



Creating Value Through Best Practices

**2016 Annual Spring Conference
Proceedings**

Editors

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Dear MMA Friends:

It continues to be my honor to serve in a leadership role in the Marketing Management Association. I have made close friends and met many wonderful colleagues from around the world as a result of MMA. I continue to be inspired by MMA members' research and teaching. MMA is known for its collegiate atmosphere and a commitment to academic excellence, student learning and professional development. The Spring 2016 Conference builds on this tradition.

I want to extend a heartfelt thank you to the track chairs for their work in managing the paper review process. These dedicated chairs do much of the heavy lifting when it comes to ensuring a quality program and have made my job much easier. In addition, I'd like to recognize the reviewers and conference session chairs who help to make the conference a success.

Thank you to Brent Smith and Lisa Lindgren for their hard work in serving as the conference proceedings co-editors. Also thank you to Lyle Wetsch for making the conference program available online.

Congratulations to Dawn Deeter-Schmelz for being selected as the 2016 MMA Marketing Innovator Award recipient. It is great to have the opportunity to recognize a former MMA board member who is at the forefront of sales management education and research.

Please take the opportunity to visit with the exhibitors who support the conference. They help to make the pricing a great value for everyone and offer many resources that assist with marketing education. I look forward to seeing everyone again at the 2016 MMA Fall Educators' Conference, September 14-16, 2016 in Providence, Rhode Island!

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads "Pamela A. Kennett-Hensel". The signature is written in a cursive style with a large initial 'P' and 'K'.

Pamela A. Kennett-Hensel, Program Chair

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In 1995, the Board of Directors initiated action to honor Marketing Management Association members who have served the Association and the profession particularly well with the designation “Fellow of the Marketing Management Association.” Fellows of the Association are also designated as life members. We continue to honor those who have served, as each richly deserves the gratitude and approbation the title of Fellow is intended to convey.

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Water Conservation on Campus: Experimental Study Examining the Role of Advertising and Technology in Promoting Water Conservation Among College Students

Janna Parker, Amit Poddar, Doreen Sams, and Kalina Manoylov

Firooz Hekmat Best Paper in Consumer Behavior Award Winner

Product Information and Consumer Choice Confidence in Multi-Item Sales Promotions

Demetra Andrews

John Berens Best Paper in Marketing Education Award Winner

Student and Client Perceptions of Experiential Learning for Marketing Education with Two Non-Profit Organizations

Allison M. Wolfe

Paul Arney Best Paper in Services, Sales & Retailing Award Winner

Examining Gender-Orientation and Service-Status Stereotyping Perceptions of Services: An Exploratory Study with Millennials

Musa Pinar, Coleen Wilder, Adriana Filipek, and Gokhan Karaatli

Sports, Events & Recreation Marketing Track

An Investigation of the Marketing Efforts of NCAA HBCU Football Classics

E. Newton Jackson, Jr., Robert Lyons, Jr., Fritz Polite, and Charles Crowley

McGraw-Hill/Irwin Distinguished Best MMA Conference Paper Award Winner

Product Information and Consumer Choice Confidence in Multi-Item Sales Promotions

Demetra Andrews

TABLE OF CONTENTS

MARKETING MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION OFFICERS	iii
FELLOWS OF THE MARKETING MANAGEMENT ASSOCIATION	iv
2016 SPRING CONFERENCE TRACK CHAIRS	v
2016 SPRING CONFERENCE REVIEWERS.....	vi
CONFERENCE BEST PAPER AWARDS	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
REFERREED PAPERS	1
EXTENDED ABSTRACTS	88
PANEL POSITION PAPERS.....	167

THE SACI APPROACH FOR TEACHING MARKETING STRATEGY: THE STUDENT-AUTHORED CLIENT- INTENSIVE PARALLEL CASE STUDY

David Aron, Dominican University

ABSTRACT

A student-authored case study approach is used in an MBA marketing strategy course. Challenges presented by the case method include lack of client interaction, aging of the story told by the case study, and student temptation to look up the outcome of the case. Students work in teams and solo in creating case studies based on interactions with real clients, focusing on marketing issues to serve as the content of their respective projects. Students then teach their case study to classmates. Insights and applications for this method from the instructor and past students are included.

INTRODUCTION

Case studies in marketing strategy courses, for MBAs and undergraduates alike, are a popular learning tool and have been the subject of several studies on teaching and learning (Weber and Kirk 2000; Hernandez, 2002; Heriot, Cook, Jones, and Simpson, 2008). They offer many benefits, including exposing the students to real-world situations and demanding the synthesis and analysis of great amounts of information from multiple perspectives. The case study method is not without challenges to instructors. For example, the use of case studies in the classroom offers little opportunity for direct interaction with a client. Furthermore, the situations depicted in case studies have occurred in the past and sometimes many years, even decades, before the semester in which they are used. The age of the case studies, and perhaps the diminished prominence or even dissolution of the focal company, may bias students against the relevance of the case to their learning. Case studies are created to be self-contained and instructors may feel compelled to explicitly forbid students from seeking outside information. Not only is the pursuit of external information a difficult temptation for students to resist, particularly with such easy access to countless Internet resources, but also it places the instructor in the role of disciplinarian and, ironically, as the withholder of information.

The following is a presentation and explanation of a teaching innovation that maintains the benefits of the case study method while

overcoming many of its challenges. This innovation, called the student-authored client-intensive parallel case study (SACI) approach, incorporates elements of the case method while adding direct interaction with a real client, group work, and student-led presentation and teaching opportunities. The approach presented asks students to create two case studies in parallel: one on their own and one with a team.

BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDENT-AUTHORED APPROACH

Case studies offer a description of a business challenge faced by a person or a team of people representing an organization. This document will often include figures and tables that present industrial data, balance sheets, financial summaries, and even sample advertisements. The marketing issues faced by the protagonists of the case study may be stated explicitly or may be more subtle, perhaps recognizable only to the more sophisticated students.

Instructors using case studies have access to instructor notes. This document, withheld from students, includes more background information about the situation described by the case study. Instructor notes also include suggestions on how to run the class, such as discussion questions, recommendations regarding which analytic tools to incorporate, even ideas about the pacing of the class meeting (Peterson, 2001; Greiner, Bhambri, and Cummings, 2003). These notes are provided to

give the instructor enough information to successfully conduct an educational, productive discussion session regarding the case study.

Research on marketing and business pedagogy has explored the idea of student-authored case studies (Young, Klemz, and Murphy 2003; Helms, Alvis, and Wills, 2005), a teaching approach that puts the background research and writing of the case study in the hands of the student. There are several different ways that an instructor can use the student-authored approach in the classroom. For example, an instructor might ask students to perform an in-depth study of a company through any number of sources in order to replicate, as closely as possible, a published case study. This approach might include actually meeting a manager or representative of a firm, or might consist entirely of secondary research methods. In either case, such a project might be conducted by individuals or by teams of students

THE INNOVATION: STUDENT-AUTHORED, CLIENT-INTENSIVE CASE STUDIES (SACI)

The SACI approach is an extension of the student-authored case study, or SAC (Helms, *et al*, 2005). As the name suggests, the student-authored case study puts the writing of the case, along with the research necessary to create such a document, in the hands of the student.

The innovation under discussion takes SACs into the realm of combined primary and secondary research by introducing a real-world client into the instruction process, the student-authored client-intensive case study (SACI). In the approach described below, students are brought into direct (or virtual) contact with an entrepreneur, a manager, or a team engaged in an actual marketing environment, facing their own set of marketing challenges and issues.

This SACI approach goes further by presenting a parallel approach to student-authored case studies. This MBA-level marketing strategy class requires students to create two SACI projects over the course of a 15 week semester. One such assignment is written as part of a team project, while the other is developed as an individual project. In both cases, real-world firms are engaged as clients, and students complete a series of project-related exercises and presentations in order to create “client-ready” case studies and notes for their individual contacts within the firm. This paper will illustrate this parallel process and its benefits in more detail, with emphasis on the procedure and benefits of the team assignment.

SACIs and Course Objectives

The challenge of enhancing the case study experience of MBA students at this Masters-level University can be examined at different levels. There exist objectives for the marketing course curriculum as well as what are referred to as the “three pillars” at the core of this business school’s identity. Marketing courses in this University curriculum have these common objectives:

- Understanding of marketing and marketing strategy concepts on a local and global level
- Analysis and synthesis of marketing environment and opportunities
- Problem recognition and problem solving
- Written and oral communications
- Team effectiveness
- Ethical awareness

Fundamental to the Business School are what is known as the school’s three pillars: ethical decision making and behavior, global impact, and entrepreneurial spirit.

The conversion of this marketing strategy course into one using the SACI approach addresses the above sets of objectives. The ways that this model meets these objectives will be discussed in a later section.

The Student-Authored, Client-Intensive Case Study

The incorporation of client-based student-authored case studies can be seen in four interrelated stages: class orientation, client visit and discovery, case and client note creation, and presentation and feedback. Each will be discussed below.

Stage 1: Class orientation.

This marketing strategy course is offered every spring semester, January through April or early May. The class is filled with upper-level MBA students who have already taken at least one other graduate level marketing course as a prerequisite. This course is a requirement for those wanting to formally concentrate their MBA in the area of marketing.

When students arrive at the beginning of the marketing strategy course, they are generally familiar with the case study method through their previous coursework, either in previous MBA classes or through their undergraduate work. This is not always the case, however and the approach used in this innovation, particularly involving student authorship and live clients, is quite distinct from the more traditional method. Therefore, to orient the students, a published case study is employed to refresh student familiarity

with the case method and serve as a springboard to the new model. The Harvard case study *Twitter* (Piskorski, Chen, and Smith, 2014) has been used for this purpose. The case study is made available for students to purchase online before the course begins.

When the marketing strategy students first meet, class time is dedicated to the usual course overview and student introductions. Students are also told that they are going to write two case studies, one on their own and one as part of a team. During the second part of this meeting, students are asked to work as a unit (or divided into smaller teams for this purpose) and create a list of questions that they need to ask of visiting clients in order to gain enough information to create their own case study. Students generally come up with similar sets of questions. The role of the instructor in this case is to facilitate discussion, often asking students to clarify their meaning and prod them to think of questions that might otherwise be left out. The author has created a standard list of questions that might be used as a guide (available from the author upon request). This list is not explicitly shared with students but can serve as an instructor's guide to be sure all relevant questions are included.

Between the first two meetings, students are asked to apply their list of questions to the published case study. When the students return to the classroom, they discuss the case study in a fairly typical manner, with emphasis on the challenges of gleaning the desired information from a static document. It is during this meeting that the concept of the teaching note is presented (without, of course, sharing any such published document). For the purposes of this course, and for the needs of our clients, the teaching note is then modified into what is called a client note.

While the teaching note is meant to be a guide and supplement for the benefit of the instructor using a particular case study, our client note is meant to be more of an answer key for the benefit of our client. That is, the student-authored case study presents the background and status of our client and their marketing situation. The client note offers our class recommendations.

Stage 2: Client visit and discovery.

The introduction of the class clients to the students occurs along two different paths: solo clients, managed by students individually, and team clients, presented to the entire class.

Students are aware that they will create a case study on behalf of a client of their own choosing. This business must exist as a going concern, even if in the early start-up stages. Often, students work with their current employer or a family or friend's business. Each year, the instructor has been called upon to help one or

two students find a suitable client from the local community.

In addition, prior to the start of the semester the instructor arranges for three or four clients to visit the classroom, depending on the class size. Before a session including a client visit begins, the instructor divides the class into a number of groups (typically four), with one named the "lead team" that will end up adopting the client and writing the case study and client notes for that firm.

The class is three hours long and each client visit is divided into three parts. First, the guest is invited to share with the class their business history and background, including their concerns about marketing. This could involve one overwhelming issue or a multitude of issues. Students rely on the questions they developed earlier in the semester to gather as much information as possible from the client.

The second part of the visit involves the student teams engaging in group discussion in order to arrive at their own perceptions of the marketing issues at hand and their *ad hoc* recommendations to the client. During the third part of the class the project teams, starting with the lead team, present their ideas and recommendations to the client.

Stage 3: Case and client note creation.

After the client visit, the next week's session is dedicated to a sort of reconnaissance mission, or "recon," wherein the lead team is asked to run the class for at least the first 60 to 90 minutes of the evening. The lead team must now survey the entire class and gather the knowledge and ideas from all of their classmates, acknowledging different perspectives and prioritizations. In this instructor's experience, this is a cooperative and collegial exchange, perhaps because the students know that before long, they too will be on a lead team and placed in this same position. In recent years, students have employed collaborative programs such as Google Docs or tools included in the Canvas learning management system to gather ideas during the week between the client visit and the recon.

Fortified with their own further developed ideas and the input of their classmates, members of the lead team spend the next week developing a first draft of their case study and client notes. The instructor provides feedback, and then a second draft is created. After more feedback, ideally, a final, client-ready case study and set of client notes is submitted.

Subsequent meetings feature new clients, and a new lead team will follow the path outlined above. Woven throughout the weeks without client visits, the instructor presents lecture and class discussion material, illuminated with a wealth of real-life

examples that the students already have learned, or will soon experience, first-hand.

Stage 4: Presentation and feedback.

After several weeks of drafts and revisions, each lead team reaches the point when their final, client-ready case study and client notes are due. At this time, the deliverable is submitted to the instructor, who has the discretion of asking for yet another revision if the write-up falls short of expectations. This happens rarely and not surprisingly causes dismay among the affected team members, who would then be reminded of the documented guidelines and the overarching need to serve the client. More often, the final paper is ready to send to the client. The lead team then leads the class in the discussion and analysis of the very case study they created. Students on the lead team have the benefit of knowing that their classmates are by this point quite familiar and invested with the client and their situation. The lead team is encouraged to make this experience interactive.

BENEFITS OF THE SACI APPROACH IN MEETING COURSE GOALS

Through the use of student-authored client-intensive case writing, students gain the benefit of working with two real clients while being exposed to many others at different levels of intimacy and intensity. The students may benefit from working with two distinct clients in different industries, or they might find instead that their clients are in similar industries. Either way, deeper learning opportunities can be found (Kennedy, Lawton, and Walker, 2001). Students also can iteratively improve on both their solo project and team project by learning from both. This clearly addresses the written and communication objectives of the course. The fact that clients tend to be entrepreneurs also serves the department's pillar of entrepreneurial spirit.

