Branding is an essential activity, which may help nonprofits form stronger relationships with their constituents. This study looks into the brand relationships (i.e., financial, time, and social/recommending support) donors and volunteers have with a nonprofit organization. Different nonprofit brand personality dimensions (Venable, Rose, Bush, & Gilbert, 2005) are predicted to affect how individuals engage with nonprofits. After utilizing multivariate analysis of variances, survey data collected from a small nonprofit of 182 respondents indicates nurturance and sophistication brand personalities lead to one's willingness to volunteer time to a nonprofit organization. Nurturance and ruggedness dimensions affect an individual's willingness to recommend the nonprofit organization. By assessing one's own personality with the nonprofit's personality (i.e., self-brand congruity), nurturance is a strong indicator of brand relationship engagement.

INTRODUCTION

Nonprofit organizations' race for support, both financial and other, has never been more competitive. While larger nonprofit organizations such as World Wildlife Fund, American Cancer Society, Habitat for Humanity, the Salvation Army, and the American Red Cross refine and build their donor networks, smaller, local nonprofits continually struggle for survival. As of year-end 2015, there were close to 1,600,000 nonprofit organizations, of which over 500,000 had less than \$1million in revenue (NCCS Business Master File, 2016). Furthermore, the largest 2.25 percent of nonprofits accounted for 90 percent of total reported funding of the \$335.17 billion donated to United States charitable causes in 2013 (MacLaughlin, 2015). Adding to this perilous situation is the fact that state and local government budget crises are threatening the livelihood of agencies. Stories of nonprofit organizations having to slash their budgets and/or shut their doors, leading to much needed services no longer being provided is sadly a common news headline.

Against this backdrop, smaller nonprofits must discover the importance of marketing and, more to the point, branding activities. The need for active branding no longer relates to just raising revenues. Rather, for nonprofits hoping to connect and form meaningful relationships with individuals, branding is an essential component of the marketing toolkit. As a result of decreased available grant funding and more selective donor giving, nonprofits have launched themselves into utilizing business practices such as branding. Branding is important to a nonprofit brand as it may help them differentiate their organization from competitors and thus garner more resources (Venable, Rose, & Gilbert, 2003; Venable, Rose, Bush, & Gilbert, 2005; Sargeant, Ford, & Hudson, 2008). The way that individuals perceive the brand of an organization plays a significant role in making decisions about where to give volunteer efforts (Ryder, 2016). Nonprofits seek to attract and secure support from donors and volunteers thereby providing meaningful services to their clients. A strong brand clarifies what the nonprofit stands for and allows the nonprofit organization to acquire more resources (financial, human, and social) and to deploy them with more flexibility (Kylander & Stone, 2012). Hence, an important issue for nonprofits is: how do they form brand relationships in order to secure necessary financial, time, and social (i.e., recommending) support?

By identifying the needs and interests of individuals and understanding how the brand is meaningful to them, nonprofits can better build relationships (Schwartz, 2015). Nonprofit brand relationship is defined as an engagement that "may take the form of financial contributions, volunteer commitment, and recommendations to others" (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006). Thus, a goal of nonprofit organizations is to provide meaningful experiences so that individuals feel more engaged and continue to do so for a prolonged period. By accomplishing this, different brand relationship outcomes will be realized. Much like their counterparts in the for-profit sector, savvy nonprofit marketing executives realize it is much more revenue- and cost-effective to retain current donors and supporters than to bring in new donors. However, how does a nonprofit encourage this nonprofit brand relationship?

The model developed in this paper suggests different brand personalities may influence an individual's relationship with a nonprofit brand. Four nonprofit brand personalities identified as integrity, nurturance, ruggedness, and sophistication (Venable et al., 2005) are proposed to have varied and significant effects on brand relationship outcomes. Hypotheses are developed as to whether different brand personalities affect one's willingness to financially contribute to a nonprofit organization, one's willingness to volunteer their time, and one's willingness to recommend a nonprofit organization. To test these hypotheses, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted utilizing survey data collected from a sample of 182 individuals who are supporters of a small (less than \$1 million in revenue) nonprofit organization.

Additionally, to provide substantive guidance to nonprofits, d-scores measuring one's congruity with the brand personality are included. The purpose of this testing is to determine whether brand relationship outcomes are strengthened when congruity is higher between one's image of their own brand personality and one's image of the nonprofit brand personality. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. After reviewing relevant literature, the formal hypotheses are proposed. Next, a detailed account of the methods utilized to test the study's hypotheses is presented. The results and

managerial implications are then discussed. Finally, limitations of the study and directions for future research are provided.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Theoretically, brand personality is a "set of human characteristics associated with a brand" (Aaker, 1997, p. 347). Consumers view brands as having human characteristics even though brands are just inanimate objects (Aaker, 1997; Aaker, Benet-Martinez, & Garolera, 2001; Plummer, 1985). Aaker (1997), in her seminal article, identified five distinct dimensions of brand personality traits: *competence, excitement, ruggedness, sincerity, and sophistication*. Scholars have further identified certain personality traits which describe popular brands. For example, Pepsi soda pop is considered "young", while "cool" describes Coca-Cola soda pop (Aaker, 1997). Marlboro cigarettes are reflected as being "masculine" (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006), a BMW vehicle is "sophisticated" (Phau & Lau, 2000), and Dr. Pepper soda pop is considered to be "non-conforming" and "unique" (Plummer, 1985). The brands people choose to consume are using those that convey a distinct personality and are more self-expressive (Aaker, 1997). Aaker (1997) suggests consumers select brands which they consider to be acceptable to them. This might be due to the fact that brands act in a way that allows consumers to convey their values and beliefs (Aaker et al., 2001).

Brand Relationship

Decisions whether or not to support a nonprofit organization are frequently based on what an individual thinks an organization is doing and the sum total of their perceptions regarding the nonprofit (Frumkin, 2015). According to Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006), there are three possible positive outcomes that are realized when individuals have a strong brand relationship with a nonprofit organization. People are more willing to make financial contributions, volunteer their time, and recommend the nonprofit organization to others when they have a brand relationship with the nonprofit (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006). For example, the Omaha Community Foundation

attributed a 221 percent increase in new assets to branding and brand relationship efforts undertaken (Kanani, 2014). Conversely, when individuals experience a bad brand relationship with or a negative perception of a nonprofit organization, disastrous results can follow (Frumkin, 2015). One need only look at recent experiences associated with the Lance Armstrong Foundation (since renamed the Livestrong Foundation) for evidence (MacLaggan, 2012). Thus, nonprofit organizations must continually work to create intensity in one's engagement and sustained activity opportunities thereby forming deeper, positive brand relationships.

The three possible outcomes that arise from a brand relationship with a nonprofit fall on an image management continuum of one's giving behaviors. The most fleeting engagement with a nonprofit organization is the donation of one's money by giving a financial contribution to the nonprofit. While financial support is an important factor of a nonprofit's operating budget, giving financially represents quick, limited engagement with the nonprofit from the donor's perspective. The donor "feels good" momentarily but this engagement may not lead to a sustained commitment (Labroo & Mukhopadhyay, 2009).

Recent statistics show the difficulty of landing and sustaining a commitment from individuals. Baby Boomers, on average, donate to 4.5 nonprofit organizations per year while Generation Y donors are even more discriminating donating on average to only 3.3 nonprofit organizations per year (MacLaughlin, 2015). Unfortunately, the retention rate for first year donors is continually falling with recent rates hovering around 23.7 percent (Barry, 2014; MacLaughlin, 2015). The 58.4 percent retention rate of multi-year donors is also low (MacLaughlin, 2015). Finally, there were 62.6 million adults volunteering their time at least once to nonprofits in 2013, a 25.4 percent rate (Clolery, 2014). This volunteer rate was the lowest since 2002, further reinforcing the importance of relationship building activities by nonprofit organizations.

Researchers have suggested these varying levels of engagement may be affected by "image motivation" playing a part in an

individual's giving behaviors (Ariely, Bracha, & Meier, 2007). Image motivation is defined as one's "desire to be liked and respected by others and by the self" (Ariely et al., 2007, p. 3). One's willingness to financially contribute to an organization is the lowest level of image motivation because an individual may not receive any public acknowledgement of their donation and may be donating out of the goodness of their heart. Nonprofits, especially smaller ones, heavily rely on donations, which is a particular form of social exchange:

These might be called quasi-economic transactions in that there is money exchanged but the "other side" of the transaction does not involve goods or services. This is not to say that there are not important returns to donors or funders in psychic and social satisfaction (Andreasen, 2001, p. 87).

Donating of one's time (i.e., volunteering) requires giving of one's physical and emotional resources. Time is a valuable resource to many consumers. Subsequently, if a consumer places a high value on their time, they might be willing to donate money at a higher level than those whose time is less of a precious resource (Liu & Aaker, 2008). Liu and Aaker (2008) argue an emotional mindset is evoked when participants are asked to think about their time and comparatively, an economic mindset is evoked by money. That is, a financial contribution is viewed as a value-maximizing goal while volunteering one's time highlights an emotional well-being that comes from being charitable (Liu & Aaker, 2008). Thus, volunteering one's time is appreciated by society as this is seen as a greater level of engagement. Volunteers who evaluate their relationship with a nonprofit as positive are more likely to continue volunteering their time (Waters & Bortree, 2007).

Finally, the last level of engagement is one's psychological commitment to the nonprofit organization which manifests itself as one's willingness to spread positive word-of-mouth about the nonprofit. Speaking positively about a nonprofit organization requires a great deal of image motivation on the part of the recommender. Positive or negative word-of-mouth has important implications as it influences the opinions of other donors and

their donation behaviors (Williams & Buttle, 2013). We predict an individual's evaluations of the nonprofit's brand personality will lead to different brand relationship outcomes. Literature on nonprofit brand personality is discussed next.

Nonprofit Brand Personality

Building from Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale development article, authors have set out to identify the particular personality traits that are important to nonprofits (Grohmann, 2009; Sargeant et al., 2008; Venable et al., 2003; Venable et al., 2005). Venable, Rose, and Gilbert (2003) performed a scale development study by utilizing Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale and augmenting it with the personality traits identified through a qualitative study. The authors identified integrity, nurturance, ruggedness, and sophistication as four dimensions which make up a nonprofit brand personality. The four dimensions were then tested to examine if the different traits led to donors' giving behaviors (Venable et al., 2005). Correlations suggest the different personality traits are associated with intentions to give. Additionally, the donor's self-concept is impacted by the nonprofit's brand personality thus increasing an individual's giving intentions (Hou & Tian, 2009).

Based on this work, it is hypothesized that perceptions of the four nonprofit organization personality traits (1) integrity, (2) nurturance, (3) ruggedness, and (4) sophistication will lead to individuals being more likely to form a brand relationship with a nonprofit. These relationships are manifested through making financial contributions, volunteering their time, and being more likely to recommend the nonprofit organization. This leads to Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4:

H₁: *Integrity perceptions of a nonprofit brand personality will lead individuals to stronger intentions to financially contribute (H_{1a}), volunteer their time (H_{1b}), and to recommend the nonprofit (H_{1c}).*

H₂: *Nurturance perceptions of a nonprofit brand personality will lead individuals to stronger intentions to financially contribute (H_{2a}), volunteer their time*

(H_{2b}), and to recommend the nonprofit (H_{2c}).

H₃: *Ruggedness perceptions of a nonprofit brand personality will lead individuals to stronger intentions to financially contribute (H_{3a}), volunteer their time (H_{3b}), and to recommend the nonprofit (H_{3c}).*

H₄: *Sophistication perceptions of a nonprofit brand personality will lead individuals to stronger intentions to financially contribute (H_{4a}), volunteer their time (H_{4b}), and to recommend the nonprofit (H_{4c}).*

Self-Brand Congruity

Consumers use mental processes to compare and contrast the self to other objects. When there is a match or mismatch between the consumer's self-image and the image of a product or brand, a congruency or incongruency occurs (Sirgy, 1986). A matching of the self to a brand is known as self-brand congruity (Parker, 2009). The greater the congruity, the more one feels connected with the brand and thus, the individual has a more positive attitude toward the brand.

Researchers have utilized the brand personality construct to identify the congruity between one's own assessments of their personality in comparison to a brand (Parker, 2009). That is, the self-brand congruity is operationalized by comparing the (nonprofit) brand personality and self-image measures. We predict when consumers perceive a match between the self and a brand a positive attitude toward the brand will occur leading to favorable outcomes. Specifically, it is hypothesized that when self-brand congruity is high for each of the nonprofit brand personality dimensions, individuals will be more inclined to form a brand relationship with a nonprofit. That is, self-brand congruity will lead individuals to contribute financially, volunteer their time, and be more likely to recommend the organization. Therefore, the following hypotheses are put forth:

H₅: *People who perceive their personal level of integrity to be similar to their perceptions of the nonprofit organization's level of integrity (i.e., high self-brand personality*

congruence) will be more likely to financially contribute (H_{5a}), volunteer their time (H_{5b}), and will be more likely to recommend the nonprofit organization (H_{5c}) compared to those with an incongruence of self-brand personality.

H₆: *People who perceive their personal level of nurturance to be similar to their perceptions of the nonprofit organization's level of nurturance (i.e., high self-brand personality congruence) will be more likely to financially contribute (H_{5a}), volunteer their time (H_{5b}), and will be more likely to recommend the nonprofit organization (H_{5c}) compared to those with an incongruence of self-brand personality.*

H₇: *People who perceive their personal level of ruggedness to be similar to their perceptions of the nonprofit organization's level of ruggedness (i.e., high self-brand personality congruence) will be more likely to financially contribute (H_{5a}), volunteer their time (H_{5b}), and will be more likely to recommend the nonprofit organization (H_{5c}) compared to those with an incongruence of self-brand personality.*

H₈: *People who perceive their personal level of sophistication to be similar to their perceptions of the nonprofit organization's level of sophistication (i.e., high self-brand personality congruence) will be more likely to financially contribute (H_{5a}), volunteer their time (H_{5b}), and will be more likely to recommend the nonprofit organization (H_{5c}) compared to those with an incongruence of self-brand personality.*

METHOD

Sample from a Nonprofit Organization

An electronic mailing list of current and previous donors and volunteers associated with

a local, small (less than \$1million in revenues) community nonprofit organization was provided to the researchers. There were 635 surveys sent out, of which the researchers received 182 usable surveys, yielding a 28.6 percent response rate. The response rate is at a level consistent with Curran, Taheri, MacIntosh, and O'Gorman's (2016) findings which indicate a response rate of over 20 percent to be quite high when dealing with actual donors and volunteers of a nonprofit organization. Of the 182 respondents, 54.3 percent of the respondents were female and the average age of the sample was 29.2 years old. Fifty-two percent possessed a 4-year college degree or higher. Thirty-two percent of the respondents reported household incomes of less than \$30,000, 15.9 percent between \$30,000 and \$50,000, 12.5 percent between \$50,000 and \$75,000, and 18.7 percent between \$75,000 and \$100,000. Only 14.3 percent reported incomes between \$100,000 and \$150,000 and 6.6 percent of the respondents reported incomes over \$150,000. The nonprofit organization works with at-risk youths assisting them to become healthy adults through adventure-based activities (such as rock climbing, paddling, archery, snow-shoeing, camping, etc.)

Measures

Nonprofit brand personality is based on the framework of Venable and colleagues (2003, 2005) which identified four distinct dimensions with fifteen subtypes (i.e., measures) of personality traits. Respondents were asked to assess the extent to which each of the fifteen traits describes the nonprofit organization on a 7-point Likert scale (strongly disagree/strongly agree). The first dimension, integrity, includes the following traits: committed to the public good, honest, positive influence, reputable, and reliable. Nurturance, the second dimension, is made up of the following traits: caring, compassionate, and loving. The third dimension of nonprofit brand personality is ruggedness and includes the following traits: masculine, tough, and Western. Sophistication is the last dimension and includes the following traits: glamorous, good-looking, and upper class.