The remaining objectives, ethical awareness and global impact, are functions of the clients engaged by students. For example, with regard to the global objective, classroom clients have involved a sporting goods manufacture that sells and sources globally as well as a global consumer packaged goods company. Other clients in recent years have been based in China, South Korea, Thailand, Mexico, Canada, and Poland. While these have been individual student's clients, the frequent class presentations and progress reports allow the sharing of stories and exchange of information on these marketing situations.

The objective of ethical awareness is also present by nature of the client's own businesses. For example,

one recent client, a farmers' coop, included the words "sugar beet" in its name. The ethical dilemma here is that one of the client's unique selling propositions and, in fact, part of their mission statement, was their avoidance of genetically modified foods. A vast majority of sugar beets, however, part of the coop's very name, undergo substantial genetic modification (USDA ERS - Sugar & Sweeteners: Background, 2015).

Another recent example involved a classroom guest who was seeking to bolster her own psychotherapy practice. From her presentation, students learned of the constraints facing our client. She had to be wary of using social media in the marketing of her practice due to client confidentiality issues and her own professional exposure. This particular client also offered another real-world situation that a published case would be hard-pressed to duplicate. Our psychotherapist, with a youthful and attractive physical appearance, found that despite her credentials she was often not taken seriously by prospective patients or even by her peers. One of the class challenges was to help her build credibility and overcome obstacles that, by virtue of her professional credentials, she should not have had to face.

Response to the SACI Approach

The benefits of this program in terms of meeting class and departmental objectives were provided above. The benefit to the clients can vary depending on, among other factors, their willingness to share information with marketing strategy students, as well as their willingness to accept and act upon class recommendations.

Feedback from students was solicited via a message sent through LinkedIn or via email to students, simply asking them to comment on what they liked or didn't like about the course. Of the 32 students that have taken the course under the SACI parallel case study design, 13 replied. Many respondents had clear recollection of how they felt about the course.

To summarize, perceived benefits include:

- Interaction with real clients
- Unpredictable and novel marketing dilemmas
- Hands-on experience
- A variety of clients and industries represented, in varying stages of their development
- Group work with class interaction and support, reducing the impact of slackers
- Practical application of material learned in prior classes
- Use of critical thinking over memorization
- Highly interactive classroom format.

Several drawbacks were listed, and are noted as areas for improvement:

- Some clients too guarded, unwilling to share information
- Working on two projects simultaneously can be confusing
- Some students dislike any group work
- Too much writing, too many presentations.

Additional verbatim comments from students are available from the author upon request. Given the overall positive response from clients and students, this instructor will continue to use and fine-tune the SACI model.

CHALLENGES IN USING THE SACI APPROACH

There are several challenges in bringing the SACI approach to the classroom, outlined in this section. They can be summarized as student-centered, client-centered, and logistical issues.

Student-Centered Challenges

The SACI approach moves students into a more proactive role in their learning. Students have an opportunity to go from analyzing static cases to investigating, analyzing, synthesizing, and ultimately writing and leading their own living case studies.

This approach leads to a workload that may be perceived as heavier than that of students' other classes. The instructor has found it necessary to emphasize throughout the semester that each student is on the lead team for only one classroom client. The need for multiple revisions is explained as a necessity given the each student's relationship with, and accountability to, their respective clients.

Finally, many students remain steadfast in their dislike of group activities. In such cases, this course is similar to other courses, particularly in business schools. The instructor must continue to assert the importance of group work in building the student's own experience base in preparation for their careers.

Client-Centered Challenges

The client stories shared above have been found by the students through their hard work as well as some good fortune. Other clients have been more straightforward but no less challenging for the graduate students. In building a classroom client base, the instructor has benefited from generous suggestions by colleagues, students, and other clients. It is helpful, too, to work in a vibrant, populous suburb on the outskirts of a major metropolis. Finding classroom clients is not

difficult for this instructor, but other instructors might consider reaching out to alumni, colleagues who work or hope to work as consultants, even university trustees and directors.

Logistical Challenges

The third set of challenges in this approach involves the scheduling of the class. In the past, the instructor has attempted to follow each client visit with a reconnaissance session the very next week, while the knowledge is still fresh in each student's mind. Lead teams adopting the fourth client would see their final deadlines bump up against the end of the semester, which means their collective stress level (from this and other classes) might be higher than that faced by their classmates. Similarly, the instructor has no time to ask this team for a revision of their case beyond the already-scheduled final copy, even if this version failed to meet established standards.

ADAPTABILITY OF THE SACI APPROACH

The use of student-authored, client-intensive cases studies has already proven to be adaptable, as this instructor's classes have grown from eight students to the most recent and largest class of 17 students. An early adaptation has been the aforementioned addition of a rough draft and then a second rough draft submitted by student teams before the delivery of the final product to the waiting client. These changes have also required adjustments to the course schedule to accommodate the submission-and-response cycle of the project. This sequence suggests that a class operating on the quarter system would have to invite fewer clients.

This approach could work in a variety of marketing and business courses with small to medium enrollments, but could it work in a larger class? In classes with more than 20 students, for example, more than one group might be assigned to adopt each client while maintaining the combined solo project/group project dynamic. Alternatively, larger groups might be created and divided into a case-writing team and a client note-writing team. In a lecture hall, the SACI approach might be one conducted in smaller sessions, perhaps led by a teaching assistant. Individual student presentations would have to occur in such small groups. Student presentations might also be recorded digitally and shared online.

The SACI case study approach has proven to be suitable for an MBA level course. An undergraduate marketing course could also employ this approach, with students likely needing more guidance from the instructor to make up for a lack of real-world professional experience.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The introduction of industry professionals into the classroom as living case studies brings students closer to the real world demands, expectations, and variability in a way that case studies can only simulate. These managers and entrepreneurs can take the role of guest speakers and moreover, guest clients who can share their own learning experiences with their student consultants. Having to work directly with a client exposes students to the kinds of issues not captured in a published study. Future research regarding the SACI approach might be more quantitative, evaluating student engagement, achievement, and both student and client satisfaction with the relationships that grow simultaneously. The student-authored, client-intensive parallel case study model offers several opportunities for further development.

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COURSE REDESIGN: EVALUATION OF LEARNING OBJECTIVES, HYBRID DELIVERY AND NEW EXPERIENTIAL PROJECT

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ABSTRACT

The goal of this research is to explore students' perceptions of learning in a marketing course that has been completely redesigned. The present research evaluates a course redesign based on course learning objectives, delivery format and experiential projects. The study compares students' perceptions of marketing topic knowledge and ability from the beginning of the course to the end. Research evaluates achievement of learning outcomes, as well as perceptions of a hybrid course delivery format. Lastly, the research reports on an experiential project implemented as part of the course redesign. Results indicate that perceptions of learning based on objectives improved significantly after course delivery. Further, marketing students reported learning more in a hybrid format (compared to traditional face-to-face) after having experienced the format

INTRODUCTION

As many scholars (e.g. Fink, 2013) have written, faculty members have high ambitions for their students to succeed. Despite these strong desires, many continue to engage in teaching practices that do not promote learning. The present research stemmed from a complete marketing course redesign in an attempt to enhance students' learning experiences. Through collaboration with a teaching and learning campus center, as well as weekly course meetings, the course under study was completely redesigned, including learning goals, learning activities and evaluation procedures.

BACKGROUND

Based on Fink's (2013) approach to designing college courses. Course objectives were reworked to reflect different kinds of learning, including: learning how to learn (L2), caring (C), the human dimension (FK), integration (I), application (A) and foundational knowledge (FK). At the same time, learning activities and evaluation procedures were developed to correspond to each learning activity. Table 1 provides a sample of two course objectives, along with the corresponding learning activities and assessments.

Table 1

<u>Learning Goals Course:</u>	<u>Learning Activities:</u>	<u>Evaluation</u>
<i>Upon the successful conclusion of MKT 233 (Foundations of IMC), you will understand the IMC Planning Process, strategy development, and where IMC fits in the promotion mix (FK)</i>	<p>Activity: Outside of class, students will have read about the planning process and how it currently fits in the promotion mix.</p> <p>Creative Project: As a forward-looking assessment, the creative project is realistic, requires judgment/innovation, students "do" the subject, replicates the real-world, assesses ability to use repertoire of knowledge, and allows for rehearsals. This project allows them to show the knowledge they have acquired by developing an integrated creative brief, something they will do as a marketer once they graduate.</p>	<p>Formative: In-class discussion</p> <p>In-class discussions will occur in small groups and questions for students to focus on, include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where does IMC fit into the promotion mix? • What is the most important aspect of IMC strategy? • Are there more (or less) important aspects of IMC? <p>Summative: Quizzes/Exams on foundational knowledge & Creative Project</p>
<i>Upon the successful conclusion of MKT 233 (Foundations of IMC), you will be</i>	<p>Assignment/Activity:</p> <p>Students will be asked to browse online trade</p>	<p>Formative: In class Discussion of New developments in IMC</p>

Table 1

<u>Learning Goals Course:</u>	<u>Learning Activities:</u>	<u>Evaluation</u>
<i>prepared to identify</i> questions and problems related to new IMC tools that have emerged, primarily as a result of technology (L2L).	journals and sites to find a new development (usually new tool) in IMC. Blog Project Blogs, while not cutting-edge, are a relatively new tool that individuals and companies can use to promote their product or service. This project is forward-thinking in the students will be creating content and promoting it online in real-time; they will also need to access knowledge they have learned write and promote the blog.	In small groups during class, they will share what they found and discuss questions. Instructor will work the room during discussion to provide feedback. Class as a whole will then share what they have learned. Summative: Graded Blog Project

The key changes implemented include: 1) all new course objectives, 2) additional learning activities, including an experiential blog project (Schlee & Harich, 2013) and a professional development plan, and 3) new evaluation methods including reflection journals as a form of formative assessment. Last, the course delivery format went to a hybrid delivery, with 50% online and 50% in class. This format allowed the instructor to truly “flip” the course, where the students were responsible (and evaluated) for certain activities before any classroom discussion had occurred.

The present research seeks to understand how these changes impacted students’ learning perceptions. Additionally, the research investigated learning perceptions in the hybrid delivery format and experiential learning projects. This paper addresses one of McKinney’s (2012a) six strategies to enhance student learning through SoTL: by making SoTL work public.

METHODOLOGY

Sample and Procedure

Students across two sections of the re-designed course (Foundations of Integrated Marketing Communications [IMC]) were contacted via the university course management system. Using IRB approved protocols for anonymity and confidentiality, students were asked within the first week of class to complete an online survey regarding their expectations and perceptions on key course concepts related to established course objectives. At the end of the semester, a new link to a post-survey was sent to students. Each survey had students create a unique identifier, allowing the primary investigator to match the pre- and post-online surveys. Forty-four of the 52 (85%) students across both courses completed the pre-survey and 47 students (90%) completed the post-survey survey. Upon matching the samples after the post-survey, the researcher had a complete pre- and post- data for 37 respondents (71%). When the pre- and post- survey data could not be matched, the respondent was discarded for the purposes of the paired-samples

statistics. However, qualitative data from those respondents was still analyzed for thematic concepts.

Measures

The survey consisted of both open-ended and Likert-type sales (strongly disagree – strongly agree). For the pre-survey, students were asked open-ended questions regarding his/her: 1) general expectations and 2) learning expectations for the course. For the post survey, students were asked about what they had learned in the course. Additionally for the post-survey, students were asked to answer questions regarding what had helped and hindered them in regards to the experiential blog project.

Likert scale questions (strongly disagree to agree) were asked regarding the students’ knowledge and ability regarding key course concepts and course learning objectives (e.g. the IMC planning process, the Creative Brief, and IMC tools). Students were also asked to rate their ability in relation to the experiential learning projects, which were: 1) developing a creative brief/strategy; and 2) designing, writing and promoting a blog. The post-survey also asked students how the course improved their level of professionalism, along with how the course prepared them for a career in marketing, connected them to industry practitioners and motivated them to learn more about integrated marketing communications.

RESULTS

Impact of Course Learning Objectives

This research seeks to understand the impact of the course re-design on the enhanced learning objectives. Table 2 delineates the means before and after course delivery. In all learning objectives, students reported significant improvement in learning perceptions. Students reported the greatest improvement in learning perceptions related to: 1) knowledge of the creative brief (1.94, t=11.87, p<0.001); 2) knowledge of the IMC planning process (1.51, t=10.05, p<0.001); and 3)

ability to develop a creative brief (1.57, $t=7.78$, $p<0.001$).

Additionally, open-ended feedback in the post-survey on learning outcomes supported the findings that learning objectives had improved. Sample open-ended responses for learning objectives can be found in the Table 3.

Hybrid Course Perceptions

This research also analyzed students' perceptions of a hybrid course before and after course delivery. Table 4 indicates students' responses to the extent they agree with the statement as compared to a traditional 100% face-to-face classroom. The only significant

change came in the perception of learning. After completing the hybrid course, students' reported learning more in a hybrid classroom as compared to a traditional face-to-face classroom (0.63, $t=3.34$, $p<0.05$). In looking at the other measurements, it is important to note that a non-significant change could be a positive in this situation. Changes in the students' perceptions were not significant in regards to: 1) how hard they work in a hybrid classroom; 2) how well the professor knows them in a hybrid classroom, and 3) level of peer interactions in a hybrid classroom. While not significant, students' perceptions on how well they know the professor and other students actually decreased in the post survey measurement.