To assess how similar one sees their own personality to the personality traits of the nonprofit brand, self-brand congruity measures

were utilized (see Parker, 2009). Respondents characterized perceptions of their own personality by assessing (not at all descriptive/very descriptive) fifteen different personality traits (Venable et al., 2005). After characterizing their own brand personality, the respondents then used the same scales to characterize their perceptions of the nonprofit brand's personality (Venable et al., 2005). The self-brand congruity measure was calculated using the difference, or distance, between the nonprofit brand personality and the self-personality scales. Hence, the higher the d-score, or distance, between the nonprofit brand and one's own personality, the less congruity between one's image of the nonprofit brand personality and one's image of their own personality. Contrarily, a smaller d-score, or distance, can be interpreted as having greater congruity between one's image of the nonprofit brand personality and one's image of their own personality.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n = (B_{ij} - S_{ij})^2$$

where: S_{ij} = self-image (i) of one's own brand personality (j)
 B_{ij} = brand image (i) of nonprofit brand personality (j)

Finally, intentions to support the nonprofit organization were derived from Becker-Olsen and Hill's (2006) brand relationship scale. Individuals can connect with a nonprofit differently than with a for-profit organization and at varying levels. Thus, the following self-reported three items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (strongly disagree/strongly agree). One's intention to donate money was assessed through the following self-reported item: "I am likely to contribute financially to this organization." Additionally, "I am likely to volunteer for this organization" was asked to understand individual's intentions to volunteer their time. Lastly, to assess one's willingness to speak positively by recommending the nonprofit organization, the following self-report item was asked, "I am likely to recommend this organization." Tables 1 and 2 contain the means, standard deviations and the correlations for the independent and dependent variables included in the study.

Analysis and Results

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was utilized to analyze the data and test the study hypotheses (results are presented in Table 3). The MANOVA used the three brand relationship variables (intention to contribute financially, intention to volunteer, and intention to recommend) as the dependent variables. The four dimensions of nonprofit brand personality (integrity, nurturance, ruggedness, and sophistication) were used as the independent variables.

A requirement of using MANOVA analysis is the dependent variables should be correlated. Bartlett's test of sphericity (Hair et al., 1998) indicated MANOVA was appropriate for analyzing the data (Bartlett's $\chi^2(3) = 161.33$; $p < .001$), thus satisfying the assumption of equality of variance-covariance matrices.

To test H_1 , H_2 , H_3 , and H_4 that different nonprofit brand personality traits will influence intentions to financially contribute to, volunteer with, and to recommend the nonprofit, MANOVA was conducted. Results from the MANOVA reveal that across the three brand relationships, both nurturance $F(3,163) = 3.07$, $p < .05$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .947$, and ruggedness $F(3,163) = 2.58$, $p < .05$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .955$, significantly influence brand relationship with the nonprofit organization, thus supporting H_2 and H_3 . Follow-up univariate analysis tests were used to test the separate hypotheses on the different brand relationships (results presented in Table 4). The univariate analysis tests reveal no support for H_{1a} , H_{1b} , or H_{1c} with integrity not being a predictor of intentions to contribute financially, volunteer time, or intentions to recommend a nonprofit organization. However, H_{2b} and H_{2c} are found to be significant. That is, nurturance leads to intentions to volunteer one's time and to recommend the nonprofit organization. No support is found for H_{2a} ; nurturance does not predict one's intention to contribute financially to the nonprofit organization. Hypotheses H_{3a} and H_{3b} are not found to be significant. That is, ruggedness does not lead to intentions of one contributing financially or volunteering one's time. However, H_{3c} has support indicating ruggedness leads to intention to speak positively by recommending the nonprofit

TABLE 1:
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations
of Nonprofit Brand Personalities and Brand Relationships

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Integrity	4.07	.667	1						
2. Nurturance	4.12	.754	.676*	1					
3. Ruggedness	3.04	.792	.356*	.157*	1				
4. Sophistication	2.15	.875	.365*	.227*	.450*	1			
5. Donate	2.86	.996	.225*	.207*	.113	.057	1		
6. Volunteer	3.24	.943	.364*	.319*	.128	.170*	.623*	1	
7. Recommend	3.86	.909	.335*	.292	.227*	-.014	.522*	.522*	1

Note. * $p < .05$.

TABLE 2:
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations
of Self-Brand Congruities and Brand Relationships

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Integrity d-score ²	.524	.885	1						
2. Nurturance d-score ²	.738	1.21	.229*	1					
3. Ruggedness d-score ²	.827	1.25	.100	.063	1				
4. Sophistication d-score ²	1.09	1.75	.029	.011	.181*	1			
5. Donate	2.86	.996	-.062	-.184*	-.038	.002	1		
6. Volunteer	3.24	.943	-.067	-.196*	-.054	.065	.623*	1	
7. Recommend	3.86	.909	-.037	-.122	-.044	-.026	.522*	.522*	1

Note. * $p < .05$.

TABLE 3:
MANOVA Results for Nonprofit Brand Personalities on Brand Relationships

Independent Variable	Wilk's Λ	F	Partial η^2
Integrity	.983	.966	.017
Nurturance	.947	3.066*	.053
Ruggedness	.955	2.579*	.045
Sophistication	.959	2.340	.041

Note. * $p < .05$.

organization. No support is found for H_{4a} and H_{4c}; sophistication does not predict one's intention to contribute financially or intentions to recommend the nonprofit organization. Hypothesis H_{4b} leads support for the notion that sophistication contributes to an intention for one to volunteer their time.

To examine self-brand congruity, MANOVA was conducted utilizing squared d-scores as the independent variable (results are presented in Table 5). MANOVA results indicate that across the three brand relationships, nurturance $F(3,163) = 4.21, p < .05, \text{Wilk's } \Lambda = .928$ between the self and the nonprofit brand influences brand relationship with the nonprofit organization, thus supporting H₆. Once again to provide a more granular test of group difference, follow-up univariate analyses were conducted on those nonprofit brand personality dimensions and the brand relationship outcomes (results presented in Table 6). No support is found for H_{5a}, H_{5b}, or H_{5c} indicating one's congruence between integrity perceptions of the self and the nonprofit brand personality does not lead to increased willingness to financially contribute, volunteer time, or recommend the nonprofit organization. Hypotheses H_{6a}, H_{6b}, and H_{6c} are all found to be

significant highlighting that a congruence in nurturance perceptions of one's own self personality and that of the nonprofit brand personality leads to heightened willingness to financially contribute, volunteer one's time, and to recommend the nonprofit organization. No support is found for H_{7a}, H_{7b}, or H_{7c}. That is, a congruence between one's ruggedness perceptions of the self's personality and that of the nonprofit brand personality does not contribute to one's desire to financially contribute, volunteer their time, or recommend the nonprofit organization. Lastly, Hypotheses H_{8a}, H_{8b}, or H_{8c} are not found to have support indicating that congruence between sophistication perceptions of one's own personality and the nonprofit brand personality does not lead to intentions to support the nonprofit through financial contributions, volunteering of one's time, or recommendations of the nonprofit organization.

**DISCUSSION AND
MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS**

As funding support from state and local government entities continues to decline, nonprofits, especially small and medium-sized ones, will become more reliant on the

**TABLE 4:
Full ANOVA Results for Nonprofit Brand Personalities on Brand Relationships**

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	MS	F	Partial η^2
Willingness to financially contribute	Integrity	.453	.544	.003
	Nurturance	2.307	2.766	.016
	Ruggedness	.041	.049	.824
	Sophistication	1.543	1.850	.011
Willingness to volunteer time	Integrity	1.172	1.804	.011
	Nurturance	2.816	4.336*	.026
	Ruggedness	.784	1.208	.007
	Sophistication	3.053	4.702*	.028
Recommendation intentions	Integrity	.986	2.065	.012
	Nurturance	3.732	7.818*	.045
	Ruggedness	2.002	4.195*	.025
	Sophistication	.198	.415	.003

Note. * $p < .05$.

TABLE 5:
MANOVA Results for Self-Brand Congruity on Brand Relationships

Independent Variable	Wilk's Λ	<i>F</i>	Partial η^2
Integrity d-score ²	.986	.791	.014
Nurturance d-score ²	.928	4.212*	.072
Ruggedness d-score ²	.991	.519	.009
Sophistication d-score ²	.992	.454	.008

Note. * $p < .05$. The squared d-score assessing self-brand congruity was calculated using the difference between the nonprofit brand personality and the self-personality scales.

TABLE 6:
Full ANOVA Results for Self-Brand Congruity on Brand Relationships

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	Partial η^2
Willingness to financially contribute	Integrity d-score ²	1.054	1.256	.008
	Nurturance d-score ²	6.603	7.870*	.046
	Ruggedness d-score ²	.124	.148	.001
	Sophistication d-score ²	.676	.805	.005
Willingness to volunteer time	Integrity d-score ²	.065	.094	.001
	Nurturance d-score ²	7.111	10.248*	.058
	Ruggedness d-score ²	.877	1.265	.008
	Sophistication d-score ²	.788	1.135	.007
Recommendation intentions	Integrity d-score ²	.824	1.507	.009
	Nurturance d-score ²	2.969	5.429*	.032
	Ruggedness d-score ²	.347	.634	.004
	Sophistication d-score ²	.316	.577	.003

Note. * $p < .05$. The squared d-score assessing self-brand congruity was calculated using the difference between the nonprofit brand personality and the self-personality scales.

generosity of individuals to sustain their cause. The purpose of the current study is to determine whether a nonprofit's brand personality leads to different brand relationship behaviors. The findings indicate that certain brand personalities do lead an individual to be engaged in different ways with the nonprofit organization. Nurturance and sophistication brand personalities lend support for one's willingness to volunteer time to a nonprofit organization, while nurturance and ruggedness indicate an individual's willingness to recommend the nonprofit organization.

This study makes an important theoretical contribution to the nonprofit brand personality literature. The contribution of this research extends the work of Venable et al. (2005), who identified the nonprofit brand personality dimensions by connecting with the potential brand relationships (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006) that can be realized from a donor or volunteer's engagement with the nonprofit. By studying the effects of brand personality in a nonprofit context, the present study provides evidence that certain nonprofit brand personality dimensions lead to different levels of engagement with the nonprofit organization.

This research study also sought to understand if a congruence between one's own personality and assessments of a nonprofit brand personality leads to engagement with a nonprofit organization. This research asked respondents to indicate their own personality and the nonprofit brand personality. The authors of this study then created a simple differences score that looked at the distance between the two constructs (i.e., level of self-brand congruence). The findings are quite interesting and provide a contribution to the literature highlighting the importance of nurturance.

Several managerial implications and accompanying recommendations can be derived from the current study's methodology and results. First, the results reinforce previous findings that activities aimed at building nonprofit brands and brand relationships with donors can be fruitful. Proactive brand building activities provide clarity, allowing nonprofit organizations to better build and cultivate relationships with donors (Kanani, 2014). Unfortunately, for many smaller nonprofit organizations, marketing expenditures for staffing to develop these efforts still appear limited. Researcher conversations with numerous nonprofit marketing directors have led the authors to conclude that the marketing director is often also the marketing staff and the entire marketing department for the organization. Whether due to limited budgets, a reluctance to divert funding from service provision, or a negative view on undertaking "shallow" for-profit business practices, investments in donor acquisition and retention efforts are inadequate. Until marketing budgets are increased and more resources are invested in donor relations staff, nonprofit brand building and relationship activities will suffer. Suggested actions may include: 1) the sharing of fund-raising resources such as personnel, space, technology, etc. among nonprofit organizations; 2) the development of reciprocal relationships with universities where university consulting and marketing expertise could be traded for the provision of internships and student employment opportunities; and 3) the training of nonprofit staff to become more multi-faceted in their job tasks.

Second, study results provide evidence that success in better identifying the interests and personality traits of potential donors is an integral part of relationship building. Donors want the organizations they support to better understand them as individuals (Abila, 2015). Greater collection and use of data concerning donors and their preferences can help nonprofits boost donor giving across all areas (Comcowich, 2015). Activities that representatives of nonprofit organizations can undertake with donors (or potential donors) to achieve this goal are as follows. Nonprofit representatives should devote time to speak with and gather information on potential donors in addition to sending out mass e-mails. In addition to collecting standard demographic information, nonprofits should be collecting information (where appropriate) on donor spending patterns, giving frequency, and social activity/ media preferences by conducting short surveys. Where possible, invite potential donors and current donors to participate in the nonprofit's activities, providing the donor and staff opportunities to get to know each other. For example, arrange for tours of the nonprofit are facilities or invite donors to view an outing or two. It may also be fruitful to ask donors to engage in problem-solving activities. Specific donors can be asked for ideas on fundraising activities and ways to increase volunteer participation rates. The more nonprofit organizations can involve donors in activities not requiring (asking for) money, the more likely donors are to become fully engaged.

Third, findings suggest marketing managers of nonprofit organizations (at least the one studied) may be well served to highlight personality dimensions of nurturance, ruggedness, and sophistication when seeking to engage with potential donors, volunteers, and/or clients. Conversely, when highlighting the nonprofit brand dimension of integrity, the current study found no significant results. Thus, the staff of a nonprofit organization might focus their efforts on noting the three other nonprofit brand dimensions (i.e., nurturance, ruggedness, and sophistication). For example, the nonprofit organization involved in the current study began reinforcing the caring and compassionate (in a tough way) aspects of nurturance and ruggedness in its communication messages to donors. Varied videos depicted youths engaging

in high action activities being assisted (when needed) by considerate adults. Taking the time to develop a website and other promotional materials that accurately portray the brand traits of the nonprofit organization will yield positive results.

Fourth, if potential donors perceive the nonprofit's brand personality as being congruent with their own personality then increased support for the organization should follow. Nonprofits should work hard at better targeting potential donors and volunteers based on interests and personality traits. For example, a local nonprofit specifically targets parents of youth who participate in high school sports to contribute their time or money toward sports programs aimed at youth from low-income families. Likewise, the same organization targeted parents of students enrolled in advanced academic activities to sponsor a summer reading program. A nonprofit organization focusing on outdoor adventure activities could easily target members of bike, running, or canoe clubs for assistance.

Fifth, potential donor giving opportunities are limitless with so many nonprofit organizations vying for their time, money, and recommendations. Nonprofit organizations must work hard to not only achieve self-brand congruity but to do so in a way that differentiates them from competing organizations. Donors will contribute more money when they are offered opportunities to pick or choose specific uses of their funds. The success of DonorsChoose.org and Kickstarter campaigns provides evidence that shrewd organizations are asking donors to fund specific projects (Perry, 2015). Likewise, volunteers should be given wide latitude in choosing where their volunteer time and efforts go to assist the organization. Taking this finding step further, savvy organizations could also ask donors to develop their own suggestions for spending their donation. These ideas could then be vetted by the organization's board for appropriateness.

Nonprofit organizations should also continually undertake activities that truly make giving personal (such as giving personal thanks to the donor). For example, a local nonprofit found that giving increased significantly once the

nonprofit's board members began making personal thank-you phone calls to all donors who contributed \$100 or more. These calls not only included thanks for the dollar donations but also acknowledgements of other service activities and solicitations for advice as to how the nonprofit could better serve the community. This year, the same organization is also involving youth recipients in sending artwork (depicting them engaged in activities made possible through donations) to donors. Such personalized interactions can help nonprofits communicate their brand personality dimensions (e.g., nurturance in this example).