Marketing Challenges

* $df = 34$; $p < .001$; Scale of 1-5 (strongly disagree – strong agree) to knowledge / ability in the topic area

Table 2
Perceptions of Knowledge and Abilities

Topic Area	Pre	Post	Change	t-value
Knowledge of IMC Planning Process	2.60	4.11	1.51	10.05*
Knowledge of how IMC fits in Promotion	3.00	4.20	1.20	7.61*
Knowledge of the Creative Brief	2.46	4.40	1.94	11.87*
Knowledge of Creative Strategy	3.00	4.26	1.26	6.97*
Knowledge of Breadth of IMC Tools	3.31	4.37	1.06	6.27*
Knowledge of Depth of IMC Tools	3.09	4.31	1.23	7.17*
Ability to Develop a Creative Brief	2.74	4.31	1.57	7.78*
Ability to Develop a Creative Strategy	3.17	4.23	1.06	6.27*
Ability to Analyze an IMC Campaign	3.09	4.31	1.23	6.69*
Ability to Evaluate an IMC Campaign	2.97	4.29	1.31	7.83*
Ability to Design Blog	3.40	4.59	1.17	7.04*
Ability to Write Content for a Blog	3.63	4.69	1.06	6.91*
Ability to Promote a Blog	3.51	4.40	0.89	3.56*
Ability to Relate IMC to Daily work/personal life	3.46	4.46	1.00	5.60*
Ability to Connect with other Marketing Professionals	3.57	4.31	0.74	4.63*
Ability to Identify Issues with New IMC Tools	3.06	4.23	1.17	6.83*
Ability to Seek New Solutions to	3.62	4.32	0.71	3.69*

Table 3
Learning Objectives Open-ended Response

Learning Objective	Sample Responses
Understand the IMC Planning Process, strategy development, and where IMC fits in the promotion mix.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I learned a lot about the basics of IMC. I learned how to create a blog. I learned how to promote a blog and drive traffic.
Understand the breadth and depth of tactical tools in IMC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I learned about PR and how to handle crises Learned about SEO Blogging-how to create, write and promote.
Develop a creative brief and creative strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I learned how to write a creative brief. The creative process-both brief and strategy. I learned how to evaluate current marketing campaigns.
Analyze and evaluate current IMC campaigns	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using Google Analytics to understand what is working. Career options Using blog as portfolio for jobs
Describe how IMC is lived out in daily work and life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ability to perform marketing skills like blogging and Google analytics I can identify IMC campaigns I see in the world now and think

Exhibit professional business “intangibles” (e.g. professionalism)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • about what they used to create them • Professionalism-what is acceptable in a business environment • I have learned to skills that will better myself as a professional rather than a student.
Be an active member of marketing related professional group / Connect and seek advice from mentors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • LinkedIn and how to get the most out of it
Identify questions and problems related to new IMC tools / Challenge the accepted norm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I found myself learning about how business is an interactive world and that I have found myself thinking more critically about business situations.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The hybrid format • Picking a topic area that already knowledgeable in • Time management | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Late start in promotions • Better competitors already existed • Hard to attract viewers |
|--|---|

Students were also asked to respond in open-ended format to what they learned from the blog project. With any experiential project, the goal is to have the students learned what it is like to conduct these projects in the “real world.” Below are highlights of what the students’ learned:

- How to write for online content
- Basics of Google Analytics: how to read and interpret
- Understand how much effort it truly takes to reach a target audience
- Better knowledge on specific tool of blogging
- It takes time and hard work to create a successful blog
- Promotion is early and often is key to success
- Time management is critical, otherwise content is irrelevant

These learning themes indicate that the “experimental” portion of this project was a success. In marketing, learning how to target a specific audience, promote, evaluate and manage time are all key concepts for actual client projects in the real world.

IMPLICATIONS

First and foremost, the results indicate that students’ perceptions of learning on the re-designed course learning objectives did improve significantly on all measures. Students reported improved perceptions of their knowledge of the IMC planning process, developing a creative brief, writing, promoting and evaluation a blog, as well as professionalism and networking in the industry. Further, the students’ open-ended responses demonstrated that key course objectives were the common themes across student learning for the course. The new course objectives were informed by pedagogical research, so this research confirms supports this research (Fink, 2013).

Next, this research also examined the students’ perceptions of a hybrid course delivered 50% in the classroom and 50% online. The results indicate that students do not have strong opinions about hybrid classes as compared to face-to-face. This is likely due to their lack of experience with hybrid courses. Interestingly, one perception measure for hybrid courses did change: the amount of learning relative to traditional face-to-face. Students’ perceptions on how much they learn compared to traditional classes increased, indicating that after taking a hybrid course,

Table 4

Hybrid Classroom Perceptions

Specific Area	Pre	Post	Change
I learn more in a hybrid classroom	3.51	4.14	0.63*
I work harder in a hybrid classroom	3.83	3.94	0.11 ^{NS}
The professor does not know me well in a hybrid classroom	2.37	2.14	-0.23 ^{NS}
I have less interactions with my classmates in a hybrid classroom	2.94	2.89	-0.06 ^{NS}

* p < 0.05 (t=3.34); Scale of 1-5 (strongly disagree – strongly agree)

Experiential Blog Project

Last, this course implemented two experiential learning projects: 1) preparing a creative brief, and 2) creating, posting and promoting a blog (Schlee & Harich, 2013). The post-survey specifically asked open-ended responses in regards to the blog project. This project was new in its implementation, highly experiential and lasted the entire semester. Table 5 represents a summary of students’ thoughts as to what made the project successful, as well as hindered its success.

Table 5

What helped project to be successful?	What hindered success?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Weekly “check-ins” with professor to ensure blog on track • Checking Google Analytics regularly • Freedom to pick our own topic area 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unfamiliarity with Blogger • Unfamiliarity with Google Analytics • Poor time management • Lack of in-class discussion

students believe they learn more in a hybrid classroom. In looking at these results, this is most likely due to the fact that a hybrid course format lends itself to truly being “flipped.” Since the course meets only one day a week instead of two, course deadlines forced reading, quizzes and assignments on the material to be completed prior to the classroom discussion day. Given this, students’ perception of learning should be higher as they are taking in the material before discussing it in class, thus enhancing their learning.

Last, this research also sought feedback on an intensive, first time experiential project. Students were required to create a blog, post weekly content, promote the blog and track the promotion effectiveness via Google Analytics. The feedback yielded interested results. Overall, students reported positive feedback on actually learning how to develop, write and promote a blog. Some issues that arose were students’ unfamiliarity with the Blogger set-up, as well as Google Analytics. Further, students reported lack of in-class discussions and learning from their peers’ experiences. Future iterations of this project should dedicate a day in a computer lab to assist students in initial set-up of Blogger and Google Analytics. Further, taking five minutes at the beginning of class to answer questions on Google Analytics, as well as having students share success stories could further enhance learning.

Overall, this course redesign demonstrated that when course objectives are properly formed and based in pedagogical research, students can enhance their learning in those areas. Further, while students do not have a lot of experience yet with hybrid courses, it does appear that they perceive enhanced learning benefits from this format. Last, experiential projects are always challenging when first implemented, but seeking feedback before and after can enhance future iterations and learning outcomes.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research will begin to look at the processes and conditions within this course that enhance student learning. Possibilities for this include reflection essays, adding multiple points of measurement throughout the course, or including theoretical derived measures in the survey instrument (McKinney, 2012b). In an effort to continue to enhance students’ learning, it is important to extend beyond the isolated project into a series of related studies (McKinney, 2012b). Looking at the processes and conditions within the course is the next logical step for this research.

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BEFORE THE PURCHASE: DOES SATISFACTION WITH THE SALESPERSON MATTER?

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ABSTRACT

Customer satisfaction with the salesperson remains a key factor in the sales process. Many studies examine customer satisfaction from a post-purchase paradigm; however, fewer studies have looked at the pre-purchase impact on the sales process. This study examines the customer's pre-purchase satisfaction, specifically how the salesperson's relationship value and service quality influence pre-purchase satisfaction. Further, this study also examines the relationship between a customer's pre-purchase satisfaction with the salesperson and intention to purchase with the salesperson. Three hundred and thirty two (332) professional buyers are recruited from a Business-to-Business online panel for use in this study. The results show that perceived relationship value and salesperson's service quality positively impacts a customer's pre-purchase satisfaction and purchase intention.

INTRODUCTION

In most cases, customer satisfaction has been viewed and examined as a post-purchase behavior (Giese & Cote, 2000). A limited number of studies have researched customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction occurring at points other than the post-purchase stage (e.g. Simintiras, Diamantopoulos, & Ferriday, 1997; Westbrook, Newman, & Taylor, 1978). Furthermore, literature in sales and marketing that examines customer's pre-purchase satisfaction with the salesperson and its impacts are even scarcer (e.g. Simintiras et al., 1997; Huang & Dubinsky, 2014). Customer's pre-purchase satisfaction has been found to have a direct effect on customer's purchase intentions (e.g. Simintiras et al., 1997); however, limited literature is available regarding what customers seek at the pre-purchase stage as customers' thoughts and evaluation criteria are different during the pre-purchase and post-purchase decision making processes (Taylor & Burns, 1999). The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between customer's perception about salesperson's service quality, value created by the salesperson, customer's pre-purchase satisfaction with the salesperson, and customer's purchase intention.

Understanding a customer's pre-purchase satisfaction is immensely important today for salespeople and companies because retaining satisfied loyal customers is less expensive compared to acquiring new customers. Because the revenue loyal customers generate for a business accounts for eight percent of its total revenue, practitioners and academics

have recognized customer satisfaction as the central factor in creating long-term committed customers. Accordingly, salespeople will have to invest less time in persuading satisfied customers to make repeat purchases; and, loyal customers will be willing to pay more money to acquire the salesperson's service. Finkelman (1993) found that even when customers are satisfied with the product or service they purchase but unsatisfied with their experience with the salesperson during the purchasing process, they would resist making a repeat purchase. This further reiterates the importance of pre-purchase satisfaction in creating loyal customers (Sehth & Parvatiyar, 2002).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Customer Pre-purchase Satisfaction

Oliver (1981) proposed three different stages of satisfaction in the consumer buying process: 1) purchase stage, 2) product consumption stage, and 3) redress activity stage. Customer satisfaction occurs in all three stages, and the level of satisfaction within a specific stage will affect satisfaction in the next stage. For example, Oliver (1981) conducted a study in a retail setting and found that customers enter a retail store with pre-conceived expectations toward the shopping experience, such as store environment, salespeople, and check-out process. Satisfaction of these pre-conceived expectations about the shopping process will have an impact on product consumption evaluation and satisfaction of the evaluation. In other words, customers' pre-purchase satisfaction with the

salesperson's performance will have an impact on evaluation of the purchase and post-purchase evaluation.

Customer decision process consists of four stages 1) pre-decision, 2) post-decision/ pre-purchase, 3) post-purchase, and 4) post use (Oliver, 1997; Szymanski & Henard, 2001). In the pre-decision stage, consumers will consider evaluating alternatives in creating their evoked set of choices, which include different products, service providers, and salespeople. During the post-decision/pre-purchase stage, consumers will evaluate the evoked set and decide which product to purchase from which salesperson. During this stage, customers begin to become aware of the forgone alternatives and their outcomes. After the comparison occurs, customers make a purchase. During the post-purchase stage, consumers realize that the alternatives are actually forgone and the evaluation of the purchase product commences. Finally, during the post-use stage, consumers deal with the consequences of the purchase made (Oliver, 1997). Consumers not only focus on the purchase item when they make a purchasing decision but also evaluate the intangible aspects of the purchasing process, such as the interaction with the salesperson, salesperson information communication and responsiveness (Agnihotri, Dingus, Hu, & Krush 2015). If customers experience dissatisfaction during the pre-purchase stage, they will forge a negative impression, which will impact the evaluation of the purchase (Levitt, 1981). Adapting the satisfaction definition from Giese and Cote (2000), their study defines customer's pre-purchase satisfaction as a summary of responses toward the evaluation of salesperson's activities occurring during the buying process but prior to a purchase decision.

Perceived Service Quality

Service quality has been extensively researched in the past due to its direct effect on customer's satisfaction and behavioral outcomes, which influences the profitability of an organization and market share (Rust & Zahorik, 1993). The concept of service quality has been conceptualized as having two dimensions: 1) customer's objective perceptions of the technical outcome of the service process and 2) the subjective perceptions of the functional quality of the process (Asubonteng, McCleary, & Swan, 1996). The objective perception of the technical outcome is focused on the outcome while the subjective perception of the functional quality is based on the process. The evaluation of these two types of service quality depends on the stages of customer's purchase decision-making process. Furthermore, functional quality of the service is evaluated prior to making a purchase, and technical service quality is evaluated after making the

purchase (Durvasula, Lysonski, Mehta, & Peng, 2005). Therefore, this study focuses on examining customer's subjective perceptions of the functional quality of the purchase process, where the interaction with the salesperson has a significant meaning to and influence on customers and their purchase decisions.

This study conceptualizes service quality as customer's perception of the service quality offered by the salesperson. Although there has not been a universally accepted definition for perceived customer's perception of service quality, the concept of perceived service quality has been examined frequently in past literature. Most studies have adapted the conceptualization of perceived service quality provided by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry (1985). Overall, perceived service quality is defined as customer's perception of the comparison between customer's expectations of the salesperson's service level versus the perception of the actual performance of the salesperson (Parasuraman et al., 1985).

Perceived Relationship Value

Customer's perceived relationship value is defined as the evaluation between the customer's perception of the benefits offered by the salesperson, the costs of working with the salesperson, and the opportunity cost of the relationship with the salesperson (Kotler, Keller, Ancarani, & Constabile, 2014). Value for customers could be explained by their belief that the purchase they intend to make is superior to any other alternatives and that the purchase would best fit their needs (Solomon, 2004). In addition, customer's perceived value has been found to have a significant impact on customer loyalty and purchase intention (Sirdeshmukh, Singh, & Sabol, 2002).

Purchase Intention

Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) suggests that customers' behavior is determined by their intention to perform the behavior; and, intention is a function of their attitude toward the behavior. Therefore, the best predictor of behavior is intention (Ajzen, 1991). Purchase intention is a cognitive behavior based on how a customer intends to make a purchase (Ajzen, 1991). Theory of Planned Behavior, an extension of TRA, is based on the principle that customer's attitude toward a behavior can be used to predict the results of the behavior. In other words, customer's purchase intention is the closest proxy for actual purchase behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Purchase intention is an important variable for marketers as it is predictive of actual customer behavior (Berkowitz, 1987). Therefore, purchase intention will be measured in the current study as an outcome variable.

Service Quality and Perceived Relationship Value

Customer's perception of service quality has been found to have a significant positive influence on customer's perceived value of the service (e.g. Oh, 1999). Service quality is one of the key determinants of the customer's perceived value (Bojanic, 1996). Specifically, price point, level quality, salesperson friendliness, and salesperson knowledge are some of the key factors customers that impact customer's value perception (Ostrom & Iacobucci, 1995). In other words, when a customer believes that the salesperson will offer superior service quality, it will enhance the customer's perception of the value of the relationship between the customer and the salesperson. This study proposes that:

H1: Customer's perception of salesperson's service quality will have a positive relationship with customer's perception of the perceived relationship value with the salesperson.

Perceived Service Quality and Pre-Purchase Satisfaction

The direction of the relationship between service quality and satisfaction has been debated in the past. While some researchers have found that service quality is an antecedent of customer satisfaction (e.g. Black, Childers, & Vincent, 2015), others have found that satisfaction is an antecedent of service quality (e.g. Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Ravald & Gronroos, 1996). This confusion primarily exists because researchers have conceptualized and operationalized these two constructs haphazardly (Teas, 1993). Perceived service quality can be conceptualized from different perspectives: a global judgment perspective and a transaction specific perspective (Teas, 1993; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1994). When service quality is conceptualized from the transaction perspective, service quality will influence customer satisfaction. From a global perspective, the overall perspective of service quality is derived from the total cumulative experience with the company or the service provider; therefore, satisfaction will be an antecedent of service quality. This study is focused on examining the relationships between service quality and satisfaction from an encounter/transactional perspective rather than from a global perspective as we only examine the pre-purchase stage of the buying process. Therefore, we predict:

H2: Customer's perception of the salesperson's service quality will have a positive relationship with customer's pre-purchase satisfaction.