Finally, results of the study indicate that nurturance and ruggedness lead to a willingness to recommend the organization. Nonprofit organizations should make efforts to identify donors possessing these traits and follow up with calls to action. Currently, 73 percent of nonprofits do not offer a share option after an online donation (MacLaughlin, 2015). Lack of effort in getting engaged donors to recommend the nonprofit organization to friends and other individuals possessing similar traits can only lead to (donor) money and (volunteer) time being left on the table.

LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The current study's limitations simultaneously provide directions for future research. First, the sample was limited to one nonprofit organization and its supporters. An interesting future study would encompass comparing results between diverse (in terms of mission and services offered) nonprofit organizations to determine whether personality dimensions that lead to engagement differ. Second, comparing responses based on nonprofit organization size, clients served, geographic location, dollars spent on marketing activities and many other variables could yield valuable information to help nonprofit managers make better decisions. Third, it would be interesting to see if a high percentage of all donors to nonprofits possessed the nurturance and ruggedness traits, which would lead to a recommendation for all organizations to aggressively pursue referral marketing activities. Finally, future research could also examine whether differences among supporter demographics, giving traits, and/or

other factors lead them to engage with nonprofit organizations in varied ways and degrees.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 34(3), 347-356.
- Aaker, J. L., Benet-Martinez, V., & Garolera, J. (2001). Consumption symbols as carriers of culture: A study of Japanese and Spanish brand personality constructs. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81(3), 492-508.
- Abila. (2015). Abila engagement study finds disconnects between nonprofit practices and donor preferences (2015, April 15). Retrieved from <http://www.abila.com/company/press-releases/abila-engagement-study-finds-disconnects-between-nonprofit-practices-donor-preferences/>.
- Andreasen, A. R. (2001). *Intersector Transfer of Marketing Knowledge* (pp.80-104). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Ariely, D., Bracha, A., & Meier, S. (2007). Doing good or doing well? Image motivation and monetary incentives in behaving prosocially. *Research Center for Behavioral Economics and Decision-Making*.
- Barry, F. (2014). One thing most nonprofits stink at (donor retention) and how you can change it in 2014. *NonProfit Fundraising* (2014, January 6). Retrieved from <http://npengage.com/nonprofit-fundraising/12-donor-retention-tips-from-nonprofit-fundraising-experts/>.
- Becker-Olsen, K. L., & Hill, R. P. (2006). The impact of sponsor fit on brand equity: The case of nonprofit service providers. *Journal of Service Research*, 9(1), 73-83.
- Clolery, P. (2014). Troubling numbers in volunteer rates. *The Non Profit Times* (2014, February 27). Retrieved from <http://www.thenonproffitimes.com/news-articles/troubling-numbers-in-volunteering-rates/>.
- Comcowich, W. (2015) How nonprofits can use data to improve donor engagement strategies (2015, April 21). Retrieved from <http://www.cyberalert.com/blog/index.php/how-nonprofits-can-use-data-to-improve-donor-engagement-strategies/>.
- Curran, R., Taheri, B., MacIntosh, R., & O’Gorman, K. (2016). Nonprofit brand heritage: It’s ability to influence volunteer retention, engagement, and satisfaction. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, forthcoming.
- Ekinici, Y., & Hosany, S. (2006). Destination personality: An application of brand personality to tourism destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(2), 127-139.
- Frumkin, P. (2015). The eight building blocks of strong nonprofit brands. *Nonprofit Quarterly* (2015, October 2). Retrieved from <https://nonprofitquarterly.org/2015/10/02/the-eight-building-blocks-of-strong-nonprofit-brands/>.
- Grohmann, B. (2009). Gender dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 46(1), 105-119.
- Hair, J.F. Jr, Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L., & Black, W.C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis*, 5th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hou, J., Du, L., & Tian, Z. (2009). The effects of nonprofit brand equity on individual giving intention: Mediating by the self-concept of individual donor. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 14(3), 215-229.
- Kanani, R. (2014). The secret to managing nonprofit brands. *Forbes* (2014, January 18). Retrieved from <http://www.forbes.com/sites/rahimkanani/2014/01/18/the-secret-to-managing-nonprofit-brands/#364b1583640b>.
- Kylander, N., & Stone, C. (2012). The role of brand in the nonprofit sector. *Stanford Social Innovation Review* (Spring). Retrieved from http://ssir.org/articles/entry/the_role_of_brand_in_the_nonprofit_sector.
- Labroo, A. A., & Mukhopadhyay, A. (2009). Lay theories of emotion transience and the search for happiness: A fresh perspective on affect regulation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 36(2), 242-254.
- Liu, W., & Aaker, J. (2008). The happiness of giving: The time-ask effect. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35(3), 543-557.
- MacLaggan, C. (2012). Exclusive: Livestrong cancer charity drops Lance Armstrong name from title. *Reuters*. Retrieved from <http://www.reuters.com/article/us-cycling-armstrong-livestrong-idUSBRE8AE00020121115>.

- MacLaughlin, S. (2015). 50 fascinating nonprofit statistics. Retrieved from <http://www.slideshare.net/sMacLaughlin/50-fascinating-nonprofit-statistics>.
- NCCS Business Master File (2016). Quick facts about nonprofits. *National Center for Charitable Statistics*. Retrieved from <http://nccs.urban.org/statistics/quickfacts.cfm>.
- Parker, B. T. (2009). A comparison of brand personality and brand user-imagery congruence. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 26(3), 175-184.
- Perry, G (2015). Top 10 fundraising trends and predictions for 2016 [Web log post]. Retrieved from <http://www.gailperry.com/2015/12/top-10-fundraising-trends-and-predictions-for-2016/>.
- Phau, I., & Lau, K. C. (2000). Conceptualizing brand personality: A review and research propositions. *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, 9(1), 52-69.
- Plummer, J. T. (1985). How personality makes a difference. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 24, 27-31.
- Ryder, J. (2016) Why Nonprofit Branding Matters [Web log post]. Retrieved from <https://www.squareweave.com.au/blog/2016/01/15/why-nonprofit-branding-matters/>.
- Sargeant, A., Ford, J. B., & Hudson, J. (2008). Charity brand personality: The relationship with giving behavior. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, 37(3), 468-491.
- Schwartz, M. (2015, February 16). 5 key benefits of designing a consistent nonprofit brand. *Constructive*. Retrieved from <https://constructive.co/insights/5-key-benefits-of-designing-a-consistent-nonprofit-brand/>.
- Sirgy, M. J. (1986). *Self-congruity: Toward a Theory of Personality and Cybernetics*. Westport, CT: Praeger Publishers/Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Venable, B. T., Rose, G. M., Bush, V. D., & Gilbert, F. W. (2005). The role of brand personality in charitable giving: An assessment and validation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 33(3), 295-312.
- Venable, B. T., Rose, G. M., & Gilbert, F.W. (2003). Measuring the brand personality of non-profit organizations. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 30, 379-380.
- Waters, R. & Bortree, D. (2007). Measuring the volunteer-nonprofit organization relationship: An application of public relations theory. *International Journal of Volunteer Administration*, 24(6).
- Williams, M., & Buttle, F. (2013). Managing word-of-mouth: A nonprofit case study. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 25(3), 284-308.

RETAINING COLLEGE STUDENTS: THE ROLE OF STUDENT READINESS AND PARTICIPATION

SAMANEH TORKZADEH, University of Texas Rio Grande Valley
MOHAMMADALI ZOLFAGHARIAN, University of Texas Rio Grande Valley
RAMIRO DE LA ROSA, University of Texas Rio Grande Valley

Student retention has deep-seated consequences for students themselves at different stages of life, for institutions of higher education, and for other stakeholders. This research conceptualizes and empirically tests a model of relationships that begin with the effects of student readiness constructs on student participation, and continue with the influence of student participation on student satisfaction, grades, and retention. The empirical study undertaken to test these relationships combined self-report survey data with “objective” data about student behavior in online courses, and provided general support for the conceptual model. The findings, along with implications and limitations, are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Since societal problems such as unemployment rate, financial bankruptcy, poverty, and family struggles often link back to uncompleted college education, it is critical to examine student retention as well as the role of higher education institutions in retaining students (Isakova, Nazarbekova, & Tiulegenov, 2011). Individuals without a college degree have fewer opportunities to make money, establish connections for a career path, and lead happy and healthy lives. For example, among people married between 1990 and 1994, divorce rates are twice as high for those who did not attend college compare to those who did attend (Lloyd, 2014). In addition, people with only a high school diploma are nearly twice as likely to be in poorer health relative to college graduates (Lloyd, 2014; Unal, 2013).

Many societal problems associated with lack of education warrant investigation into means of improving retention. In addition, active coursework participation is pivotal to student success, retention and completion. Davies and Graff (2005, p.663) report that “students who failed in one or more modules, did interact less frequently than students who achieved passing grades.” In fact, learning is improved when learners actively participate in the course (Bento & Schuster, 2003; Hrastinski, 2009).

Increased participation in part requires preparing students for course requirements prior to entering the course. In the marketing literature, researchers argue that customers need to know what the service requirements are (Kellogg, Youngdahl, & Bowen, 1997), and that participation will decrease due to insufficient readiness (Larsson & Bowen, 1989; Bettencourt, Ostrom, Brown, & Roundtree, 2002; Dellande, Gilly, & Graham, 2004). Similarly, in educational services, students need to be informed and prepared to face course requirements.

Given its importance, we focus on student readiness factors, their effect on student participation and subsequent student outcomes. In particular, this research aims to explore: (1) the interplay between student readiness and student participation, (2) the effect of participation on grade and satisfaction; and (3) the significance of grade and satisfaction for student retention. The empirical study undertaken to test these relationships combines self-report survey data with “objective” data about student behavior in online courses, and provides plausible findings underscoring the roles of student readiness and participation in determining student grades, satisfaction and retention.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Antecedents of Participation

Customer participation has been defined as “the degree to which the customer is involved in producing and delivering the service” (Dabholkar, 1990, P. 484). Customer participation has been one of the significant themes in services marketing research for the past 40 years (e.g. Lovelock & Young, 1979; Bitner, Faranda, Hubbert, & Zeithaml, 1997; Grönroos, 2008; Mustak, Jaakkola, & Halinen, 2013). Over these decades, important changes in both the marketplace and marketing thought suggest that customers are integral co-creators of services and that customer participation has profound implications for the ends that marketers and customers seek to achieve (Wikström, 1996; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004; Heinonen et al., 2010; Mustak et al., 2013). In fact, the co-creative roles of customers have compelled researchers to view them as “partial employees” of the organization. Building on the original users of the term (e.g., Lovelock & Young, 1979; Mills, Chase, & Margulies, 1983), Halbesleben & Stoutner (2013) and Manolis, Meamber, Winsor, and Brooks (2001) recommend that service firms can increase efficiency and effectiveness by co-opting customers and socializing, educating and empowering them as partial employees.

Similarly, in educational services, researchers argue that student participation is critical to satisfactory education outcomes (Hew & Cheung, 2012; Palincsar & Herrenkohl, 2002). Instructors are increasingly adopting a facilitator role and leveraging student participation for course delivery. For example, lecture courses are increasingly implementing group work as an important means of increasing participation. Student participation emphasizes the negotiation of meaning and ideas between participants (Dillenbourg, 1999; Palincsar & Herrenkohl, 2002; Roschelle, 1992; Roschelle & Teasley, 1995; Stahl, Koschmann, & Suthers, 2006). Given the importance of participation in higher education, the study of its antecedents is critical.

Research shows that customers may resist performing a new activity due to the discomfort in dealing with new tasks (Parasuraman, 2000; Lin & Hsieh, 2006). Readiness has the potential to decrease the awkwardness in dealing with new tasks by increasing customer propensity to embrace participation in services that assist them in accomplishing their goals (Parasurman, 2000). Participation will occur more frequently and extensively if customers are ready. Though extensive research has been done on customer readiness, this construct has not been understood in relation with participation (Meuter, Bitner, Ostrom, & Brown, 2005; Dellande, et al., 2004; Bettencourt et al., 2002).

Scholars have conceptualized customer readiness as a construct consisting of role clarity, ability and motivation (Meuter et al., 2005). Role clarity refers to customer awareness of their role, what they should do, and their knowledge of what to do. Easingwood (1986) reports that 89% of firms have problems with employee or customer confusion over their roles. Customer confusion is due to the perceived uncertainty and lack of role clarity. Scholars argue that customers need to be informed about what the service requirements are (Kellogg, et al., 1997, Yi & Gong, 2013; Yi, 2014). Customer participation will decrease when customers do not have a sufficiently developed understanding of their role in the service process (Larsson & Bowen, 1989). Similarly, research in higher education suggests that students generate relatively more discussion messages (e.g., comments, questions, other posts) if they receive, comprehend and follow clear guidelines on how to do so (Choi, Land, & Turgeon, 2005).

Additionally, when customers have the ability (i.e., necessary skills) to complete a task, they are more likely to participate. Even though having the capacity or ability to complete a task is not the same as actually doing it, possessing the required skills makes participation a more likely event. According to Seltzer (1983), individuals will not become involved in an activity when they believe that they are unable to perform a task required by that activity. Consequently, ability is a critical component of customer readiness. Bettencourt et al. (2002) show that, in knowledge intensive business services, successful participation is a

consequence of customers having the necessary abilities. For example, research in higher education suggests that student participation in online discussion is highly dependent on their ability to come up with constructive comments (e.g., Arend, 2009; Chapman, Storberg-Walker, & Stone, 2008; Fung, 2004; Dennen, 2005; Guzdial & Turns, 2000; Khan, 2005).

When role clarity and ability is joined by motivation, the necessary and sufficient conditions for customer participation may exist. Customer ability and role clarity do not necessarily lead to participation. In fact, customers might not be sufficiently motivated to take action toward a service requirement. Research shows the tendency to perform required tasks depends on customer motivation in the production of services (Larsson & Bowen, 1989; Vroom, 1964). Drawing on prior findings, we hypothesize that student role clarity, ability, and motivation are conducive to student participation:

- H_{1a}:** Student role clarity is positively associated with student participation
- H_{1b}:** Student ability is positively associated with student participation
- H_{1c}:** Student motivation is positively associated with student participation

The sequence of role clarity, ability and motivation in developing customer readiness has also received scholarly attention. Bowers, Martin, and Luker (1990, p.62) propose a three-part sequence to improve participation; “Step 1: Define the customer’s job. Step 2: Train the customer to perform his or her job. Step 3: Retain the valuable customer by rewarding the customer for a job well done.” Essentially, they argue that role clarity supports ability, which in turn fuels motivation. In hospital settings, Dellande et al. (2004) find that patients who are not clear about their role in the service process are unable to acquire the needed skills to carry out the tasks required of them. Moreover, patients will become frustrated and will lose their motivation if they are not able to perform expected behaviors. Accordingly, we expect (1) students’ role clarity to enhance their ability to perform the expected tasks; and (2) their enhanced ability to increase the motivation

underlying their performance.

- H_{2a}:** The higher the student role clarity, the more able the student to perform the expected tasks.
- H_{2b}:** The higher the student ability, the more motivated the student to perform the expected tasks.

Consequences of Participation

Learning outcome depends on interaction with the content and with others (i.e., instructor and peers) within the online learning environment (see e.g. Duffy & Kirkley, 2003; Anderson, 2003; Lee & Gibson, 2003). Education literature views interaction with the content and with others as student participation (Hew & Cheung, 2012; Palincsar & Herrenkohl, 2002; Moore, 1989). Student participation facilitates the negotiation of meaning and ideas with others (Stahl, Koschmann, & Suthers, 2006), joint construction of knowledge, and shared cognitive understanding of materials (Dillenbourg, 1999; Ploetzner, Dillenbourg, Preier, & Traum, 1999). Participation enables students to achieve a deeper understanding of the course content (Anderson, 2003). Thus, we expect learning outcome to be associated with student participation.

Academic grading in the United States is mostly in the form of letters ranging from A to D and F. Grade serves as a formal evaluation of student work and determines the level of work proficiency. Criteria for grading is based on instructional design; generally defined as a developmental instructional system and based in learning and instructional theory (Gros, 1997). Grades are the most predominant measure of student learning outcome (Hiltz & Wellman, 1997; Dumont, 1996). As such, we hypothesize:

- H₃:** Student participation is positively associated with student grades.

Customer Satisfaction is “a customer’s post-consumption evaluation of a product or service” (Mittal & Frennea, 2010, p. 3) that occurs if the perceived performance of a product or service meets or goes beyond his or her prior expectations (e.g., Bearden & Teel, 1983; Oliver, 2010). Customer satisfaction has been a central construct in marketing literature (e.g., Luo & Homburg, 2007; Szymanski &

Henard, 2001). Previous research shows that customer satisfaction positively influences important customer outcomes such as customer loyalty and willingness to pay (Seiders, Voss, Grewal, & Godfrey, 2005; Homburg, Koschate, & Hoyer, 2005). Most firms contend that managing customer satisfaction is a “strategic imperative” (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001, p. 131) and make substantial investments to pursue customer satisfaction (Simester, Hauser, Wernerfelt, & Rust, 2000; Yu, Kim, Yoon, & Park, 2015). To the extent that these imperatives also apply to institutions of higher education, they ought to pursue student satisfaction as one of their priorities.

Active participation by customers can reveal their needs and expectations to service providers, enabling the two parties to increase the co-created value (Mustak et al., 2013). In higher education, if students actively participate in the course, instructors will be more likely to recognize their weaknesses and strengths and have the opportunity to take corrective action. Throughout the participation process, the interactions between the service provider and the customer will improve and reinforce the understanding of customer needs and expectations, eventually contributing to customer satisfaction (Auh, Bell, McLeod, & Shih, 2007). Research shows that participation, especially in high-involvement service contexts where customers spend considerable time and effort, often leads to higher customer satisfaction (Bloemer & Ruyter, 1999). As such, we hypothesize:

H₄: Student participation is positively associated with student satisfaction.

Declining enrollment is an issue in higher education institutions (Hersh & Merrow, 2015), and increased attrition creates a plethora of problems for all stakeholders (Tinto 1993). Research shows that attrition rates in online courses are higher than face-to-face courses in part because it is relatively more difficult to achieve student satisfaction in online courses (Waugh & Su-Searle, 2014). One of the critical factors that can help retain customers in both face-to-face and online education is customer satisfaction (see e.g. Petruzzellis, D’Uggento, & Romanazzi, 2006). Greater service satisfaction engenders greater retention rates (Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013; Han & Hyun, 2015). The

association between satisfaction and retention is clearly supported in marketing literature (Oliver, 1980; Oliver & Swan, 1989; Jones, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty, 2000; Siu et al., 2013; Han & Hyun, 2015). This finding is also echoed in higher education literature (e.g., Hoyt, 1999; Tinto, 1987; Lau, 2003). In online courses, for instance, students who are satisfied with their experience are more likely to take another online course (Roberts-DeGennaro & Clapp, 2005). Drawing on these arguments, we hypothesize:

H₅: Student satisfaction is positively associated with student retention.

In addition to their mediated relationship, motivation and retention are linked directly, as well. Students should be motivated to continue their enrollment. In fact, “To be motivated means to be moved to do something” (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 54). In other words, motivation is an unceasing requirement if students are to stay in the program. Similarly, in the health care context, researchers have observed that patients who exhibit higher treatment motivation stay and successfully complete longer treatment plans (Stevens, Verdejo-García, Roeyers, Goudriaan, & Vanderplasschen, 2015). Since retention is ultimately dependent on the individual student, the level of his or her motivation is critical (Lau, 2003). Thus, we hypothesize:

H₆: Student motivation is positively associated with student retention.

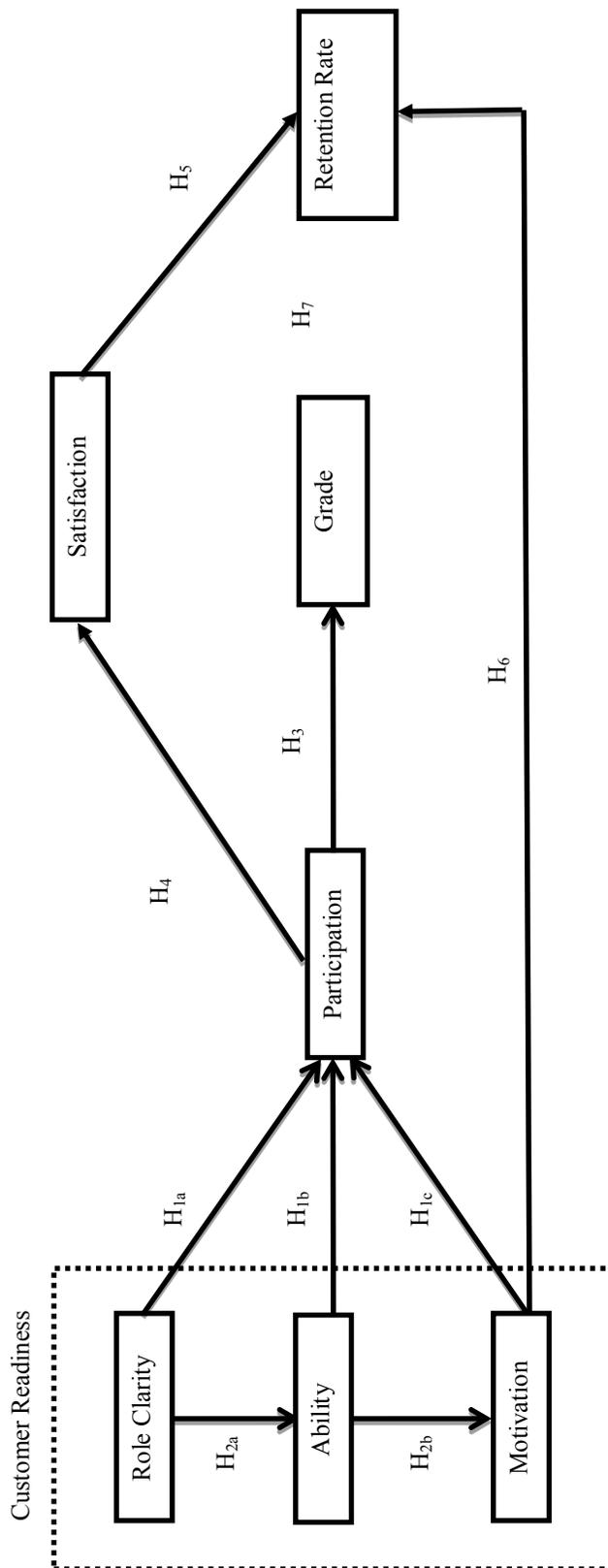
Empowering student to achieve better grades is an effective means of retaining them. In fact, many scholars consider grades to serve as a key partial mediator of the relationship between participation and retention (Wetzel, O’Toole, & Peterson, 1999; Konyu-Fogel & Grossnickle, 2013). Unsatisfactory grades discourage students from returning to school for another year or even for another course (Lau, 2003). Thus, we hypothesize:

H₇: Student grades are positively associated with student retention.

METHODOLOGY

A combination of archival and survey data is used to empirically test the proposed relationships in this study. The participants in this research were students over the age of 18 at

FIGURE 1:
The Conceptual Model



a public university situated in Southwest United States. During two academic semesters, students enrolled in online courses were asked to complete an online questionnaire that would generate the survey portion of the data (i.e., role clarity, ability, motivation, satisfaction, and retention). The remainder of the data was generated by tracking student inputs and academic performance in the respective courses using the resources of the university's *Center for Online Learning, Teaching and Technology*. A total of 216 responses were collected from 6 online courses in fall 2014, and 243 responses were collected from 11 online courses in fall 2015. Of these, 331 responses were sufficiently complete and, thus, retained for analysis.

To increase the validity and reliability of the results of this study, all the survey items were adapted from previously validated scales (Straub, 1989). An expert panel was formed with the help of five faculty and Ph.D. students to validate the content of the scale items (role clarity, ability, and motivation), which were borrowed from past research and adjusted to fit the college education context.

Student readiness items were measured on a 7 point Likert scale that ranged from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree;" while satisfaction and retention items were measured on 7-point semantic differential scales (See Table 1). Student participation and grades were represented by the actual student role in the respective courses and the actual grade they earned. Specifically, participation was captured by tracking a variety of student inputs within the online course environments (i.e., Blackboard). These inputs included (1) hits: the number of times students logged in the course and clicked on different content areas within the course; (2) posts: the number of messages students posted in online discussions forums; (3) length: the average length of the posts in online discussions forums; and (4) time: the amount of time spent within the online course.

DATA ANALYSIS

Instrument Validation

Partial Least Squares (PLS) SEM was used to analyze the data. The confirmatory factor analysis output presented in Table 1

demonstrates an acceptable underlying structure across the measures (i.e., pattern of main and cross loadings). Next, the measurement scales were checked for convergent validity, discriminant validity, and reliability. All estimated loadings were above 0.6. Also, as shown in Table 1, the average variance extracted (AVE) exceeded the threshold of 0.5 for all the constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). These provide support for convergent validity. To examine discriminant validity, the AVE for each construct was compared to the squared correlations of that construct with other constructs (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). Since AVEs were larger than squared inter-construct correlations, discriminant validity is supported (See Table 2). As shown in Table 1, Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability for all the constructs were above the threshold of 0.7 (Chin & Gopal, 1995).

Structural Model and Hypothesis Testing

PLS SEM was used to test the proposed model of relationships. PLS entails a mathematically rigorous computation to determine the optional linear relationships between latent (theoretical) variables. The PLS-SEM is used because of its suitability for relatively small sample size, focus on prediction (Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009), and the complexity of the model.

H_{1a}, H_{1b} and H_{1c} hypothesized the positive effects of student readiness constructs (i.e., role clarity, ability and motivation) on participation. The results support H_{1a} ($\beta=.09$; $p<.05$) and H_{1b} ($\beta=.18$; $p<.01$), but H_{1c} is not supported ($\beta=.03$; $p=.35$). H_{2a} and H_{2b} hypothesized a sequence of effects among student readiness constructs. H_{2a} is supported as role clarity is positively and significantly associated with ability ($\beta=.52$; $p<.01$). H_{2b} is also supported with ability and motivation being positively and significantly associated ($\beta=.49$; $p<.01$). H₃ predicted the positive effect of participation on grades. Results provide support for that hypothesis ($\beta=.38$; $p<.01$). Consistent with H₄, the positive effect of participation on satisfaction was also statistically significant ($\beta=.14$; $p<.01$). H₅, H₆ and H₇ pertained to the positive effects of satisfaction, motivation and grades on student retention, respectively. In support of H₅ and H₇, satisfaction ($\beta=.47$; $p<.01$) and grades ($\beta=.52$;

TABLE 1:
Scale Items and CFA Loadings

Scale Items	Loading
Role clarity (AVE=.64; CR=.87; α =.81)	
I feel certain about what I should do in this online course.	0.79
I am NOT sure what to do in this online course. (RC)	0.8
I know what is expected of me in this online course.	0.77
The process of this online course is clear to me.	0.82
I believe there are only vague directions regarding what I should do in this course. (RC) ^a	N/A
Ability (AVE=.64; CR=.90; α =.86)	
I am fully capable of completing the requirements of this course.	0.83
I am confident in my ability to complete this course.	0.86
This course is well within the scope of my abilities.	0.87
I do NOT feel I am qualified to take this course. (RC)	0.69
My past experiences increase my confidence that I will be able to successfully complete the requirements of this course.	0.75
In total, this course involves things that are more difficult than I am capable. (RC) ^a	N/A
Extrinsic motivation (AVE=.59; CR=.93; α =.91) for the 2 nd order motivation construct.	
Taking this course online would provide me with added convenience.	0.8
Taking this course online would allow me to study from wherever I am.	0.84
Taking this course online would allow me to study whenever I want.	0.81
Taking this course online would provide me more control over the studying process.	0.86
Intrinsic motivation (AVE=.59; CR=.93; α =.91) for 2 nd order motivation construct.	
Taking this course online would provide me with personal feelings of worthwhile accomplishment.	0.88
Taking this course online would provide me with feelings of enjoyment from using the technology.	0.89
Taking this course online would provide me with feelings of independence.	0.88
Taking this course online would allow me to feel innovative in how I interact with others in the course.	0.87
Taking this course online would allow me to have increased confidence in my skills.	0.87
Participation	
# of posts	0.63
Time spent	0.84
# of hits ^a	N/A
Average post length ^a	N/A
Satisfaction (AVE=.92; CR=.97; α =.96)	
Dissatisfied...Satisfied	0.97
Displeased...Pleased	0.96
Unfavorable...Favorable	0.95
Retention (AVE=.90; CR=.97; α =.96)	
Unlikely...Likely	0.96
Very improbable... Very probable	0.96
Impossible...Possible	0.93
No chance...Certain	0.95

^a Item was deleted in the process of the analysis

TABLE 2:
AVEs and Squared Inter-construct Correlations

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Role clarity	5.79	0.97	.64						
2. Ability	6.07	0.82	.27	.64					
3. Motivation	5.87	0.96	.18	.24	.60				
4. Participation	38.67 ^a 37.47 ^b	29.19 ^a 28.32 ^b	.02	.04	.003	1.00			
5. Grade	2.88	1.18	.03	.07	.03	.15	1.00		
6. Satisfaction	6.28	1.03	.18	.19	.29	.02	.05	.92	
7. Retention	6.40	1.10	.13	.15	.35	.00	.05	.44	.90

^a Number of posts ^b Time spent Values on the diagonal line are AVEs, and the remainders are squared inter-construct correlations.

$p < .01$) emerged as statistically significant predictors of student retention with strong effect sizes. Finally, the association between motivation and student retention was statistically significant ($\beta = .33$; $p < .01$), as well, providing support for H₆. Variance explained in ability, motivation, participation, satisfaction, grades, and retention as endogenous variable were .27; .27; .14; .12; .15; and .52, respectively.