Perceived Service Quality and Purchase Intention

Past research has established that there is positive relationship between service quality and purchase intention (Boulding, Kalra, Staelin & Zeithaml, 1993). When customer's perception of the actual performance of the salesperson exceeds customer's perceived expectations of the salesperson's performance, customers tend to be more favorable toward making a purchase with the salesperson. Hence, this study hypothesizes that:

H3: Customer's perception of the salesperson's service quality will have a positive relationship with customer's purchase intention.

Perceived Value and Pre-Purchase Satisfaction

Customer's perception of value is closely associated with their perception of satisfaction (Woodruff, Schumann, & Gardial, 1993). When customers perceive that they are obtaining a greater amount of value compared to their opportunity cost in obtaining the service or the product, customers are more likely to be satisfied with the purchase during the pre-purchase stage (Eggert & Ulaga, 2002). In addition, many researchers have found that customer's satisfaction depends on customer's perceived value of the purchase and that perceived value is an antecedent of customer satisfaction (e.g. Brady & Cronin, 2001). Similarly, when a customer perceives that the relationship value that the customer has with the salesperson is greater than the opportunity cost of the relationship during a salesperson-customer interaction, the greater the customer's satisfaction will be with the salesperson during the pre-purchase stage. Therefore, this study proposes that:

H4: Customer's perception of the relationship value with the salesperson will have a positive relationship with customer's pre-purchase satisfaction.

Perceived Relationship Value and Intention to Purchase

In consumer behavior literature, customer's perceived value of a service or product has been found to have a significant influence on customer's purchase intentions (Cronin, Brady & Hult, 2000). Similarly, when a customer perceives that the benefits offered by the salesperson is greater than the costs of working with the salesperson and other opportunity costs lost

due to the relationship, the customer tends to be more likely to make a purchase from the salesperson. Therefore, this study proposes that:

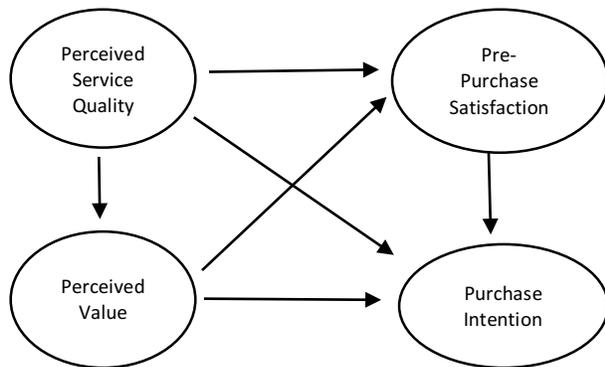
H5: Customer's perception of the relationship value with the salesperson will have a positive influence on customer's purchase intention.

Pre-purchase Satisfaction and Intention to Purchase

Customers who are satisfied with their overall purchase have been found to make repeat purchases (Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Malhotra, 2002). Furthermore, researchers who examined the importance of pre-purchase satisfaction found that customers who were satisfied with the pre-purchase stage of the buying process were more likely to make a purchase (Simintiras et al., 1997). When customers are satisfied with the pre-purchase stage of the buying process, customers will have a positive attitude toward the service provider and the product, which will likely lead to making a purchase. Therefore, this study proposes that:

H6: Customer's perception of pre-purchase satisfaction will have a positive influence on customer's purchase intention.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework



METHODOLOGY

Sample

An online survey instrument was administered to business-to-business buyers who had face-to-face interaction with salespeople. To enhance the generalizability of the research, respondents completed the questionnaire without being contained to a specific product category or product type. Therefore, respondents were provided with the following instructions for competing the online survey: "When

you initially plan the process of purchasing a particular product for your company, there are certain elements that may influence your satisfaction with the salesperson and purchase experience. Please recall the most recent purchase experience you had on a product about which you had very little prior knowledge (new product purchase)." Three hundred thirty-six (336) surveys were retained for the study, which provided a response rate of 34.25%. The average age of the respondents was 47 years with a range of 21 years to 80 years. Approximately 9% respondents had an education up to high school, 14% had some college education, 39% had a bachelor's degree, and 16% had completed a master's degree. With regard to the ethnicity 83% were Caucasian Whites, 5.6% were African American, 4.4% were Hispanics and 6.7% were Asians. Each respondent had around 6 years of experience purchasing from the salesperson and each respondent's job description included 35% of purchasing from salespeople and they spent around 27 hours every week talking with salespeople. Purchasing agents in the U.S on average are 45 years of age and have 4 years of college education (United States Department of Labor, 2010). This information suggests that the sample used in this study is similar to the general population of purchasing agents in the U.S. Non-response bias was assessed by comparing the responses of early and late responders to two scale items and three demographic variables. No significant differences were observed between the variables, which suggested that non-response bias was likely not present.

Measures

Customer's perception of salesperson's service quality was measured using a twenty-two-item scale (e.g.: *The salesperson gives you individual attention; the salesperson is always willing to help you*) developed by Parasuraman, Berry & Zeithaml (1991). Customer's pre-satisfaction with the salesperson was measured using a seventeen-item scale (e.g.: *The salesperson has the knowledge to answer my questions, the salesperson understand my specific needs*; Yang & Peterson, 2004), and customer's perception of relationship value was measured using a five-item scale (e.g.: *Compared to competing salespeople, the salesperson offers attractive product/service costs; Compared to competing salespeople, the salesperson charges me fairly for similar products/services*) developed by Levesque & McDougall (1996). Customers' intention to purchase was measured by a three-item scale (e.g.: *If you were planning to make a purchase, would you choose to make the purchase with this salesperson; If a friend were looking to make a purchase, would you advise*

him or her to purchase with this salesperson?), which was adapted from Berens, van Riel, & van Bruggen (2005). All items were measured using a seven point Likert scale.

RESULTS

Measurement Model

The measurement model was first validated with the AMOS 18 program. A total of 336 respondents were used to test the model, which included four constructs and a total of forty-seven items. Using the modification indices from the AMOS output, items, which had high cross-loadings, were identified. If both modification indices and reliabilities suggested that an item should be removed from the model, the item was deleted. A total of five items were removed. After assessing numerous AMOS outputs and construct

reliabilities, forty-two items were used to measure four constructs. Results of the final measurement model suggested good model fit (GFI= .931; NFI=.94; CFI=.981; RMR=.031; RMSEA=0.04). According to the findings of Hu & Bentler (1999) and Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson (2009), the results for the CFA analysis suggested good model fit also. Table 1 presents the reliabilities of the constructs and their correlations.

Structural Model

After the measurement model was validated, the structural model was used to evaluate the relationship among the latent variables. The structural model provided sufficient fit, GFI= .93; NFI=.94; CFI=.979; RMR=.031 and RMSEA = 0.04 (Hair et al. 2009). Table 2 presents the results of the structural model.

Table 1. Reliabilities and Correlations

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	VAL	QUL	SAT	INT
VAL	0.909	0.769	0.327	0.296	0.877			
QUL	0.959	0.630	0.327	0.206	0.572	0.793		
SAT	0.960	0.689	0.240	0.161	0.490	0.324	0.830	
INT	0.971	0.893	0.321	0.216	0.567	0.432	0.373	0.945

VAL= Perceived Relationship Value; QUL= Perceived Service Quality; SAT=Customer's Pre-Purchase Satisfaction; INT= Customer's Intention to Purchase; CR= Composite Reliability; AVE=Average Variance Extracted; MSV=Measured Shared Variance; ASV=Average Shared Variance

Table 2. Structural Model Results

	Estimate	Standard Error	C.R	P
H1: Service Quality → Perceived Value	0.543	0.069	15.081	***
H2: Service Quality → Pre-purchase Satisfaction	0.706	0.108	6.551	***
H3: Service Quality → Purchase Intention	0.343	0.072	5.734	***
H4: Perceived Value → Pre-purchased Satisfaction	0.174	0.082	3.126	***
H5: Perceived Value → Purchase Intention	0.418	0.072	5.816	***
H6: Pre-purchase Satisfaction → Purchase Intention	0.447	0.084	5.298	***

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between customer's perception about

salesperson's service quality, value created by the salesperson, customer's pre-purchase satisfaction with the salesperson, and customer's purchase intention. It was found that when customer's perception of the

actual performance of the salesperson exceeds customer's perceived expectations of the salesperson's performance, the customer tends to value the relationship they have with the salesperson, increases their pre-purchase satisfaction with the salesperson, and increases their intention to purchase with the salesperson. When customer's perception of the benefits that customers would gain when working with the salesperson exceeds the opportunity cost and the cost of working with the salesperson, customers increase their pre-purchase satisfaction with the salesperson and their intention to purchase with the salesperson. Furthermore, the findings showed that salesperson's pre-purchased satisfaction was as important as post-purchase satisfaction in regards to the creation of a customer-salesperson relationship.

The study also provided important managerial findings. When establishing quality of service of the salesperson, it is wise that the salespeople manage customer's expectations. Salespeople should "under promise and over deliver" to create a better perception of the salesperson's service quality. When creating a value proposition in the mind of the customers, salespeople should always focus on establishing benefits that customers could yield from their relationship with the salesperson. In other words, simply focusing on product features might not produce the benefits that the customer should gain from the relationship. Hence, salespeople should focus on how the product solution that they recommend would benefit customers in comparison to both opportunity and incurred costs. When salespeople are able to manage customer expectations and to create a positive relationship value proposition, customers tend to be more satisfied with the salesperson during the pre-purchase stage, which results in a future purchase with the salesperson.

A key limitation of the study is that it does not consider the buyer's desire for specific outcomes. This could influence the buyer's purchasing behavior and satisfaction. For example, corporate buyers may have their own personal interests, such as career advancements or gaining supervisor recognition. This might impact the decision when it comes to the purchasing process compared to buyers who have a more organizational well-being orientation. Future studies should examine this, as well as the customer's planning horizon, risk tolerance, and relationship orientation and its influence on customer satisfaction with the salesperson.

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A PRELIMINARY EXAMINATION OF THE IMPACT OF ADVERTISING ON INVESTOR RETURNS IN THE PACKAGED FOOD AND BEVERAGE INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

The study examines the impact of advertising on investor returns in the packaged food and beverage industry between the years 2008 to 2012, a period of time characterized by the trend toward healthier eating and the growth of organic foods. Findings indicate that packaged food and beverage firms spending more on advertising as a percentage of sales did not outperform their lower spending counterparts. Nevertheless, some firms in the sample did outperform their rivals. It is likely that these firms were able to develop competitive advantages via methods other than advertising, including sales promotion, product development, pricing, or distribution efficiencies.

INTRODUCTION

The consumer packaged goods (CPG) industry is comprised of products that are consumed every day by the average consumer and that need to be replaced frequently as a result. These products include such categories as food, beverages, personal and household products, and apparel. Because of the ubiquity of these consumer products and the frequency of their use, the CPG sector is valued at approximately \$2 trillion annually in North America. Moreover, the global CPG industry is projected to grow from \$8 trillion in 2014 to nearly \$14 trillion by 2025 (Hirose et al., 2015). As such, the marketing activities of CPG manufacturers can have important ramifications for national economies, businesses, consumers, and public policy advocates alike. Nevertheless, it has been shown that marketing activities have different effects on different types of product categories (Trinh and Anesbury, 2015). Therefore, given that the CPG industry encompasses such a broad spectrum of manufacturers, research on the CPG industry should necessarily focus on specific sub-categories of products.

One of the most significant sub-categories within the overall CPG industry consists of consumer packaged foods and beverages. The significance of the food and beverage category goes beyond mere economic considerations, but touches upon the very foundation of human well-being. In the words of the noted nineteenth century French chef and culinary critic, Auguste Escoffier, “La bonne cuisine est la base du véritable bonheur” (good food is the foundation of genuine happiness). Unfortunately, the

modern practice of manufacturing and marketing heavily processed packaged food products may have a deleterious impact on consumer health and wellness (Monteiro et al., 2011; Moubarac et al., 2013). As a result, the consumer packaged food and beverage industry has become a lightning rod for criticism by consumer health advocates. With the negative publicity surrounding the corporate controlled food supply of industrialized countries, consumers have increasingly begun to gravitate toward organic, locally grown, and non-genetically modified (GM) food products (Dettmann and Dimitri, 2010; Matson and Heiens, 2012; Schultz, 2015).

The trend toward healthier eating became a mainstream phenomenon within the past ten years. A strong indication of the strength of the evolving consumer sentiment toward the nation’s food supply occurred in 2006 when Walmart, the largest retailer of grocery products in the U.S., announced their intention to enter the organic food market. Although Walmart’s foray into the organic food market has been met with some skepticism concerning the ability of a mammoth retailer to truly source organic and GM-free products on such a vast scale, traditional packaged food and beverage manufacturers that depend on industrial-scale farming practices in their supply chains have taken notice. Therefore, given the shifting landscape for America’s largest food producers, it is useful to ask how effective the advertising of traditional consumer packaged food and beverage producers is in this new climate. Thus, the analysis of the impact of advertising on the

consumer packaged food and beverage industry will be the focus of the current study.

In examining the impact of advertising on the performance of packaged food and beverage producers, there is a need to utilize appropriate performance metrics. Although a substantial amount of research has been conducted on the impact of advertising in CPG markets, the vast majority of these studies have tended to focus on market share outcomes (Heerde, Gupta, and Wittink, D., 2003; Mela, Gupta, and Lehman, 1997; Sengupta and Glavin, 2010). Nevertheless, researchers have increasingly been measuring marketing's impact on investor returns. This is because advertising not only drives consumer sales, but also serves as an important signaling mechanism for investors. Thus, advertising has the potential to drive investor returns both indirectly by enhancing consumer demand, as well as directly by enhancing investor interest in the advertised firm. Consequently, the current study utilizes investor returns, rather than market share metrics, as the measure of advertising performance. Moreover, the study examines this relationships between the years 2008-2012, a time period immediately following the widespread consumer exposure to organic and GM-free foods that occurred in the wake of the decision by Walmart to increasingly offer healthier alternatives to traditional processed food and beverages.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

According to Penrose (1959), a company can be thought of as both an administrative organization and a set of resources. What has come to be known as the resource-based view (RBV) of the firm is the view that competitive advantage is primarily based on the possession of key resources, including both tangible and intangible resources (Wernerfelt, 1984). Although businesses historically emphasized investments in tangible resources, increasingly, researchers have been demonstrating the significant impact that intangibles have on future cash flows (Boujelben and Fedhila, 2011). It is also widely acknowledged that one of the most important activities responsible for building intangibles is advertising. In fact, rather than considering it solely as an expense, many researchers now view advertising as a strategic investment responsible for the development of intangible resources related to market awareness, corporate and product image, and customer loyalty (Barroso and Lobet, 2012; and Ha et al., 2011; Joshi and Hanssens, 2010; Wang, Zhang, and Ouyang, 2009).