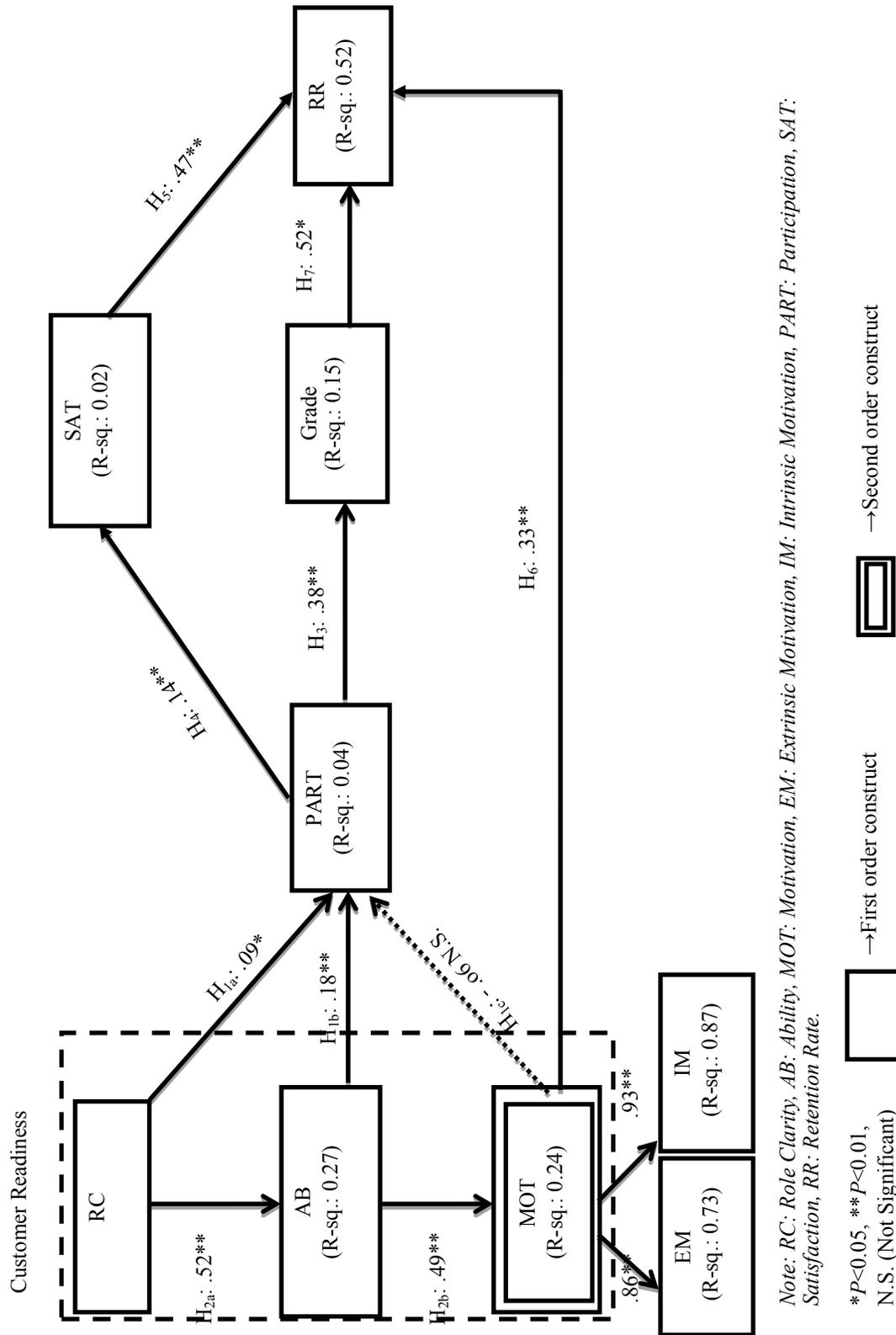
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Student retention has deep-seated consequences for students themselves at different stages of life, for institutions of higher education, and for other stakeholders (Isakova et al., 2011; Lloyd, 2014; Unal, 2013). Indeed, many societal problems associated with lack of education warrant investigation into means of improving retention. In addition, active coursework participation is pivotal to student success, retention and completion. In this research, we turned to the role of student participation as a key component in models and theories where retention is the focal outcome construct. This paper conceptualized and empirically tested a model of relationships beginning with the effects of student readiness constructs on student participation, and continuing with the influence of student participation on student satisfaction, grades, and retention. The empirical study undertaken to test these relationships combined self-report survey data with “objective” data about student behavior in online courses, and provided general support for the conceptual model. Specifically, role

clarity and ability as two student readiness constructs facilitate and boost student participation behaviors. Student participation, in turn, emerged as a determinant of student grade, and an important source of student satisfaction. These two consequences of participation (i.e., grades and satisfaction), along with motivation, explain a considerable portion of the variation in student retention.

Our findings have implications for various stakeholders such as students, institutions of higher education, and policy makers. First and foremost, students should be better informed about the role they play throughout their educational journey. If student effectively appreciate that their grades and academic progress hinge upon their own active participation in coursework, they will have stronger reasons to take actions and increase their input and engagement. Moreover, students need awareness as to the critical role that readiness plays in preparing them to participate actively and effectively. The sequence of effects among role clarity, ability and motivation, as well as the significant effects of role clarity and ability on participation are reason enough for students to familiarize themselves with their roles across different courses, thereby empowering themselves to identify and acquire the necessary skills that will facilitate and support their active participation. The ultimate benefit of such an approach to one’s education is improved academic performance and successful completion of degree requirements.

FIGURE 2:
The Structural Model



Our findings are also germane to key decision makers in institutions of higher education. Colleges and universities should embrace and apply any means (institutional culture, statements of mission, vision and objectives, strategic plans, policies pertaining to faculty and students, etc.) necessary to leverage the positive effects of student readiness and participation on student performance outcomes and subjective evaluations. They can pursue these ends in two directions: (1) inform students about their own agentic role through communication campaigns and emphasize them through instructional design; and (2) create and maintain structural factors and incentives that facilitate and reward attitudes and behaviors conducive to and reflective of student readiness and participation. With increasingly dense competition among institutions of higher education, emphasizing student readiness and engaging them as active participants in their education are no longer options, but strategic imperatives (Duncan, Miller & Jiang, 2012).

Higher education policy makers play an immense, probably the largest, role in shaping the culture of higher education, which informs the expectations, standards, performances, and evaluations of various stakeholders of higher education. Specifically, most, if not all, students have an overall understanding of what they are entitled to as students at institutions of higher education. But is every student aware of his or her responsibilities and obligations? Policy makers have the opportunity to create legal and social incentives at the macro level in order to motivate institutions of higher education as well as individual students to embrace and deploy student readiness and participation as under-appreciated, and sometimes forgotten, resources.

As is the case with all research, our findings are to be considered within limits. Firstly, our data comes from online courses exclusively. Secondly, as research on customer co-creation and participation advances, future researchers might have more effective means of capturing readiness and participation at their disposal. Lastly, future research should consider the effect of goal congruency between educators and students. The results of our study should be contextualized with respect to the differential goals of various stakeholders. For example,

how do student readiness and participation unfold when students aim to secure a degree with minimal investment of time and effort, but face educators who base their course design, delivery and assessment on student learning? We hope these findings draw the attention of all related stakeholders to the critical role that students do and should play in higher education.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, T. (2003). Modes of interaction in distance education: Recent developments and research questions. *Handbook of distance education*, 129-144.
- Arend, B. (2009). Encouraging Critical Thinking in Online Threaded Discussions. *Journal of Educators Online*, 6(1), n1.
- Auh, S., Bell, S. J., McLeod, C. S., & Shih, E. (2007). Co-production and customer loyalty in financial services. *Journal of Retailing*, 83 (3), 359-370.
- Bearden, W. O., & Teel, J. E. (1983). Selected determinants of consumer satisfaction and complaint reports. *Journal of marketing Research*, 21-28.
- Bento, R., & Schuster, C. (2003). Participation: The online challenge. *Web-based education: Learning from experience*, 156-164.
- Bettencourt, L. A., Ostrom, A. L., Brown, S. W., & Roundtree, R. I. (2002). Client co-production in knowledge-intensive business services. *California Management Review*, 44 (4), 100-128.
- Bitner, M. J., Faranda, W. T., Hubbert, A. R., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1997). Customer contributions and roles in service delivery. *International journal of service industry management*, 8(3), 193-205.
- Bloemer, J., & De Ruyter, K. (1999). Customer loyalty in high and low involvement service settings: the moderating impact of positive emotions. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15(4), 315-330.
- Bowers, M. R., Martin, C. L., & Luker, A. (1990). Trading places: employees as customers, customers as employees. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 4(2), 55-69.
- Chapman, D. D., Storberg-Walker, J., & Stone, S. J. (2008). Hitting Reply: a qualitative study to understand student decisions to respond to online discussion postings. *E-Learning and Digital Media*, 5(1), 29-39.

- Chin, W. W., & Gopal, A. (1995). Adoption intention in GSS: relative importance of beliefs. *ACM Sig MIS Database*, 26(2-3), 42-64.
- Choi, I., Land, S. M., & Turgeon, A. J. (2005). Scaffolding peer-questioning strategies to facilitate metacognition during online small group discussion. *Instructional science*, 33 (5-6), 483-511.
- Dabholkar, P. A. (1990). How to improve perceived service quality by increasing customer participation. In *Proceedings of the 1990 Academy of Marketing Science (AMS) Annual Conference* (pp. 483-487). Springer International Publishing.
- Davies, J., & Graff, M. (2005). Performance in e-learning: online participation and student grades. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 36(4), 657-663.
- Dellande, S., Gilly, M. C., & Graham, J. L. (2004). Gaining compliance and losing weight: the role of the service provider in health care services. *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (3), 78-91.
- Dennen, V. P. (2005). From message posting to learning dialogues: Factors affecting learner participation in asynchronous discussion. *Distance Education*, 26(1), 127-148.
- Dillenbourg, P. (1999). What do you mean by collaborative learning?. *Collaborative-learning: Cognitive and Computational Approaches*, 1-19.
- Duffy, T. M., & Kirkley, J. R. (Eds.). (2003). *Learner-centered theory and practice in distance education: Cases from higher education*. Routledge.
- Dumont, R. A. (1996). Teaching and learning in cyberspace. *Professional Communication, IEEE Transactions on*, 39(4), 192-204.
- Duncan, I., Miller, A., & Jiang, S. A taxonomy of virtual worlds usage in education. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 43(6), 949-964.
- Easingwood, C. J. (1986). New product development for service companies. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 3(4), 264-275.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of marketing research*, 382-388.
- Fung, Y. Y. (2004). Collaborative online learning: Interaction patterns and limiting factors. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning*, 19(2), 135-149.
- Grönroos, C. (2008). Service logic revisited: Who creates value? And who co-creates?. *European Business Review*, 20(4), 298-314.
- Gros, B. (1997). Instructional Design and the Authoring of Multimedia and Hypermedia Systems: Does a Marriage Make Sense? *Educational Technology*, 37(1), 48-56.
- Guzdial, M., & Turns, J. (2000). Effective discussion through a computer-mediated anchored forum. *The journal of the learning sciences*, 9(4), 437-469.
- Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a silver bullet. *Journal of Marketing theory and Practice*, 19(2), 139-152.
- Halbesleben, J. R. B., & Stoutner, O. K. (2013). Developing customers as partial employees: Predictors and outcomes of customer performance in a services context. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 24(3), 313-335.
- Han, H., & Hyun, S. S. (2015). Customer retention in the medical tourism industry: Impact of quality, satisfaction, trust, and price reasonableness. *Tourism Management*, 46, 20-29.
- Heinonen, K., Strandvik, T., Mickelsson, K. J., Edvardsson, B., Sundström, E., & Andersson, P. (2010). A customer-dominant logic of service. *Journal of Service Management*, 21 (4), 531-548.
- Hersh, R. H., & Merrow, J. (2015). *Declining by degrees: Higher education at risk*. Macmillan.
- Hew, K. F., & Cheung, W. S. (2012). *Student Participation in Online Discussions* (pp. 16-25). Springer.
- Hiltz, S. R., & Wellman, B. (1997). Asynchronous learning networks as a virtual classroom. *Communications of the ACM*, 40 (9), 44-49.
- Homburg, C., Koschate, N., & Hoyer, W. D. (2005). Do satisfied customers really pay more? A study of the relationship between customer satisfaction and willingness to pay. *Journal of Marketing*, 69(2), 84-96.

- Hoyt, J. E. (1999). Remedial education and student attrition. *Community College Review*, 27(2), 51-72.
- Hrastinski, S. (2009). A theory of online learning as online participation. *Computers & Education*, 52(1), 78-82.
- Isakova, K., Nazarbekova, R., & Tiulegenov, M. (2011). Lack of education today – Unemployment tomorrow. *International and Comparative Politics*, 1-21.
- Jones, M. A., Mothersbaugh, D. L., & Beatty, S. E. (2000). Switching barriers and repurchase intentions in services. *Journal of retailing*, 76(2), 259-274.
- Kellogg, D. L., Youngdahl, W. E., & Bowen, D. E. (1997). On the relationship between customer participation and satisfaction: two frameworks. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8(3), 206-219.
- Khan, S. (2005). Listservs in the college science classroom: Evaluating participation and "richness" in computer-mediated discourse. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 13(2), 325.
- Konyu-Fogel, G., & Grossnickle, A. E. (2013). Promotional Determinants of Business School Retention: A Case Study Approach. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, 13(2), 110.
- Larsson, R., & Bowen, D. E. (1989). Organization and customer: managing design and coordination of services. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(2), 213-233.
- Lau, L. K. (2003). Institutional factors affecting student retention. *Education*, 124(1), 126.
- Lee, J., & Gibson, C. C. (2003). Developing self-direction in an online course through computer-mediated interaction. *The American journal of distance education*, 17(3), 173-187.
- Lin, J. S. C., & Hsieh, P. L. (2006). The role of technology readiness in customers' perception and adoption of self-service technologies. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 17(5), 497-517.
- Lloyd, C. (2014, November 25th). 5 reasons your child should go to college. Retrieved from <http://www.greatschools.org/college-prep/3077-cb-extras-1-2-HaveCollegeTalkNow.gs#articleCommentsLinkTo>
- Lovelock, C. H., & Young, R. F. (1979). Look to consumers to increase productivity. *Harvard Business Review*, 57(3), 168-178.
- Luo, X., & Homburg, C. (2007). Neglected outcomes of customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, 71(2), 133-149.
- Manolis, C., Meamber, L. A., Winsor, R. D., & Brooks, C. M. (2001). Partial employees and consumers: A postmodern, meta-theoretical perspective for services marketing. *Marketing Theory*, 1(2), 225-243.
- Meuter, M. L., Bitner, M. J., Ostrom, A. L., & Brown, S. W. (2005). Choosing among alternative service delivery modes: an investigation of customer trial of self-service technologies. *Journal of Marketing*, 69(2), 61-83.
- Mills, P. K., Chase, R. B., & Margulies, N. (1983). "Motivating the client/employee system as a service production strategy," *Academy of Management Review*, 8(2), 301-310.
- Mittal, V., & Frennea, C. (2010). Customer satisfaction: a strategic review and guidelines for managers. *MSI Fast Forward Series, Marketing Science Institute, Cambridge, MA.*
- Mittal, V., & Kamakura, W. A. (2001). Satisfaction, repurchase intent, and repurchase behavior: Investigating the moderating effect of customer characteristics. *Journal of marketing research*, 38(1), 131-142.
- Moore, M. G. (1989). Editorial: Three types of interaction.
- Mustak, M., Jaakkola, E., & Halinen, A. (2013). Customer participation and value creation: a systematic review and research implications. *Managing Service Quality*, 23(4), 341-359.
- Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of marketing research*, 460-469.
- Oliver, R. L. (2010). Customer satisfaction. *Wiley International Encyclopedia of Marketing*.
- Oliver, R. L., & Swan, J. E. (1989). Consumer perceptions of interpersonal equity and satisfaction in transactions: a field survey approach. *The Journal of Marketing*, 21-35.
- Palincsar, A. S., & Herrenkohl, L. R. (2002). Designing collaborative learning contexts. *Theory into practice*, 41(1), 26-32.
- Parasuraman, A. (2000). Technology Readiness Index (TRI) a multiple-item scale to measure readiness to embrace new technologies. *Journal of service research*, 2(4), 307-320.

- Petruzzellis, L., D'Uggento, A. M., & Romanazzi, S. (2006). Student satisfaction and quality of service in Italian universities. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 16(4), 349-364.
- Ploetzner, R., Dillenbourg, P., Preier, M., & Traum, D. (1999). Learning by explaining to oneself and to others. *Collaborative learning: Cognitive and computational approaches*, 103-121.
- Prahalad, C. K., & Ramaswamy, V. (2004). Co-creating unique value with customers. *Strategy & Leadership*, 32(3), 4-9.
- Reinartz, W., Haenlein, M., & Henseler, J. (2009). An empirical comparison of the efficacy of covariance-based and variance-based SEM. *International Journal of research in Marketing*, 26(4), 332-344.
- Roberts-DeGennaro, M., & Clapp, J. (2005). Assessing the virtual classroom of a graduate social policy course. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 25(1-2), 69-88.
- Roschelle, J. (1992). Learning by collaborating: Convergent conceptual change. *The journal of the learning sciences*, 2(3), 235-276.
- Roschelle, J., & Teasley, S. D. (1995). The construction of shared knowledge in collaborative problem solving. In *Computer supported collaborative learning* (pp. 69-97). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary educational psychology*, 25(1), 54-67.
- Seiders, K., Voss, G. B., Grewal, D., & Godfrey, A. L. (2005). Do satisfied customers buy more? Examining moderating influences in a retailing context. *Journal of Marketing*, 69(4), 26-43.
- Seltzer, L. F. (1983). Influencing the "shape" of resistance: An experimental exploration of paradoxical directives and psychological reactance. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 4(1), 47-71.
- Simester, D. I., Hauser, J. R., Wernerfelt, B., & Rust, R. T. (2000). Implementing quality improvement programs designed to enhance customer satisfaction: Quasi-experiments in the United States and Spain. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37(1), 102-112.
- Siu, N. Y. M., Zhang, T. J. F., & Yau, C. Y. J. (2013). The roles of justice and customer satisfaction in customer retention: A lesson from service recovery. *Journal of business ethics*, 114(4), 675-686.
- Stahl, G., Koschmann, T., & Suthers, D. (2006). Computer-supported collaborative learning: An historical perspective. *Cambridge handbook of the learning sciences*, 2006.
- Stahl, G., Koschmann, T., & Suthers, D. (2006). Computer-supported collaborative learning: An historical perspective. *Cambridge handbook of the learning sciences*, 2006.
- Stevens, L., Verdejo-García, A., Roeyers, H., Goudriaan, A. E., & Vanderplasschen, W. (2015). Delay discounting, treatment motivation and treatment retention among substance-dependent individuals attending an inpatient detoxification program. *Journal of substance abuse treatment*, 49, 58-64.
- Straub, D. W. (1989). Validating instruments in MIS research. *MIS quarterly*, 147-169.
- Szymanski, D. M., & Henard, D. H. (2001). Customer satisfaction: A meta-analysis of the empirical evidence. *Journal of the academy of marketing science*, 29(1), 16-35.
- Tinto, V. (1987). *Leaving college: Rethinking the causes and cures of student attrition*. University of Chicago Press, 5801 S. Ellis Avenue, Chicago, IL 60637.
- Unal, B. (2013, January 17th). Lack of Education Opportunities. Retrieved from <https://prezi.com/r-vm4ru0wfxr/lack-of-education-opportunities-presentation/>.
- Vroom, V. (1964) *Work and motivation*. New York: Wiley.
- Waugh, M., & Su-Searle, J. (2014). Student Persistence and Attrition in an Online MS Program: Implications for Program Design. *International Journal on E-Learning*, 13(1), 101-121.
- Wetzel, J. N., O'Toole, D., & Peterson, S. (1999). Factors affecting student retention probabilities: A case study. *Journal of economics and finance*, 23(1), 45-55.
- Wikström, S. (1996). The customer as co-producer. *European Journal of Marketing*, 30(4), 6-19.
- Yi, Y. (2014). *Customer Value Creation Behavior*. Florence, KY, USA: Routledge, 2014. ProQuest ebrary. Web. 2 November 2014.

- Yi, Y., & Gong, T. (2013). Customer value co-creation behavior: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Business Research*, 66 (9), 1279-1284.
- Yu, S. Y., Kim, J., Yoon, H. J., & Park, J. (2015). Consecutive User Satisfaction Surveys for a Cyber-infrastructure.

ASSESSING THE LINK BETWEEN A PUBLIC UNIVERSITY'S BRAND-BUILDING ACTIVITIES AND ALUMNI GIFT-GIVING

YOUNG HAN BAE, Penn State Greater Allegheny
MICHELLE HOUGH, Penn State Greater Allegheny
SANG-UK JUNG, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies

This study examines individualized alumnus gift-giving behaviors. It explores the link between alumnus traits such as age, gender, participation in fraternities or sororities, and college major with a university's brand-building activities and alumnus gift donations by utilizing an ordered logit model. This research also investigates how the link varies across different alumnus segments. The results indicate that a university's brand-building activities, including athletic success and academic prestige, impact alumnus gift-giving behaviors. Age and gender also influence giving behaviors, with older and male alumni more likely to give than their younger and female counterparts. While membership in fraternities or sororities does not impact giving, college major does. Graduates of medical and dental school give the most, followed by graduates of law school, business school, liberal arts, and science. These results provide important managerial insights towards the design and implementation of targeted marketing campaigns for attracting and retaining donors in nonprofit educational institutions.

INTRODUCTION

Attracting and retaining donors is a vital activity for nonprofit public colleges and universities because charitable giving comprises a significant portion of the institution's revenue stream. In 2013, for example, 18% of the University of Virginia's income stemmed from charitable giving, contrasted with 31% derived from student tuition (University of Virginia, 2013). A 2013 report from the *Council for Aid to Education* shows that alumni donations account for 26.6% of the total gifts to colleges and universities, and giving from alumni increased by 16.9%, a greater increase than from any other source of support (Council for Aid to Education, 2013). According to Holmes (2009), approximately 7.1% of total expenditures for college institutions are covered by alumni donations. As evidenced by these figures, alumni gift-giving is vital to the survival of nonprofit universities.

Responding to the criticality of alumni gift-giving behaviors on fundraising efforts, this study explores the link between university

brand building activities (such as university athletic success and academic prestige) and university alumnus gift-giving behaviors at the individual level. The aim is to identify key factors influencing individual donor gift-giving decisions and how these key factors impact decisions across different donor segments with distinct demographics and psychographics.

University's brand building activity factors have been identified in previous studies in economics, higher education, and sociology literature (e.g., Baade & Sundberg, 1996; Clotfelter, 2003; Coughlin & Erikson, 1984; Holmes, 2009; Rhoads & Gerking, 2000; Stinson & Howard, 2007; Tucker, 2004; Turner, Meserve, & Bowen, 2001). Although there is some disparity across findings, it is generally agreed that athletic success positively impacts alumni donations. Regarding an association between academic success and alumni giving, there is no general consensus among findings: Holmes (2009) found a negative association between academic prestige and alumni giving while Clotfelter (2003) found no association. Additionally, there are gaps in the existing research: 1) most empirical research in the literature has examined the impact of either major college sports or academic prestige on alumni giving, 2) most research has focused on the effects of these factors on alumni giving

behavior at the annually aggregated university level as opposed to the individual donor level, diluting the usefulness to university marketers in recognizing which individual donors or donor segments within a university give more than other individual donors or donor segments, and 3) the research generally has employed a simple Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression model in analyzing alumni-giving behavior. Because alumni giving amounts typically are non-negative and often show clustering phenomena on common whole dollar giving amounts, this results in biased OLS estimates of results.

To deal with these substantive and methodological issues, our study analyzes the effects of university's brand building activities on the university's alumnus gift-giving behaviors at the individual level by employing an ordered logit model. To address university marketers' Customer Relationship Management (CRM) desire to customize marketing plans, this study also examines a variety of covariates, such as alumnus demographic covariates including age and gender and alumnus psychographic covariates including fraternity membership and graduated school, in addition to the focal variables, such as university's branding building activities including athletic (especially, football) success and academic prestige as measured by *US News and World Report* rankings.

By analyzing the different effects of both athletic and academic performances on individual donor gift-giving behaviors across different donor segments through utilization of an empirical model which effectively addresses gift characteristics, this paper aims to provide insights into the link between a university's brand-building activities and alumnus gift-giving decisions at the individual level, and the role of heterogeneous segments by demographic and psychographic variables such as gender, age, fraternity, and type of school. By doing so, we add substantially to the existing research in the economics, higher education, and sociology literature, offering specific actionable insights to university marketers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

University Brand Building Activities and Alumni Giving

Maximizing alumni donations is an especially critical component of fundraising efforts for nonprofit universities (Holmes, 2009). Substantial research efforts have attempted to identify which factors most influence alumni giving to universities.

Accordingly, the link between university branding building activities and alumni contributions to the university academic endowment has been well-explored. First among the university brand building activities is the level of athletic success. Within this context lies the relationship between successful athletic performance and alumni giving. Early research found no association between athletic success and alumni donation behavior (Cutlip, 1965). Additional research (Harrison, Mitchell, & Peterson, 1995; Sigelman & Bookheimer, 1983; Sigelman & Carter, 1979) supported this conclusion. More recent studies, however, have found evidence of a positive link between college sports success and alumni donation behaviors (Baade & Sundberg, 1996; Coughlin & Erikson, 1984; Gaski & Etzel, 1984; Goff 2000; Grimes & Chressanthi, 1994; McCormick & Tinsley, 1990; Rhoads & Gerking, 2000).

Although the link between university sports success and alumni contributions has been explored, most research has focused on identifying a positive association between a university's football team success and alumni giving (Bergmann, 1991; Brooker & Klastorin, 1981; Caudill & Mixon, 1996; Coughlin & Erikson, 1984; Gaski & Etzel, 1984; Holmes, Meditz, & Sommers, 2008; Meer & Rosen, 2009; Stinson & Howard, 2007; Tucker, 2004; Turner et al., 2001). This body of research identifies a positive impact of football team success and little impact of success stemming from other college sports on alumni giving (Tucker, 2004). Regarding specific measures of football team success, Turner et al. (2001) finds that football winning percentage positively influences alumni giving behavior.

Second among brand building activities are university academic success and the association between successful academic performance and alumni contributions. However, efforts to identify this link have received less attention than efforts to identify the link between athletic success and alumni giving. Clotfelter (2003) explored the association between academic prestige and alumni donations and finds no association between SAT scores (as a proxy of academic prestige) and alumni giving. However, through use of *US News and World Report* rankings to measure academic prestige (Fisher, 2009; Stinson & Howard, 2007), Holmes (2009) finds a negative correlation between academic success and alumni donations. This likely is due to alumni giving more to increase and protect institutional academic reputation when academic prestige decreases.

Alumni Demographics and Psychographics

In addition to examining university brand building activities such as athletic success and academic excellence, several studies have incorporated demographic and/or psychographic variables of alumni. Most of this research explored the effects of only these demographics and psychographics on alumni giving, with little or no examination of the impacts of athletic success and academic excellence on alumni giving (e.g., Bruggink & Siddiqui, 1995; Clotfelter, 2003; Eckel & Grossman, 1998; Holmes, 2009; Lindahl & Winship, 1992; Monks, 2003; Okunade, 1996).

The most popular traits examined in the literature include alumni demographics such as age and gender and psychographics such as fraternity or sorority membership status and graduated college status. In modeling alumni giving behavior, researchers (Bruggink and Siddiqui, 1995; Monks 2003) used age to identify young alumni giving patterns. Bruggink and Siddiqui (1995) found that age positively affects alumni giving, with older alumni giving more.

Some studies (Clotfelter, 2003; Cunningham & Cochi-Ficano, 2002; Eckel & Grossman, 1998; Holmes, 2009; Lindahl & Winship, 1992; Monks, 2003; Okunade, 1996) examined the effects of gender on donor behavior. There is no

clear consensus regarding the impact of gender. Research (Okunade, 1996; Holmes, 2009; Lindahl & Winship, 1992) finds that male donors give more than female donors, while Eckel and Grossman (1998) find the opposite. Other studies (Clotfelter, 2003; Cunningham & Cochi-Ficano, 2002) find no impact of gender on alumni giving.

Regarding psychographics, Monks (2003) and Harrison, Mitchell, & Peterson (1995) included fraternity/sorority membership status in analyzing alumni giving, and find fraternity/sorority status impacts giving. Finally, several studies (Bruggink & Siddiqui, 1995; Hueston, 1992; Okunade, Wunnava, & Walsh, 1994; Weerts & Ronca, 2009) included a variable such as "college graduated from" in alumni giving modeling. No consensus was reached regarding giving across graduates of various majors/colleges.

EMPIRICAL FRAMEWORK

Extension of Existing Research

Most existing empirical research in the literature has examined the impact of either major sports or academic prestige on alumni giving. It will, however, be crucial to explore the effects of both athletic success and academic prestige on alumni giving because it is more likely that alumni giving behaviors tend to be influenced by both a university's athletic success and academic prestige.

Additionally, most current research in the literature has focused on the effects of these factors on alumni giving behavior at the annually aggregated university/institution level instead of at the individual alumnus level. This approach raises several issues. In a substantive point-of-view, at this aggregated institutional level analysis, it is difficult for university marketers to recognize which individual alumnus or alumnus segments within a university give more than others. They can only identify if the total donor gift amount has increased and by how much, in accordance with university athletic or academic success. For example, athletic success may effectively lead to an increase in donor gift giving amounts for males, while academic prestige may be effective in increasing donor giving amounts

for females. In addition, the giving amount behavior of graduates of one school may be different from that of other school graduates (e.g., medical and dental schools, school of liberal arts and science, law school). Therefore, the existing aggregated university level analysis, as found in prior studies, does not allow university marketers to address the CRM concern of how to implement a customized marketing plan (such as segmentation and targeting their marketing mix into appropriate segments) for increasing fundraising. This weakness can be overcome by analyzing individual level gift giving behavior as a function of university's brand building activities and examining heterogeneity in the effects of these activities on the donor giving behavior across different segments. This is because only the study of individual level responses can allow for the analysis of segment level giving for the customization implications.

Further, some research using survey data has examined how demographics and psychographics such as the age, gender, fraternity participation, and graduated college status of individual alumni, influence their giving behavior (e.g., Clotfelter, 2003; Monks, 2003; Okunade & Berl, 1997). However, this research evaluated alumni willingness to give as opposed to real giving decisions. While an intention may lead to a real giving behavior, intention is not always followed by action. Thus, a study modeling alumni real giving behaviors as a function of these demographics and psychographics is needed.

Finally regarding methodology, most empirical research to date on the association between athletic success and/or academic prestige and alumni giving is conducted at the university level by employing simple ordinary least squares (OLS) approach (Baade & Sundberg, 1996; Brooker & Klastorin, 1981; Grimes & Chressanthi, 1994). OLS regression contains several problems in analyzing alumni giving amount data. As Wooldridge (2002) indicates, the giving amount, the dependent variable, is always positive and often shows clustering phenomena on common whole dollar giving amounts (such as \$50, \$100, \$250, \$500, and so on), but the normal distribution assumed by OLS regression analysis is continuous and is supported on the entire real line of a dependent

variable. Accordingly, the estimates of results in OLS analyses may be biased. Specifically, the association generally has been investigated by employing a simple correlation analysis (Sigelman & Bookheimer, 1983) or a simple Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression model (e.g., Baade & Sundberg, 1996; Brooker & Klastorin, 1981; Clotfelter, 2001; Cunningham & Cochi-Ficano, 2002; Goff, 2000; Grimes & Chressanthi, 1994; Sigelman & Carter, 1979; Tucker, 2004). A few recent studies (Homes, Meditz, & Sommers, 2008; Monks, 2003) have employed a Tobit model to control for the non-negative characteristic of alumni giving amounts and a probit model to analyze alumni giving incidences as a function of athletic success and academic prestige and alumni demographics and psychographics. Other research (Hueston, 1992; Okunade, 1993; Okunade, 1996; Okunade & Berl, 1997; Lindahl & Winship, 1992) modeled alumni giving decision behavior instead of giving amount behavior by utilizing a binary logistic or binary probit model. University marketers may be more interested in real giving amount behavior rather than giving decision behavior (e.g., giving or not giving which can be analyzed by a binary logit or probit model). More importantly, the previously-used approaches cannot effectively handle clustering phenomena on common whole dollar giving amounts. These drawbacks can be overcome with the use of our ordered logit model analyzing alumni real giving amounts.