According to Schultz (2015), smaller brands, many of whom were perceived as healthier and more

authentic, were able to wrestle approximately \$18 billion dollars in sales away from large manufacturers of processed foods during the time period studied. Nevertheless, many of America's largest food producers continued to post strong sales results throughout the last decade. One explanation for this is likely to be the extensive advertising these firms have been engaging in for decades, as advertising has been shown to exhibit long-term cumulative effects (Zhou, Zhou, and Ouyang, 2003). Consequently, despite the shift away from heavily processed foods, our expectation is that firms which consistently spent a larger proportion of their revenue on advertising would still be capable of delivering superior returns to their stockholders whereas firms with low levels of advertising spending would not. As such, we offer our research hypothesis as follows:

- H₁: Firms with a higher ratio of advertising expenditures to sales in the U.S. consumer packaged food and beverage industry between the years 2008-2012 provided superior investor returns than their counterparts with a lower ratio of advertising expenditures to sales.

SAMPLE AND MEASUREMENT

To test our hypothesis, we began with an initial sample containing ninety-eight retailing firms in the consumer food and beverage manufacturing industry taken from the 2008 Standard and Poors Compustat Industrial Annual database that had a NAICS code beginning with 311. The Compustat database contains balance sheet and income statement data for publically traded companies, and the ninety-eight firms identified represented all of the publicly traded U.S. manufacturers of packaged food and beverages found in the database at the time of the study. Fiscal year-end accounting data were collected for the sample beginning from 2008 to the end of 2012. The ninety-eight firms in the initial sample were compared against the Center for Research in Securities Prices (CRSP) database, which contains returns data for more than 20,000 stocks from the NYSE, AMEX, and NASDAQ markets. Fourteen firms were eliminated due to no returns data reported in the CRSP database. Four additional firms were eliminated due to missing sales data. Finally, thirty-nine firms were eliminated due to missing advertising data. Therefore, our final sample consisted of forty-one firms.

To control for firm size, the following ratio was constructed using the average value of each individual variable taken over the period 2008 to 2012: Advertising to sales (ADVER/SLS). Advertising expenditures (Compustat data item # 45)

represent the cost of advertising in radio, television, newspapers, periodicals, and other electronic media.

As our measure of investor returns, market adjusted holding period returns (HPR) were computed over the event window 2008 to 2012, assuming an initial value of $P_{i,t-T-1}$ dollars invested in the stock $t-T-1$ days before the holding period return window. To compute the holding period return, daily abnormal returns (AR) for each firm studied, i , on a given day, τ , or $AR_{i,\tau}$, was estimated by subtracting the market return $R_{m,\tau}$ from the firm's stock return $R_{i,\tau}$. Therefore, for each firm, the holding period return, $HPR_{i,t \rightarrow T}$, is defined as:

$$HPR_{i,t \rightarrow T} = P_{i,t-T-1} \left(\prod_{\tau=t-T}^T (1 + AR_{i,\tau}) \right) - 1$$

Simply put, if an investment is made in a portfolio comprised of companies that mimic the compounded return on all companies that comprise the stock market over an investment horizon T , and that same investment is made in a selected individual company for the identical investment horizon, the market adjusted HPR shows how much excess return the investor would have achieved over the market return. As previously indicated, daily stock returns data, which are also necessary to determine the market return, were obtained from the University of Chicago's CRSP database.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Table 1 provides descriptive statistics pertaining to the five-year cumulative holding period return over the period 2008 to 2012. Note that while the average five-year holding period return is -039 percent (which would indicate the market performed relatively better than did the firms comprising our sample), the standard deviation of holding period returns over the five-year holding period is significantly larger than the mean return. This indicates some of the firms in our sample outperformed the market over the five-year holding period. Specifically, there were five firms that offered a HPR of 2-10%, 4 firms that offered a HPR of 10-20%, four firms that offered a HPR of 20-30%, and three firms that offered a HPR in excess of 100%. In addition, Table 2 provides descriptive statistics for the independent variable, ADVER/SLS, computed over the five-year holding period window.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of market-adjusted holding period returns (n=41)

	2008 – 2012
Mean	-0.039
Median	-0.141
Standard Dev.	0.715
Minimum	-0.849
Maximum	2.884

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of independent variable (n=41)

	ADVER/SLS
Mean	0.019
Median	0.008
Standard Dev.	0.027
Minimum	0
Maximum	0.108

In order to test our hypothesis, we next examine differences between the holding period returns of firms in our sample that possess some positive value greater than 1% for ADVER/SLS versus their counterparts that invest 1% or less. Table 3 presents a t -test of these differences, where HPR 1 corresponds to the HPR of firms that have some positive ADVER/SLS value greater than 1% while HPR 2 corresponds to the HPR of firms that have a ratio value of 1% or less. As shown in Table 3, there is no significant difference between the HPR of firms that have ADVER/SLS greater than 1% versus those that have less than 1%. Because there is not a significant difference in the HPR between the two sub-groups, the results do not lend support to H_1 .

Table 3. T-test of differences between firms with positive investment and firms with minimal investment in ADVER/SLS

	(ADVER/SLS)	
	HPR 1	HPR 2
Mean	0.062	-0.125
Variance	0.846	0.231
Observations	19	22
t statistic	0.797	

DISCUSSION

The findings indicate that firms spending more on advertising as a percentage of sales did not in fact outperform their lower spending counterparts in the consumer packaged food and beverage industry between the years 2008-2012. It is important to remember that this finding was observed in a climate during which smaller and more health-oriented food producers were gaining significant sales momentum. Therefore, it does not appear as if higher levels of advertising provided the firms in our sample any greater degree of competitive advantage that significantly and differentially impacted investor returns.

Nevertheless, some firms in our sample continued to outperform their rivals. Perhaps these firms were able to develop competitive advantages via methods other than advertising. These other methods for gaining competitive advantage could include sales promotion, new product development, pricing strategies, or distribution efficiencies. Another possibility is that packaged food and beverage manufacturers could potentially have sought to gain competitive advantages that could enhance investor returns through a strategy based on company mergers and acquisitions. Unfortunately, the study design did not allow for the examination of these additional possibilities, which is an important limitation of the study.

Another important limitation is that the accuracy of our findings could be effected by the data set we used for the study. Specifically, our data set consisted of firms contained within both the Compustat and CRSP databases. Also, because firms are not required to report their advertising expenses in their annual financial reports, our methodology was incapable of considering all companies in the consumer packaged food and beverage industry. As our final sample shows, only a relatively small number of public companies (41 in total) reported all of the information required over the five year period analyzed in the study. Therefore, additional research utilizing larger and more inclusive sample sizes should be undertaken in order to verify the results obtained.

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TEACHING-TO-VARY DEVELOPS AGILE THINKING SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

This research explores possible psychological and neurological impacts of teaching methods that rely heavily on content memorization and recitation. We refer to these as teaching-to-repeat (T2R). Researchers argue that behavioral assumptions implicit to these methods shape educational outcomes in opposition to development of the very agile thinking skills valued by managers and marketing practitioners. Now evidence reported by neuroscience researchers reveals the possibility of persistent neurological effects that may oppose such capabilities as well. We argue that these serve to compound the behavioral effects of teaching-to-repeat. Applying these same neuroscience findings, we propose and illustrate an alternative method we call teaching-to-vary (T2V).

INTRODUCTION

While the growth in the number of students in colleges of business has been called nothing less than phenomenal, business graduates increasingly are criticized for their lack of relevance in today's marketplace (Diamond & Robinson, 2008). Criticism of business education extends to all levels. MBA graduates are characterized by corporate recruiters as lacking the ability to deal with today's problems, and described as "... unable to step outside of their comfort zones to explore new ways of thinking and doing." Employers commend graduates for their degree of specialized knowledge, yet find them unable "... to face today's problems and to acquire new knowledge" (Wankel & DeFillippi, 2006: 387).

Similar problem are reported at the undergraduate level as business students consistently score lower than those from all non-business fields on the Collegiate Learning Assessment tests of writing and reasoning skills. Paradoxically, those with undergraduate business degrees also score lower on the Graduate Management Aptitude Test (GMAT), used to determine admission to graduate business programs, than do those with undergraduate degrees in virtually all non-business fields. Reviewing specifically the failures of marketing education to produce skills valued by marketing practitioners, Finch et al. (2013: 65) warned that if change was not forthcoming "we could see social science graduates succeed, with increasing frequency, in competitions for entry-level marketing positions." Armstrong (2011: 2), referencing meta-analyses of business and marketing curricula, summed up the situation as follows: "... much of the material that is taught in universities has no value in the real world. The material that is taught in some fields is

often unsupported, incorrect, or harmful."

Chia and Holt (2008: 471) characterize discussions of the difference between business school outcomes and practitioner-valued capabilities as follows: "The debate brings into focus both the nature and impact of formal knowledge realized through management research and the apparent lack of practical skill, self-critical insight and awareness instilled in students of such knowledge... (Mintzberg, 2004)."

Addressing issues of form and content in professional business education, they offer the following observations – "So, in being trained as a professional there is risk that business school students simply ape what is required of them rather than creatively engage with the problems of practice" (Chia & Holt, 2008: 472). These outcomes have been attributed to an over-emphasis on representational knowledge that "stymies any sense of management as an immersed perceiving, coping, and sense-making process ..." (Chia & Holt, 2008: 473). Harrison, Leitch, and Chia (2007: 339) offer a similar conclusion, advising "business schools to move beyond the rule-based, procedural imperatives underlying competence and best practice so that proficiency and genuine mastery of the art of management [and marketing] become realizable."

In search of such a solution, we begin by exploring T2R to reveal the implicit assumptions involved in such methods. In application, it appears that these assumptions, taken together, contribute directly to the learning outcomes criticized. We then present findings from neurological research, and apply these in development of an alternative approach, teaching-to-vary (T2V). In opposition to the assumptions of T2R, T2V is designed to practice students in methods designed to develop a comfort level with varying and

adapting, and a capacity for agile thinking. In closing we provide suggestions for classroom implementation of the T2V approach.

TEACHING-TO-REPEAT: THE IMPORTANCE OF STABILITY AND CONSISTENCY

Behaviorally, the repetition of teaching-to-repeat fosters an efficient and stable view of the things (e.g., Armstrong, 2011). There is a certain comfort in learning that “If this, then that.” But lost to response efficiency in the teaching-to-repeat experience is the development of students’ own skills for producing their own answers, to know when to deviate from past methods (or utilize divergent thinking), or how to come up with unique approaches. These are the very skills needed when businesses confront situations that vary from past experience in significant ways (e.g., Finch et al., 2013).

Further, when stability and consistency are preferred, conflict among ideas and perspectives is not encouraged. This serves to actively discourage questioning. Consequently, whether or not by intention, “teaching-to-repeat” serves to impede questioning and avoid revelations of potential conflict between new ideas and accepted conclusions. Through its “answers” perspective on learning it offers consistency with familiar approaches and “accepted knowledge.” Provision of predetermined answers offers closure.

In contrast, questioning of accepted responses invites variation from “accepted norms,” thereby threatening stability. Moving away from one perspective and toward another requires openness to the possibility of change. In turn, this necessitates a willingness to consider perspectives that may be different. To move from one perspective to another or to challenge one perspective from another perspective is to involve oneself in change. And change represents conflict with stability of the sort implicit in teaching-to-repeat. So behaviorally when T2R methods are applied in the education of future business practitioners, these methods serve to reinforce stability, discourage questioning, and condition consistent, predictable views and approaches.

From the behavioral, we now turn to the neurological and what that research reveals about the potential of neurological effects of repetition. We apply these in a repetition-based educational context to more fully demonstrate the issues involved.

REPEATING AND BRAIN NEUROLOGY

Developmentally the brain is driven by a preference for neurological efficiency and utilizes the processes of pruning and conditioning to achieve that

goal. Synapses are the brain’s connections in which patterns or experiences are stored. If a connection ceases to be used, pruning occurs and the connection is discarded, “freeing resources for connections that matter” (Breznitz & Hemingway, 2012: 109). The brain, then, develops along lines of consolidation around developed patterns, connections, or experiences, increasing the emphasis of the left hemisphere. These patterns allow one to navigate environments continuously along familiar paths, even though the means or paths used for navigation may not be optimal. This prejudice toward developed patterns, toward assuming that what worked in the past should work in the present and beyond, causes tendencies toward less-than-optimization, which is illustrated by the psychological phenomenon of *satisfying* and the mental rigidity and automaticity which accompany it. We “...stop searching when we find a solution that is good enough. Satisfying, together with partial reinforcement of seemingly ‘good enough’ solutions, lead to mental rigidity” (Breznitz & Hemingway, 2012: 51). Following its preference for efficiency, the brain in turn moves toward greater levels of automaticity. “... (A)utomaticity despite being efficient and often useful, precludes innovation and change. It is inappropriate in situations that are different enough from the past situations to require new thinking” (Breznitz & Hemingway, 2012: 32).

Another part in the neurological processing that we call “thinking” is played by the corpus callosum, which controls the communications between the two hemispheres. While little is known about the corpus callosum, it is believed that it can play the role of both activating and/or inhibiting brain regions (e.g., Bloom & Hynd, 2005; van der Knaap & van der Ham, 2011). From an evolutionary perspective it seems to have developed to allow the brain to operate more efficiently (i.e., Aboitz & Montiel, 2003). Assisting in the brain’s processing of information, the corpus callosum becomes conditioned to inhibit accessing the right hemisphere and aids in the process of pruning or eliminating weak brain connections that aren’t frequently activated by use (e.g., Garrido et al., 2009; Larson & Smith, 2011; Grill-Spector, Henson & Martin, 2005). In time, the right hemisphere shrinks along with corpus callosum (e.g., Fling et al., 2011). So the implicit behavioral biases in “teaching-to-repeat,” biases favoring familiar patterns; toward stability and conformity; and in opposition to conflict or moving away from accepted norms are compounded by experiential and efficiency biases of the brain itself.

Clearly it is not enough to criticize teaching-to-repeat. Educators have long recognized behavioral advantages and limitations of such educational methodologies. But given newly revealed neurological implications, perhaps the question for business

educators should be, Can different methods be used more productively? What alternative methods can be used to produce outcomes more in keeping with the preference for agile thinking expressed by those who employ business graduates?

We propose consideration of one alternative approach, “teaching-to-vary.” It is founded upon the use of full brain methodologies, designed to work toward, not against, improved hemispheric balance and toward, not away from the development of more original and adaptive decision-making capabilities.

THE CASE FOR MORE AGILE THINKING

To deal with the complexity, dynamism and ambiguity of today’s world, Lazzara et al. (2010) found that “people must possess mental agility and the ability to adjust quickly yet accurately. Therefore, there is a need to train adaptive expertise to performance successfully” (Lazzara et al., 2010). Neuringer (2002: 672) points to the desirability of being able to respond to situations in a novel way as well: “Behaving in an unusual, variable, or unpredictable manner is sometimes functional. An individual may sample new paths to reach a goal, invoke varied strategies when competing with an opponent, and generate novel combinations of images and concepts when doing scientific or artistic work.”

In collegiate marketing education, the need to function in a dynamic environment is pronounced. Yet here too, concerns have been expressed. Finch et al. (2013) surveyed marketing practitioners to identify areas in the marketing curriculum where the gap between importance and performance were the greatest. The biggest gaps identified were in what they termed meta-skills (i.e., skills that transcended the field of marketing) such as the ability to identify, formulate and solve problems or to adapt to change. Even more significant, they reported that such meta-skills outweighed marketing knowledge in the marketplace and should form the core of any marketing curriculum.

“This validates the assertion by the panel that a new graduate who demonstrates the priority meta-skills will be more competitive in the marketplace when compared with the one who possesses only marketing knowledge. By extension, it is recommended that learning outcomes linked to meta-skill development take priority over marketing knowledge outcomes in both program and course development” (Finch et al., 2013: 65).

These findings would seem to both confirm and extend those of Walker et al. (2009) who examined employers’ perspectives on what college graduates would need to make a successful transition to becoming professional marketers. A key finding of this research is that graduates need to understand more

than the “what’s” and “how’s” of marketing. But in the varying business situations they must navigate, they must also be prepared to demonstrate agility in choosing the “which” and the “when,” as the path itself is a dynamic one. However, as Neuringer asks: “Where does such variability come from? Why can some individuals ‘be loose,’ avoid ruts, and engage in novel actions, whereas others seem set in their ways? How do we increase or decrease variability when it is important to do one or the other – to behave in a nontraditional or creative way when that is needed, and to repeat practiced, predictable response when situations so demand” (Neuringer, 2002: 672)?

This flexible, adaptive thinking has come to be more commonly referred to as mental or thinking agility. Koutstaal (2012: 12) offers an extensive review on discussions of mental agility in her book titled *The Agile Mind*. She finds that debates in the literature have largely been “about whether skill in process or skill in content was most important in problem-solving,” concluding that mental agility encompasses both, and that both are necessary for navigating diverse and variable situations. From her perspective, mental agility is the ability to move back and forth along a continuum from automatic (habitual) processes to controlled (more involving, engaged thinking) processes and at the same time, be able to move back and forth along a continuum from concrete to abstract content (or information). Yet while Koutstaal’s mental agility perspective offers an encompassing description of the agility phenomenon from a psychological perspective, it, like the work of those she criticizes, neglects the neurological aspects of agility.

Taking neurology into account, the following definition is offered as a more comprehensive attempt to describe mental agility or thinking agility (here simply referred to as agility):

Agility is the inclination and ability (skill) to more fully utilize existing brain connections/neuro-networks across hemispheres and also to continuously create new ones. These new brain connections/neuro-networks allow differing forms of content to be formed or utilized via differing means of processing. Agility involves not only the movement/synchronization along existing brain connections/networks but also the inclination and ability (skill) to continuously create new ones -- that is to *vary*.

TEACHING-TO-VARY: ON THE ROAD TO AGILITY

It is through the practice of varying that skill in agility develops, creating the neurological movement

and the creation of new neural connections. At its most basic level, teaching-to-vary is about teaching students to ask new questions instead of teaching students to deliver old answers. Teaching-to-vary asks students to think beyond the given, to view problems from new perspectives, or generate different or alternative solutions, or to craft original responses in changing competitive situations. Students taught in this manner learn and practice the skills to vary, developing agility skills. In teaching-to-vary, the educational emphasis on content is replaced by an emphasis on the development and application of skills. In the teaching-to-vary environment, the reward process must serve to motivate variance. Suggested methods for accomplishing this in educational application are discussed next.

REWARD WHAT YOU VALUE, TO GET WHAT YOU REWARD

In teaching-to-repeat, students are rewarded when they demonstrate their ability to “give back” accurately content provided by others. In teaching-to-vary, original thought and application - varying - is encouraged, so it is important that reinforcement techniques used reflect this. The following research addresses some of the key issues for consideration in this regard.

Rewards and Motivation

Schwartz (1982) found that rewards within a classroom setting can be counterproductive to variability and can cause a negative effect on the intrinsic motivation. Therefore, activities that are already intrinsically rewarding need not be externally rewarded. Rewards may be decreasingly used to encourage activities that are increasingly intrinsically interesting. This would suggest that using rewards for the purposes of encouraging engagement (extrinsic motivation) with an originally negatively perceived task could be used until a more positive disposition develops (intrinsic motivation). But once this development occurs, the rewards should be discontinued.

Differential Reinforcement Effects

In sports as in business strategy, varying one’s responses to an opponent’s action may be critical to being able to win. This requires not only having a repertoire of maneuvers/techniques, but also having the ability to use these in varying combinations and/or sequences to out-manuever one’s opponent. Harding et al. (2004) report findings from a series of sport-based studies showing that differential reinforcement

procedures can be used to improve this type of variation in performance. Their investigation of differential reinforcement procedures to promote response variability in sports competition found that reinforcement of varying techniques during practice led to an increase in response variability in play, and also led to the extinction of repetition behavior.

Temporal Effects of Rewards

Cherot, Jones and Neuringer (1996) found temporal negative effects with rewards. It seems that the proximity of the reward has an “attractive pull” against variability. In other words, with the approach of the reward, the perceived need for the “varying” in thinking decreases and ultimately shuts down. In this sense, the increasing proximity of the reward acts as a de-motivational element. They also report a variety of other studies that show negative effects of rewards on variability in various types of activities.

Potential Age-Related Differences

Lopatto et al. (1998) examined potential age-related differences in cautiousness, stereotypy, and variability using continuous versus intermittent reinforcement. They found that: (1) continuous reinforcement led to higher levels of stereotypy than intermittent reinforcement for both college students and adults, (2) intermittent reinforcement revealed an age difference in effect where adults showed greater levels of stereotypy than college students, and (3) utilizing intermittent (differential) reinforcement led to learning varied response patterns for both groups.

These results in conjunction with the findings of Cherot, Jones and Neuringer (1996) suggest that varying responses are more likely to occur with varied reinforcement and that as the reinforcement event approaches the varying will decrease. In contrast, stereotypy or repeated response patterns develop in conjunction with regular or continuous reinforcement. So it would appear that Neuringer was right when he said that “variability is controlled by its consequences,” and that “repeating and varying, in part, are learned skills under the control of reinforcing consequences” (Neuringer, 2004: 891).

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING-TO-VARY

Teaching-to-vary requires thought in reshaping rewards away from the patterns adopted as a part of a teaching-to-repeat model in order to encourage the development of more agile thinking. It requires recognition and avoidance of various forms of mental fixedness. In teaching-to-vary, the back and forth or conversation replaces the lecture. The ability to ask a

good question becomes more important than the ability to recite answers provided by others. Questions have the potential to create new and varied approaches, so in teaching-to-vary questioning behavior is valued and fostered behavior. Developing *agility*, involves disarming both our psychological and our biological tendencies towards relying on experience and creating instead a sense of comfort or normalcy with the dissonance that accompanies change and difference. It requires an understanding that to teach-to-vary is to embrace, rather than avoid, difference (Hill, 2010; Hill, 2013).

To illustrate implementation of teaching-to-vary in developing more agile management and marketing thinkers, we offer the following, using what Dyer, Gregersen and Christensen (2009) in “The Innovator’s DNA” call the five important “discovery” skills of innovators: associating, questioning, observing, experimenting, and networking. Clearly these skills demonstrate the type of agile thinking that practitioners seek, but don’t find, in too many of today’s business school graduates.

To Practice the Associating Skill: The associating skill involves seeking out new associations by pairing things that aren’t typically seen as being related. Here the educator can demonstrate this skill in class as means to relate what is being taught with students’ personal experiences – “creative ability to make novel connections with the seemingly irrelevant on the part of educator evokes the learner’s sensitivities and encourages the latter’s capacity for the imaginative integration of what is learned with personal experiences” (Chia & Holt 2008: 472). In a teaching-to-vary approach, students could also be asked to come up with unique pairings and to provide new product/service categories based upon the pairings. Similarly, students could be asked to consider how concepts (regardless of where they are developed) could be adapted to other fields. For example, how could off-peak pricing policies used in restaurants and theaters be adapted to alleviate rush hour traffic congestion or how could “virtual reality” (the technology used to impose yard markers and other images on the field during a televised football game) be adapted to retail dressing rooms?

To Practice the Questioning Skill: The questioning skill is directed towards challenging (questioning) the status quo (i.e., the familiar, the accepted) to unfreeze it and open possibilities to move in different directions. In a teaching-to-vary approach, for example, marketing students could be asked to take any marketing concept (e.g. the 4 P’s), question its application in varying situations, and then offer alternatives. This could be done with any management or business concept as well. This exercise also serves to illustrate the need to recognize and overcome obstacles — another aspect of

teaching-to-vary.

To Practice Observing and Network Skills: Observing and networking skills involve exposing oneself to different environments and sources of information for the purposes addressing cognitive entrenchment and to become more flexible in one’s thinking. Egri (2012) suggests that business students could benefit from participating with other schools or colleges on campus such as with the Fine Arts to aid in nurturing their creativity. Students could be taken to different business settings to observe differences in operations and cultures. They could also be encouraged to join and participate in different online blogs and/or offline associations (e.g., the American Marketing Association and a creative fiction writers’ group). It also might be useful after such an experience to invite students to discuss unexpected differences and/or similarities observed among apparently very different types of groups

To Practice the Experimenting Skill: The experimenting skill is the willingness to take risks. An important point of the development of this skill is development of an understanding that failures are a normal part of the innovation process, rather than something to be avoided at all cost. Here, students could be asked to identify several different business ideas developed for one type of situation and test them in an entirely different type of situation to see what might and might not work, and then discuss their experiences.

In conclusion, while these exercises are offered as examples of teaching-to-vary methods, clearly much research is needed to provide a full understanding of the underpinnings of *thinking agility* as well as the various methods to facilitate its development in the classroom and beyond. We invite our colleagues to help us to expand and refine our understanding of this approach, and its applications. Perhaps our discussions will help us to apply more *thinking agility* to the current state of business and management education and might encourage it too to become more open and flexible. Perhaps this will help to improve the degree of practitioner satisfaction with the preparation of business graduates.

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THE UNFORTUNATE DECLINE OF BLOGGING AMONG THE FORTUNE 500: THE DOWNSIDE OF ADOPTING SUBSTITUTE INNOVATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This study follows the adoption and eventual decline of blogging by the Fortune 500. Using Roger's diffusion theory (1963), the process of adopting a newer, exciting innovation to replace blogging is discussed. Despite the interesting capabilities offered by microblogging, we argue that newer tools such as Twitter, or Instagram do not offer key benefits that blogging allows. This means microblogging is not a suitable substitute or a relevant next generation of blogging. Practitioners should reconsider discontinuing their use of blogs in favor of newer tools, and instead increase their understanding of the widespread benefits that each tool can offer.

INTRODUCTION

Social media has rapidly changed the way businesses operate. Consumers have much more say in the conversation, and have access to more information and opinions than ever before. It is for this reason that major corporations have adopted social media tools as an integral part of their marketing strategy.

Social media have been recognized as a technological phenomenon that facilitates communication and collaboration that is embedded in humans' lives (Aakhus et al. 2011). Given the new communications tools available, firms have adopted policies and plans to achieve business goals in which information exchange supports the decision making process (Holsapple and Singh 2000). Many firms have ventured into the world of social media in hope of generating greater revenues and profits as well as increased market share (Amit and Zott 2001). Social media platforms are more frequently used as strategic marketing tools and channels to promote new products or services (Kwak, 2010), reach, observe, and get closer to customers (Boyd and Ellison 2007; Woodcock, Green and Starkey 2011), and to better understand their individual preferences (Li and Shiu 2012). Further, these platforms provide stakeholders with several benefits and services including location based recommendations (Zhao and Lu 2012), user reviews (Hoehle, Scornavacca and Huff 2012), and

development of personal and company brands, which is likely to result in greater incremental value.

Researchers have discussed the adoption of specific products (Herzenstein et al, 2007; Ma et al, 2014), however to our knowledge, little research has been done to look at not only the adoption, but also the replacement of a social media tool with a substitute or newer generation. It is important for scholars as well as practitioners to understand how these tools are being utilized by businesses, and how they are being adopted. Understanding the life cycle of social media tools and their propensity to introduce new tools will be instrumental in selecting and adopting the best approach for a specific company and target audience. It will also demonstrate the application of diffusion theory to social media tools in the business environment.

This study will focus on the Fortune 500. Fortune Magazine annually compiles a list of America's largest corporations, aptly named the "Fortune 500" (F500) given their size and wealth. Due to the hugely influential role that these companies play in the business world, studying their adoption and use of social media tools offers important insights into the future of commerce. These corporations provide a look at emergent social media trends among America's most successful companies which are then emulated by other businesses.

This article discusses the longitudinal adoption pattern of major social media tools over the last several years among the Fortune 500. Specifically, blogging is

focused on as one of the first tools to be adopted by businesses in the late 1990's (www.creativeblog.com 2014). We predict that blogging is currently declining and that newer tools are emerging to take its place. Due to the labor intensive and time-consuming nature of blogging, it is likely that it will be slowly replaced by a newer generation of tools called microblogs. Unfortunately, in contrast to a typical substitution, microblogs cannot offer many of the core benefits of blogging and therefore businesses may be abandoning an important tool too soon.