Data and Variables

Our individual level empirical analysis of alumnus gift-giving behaviors according to a university's brand building activities aims at addressing university marketers' CRM concern of their customized marketing plans. Since the information about the different effects of a university's brand building efforts on individual donor gift-giving behaviors across different donor segments can greatly help university marketers to implement their customized marketing plans, our study attempts to explore these different effects.

For this analysis, our study considers a variety of variables, including the dependent variable such as the individual alumnus gift-giving amount variable and the controlling

independent covariates such as individual alumnus demographic variables (i.e., age and gender) and their psychographic variables (i.e., fraternity membership and graduated college status) in addition to the focal independent covariates (i.e., university's branding building activities such as athletic success and academic performance).

Accordingly, we collected our data from various sources to contain all of these variables. Specifically, we first utilized a unique individual level alumnus gift-giving amount dataset, recording an individual donor's gift-giving amount behavior with the corresponding gift year and gift amount (serving as the dependent variable of this study), to collect data on our dependent variable such as the gift-giving amount. The time frame for the datasets is 1991 through 2003. In addition, we utilized another individual level dataset for a large United States (U.S.) public university, containing data on an individual donor's demographic and psychographic information such as their age, gender, fraternity membership, and graduated college status. These datasets were obtained from the fundraising office of the one university, an NCAA Division I institution in the Southern U.S. which ranks in the *US News and World Report* best colleges and whose enrollment is larger than 30,000.

We then merged the datasets by the individual alumnus identification variable. The combined individual level alumnus dataset contains the dependent variable and the demographic and psychographic covariates. In the combined dataset, we created binary indicator variables to represent an individual donor's demographic and psychographic information in an empirical analysis utilizing a regression model. Specifically, we created a demographic gender binary indicator (male equal to one) along with psychographic binary indicators such as fraternity membership (membership equal to one) and five college dummies for business (business graduate equal to one), law (law graduate equal to one), medical and dental (medical and dental graduate equal to one), engineering (engineering graduate equal to one), and liberal arts and science (liberal arts and science graduate equal to one) graduates. These five college dummies represent all the

colleges in the dataset, such as the five above-mentioned colleges and an "other" category which includes all the other colleges. Therefore, the "other" college category is the basis for these college dummies.

To account for inflation between 1991 and 2003, we collected Consumer Price Index (CPI) information from the Bureau of Labor statistics website, and adjusted the gift-giving amount variable in the combined dataset by these CPIs.

We further supplemented the combined dataset by adding athletic success and academic performance variables. Athletic success was measured using the winning percentage of the men's football team of the university (e.g., Baade & Sundberg, 1996) since empirical research in the literature finds that the performance of the men's football team represents a university's athletic success well. Academic success was measured using the *US News and World Report* ranking of the university's undergraduate program (Fisher, 2009; Holmes, 2009; Stinson & Howard, 2007).

Regarding the athletic success measure, we collected year-by-year data on the number of winning and the number of losing for the football team from the college football information website, and computed the football team's yearly winning percentage for the data time frame (from 1991 to 2003) by dividing the number of winning by the number of the total games. With regard to the academic prestige measure, we collected information on yearly *US News and World Report* ranking of the university's undergraduate program from 1991 to 2003 from the *US News and World Reports* best college magazine website². We multiplied the academic ranking by -1 to create the academic success variable since there is a negative association between this ranking and academic success in that if the ranking increases by number, the academic success decreases.

To fairly compare between the estimates of the covariates, we standardized the age variable as well as the athletic and academic success variables since the scales of these variables are different from the scale of the dummy variables such as gender, fraternity, and five college dummies. The standardization was not

implemented on binary indicators because these are dummy variables with values of either zero or one.

After this data handling, our final dataset contains 16,178 observations with eleven variables, including the gift-giving dependent variable and the above ten covariates. This final dataset comprises the information on individual alumnus gift-giving amount behavior and their demographics and psychographics, athletic success measured by the football team's winning percentage, and academic prestige. Utilizing these covariates enables us to analyze the effects of the university's athletic and academic success on the individual alumnus gift-giving behaviors and to identify heterogeneity on these effects across different alumnus segments. The description of each of these covariates is presented in Table 1.

Additionally, the summary statistics of the covariates are provided in Table 2, while correlations of the covariates are presented in Table 3. As can be observed from these tables, there seem to be no issues for statistical analysis regarding our covariates. Specifically, the minimum and maximum of all the binary indicators are zero and one, respectively. This demonstrates that the dummies were appropriately coded. Further, the mean and standard deviation of the standardized variables are zero and one respectively, indicating that the standardization process was successfully implemented. Finally, there are no significantly high correlations between the covariates, implying that multicollinearity does not seem to be a concern.

Empirical Model

To effectively deal with clustering on non-negative focal gift-giving amounts, we employ an Ordered Logit Regression (OLR) model. In the model, Y denotes the observed ordinal gift amount, and Y* indicates a continuous, unmeasured latent real gift amount whose values decide what the observed ordinal variable Y equals. Y* contains numerous threshold points representing clustering on common whole dollar gift-giving amounts such as \$50, \$100, \$250, \$500, \$1,000, \$5,000, \$10,000, \$25,000, \$50,000, and \$100,000 (Weerts & Ronca, 2009). The value on the

observed ordinal variable Y depends on these threshold points. To reflect the actual clustering on these non-negative focal gift-giving amounts, for individual donor *i*, the values of *Y_i* and the cutoff points are defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y_i &= 1 \text{ if } Y_i^* \leq 50, \\
 Y_i &= 2 \text{ if } 50 < Y_i^* \leq 100, \\
 Y_i &= 3 \text{ if } 100 < Y_i^* \leq 250, \\
 Y_i &= 4 \text{ if } 250 < Y_i^* \leq 500, \\
 Y_i &= 5 \text{ if } 500 < Y_i^* \leq 1,000, \\
 Y_i &= 6 \text{ if } 1,000 < Y_i^* \leq 5,000, \\
 Y_i &= 7 \text{ if } 5,000 < Y_i^* \leq 10,000, \\
 Y_i &= 8 \text{ if } 10,000 < Y_i^* \leq 25,000, \\
 Y_i &= 9 \text{ if } 25,000 < Y_i^* \leq 50,000, \\
 Y_i &= 10 \text{ if } 50,000 < Y_i^* \leq 100,000, \\
 Y_i &= 11 \text{ if } Y_i^* > 100,000.
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{1}$$

Then, the probability that *Y_i* takes on a particular value is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(Y_i=1) &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\alpha_1 + \beta'X_i - 50)}, \\
 P(Y_i=2) &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\alpha_2 + \beta'X_i - 100)} - \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\alpha_2 + \beta'X_i - 50)}, \\
 P(Y_i=3) &= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\alpha_3 + \beta'X_i - 250)} - \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\alpha_3 + \beta'X_i - 100)}, \\
 &\dots \\
 P(Y_i=11) &= 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \exp(\alpha_{11} + \beta'X_i - 100,000)},
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2}$$

where X denotes a vector of the covariates, $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \dots, \alpha_{11}$ are intercepts, and β denotes the vector of the corresponding coefficient estimates for individual donor *i*.

RESULTS

Empirical Analysis

We estimated our OLR model using the SAS software package with maximum likelihood estimation. Table 4 summarizes the maximum likelihood estimation results from a series of model specifications of our OLR model, from

**TABLE 1:
Description of the Covariates**

Categories		Covariates	Definition
University’s Brand Building Activities		Athletic Success	Men football team’s winning percentage.
		Academic Success	<i>US News and World Report</i> ranking of the undergraduate school × -1.
Individual Donor’ Demographics and Psycho- graphics	Demographics	Age	Donor’s age.
		Gender	Binary indicator equal to one if donor is male and zero otherwise.
	Psychographics	Fraternity	Binary indicator equal to one if donor joined the fraternity and sorority club and zero otherwise.
	Psychographics - College Dummies	Business	Binary indicator equal to one if donor is a graduate of engineering school and zero otherwise.
		Law	Binary indicator equal to one if donor is a business school graduate and zero otherwise.
		Medical & Dental	Binary indicator equal to one if donor is a medical or dental school graduate and zero otherwise.
		Engineering	Binary indicator equal to one if donor is an engineering school graduate and zero otherwise.
		Liberal Arts & Science	Binary indicator equal to one if donor is a graduate of liberal arts and science and zero otherwise.

Notes:

1. Athletic success is measured by the winning percentage of University’s men football team, and academic success is measured by the *US News and World Report* ranking of University’s undergraduate program × -1.
2. All the colleges are represented by the five above-specified college dummies and the “other” college category dummy. Therefore, the “other” college category is the basis for these college dummies.

**TABLE 2:
Descriptive Statistics**

Covariates	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Sports Success	0.000	1.000	-2.131	1.369
Academic Success	0.000	1.000	-0.765	1.532
Age	0.000	1.000	-2.588	4.023
Gender (Male)	0.584	0.493	0.000	1.000
Fraternity	0.154	0.361	0.000	1.000
Business	0.177	0.381	0.000	1.000
Law	0.051	0.219	0.000	1.000
Medical & Dental	0.088	0.283	0.000	1.000
Engineering	0.128	0.334	0.000	1.000
Liberal Arts and Science	0.131	0.338	0.000	1.000

Note. 1:

The number of observations is 16,178.

**TABLE 3:
Correlations**

Covariates	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Athletic Success	1.000									
2. Academic Success	0.039**	1.000								
3. Age	-0.039**	0.061**	1.000							
4. Gender (Male)	-0.014	0.023*	0.163**	1.000						
5. Fraternity	-0.007	0.005	0.037**	0.058**	1.000					
6. Business	0.006	0.001	-0.101**	0.085**	0.096**	1.000				
7. Law	-0.007	0.007	0.064**	0.096**	-0.023*	-0.107**	1.000			
8. Medical & Dental	0.002	0.001	0.055**	-0.083**	-0.081**	-0.144**	-0.072**	1.000		
9. Engineering	-0.012	0.018*	0.047**	0.242**	-0.018*	-0.178**	-0.089**	-0.119**	1.000	
10. Liberal Arts & Science	0.015	-0.024*	-0.235**	-0.037**	0.018*	-0.180**	-0.090**	-0.121**	-0.149**	1.000

Notes.:

1. The number of observations is 16,178.

2. ** = $p < 0.01$, * = $p < 0.05$.

the simplest one with only the university's brand-building covariates (Model 1), to more complex specifications with these brand-building covariates and individual donor demographic and psychographic covariates (Models 2 and 3), to the full model specification (Model 4) with interaction terms between brand building and gender and fraternity.

Regarding the goodness of fit of the four specifications of the OLR model, Model 4 (the full specification) fits best over the other models according to Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) since Model 4 yields the smallest AIC. These goodness of fit results suggest that the inclusion of individual donor's demographic and psychographic variables and the interaction terms (investigating the effects of university's brand building activities on alumnus gift-giving behaviors across different gender and fraternity groups) in addition to university's brand building variables in the full model significantly improves the fit over the other models. As such, we affirm the stability of our empirical findings and gain insights into the empirical results based on the full specification.

Empirical Results

Based on the reliability of the empirical results, we analyze how university's brand building activities and individual donor demographics and psychographics influence individual alumnus gift-giving amount behaviors, and how the effects of the brand building activities on alumnus giving behavior vary across different gender and fraternity segments of the alumni.

Regarding the University's brand building covariates, both the athletic success and academic success variables are statistically significant at the one percent level, as shown in the maximum likelihood estimates of the covariates obtained from the full model in Table 4. The coefficient of athletic success is positive, but that of academic success is negative, which indicates that the university's athletic (especially football) success increases alumni giving, while academic prestige decreases alumni giving. In terms of magnitude, the effect of academic success is larger than that of athletic success on alumni giving amounts because the coefficient estimate of academic success is larger than that of athletic success.

TABLE 4:
Maximum Likelihood Estimation Results for the Four Specifications of the OLR model

Covariates	Coefficient	Specification 1	Specification 2	Specification 3	Specification 4
University's Brand Building Activity					
Athletic Success (Football team's winning %)	β_1	0.066**	0.084**	0.084**	0.043**
Academic Success (Ranking \times -1)	β_2	-0.078**	-0.097**	-0.098**	-0.016**
Donor Demographics and Psychographics					
Age	β_3		0.193**	0.196**	0.194**
Gender (Male)	β_4		0.740**	0.757**	0.174*
Fraternity	β_5		0.284**	0.299**	-0.143
Business	β_6			0.226**	0.227**
Law	β_7			0.465**	0.468**
Medical & Dental	β_8			0.561**	0.562**
Engineering	β_9			-0.100	-0.098
Liberal Arts & Science	β_{10}			0.07891*	0.078*
Interaction Terms					
Sports Success \cdot Gender (Male)	β_{11}				0.668**
Academic Success \cdot Gender (Male)	β_{12}				-0.007**
Sports Success \cdot Fraternity	β_{13}				0.500
Academic Success \cdot Fraternity	β_{14}				-0.005*
AIC		49,504.29	48,533.640	48,366.85	48,349.29

Notes:

1. ** = $p < 0.01$, * = $p < 0.05$.

2. AIC denotes Akaike Information Criterion whose value is computed via $-2\ln L + 2k$, where L denotes Likelihood function of the OLR model and k denotes the number of parameters to be estimated.

In regard to the effects of individual alumnus demographic traits on their giving behavior, age is statistically significant and its estimate is positive, which implies that the effects of age increase alumni gift giving amounts. Thus, older alumni are likely to give more to the university than younger alumni. Regarding gender, there is a statistically significant impact and positive estimate of gender on alumni gift giving amounts. This means that male donors tend to give more to the university than female donors. Between these demographics, the impact of gender on alumni giving tends to be larger than that of age, as shown in Table 4.

With respect to individual alumnus psychographic traits, the fraternity variable is statistically insignificant. The variable is statistically significant and its coefficient estimate is positive in Model Specification 3, the one without the interaction terms. However, this variable turns out to be insignificant after including the interaction terms between

fraternity and each of the brand building variables in the full model. Likewise, the main fraternity effect becomes insignificant after including the interaction terms.

Regarding another psychographic trait, the donor's graduated college status, variables such as business, law, medical and dental, and liberal arts and science are statistically significant and their coefficient estimates are positive. The estimation results of graduated college major indicate that graduates of the colleges of business, law, medical and dental, and liberal arts and science give more than graduates of other colleges. Compared to other colleges, graduates of medical dental school give the most, followed by law school graduates; business school and liberal arts and science graduates place third and fourth, respectively.

To investigate the effects of the university's brand building activities on individual alumnus gift-giving amounts across different alumnus

segments defined by their different demographics and psychographics (such as their gender and fraternity), the full specification model included the interaction terms between each of the brand building variables and gender and the interaction terms between each of the brand building variables and fraternity. The inclusion of these interaction terms enables us to examine how the effects of the university's brand building activities on donor donation amounts vary across different donor segments defined by alumni demographic and psychographic traits.

Regarding the interaction terms between each of the brand building variables and gender on alumni giving amounts, both the interaction terms are statistically significant. The coefficient of the interaction between athletic success and gender is positive, whereas that of the interaction between academic success and gender is negative. The estimate of the athletic success and gender interaction term is larger than that of the academic success and gender interaction term, implying that male alumni are likely to give more than female alumni for athletic success, but female alumni tend to give more for academic success. Additionally, male alumni giving for athletic success is larger than that in female alumni giving for academic success.