Next, we present a short history of the diffusion and adoption of innovations, and the growth of microblogging, as well as our hypotheses. The methodology and results of our longitudinal study on the adoption of social media tools by Fortune 500 companies follows. We conclude with managerial implications, limitations and suggestions for future research.

DIFFUSION AND ADOPTION OF INNOVATIONS

Diffusion research has a long and rich history (Barnett, 1953; Rogers, 1962; Bass, 1969; Brown, 1981; Norton and Bass, 1987; Mahajan, Muller, and Wind, 2000). Rogers defines the diffusion of innovations as "the process by which an innovation is communicated over time among the members of a social system" (Rogers, 1995). Researchers have defined innovations as typically resulting from a change to or the elimination of product attributes or features within an existing category (Goldenberg, Mazursky and Solomon, 1999; Moreau, Lehmann and Markman, 2001).

Since its start in the 1960s, diffusion research has focused on the entire life-cycle course of an innovation, specifically from the perspective of communications. Traditionally, its origin is traced back to a model developed by Bass (1969), which focuses on first-purchase demand and models the timing of adoption of an innovation. Rogers (1983), delineates five attributes that explain the rate of adoption of an innovation: Relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability. Ostlund (1974) added another attribute, the perceived risk of an innovation.

In addition to these attributes, Rogers also explains other variables that can affect the rate of adoption such as (1) the type of innovation-decision, (2) the nature of communication channels diffusing the innovation at various stages in the innovation-decision process, (3) the nature of the social system in which the innovation is diffusing, and (4) the extent of change agents' promotion efforts in diffusing the innovation (Rogers, 1983). Notably, he suggests that the "relationship

between communication channels and the attributes of the innovation often interact to slow down or speed up the rate of adoption" (Rogers, 1983).

Another issue that the literature has considered when explaining product adoption is the influence of substitutions. Typically, it is believed that a new generation of a product will eventually replace the older generation. However, for many products, old and new generations may coexist for a long period of time (Peres, Mahajan and Muller, 2009).

A significant and frequently-used model of technological substitution was proposed by Fisher and Pry (1971). Their model purports three assumptions. The first of these is that "many technological advances can be considered as competitive substitutions of one method of satisfying a need for another." Second, that new technologies often completely supplant older ones. Third, they expressed their market share model in terms of Pearl's Law: "The fractional rate of fractional substitution of new for old is proportional to the remaining amount of the old left to be substituted" (Norton and Bass, 1987). The subject of technological substitutions and new technological generations has been of interest to scholars over the last several decades (Pae and Lehmann 2003; Kim Chang and Shocker 2000; Mahajan and Muller 1996; Bayus 1994; Norton and Bass 1992).

The adoption of social media tools by the Fortune 500 has been looked at longitudinally for almost a decade (Barnes and Jacobsen, 2013). What tools companies have chosen to use and how newer generations or competitive platforms have been adopted can be seen to have dramatic effects over a short duration of time. Despite key differences in the online environment, recent research has shown that the life-cycles of social media platforms do not differ from those of durable consumer goods (Franses, 2014).

Even more notably, the same study found using the Bass Model that, on average, the popularity of any given form of social media peaks after 4 years. Based on the knowledge that blogs are one of the most mature social media tools, we believe that blogging is now declining, and primed to not become extinct, but be slowly replaced by a substitute or newer generation.

In 2007, Tumblr was created as the first major site to offer a variety of different post types, unlike that of traditional blogs (WebdesignerNews, 2011). Today, Twitter has become a dominant force as one of the most widely recognized microblogs, allowing users to share information, pictures, and links with a limited amount of text. Despite allowing users to share content, microblogs function in a remarkably different manner. Where as typical blogs allow for more text and

information, as well as offer better search optimization and branding options, microblogs offer short and more visual alternatives of sharing information. We argue that, while meeting all of Rogers (1983) criteria for adoptability, microblogs are not appropriate substitutes for blogs. Tversky (1977) evaluated substitutes by looking at the number of similar features compared to the number of distinct features. Of importance for substitute products is that they are capable of providing the core benefits required by consumers (Shocker et al, 2004). Despite involving information, the number of distinct benefits offered by blogs that are not offered by microblogs makes microblogs unacceptable substitutes.

The unique benefits of blogging have been the subject of many news and practitioner publications including Forbes, Hubspot and books on corporate blogging (Weil, 2014). There is agreement on at least three major advantages of traditional blogging that do not typically result from microblogging tools (DeMers 2015, Eridon 2015).

These include:

1. **Thought leadership.** The discussion of topical industry issues, answers to significant product/industry questions or taking positions of more complex topics like sustainability, global threats, health and safety or clean water/food.
2. **Driving traffic to the website.** Blogs cue search engines that a website is active and provide opportunity to show up in organic searches. This not only brings in traffic, but potential leads and sales.
3. **Serving as a repository of content.** The blog can inform other social media and they in turn can point back to the blog. This relationship unifies the message and supports the brand.

Knowing this, it is beneficial to evaluate how the most successful companies are adopting and utilizing these formats. If blogs are no longer thought of as being effective tools, despite the specific benefits that only they offer, the decline of blogging may have a serious impact without a suitable substitute.

Based on this, we propose the following hypotheses:

H1: The adoption rates for blogging among the Fortune 500 have been and will continue to decline.

H2: The decline in blogging among the Fortune 500 will be contrasted with higher adoption rates of a newer “generation” of tools that allow for microblogging.

H3: Despite the decline in blogging, the Fortune 500 uses blogs to accomplish goals that they believe cannot yet be met with newer tools.

METHODOLOGY

The following definition was used to locate 2015 F500 corporations with a social media presence: A company was counted as having a presence on each platform studied if *the primary corporation had an active account (activity within the past 30 days)*.

It is worth noting that there is evidence of usage of social media tools such as blogs inside these corporations. This research did not look at that subject, but instead focused on public-facing corporate blogs as a barometer of social media usage to engage the public.

All corporations were analyzed using multiple steps. First, working from the published 2015 F500 list, all corporate home pages were examined for links to, or mention of, social media accounts. If a link wasn't found on the company's home page a search was performed using search engines. Any links resulting from these searches were followed and evaluated using the established criteria. This proved to be an effective method since additional social media accounts were located. The process was repeated for each social media platform.

All 500 companies on the 2015 F500 were reviewed and classified by independent coders. Based on typical content, they were classified as though leadership blogs (typically posting about their industry and current issues), branding blogs (focused on products and brands), informational (providing reviews, spec's, instructions or helpful information) or other (dedicated to their mascot, charities, foundations etc.)

RESULTS

Table 1: Fortune 500 Corporations with Public Facing Corporate Blogs 2009-2015

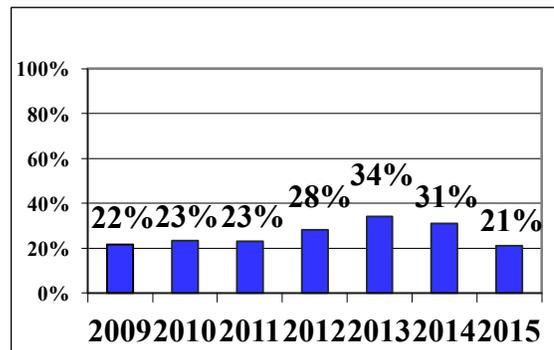


Table 2: Fortune 500 Corporations with Public Facing Twitter Accounts 2010-2015

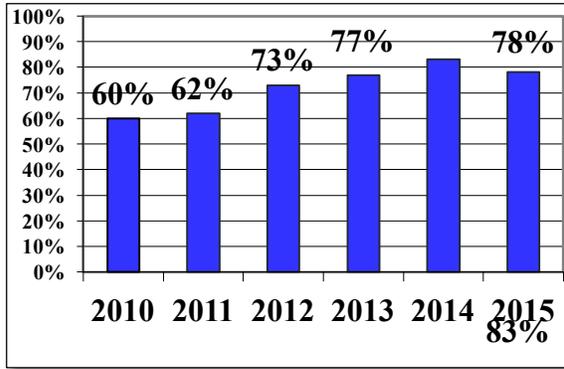
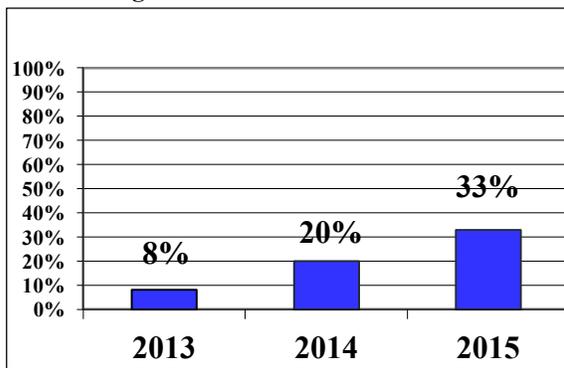


Table 3: Fortune 500 Corporations with Instagram Accounts 2013-2015



H1: The adoption rates for blogging among the Fortune 500 will continue to decline.

In 2011 the leveling off of blogging began with only 23% hosting a public facing corporate blog. After that, things changed. In 2012, there was a leap forward and 28% hosted public facing blogs. That surge continued in 2013 showing 34% of these corporate giants creating and sharing content through blogs. A decline in blog use began in 2014 with a decrease of 3% from the 2013 numbers. The decline continued with the 2015 list: 103 (21%) of the F500 companies have blogs, or 10% fewer than 2014. The authors view the 2012, 2013 spike to be the end of their surge forward. The decline since then is duplicated in other businesses like the Inc. 500 (Barnes, 2014).

H2: The decline in blogging among the Fortune 500 will be contrasted with an increase in the adoption of a newer “generation” of tools that allow for microblogging or a shorter and faster format.

As seen in the tables above, over three quarters of the Fortune 500 corporations have Twitter accounts and Instagram enjoyed a double-digit increase in adoption this year among this group. Twitter is an

online social networking service that enables users to send and read short 140 character messages called “tweets”. It was introduced in 2006 as a microblogging tool which allowed for short posts. It currently has over 300 million active users and has become a favorite tool among the Fortune 500. Instagram was introduced in 2010 as an online mobile photo-sharing and social networking service with blog-like features for short posts. It claims 78 million US users and is growing quickly among businesses. Now, one third of the Fortune 500 use this platform. These two platforms are highlighted due to the simple fact that they allow for the dissemination of original content like blogs, but in abbreviated format.

H3: Despite the decline in blogging, the Fortune 500 uses blogs to accomplish goals that cannot yet be met as effectively with newer tools.

Primary Objective of Blog	Percent	Example
Thought Leadership	42%	Ford Motor Co., Cisco, Whole Foods
Branding	26%	Coca-Cola, Southwest Air, Disney, Starbucks
Informational	24%	Johnson & Johnson, Oracle
Other (Charity/Mascot)	8%	Progressive Insurance, Kellogg’s

In this study, the Fortune 500 blogs were reviewed and classified by their typical postings. Most fell under the heading of “thought leadership”. This is the positioning of the corporation as a leader in industry issues. For example, Ford Motor Company writes extensively about sustainability, safety and innovation. Whole Foods dedicates posts to sustainability, animal welfare and GMOs in food (Plutsky 2014). Others used their blogs predominantly to promote their brands. These include Coca-Cola and Starbucks who focus on logos, products and brand strength (Pacinelli 2014). Johnson & Johnson has long been know for disseminating consumer tips on health and wellness and uses its blog to provide information on topics ranging from flu shots to vaccinations. Some brands have mascots that are so popular, they have their own blogs. Kellogg’s Tony the Tiger and Flo from Progressive are examples of corporate blogs using mascots.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The Fortune 500 are iconic in the business world, representing the wealthiest and most successful US corporations. As such, businesses look at trends

among this group to emulate. This study documents that the Fortune 500 are moving away from traditional long form blogging and moving towards shorter, more nimble formats of microblogging sites like Twitter or using blog-like features on Instagram. But do these newer tools offer the same advantages as the more mature blog tool? Is this a trend that could negatively impact a business? There are implications for businesses that choose to follow the lead of the Fortune 500.

According to Forbes (Makovsky 2012) there are many good reasons for a company to employ a traditional blog. These include:

- Humanizing the company
- Enhancing visibility
- Building credibility and trust
- Establishing industry expertise
- Promoting products and policies
- Addressing important issues
- Generating leads ... and business
- Defending the company against its critics

All of these are best executed by the longer, more content rich format of the traditional blog. In addition, there is the issue of ownership. A blog on a corporate website is owned and operated by the company without restriction on length, content or tone. This is not true of the microblogging platforms which all impose restrictions.

If businesses get caught up in what appears to be the decline of blogging and believe that Twitter, Instagram are new generation replacements, they could be negatively impacted.

LIMITATIONS

This study has several limitations. First, while this study is a statistically valid examination of Fortune 500 companies, these results may not apply to all organization. The most successful companies share many attributes that other companies may not, making these results less generalizable. Next, while we found proof that the adoption of blogging has decreased, this study did not delve into why companies were not adopting it, or why they had discontinued their use of this tool. Lastly, this study focuses on the use of social media tools by companies. In order to best understand why specific tools are being used, it may be important to study the consumers who are utilizing these tools. While we assume the most successful companies are utilizing tools that are beneficial, having a consumer perspective may help to increase our understanding of how or why certain methods of communication may be more effective.

FUTURE RESEARCH

Based on the limitations of this study, it would be beneficial to study other companies (ie. Not-for-profits, technology companies, companies with strong brand recognition) to identify key differences in how certain tools are used. When studying the adoption or lack of adoption of blogging, it would be important to ascertain why certain tools are being adopted. Despite Twitter and Facebook being popular platforms for consumers, are they the best platforms for generating sales, increasing brand recognition, or communicating with a target audience? Understanding why companies use these tools or why they stop or avoid using others may help to explain key differences in the adoption of specific tools. Lastly, a study comparing consumer use and recognition of social media utilization by brands with actual companies social media strategies may demonstrate a disconnect between theory and practice. If brands are trying to reach consumers in a comfortable setting, and yet, consumers do not appreciate this outreach, it is possible some tools may do more harm than good.

As social media continues to grow, and technologies quickly advance, these tools will be more important than ever for spreading information. New tools may come and go in accordance with well-established theories of adoption, but when it comes to blogging, companies should remain vigilant in utilizing a blog for information, and for securing a reputation of expertise and trust. Despite the decline in adoption of blogs, they still serve a greater purpose, and companies should think twice before jumping ship for a smaller and less substantive experience.