With regard to fraternity segmentation, only the interaction term between academic success and fraternity is statistically significant and its coefficient estimate is negative. Based on the result, we find that alumni who joined a university fraternity group are likely to be interested in academic success rather than athletic success, and are likely to give more when the university academic reputation decreases, apparently as a reputation protection mechanism (Holmes, 2009). In other words, this segment of the alumni responds to only the academic success. Athletic success does not increase their giving amounts.

DISCUSSION

Theoretical and Practical Implications

Responding to the need to comprehend the critical role of individual alumnus gift-giving behavior for nonprofit universities, this study

examined which factors influence a university's individual alumnus gift-giving amounts. In the examination, we identified key factors in individual alumnus donation decisions. Through a series of empirical analyses, these key factors shed light on university brand building efforts to achieve athletic success and academic prestige.

The modeling techniques used in our analysis are likely to be applicable to many other CRM contexts, especially for nonprofit organizations including universities. The substantive results related to the effects of athletic success and academic prestige on gift-giving are particularly noteworthy. In contrast to previous research, we examine this relationship at the individual level for customization insights enabling us to make segment level judgments via an OLR model. This model accounts for the characteristics of alumnus gift-giving amounts – often exhibiting common whole dollar giving amounts.

When these giving amount characteristics are controlled for, we find that athletic success positively contributes to the increase of alumni giving, and academic success negatively influences alumni giving amounts. The negative link between academic success and alumni giving is like to occur because alumni tend to increase their donations to improve or protect their institution's academic reputation when academic prestige decreases (Holmes, 2009). Among the effects of these two, academic prestige has a larger effect than athletic success. Alumni giving amounts increase as they become older, and males are more likely to give than females. An alumni's major also plays a significant role in giving amount decisions. Compared to other majors, graduates of medical and dental schools give the most, followed by law school graduates; business school and liberal arts and science graduates place third and fourth, respectively.

For university marketers' customized marketing plans for individual donors, we also explored how the brand building activities, such as athletic and academic performance, influence different alumnus segments defined by their demographics and psychographics. To do so, we included the interaction terms between athletic and academic performance and gender

and fraternity membership in our full model. The inclusion of these interaction terms allowed us to examine how the effects of a university's brand-building activities on alumni giving vary across different segments, defined by their demographic and psychographic traits.

Regarding gender segmentation, we find that male alumni tend to give more than female alumni when the university achieves athletic success, but female alumni tend to give more when the university achieves academic excellence. Regarding the increased effects of these different gender groups according to athletic success or academic prestige, an increase in male alumni giving for athletic success tends to be larger than that of female alumni giving for academic success. With regard to fraternity segmentation, we find that academic success is only significant in the giving amount decisions of alumni who have been fraternity members, and athletic success has no impact on the giving amount decisions of alumni with fraternity membership. We also find that alumni with fraternity membership tend to give more when the university's academic prestige decreases. This affirms Holmes (2009) findings that these alumni are likely to give more to increase or protect the university's academic reputation when academic prestige decreases.

These findings suggest that fundraising can be improved by better utilizing information about alumni. First, it appears that investments in athletic programs can increase general alumni giving amounts. When university academic prestige decreases, it will be effective to contact alumni to give more towards protecting or improving their university's academic reputation. Among the two brand building efforts, academic prestige is likely to attract more giving than athletic success.

Second, university fundraising managers need to pay attention to heterogeneity between alumnus demographic and psychographic traits. Although they need to focus on male alumni since male alumni generally are likely to give more than female alumni, they should focus on male alumni when the university achieves athletic success, but focus on female alumni when the university achieves academic excellence. In addition, the university marketers

should focus on alumni with fraternity membership when the university is experiencing its decrease in academic prestige because these alumni will increase giving. Further, university marketers need to focus respectively on alumni graduated from medical and dental, law, business, and liberal arts and science. Marketing efforts will be more efficient and effective when appropriately targeted.

Since athletic success increases male alumni giving much more than female alumni giving and academic success results in female alumni giving much more than male alumni giving, it may be beneficial to customize promotional appeals based on gender. For example, if the football team has a good performance in a given year, it may be useful to increase contacts to male alumni. Likewise, it may be beneficial to increase contacts to female alumni when academic excellence increases in a given year. Because alumni who joined university fraternities or sororities respond significantly to a decrease in academic excellence, it may also be beneficial to increase promotion efforts to these alumni when academic prestige declines. These empirical findings can provide university marketing managers with significant customization insights and implications for the CRM concerns of their marketing plans.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

While our empirical findings provide evidence that universities influence gift-giving amounts for certain classes of alumni, there are several caveats to our research that can be addressed in our future research. These limitations stem mainly from the datasets utilized in this study. Most importantly, our research focuses on gifts from alumni who graduated from one US public university, but gifts come not only from alumni but also from faculty, staff, volunteers, supporters, and students (Borden, Shaker, & Kienker, 2014; Bruggink & Siddiqui, 1995; Weerts & Ronca, 2007). Extending our study to a broader dataset including gifts from these people would give us more generalizable results.

In addition, analyzing individual alumnus gift-giving behaviors for a private university in a

future study would yield further insights since their giving behaviors may differ from the behaviors for a public university (Baade & Sundberg, 1996). Since our analysis focuses on the effects of academic and athletic (especially) successes on alumni giving behaviors of one public NCAA Division I university, it will be also beneficial in the future to analyze alumni giving behaviors for a university that does not have its football team, a university that does not have a medical or dental program, or a university in the NCAA Division II or Division III.

Next, the fraternity membership variable includes both a fraternity or sorority membership. Although the effect of joining a fraternity membership during campus on giving behavior might be different from that of joining a sorority membership, we could not analyze these different effects mainly due to data limitation. Specifically, we could not separate the effects of alumni who joined a fraternity membership and a sorority membership. Also, the liberal arts and science variable includes alumni from both the colleges. Therefore, we could not separate the effects on graduates of the college of liberal arts from those of the college of sciences. Our future research may address these issues.

Furthermore, while the database is fairly rich and we have supplemented the individual alumnus data with information on athletic and academic success, the income variable is missing in our dataset. Since income might be correlated with age, it might be difficult to examine whether age impacts alumni-gift giving or income impacts their giving if there is a correlation between age and income. Likewise, income might be associated with the major from which the alumnus graduated. If so, it might be difficult to investigate whether income is the main driver or major is the main driver of alumni giving. As such, it will be beneficial if we collect information on additional demographics such as income in our future study, which will enable us to explore exact effects of age, major, and income on alumni giving behavior. Also, information on the marital status, the spouse status, and the family size is missing in the dataset. Since the effects on alumni giving behavior vary depending on these variables, it will be

interesting to incorporate these variables in a future study.

Next, our empirical results indicate that since male alumni generally give more than female alumni, university fundraising managers should focus on those male alumni. Yet this result may be unclear because family giving typically is aggregated under a single name, which may be the name of the male. Our future research will be enhanced by collecting data to further examine this relationship. However, the fact that male alumni give more than female alumni in general may suggest an opportunity for fundraising managers to develop marketing plans to better target and encourage female alumni to give.

Next, it will be beneficial if we analyze the effects of academic and athletic successes on giving behaviors of alumni who did not complete their undergraduate or completed their degree less than 4 years. Also, analyzing if the donor was a legacy will be interesting. Moreover, we will draw better customization implications if we divide an alumni population into several segments based on a finite-mixture model framework (Durango-Cohen & Balasubramanian, 2015) or a segmentation approach (McAlexander, Koenig, & DuFault, 2016) and generate segment-level estimates.

Finally, our study could not incorporate promotional variables that the university marketers have adopted as university brand building activities into our empirical analysis due to a data limitation. We could extend the current study to examine how different types of promotion and promotional timing impact alumni giving. In particular, the development of an individual-level model can be of great value, since it would enable managers to use customized marketing interventions that consider individual giving histories and responsiveness to promotions, as well as higher-level factors, such as athletic success. Also, we focused on the two university's branding building activities such as athletic success and academic prestige in this empirical study. However, another building activity such as building affinity needs to be considered because marketing activities in building affinity may impact alumni giving (McAlexander, Koenig, & DuFault, 2014).

CONCLUSION

This study examines the link between a university's brand-building activities and alumnus gift-giving amounts at the individual level by employing an ordered logit model that accounts for clustering on non-negative gift-giving amounts. This research also takes into account heterogeneity in the effects of the university brand-building efforts on individual alumnus gift-giving behaviors across different alumnus segments based on their demographics and psychographics by including these demographic and psychographic traits and the interaction terms between the branding building variables and these traits.

This study finds that the effects of a university's brand-building activities, such as athletic success and academic prestige, on alumni gift-giving behaviors are significant, but the effects vary across different alumnus segments with their demographics and psychographics. In other words, the study is able to identify how different alumnus segments with different demographic and psychographic traits respond to a university's brand-building efforts. The empirical results based on this individual level analysis provide significant customization insights and implications to university marketing managers. University marketers can more accurately conduct customized marketing plans for fundraising by better understanding the significant associations described in our research.

REFERENCES

- Baade, R. A., & Sundberg, J. O. (1996). Fourth down and gold to go? Assessing the link between athletics and alumni giving. *Social Science Quarterly*, 77(4), 789-803.
- Bergmann, B. R. (1991). Do sports really make money for the university?. *Academe*, 77(1), 28-30.
- Borden, V. M., Shaker, G. G., & Kienker, B. L. (2014). The impact of alumni status on institutional giving by faculty and staff. *Research in Higher Education*, 55(2), 196-217.
- Brooker, G. W., & Klastorin, T. D. (1981). College Athletics and Alumni Giving. *Social Science Quarterly*, 62(4), 744.
- Bruggink, T. H., & Siddiqui, K. (1995). An econometric model of alumni giving: A case study for a liberal arts college. *The American Economist*, 39(2), 53-60.
- Caudill, S. B., & Mixon, F. G. (1996). Winning and ticket allotments in college football. *The Social Science Journal*, 33(4), 451-457.
- Clotfelter, C. T. (2001). Who are the alumni donors? Giving by two generations of alumni from selective colleges. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 12(2), 119-138.
- Clotfelter, C. T. (2003). Alumni giving to elite private colleges and universities. *Economics of Education review*, 22(2), 109-120.
- Coughlin, C. C., & Erikson, O. H. (1984). An examination of contributions to support intercollegiate athletics. *Southern Economic Journal*, 51(1), 180-195.
- Council for Aid to Education. (2013). Colleges and universities raise \$33.80 billion in 2013. Retrieved from <http://cae.org/images/uploads/pdf/VSE-2013-Press-Release.pdf>
- Cunningham, B. M., & Cochi-Ficano, C. K. (2002). The determinants of donative revenue flows from alumni of higher education: An empirical inquiry. *Journal of Human Resources*, 37(3), 540-569.
- Cutlip, S. M. (1965). *Fund raising in the United States: Its role in America's philanthropy*. New Brunswick: Transaction Publishers.
- Durango-Cohen, E. J., & Balasubramanian, S. K. (2015). Effective Segmentation of University Alumni: Mining Contribution Data with Finite-Mixture Models. *Research in Higher Education*, 56(1), 78-104.
- Eckel, C. C., & Grossman, P. J. (1998). Are women less selfish than men?: Evidence from dictator experiments. *The Economic Journal*, 108(448), 726-735.
- Fisher, B. (2009). Athletics success and institutional rankings. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 2009(148), 45-53.
- Gaski, J. F., & Etzel, M. J. (1984). Collegiate athletic success and alumni generosity: Dispelling the myth. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 12(1), 29-38.
- Goff, B. (2000). Effects of university athletics on the university: A review and extension of empirical assessment. *Journal of Sport Management*, 14(2), 85-104.

- Grimes, P. W., & Chressanthis, G. A. (1994). Alumni contributions to academics. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 53(1), 27-40.
- Harrison, W. B., Mitchell, S. K., & Peterson, S. P. (1995). Alumni donations and colleges' development expenditures: Does spending matter?. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 54(4), 397-412.
- Holmes, J. (2009). Prestige, charitable deductions and other determinants of alumni giving: Evidence from a highly selective liberal arts college. *Economics of Education Review*, 28(1), 18-28.
- Holmes, J. A., Meditz, J. A., & Sommers, P. M. (2008). Athletics and alumni giving evidence from a highly selective liberal arts college. *Journal of Sports Economics*, 9(5), 538-552.
- Hueston, F. R. (1992). Predicting alumni giving: A donor analysis test. *Fund Raising Management*, 23(5), 19-22.
- Lindahl, W. E., & Winship, C. (1992). Predictive models for annual fundraising and major gift fundraising. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 3(1), 43-64.
- McAlexander, J. H., Koenig, H. F., & DuFault, B. (2014). Advancement in higher education: the role of marketing in building philanthropic giving. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education*, 24(2), 243-256.
- McAlexander, J. H., Koenig, H. F., & DuFault, B. (2016). Millennials and Boomers: increasing alumni affinity and intent to give by target market segmentation. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 21(2), 82-95.
- McCormick, R. E., & Tinsley, M. (1987). Athletics versus academics? Evidence from SAT scores. *Journal of Political Economy*, 95(5), 1103-1116.
- Meer, J., & Rosen, H. S. (2009). The impact of athletic performance on alumni giving: An analysis of microdata. *Economics of Education Review*, 28(3), 287-294.
- Monks, J. (2003). Patterns of giving to one's alma mater among young graduates from selective institutions. *Economics of Education Review*, 22(2), 121-130.
- Okunade, A. A. (1993). Logistic regression and probability of business school alumni donations: Micro-data evidence. *Education Economics*, 1(3), 243-258.
- Okunade, A. A. (1996). Graduate school alumni donations to academic funds: Micro-data evidence. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 55(2), 213-229.
- Okunade, A. A., & Berl, R. L. (1997). Determinants of charitable giving of business school alumni. *Research in Higher Education*, 38(2), 201-214.
- Okunade, A., Wunnava, P. V., & Walsh Jr, R. (1994). Charitable giving of alumni: micro-data evidence from a large public university. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*, 53(1), 73-84.
- Rhoads, T. A., & Gerking, S. (2000). Educational contributions, academic quality, and athletic success. *Contemporary Economic Policy*, 18(2), 248-258.
- Sigelman, L., & Bookheimer, S. (1983). Is it whether you win or lose? Monetary contributions to big-time college athletic programs. *Social Science Quarterly*, 64(2), 347.
- Sigelman, L., & Carter, R. (1979). Win one for the giver? Alumni giving and big-time college sports. *Social Science Quarterly*, 60(2), 284-294.
- Stinson, J. L., & Howard, D. R. (2007). Athletic success and private giving to athletic and academic programs at NCAA institutions. *Journal of Sport Management*, 21(2), 235.
- Tucker, I. B. (2004). A reexamination of the effect of big-time football and basketball success on graduation rates and alumni giving rates. *Economics of Education Review*, 23(6), 655-661.
- Turner, S. E., Meserve, L. A., & Bowen, W. G. (2001). Winning and giving: Football results and alumni giving at selective private colleges and universities. *Social Science Quarterly*, 82(4), 812-826.
- University of Virginia. (2013). Financial report 2013-14. Retrieved from http://www.virginia.edu/execvp/files/UVA_FR_2013_2014.pdf
- Weerts, D. J., & Ronca, J. M. (2007). Profiles of supportive alumni: Donors, volunteers, and those who "do it all". *International Journal of Educational Advancement*, 7(1), 20-34.
- Weerts, D. J., & Ronca, J. M. (2009). Using classification trees to predict alumni giving for higher education. *Education Economics*, 17(1), 95-122.

¹<http://www.bls.gov/cpi/>

²<http://www.usnews.com/rankings>

This research was partially supported by
Hankuk University of Foreign Studies.