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EDUCATING AND INSPIRING TRANSNATIONAL ENTREPRENEURS (TEs) IN EMERGING ECONOMIES: AN EMPIRICAL CASE FROM CHINA

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ABSTRACT

We explore avenues for integrating entrepreneurial case studies from emerging economies into business and marketing curricula aiming at educating future Transnational Entrepreneurs (TEs). The paper contributes to the ongoing discussion about the underlying forces that drive transformation of universities in order to cope with globalization. Although most research focuses on the importance of emerging markets for multinational companies, opportunities for Transnational Entrepreneurship have not been largely discussed in the academic literature. Our ethnographic research, focused on a successful transnational startup in China, demonstrates the value of using entrepreneurial lenses as a catalyst for innovation in academic research and curriculum development.

INTRODUCTION

Arguably, the significance of industrial revolution long recognized as one of the key events in economic history today pales in comparison with “the defining megatrend of our age: the advent of a new consuming class in emerging countries long relegated to the periphery of the global economy” (McKinsey and Company, 2012). Although a substantial body of academic research focuses on opportunities and challenges for multinational companies in the emerging markets, opportunities they present in the entrepreneurial sector remain relatively unexplored. An aftermath of the global economic crisis coupled with rapid globalization saw the emergence of Transnational Entrepreneurs (TEs) as a new breed of entrepreneurs from developed countries starting businesses in developing countries. In the last decade Transnational Entrepreneurship was established as an independent field of study between international entrepreneurship (IE) and ethnic entrepreneurship (EE). Transnational Entrepreneurship is a growing phenomenon, with an increasing number of professionals deciding to utilize opportunities in the fast-developing, dynamic emerging markets that offer a large commercial scale and fast return on investment.

China’s economic success is often attributed to government and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). Little is known that China is one of the biggest entrepreneurial markets in the world, with small and medium-sized enterprises estimated to account for about 60% of the country’s industrial output (IFC, 2012). China ranks rather favorably among the group of nations, leading on dimensions such as fear of failures and entrepreneurial intentions (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2010). Moreover, China’s homegrown startups are amongst the most successful in the world: in 2014, Alibaba Group Holding Limited had the largest U.S. IPO ever (\$25 billion) (Forbes, 2014).

China is currently in the process of transitioning from manufacturing to a service-based economy. This period of change brings about unparalleled opportunities in the not-yet-saturated Chinese services industry. We focus on private education in China which presents one of the biggest opportunities in the history of global services market owing to the market volume, accumulated wealth and the raising purchasing power. The burgeoning Chinese middle class is willing to spend more of their disposable income on education than almost anywhere else in the world.

We present findings from the ethnographic research focused on a TE startup in the Chinese private education domain. The

company offers full time preschool (ages 3-6) and part time afterschool (ages 6-15) English language education to Chinese consumers. Our research is based on participatory observations held over an 18-month period on a sample of 150 consumers (parents as buyers of education), and in-depth interviews with 49 respondents from this group using stratified random sampling. This research serves as a base for discussion about integrating emerging economy entrepreneurial case studies into business and marketing courses. Our empirical contributions aim to enhance the existing body of knowledge on entrepreneurship and communications in a cross-cultural context, and help prepare the students for entrepreneurship as a career choice. We demonstrate the importance and impact of startups and the potential they have to shape global market trends. A growing critique of entrepreneurship education is that it needs to give more attention to the development of entrepreneurial attitudes, aspirations and activities (Regele and Neck, 2012). With this in mind, we hope to enhance the entrepreneurship education curricula in order to inspire the students to take a holistic view of entrepreneurship in the international business context.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As an emerging field of study Transnational Entrepreneurship (TE) lacks a common definition. Although Transnational Entrepreneurs form an important aspect of international business expansion (Connelly, 2010), academic research in this domain lacks rigor (Drori et al., 2006). TEs are seen as entrepreneurs that migrate from one country to another while maintaining business-related linkages with their former country of origin (Drori et al., 2009). They are defined as “social actors capable of bearing risks and taking strategic initiatives to establish, integrate, and sustain foreign operations” (Yeung, 2002, p. 37). Owing to their agility and a unique transnational cultural repertoire, TEs may be in a better position to elaborate, adapt or modify the rules to novel circumstances (Drori et al., 2009), and internationalize directly (Terjesen & Elam, 2009).

We place Chinese private education in the context of international private schooling sector. This booming segment is predicted to almost double by 2022 with annual fee income expected to reach \$ 60 billion (ICEF, 2013). In

the first decade of this century the number of students attending English speaking international schools globally grew by 140 percent, while at the same time the number of schools doubled and their fee income more than quadrupled (International School Consultancy Group, 2014). This growth rate has prompted academics to question whether there are enough teachers needed to staff new schools and where are they to be found (Hayden and Thompson, 2011). At the same time, there has been a shift away from a non-profit to a for-profit model in the international schooling domain. This process is accompanied with proliferation of private educational companies as well as a growing army of investors and ‘edupreneurs’ (Bunnell, 2014). This new dynamic has led to growth of Transnational Entrepreneurs in this domain across the world. China opened up to international education only a decade ago and it offers a large commercial scale. Chinese private education market has a counter-cyclical nature where demand significantly outstrips the supply, and where ability to pay is rising rapidly (Morgan Stanley, 2011).

Without a doubt, globalization is a multidimensional concept rather than a precisely defined term, referring most often to economic phenomena and global marketization. Although universities are regarded as actors and catalysts of social and economic development, they are loosely coupled organizations in comparison with business corporations (Becher and Kogan, 1992; Cohen and March, 1986). Regardless of the universal nature of knowledge, universities are not particularly globalized in comparison with other organizations, even in the advanced economies. Moreover, contradictions exist in roles of universities because of the their implicit local (host society) and universal functions (Castells, 2001).

DISCUSSION

Current efforts to internationalize academic curricula often focus on conceptual issues and international student exchanges. The knowledge-based view of TE defines influential knowledge resources as market and experiential knowledge, interpreting the latter as network knowledge, cultural knowledge, and entrepreneurial knowledge (Mejri and Umamoto, 2010). Using the knowledge-based view for understanding internationalization and competitive advantage, we suggest that while

market factors are integrated, cultural and entrepreneurial factors are not well represented in international business and marketing courses.

Empirical Case: Transnational Startup in China

We analyzed a transnational educational startup in China with client retention of 80%, and growing at an annual rate of over 30% without outside investment. This growth rate is over 10% higher than the market average of 20% for English language private education in China. Success of this company is to a large degree contributed to communication used as a tool for achieving competitive advantage and high client retention.

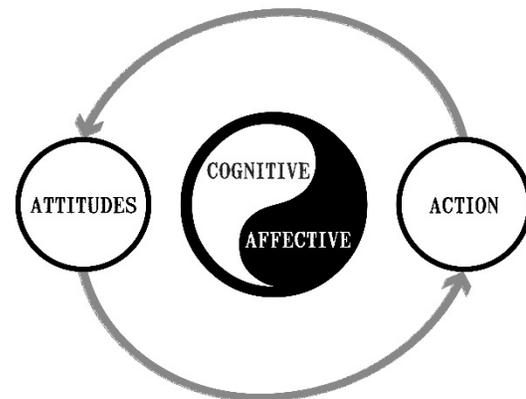
Our findings suggest that there is a profound influence of communication on purchasing decisions and client retention in our segment of analysis: 65.3% of the respondents found it 'very important', 34.7% related to communication as 'somewhat important', while none considered it 'not important'. Amongst the respondents, 59.2 % used in-person communication with the school's representatives as a sole criterion in the final selection process, while 26.5% used advertising compared to 14.3% that used social media, both in combination with in-person communication with the school. Amongst them, 69.4% used only friend referrals to narrow down to their evoked set. This demonstrates strong influence of peer groups on the purchasing dynamics. In this process, communication plays a crucial role.

Our research revealed that communication is one of the key incentives for the Chinese parents to pursue Western education for their children. Majority of parents do not interpret differences between Chinese and Western educational systems in terms of educational methodologies, and only 36% of them think that there are essential methodological differences between the two educational systems. Conversely, 77% of parents believe that there are major structural, system-level differences, and these structural differences have a profound effect on the nature of communication. Chinese education is characterized with large classrooms and scarce, opaque, top-down communication through 'middle men' (teaching assistants) who serve as negotiators between the parents and the teachers. Consequently, Chinese parents are drawn to frequent, ongoing, direct and

transparent communication within the Western educational system, in contrast to the Chinese public system. Thereby, while majority of the parents do not perceive Western educational methodologies as different and therefore superior to the Chinese, they relate to communication as key indicator of differences. As such, communication is one of the key incentives to pursue Western education.

Based on our research we suggested a novel consumer response model, shown in the Figure 1 below.

Figure 1. Chinese 'Hierarchy of Effects'



This construct starts with action, namely a purchasing decision at the beginning of the process. Purchasing decision is followed by simultaneous and inseparable cognitive and affective attitude formation stages. Due to collective nature of the Chinese culture and the societal pressure to master English language and exceed in multiple academic fields, most Chinese parents enroll their children in Western learning centers 'by default'. Attitude formation commences after purchasing decision had been made whereby cognitive and affective stages are intertwined. The idea of unification of emotion and reason originates from the Chinese culture where it presents one of the central philosophical concepts. Its etymological roots are found in the Chinese language: the Chinese word 'xin' (心), a character as well as a stem, translates both as 'heart' as well as 'mind', depending on the context.

At the core our research is an emic approach to interpretation of culture. This approach is based on Fang and Faure's (2011) suggestion to extend the prevalent static cultural dimensions model (Hofstede, 1991) for analysis

of the Chinese culture. They suggested that the Chinese worldview embraces the opposites as complementary, rather than contradictory. To distinguish from a Western binary logic interpreted as 'either-or', this approach is seen as 'both-and'. Fang and Faure's (2011) approached the contemporary Chinese communication characteristics from a change perspective, suggesting that traditional 'Yin Yang' philosophy strongly impacts the Chinese communication characteristics. 'Yin Yang' approach reflects the inherent, ancient Chinese fascination with change as the fundamental principle of the universe (Fang, 2014).

Our research demonstrates the benefits of using emic approach for cultural analysis. Rather than using prevalent Western models for interpretation of non-Western cultures, we show how a culturally appropriate approach for interpretation of normative cultural values reveals important elements that determine perceptions of service value and drive purchasing behavior. Our conceptual framework is a result of research using entrepreneurial lenses for understanding the value differences between Chinese consumers and Western service providers. Using 'eight contradictory value pairs' as the key methodological framework (Faure and Fang, 2008), our research demonstrated that there exist simultaneously seemingly contradictory value orientations in the Chinese society, which can nonetheless be true: China's single most important cultural characteristic is the ability to manage paradoxes (Fang and Faure, 2001). Thereby, the tendency and ability to reconcile between paradoxical values towards achieving harmony, is the key characteristic that affects behavior and communication patterns of our target group.

The company we analyzed uses communications as a business strategy for client retention. Starting from the premise of paradoxical nature of Chinese values and communication their strategy is based on the assumption that clients seek personalized guidance throughout the process of paradox management. Approaching communications from a perspective of continuous change, communications is seen as a learning process whereby both parties transform through the process of interaction. This is distinctly different from persuasion-based approach practiced by most peer companies in this segment in China, geared towards showing superiority of Western programs and

methodological approaches. The idea of paradox management serves as a guiding principle for integration across Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) channels. It influences the choice of IMC tactics, whereby personal selling prevails over other tactics. This is distinctly different from majority peer companies relying heavily on advertising, whereby the company we analyzed spends less than 10% of its marketing budget on advertising. Their communications strategy has direct implications on staffing and resource allocation. Rather than having designated marketing communications staff, all administrative staff as well as faculty are trained to use communication based on paradoxical values as the key source for client retention, and thereby competitive advantage. In addition to performing client management roles based on this strategy through personal selling, all staff members also actively participate in daily social media activities and have designated social media roles.

Our case shows startup innovation in action. It demonstrates that startups can use customer service as a source of competitive advantage in absence of resources available to multinational companies. While startups are vulnerable to market conditions and have to adjust their strategies accordingly, at the same time they shape the market and have opportunities to become trend - setters. Their approach to client service influences the market as a whole because it raises client expectations.

CURRICULUM DESIGN IMPLICATIONS AND CLASSROOM IMPLEMENTATION

Based on the findings from our research, we suggest integration of entrepreneurial cases from emerging economies into business and marketing courses. Currently, entrepreneurship is taught as a separate and often an elective course. Our suggested approach is based on cross-fertilization between academic and business domains. To that end, we suggest a service agency template as a framework for curriculum design by integrating case studies from emerging economies with a view of their application in the domain of Transnational Entrepreneurship. This implies industry-level approach, rather than business practice and business issues driven approach for case study selection, using industry area focus practiced by professional service agencies (for example, communication agencies). Thereby,

instead of using business segments such as operations or marketing and the business issues arising within these domains, we suggest industry segment as a criterion for introducing empirical case studies from emerging economies.

Connectivity of global markets provides opportunities to diversify geographically, and industry-based approach mitigates risks of focusing on a single emerging market, while also enabling the students to streamline their knowledge towards specializing in industry segments across geographies. While focus on business domains or specific business issues as a criterion for case study selection present an effective way of teaching theoretical concepts, this approach is likely to make less practical impact. Our approach shows how a promising industry segment could reveal tangible opportunities for Transnational Entrepreneurship and inspire students to strategize about their future careers from a fresh angle.

While full integration of the business functional areas such as accounting, finance and managerial economics in the context of new venture development remains challenging, there is space for cross-fertilization between disciplines. In particular, there is a strong case for integration of ethnology and sociology frameworks with management science tools to research emerging economies. Such approach enables understanding of the value system differences between Western and developing economies. These differences are a prerequisite for understanding consumer behavior differences, necessitating different business approaches in non-Western economies. Thus far, behavioral science and psychology frameworks have been integrated into the business courses to shed light on consumer behavior in the Western markets, however application of other frameworks has been limited. Consequently, firms are struggling to understand their consumers in emerging economies, in particular in the services domain.

Classroom implementation includes, though it does not limit to, the following:

Introduction of emerging economy research into the lesson planning as an integral part of the course content inclusive of economic, political and social indicators at macro and micro levels. This approach will enable the students to understand the entire cycle of a startup venture within a specific context. Understanding the context is of crucial

importance in dynamic, fast-developing economies.

Industry-level analysis in emerging economies in order to understand a full life cycle of growth-oriented startups and encourage industry-level specialization, using examples such as private education discussed in this paper.

Cultural analysis of the emerging economy business context in which the startups operate. Rather than using Western models, this is achieved through emic approach to cultural analysis as demonstrated in this paper. Cultural analysis is relevant for better understanding of consumer behavior as well as social entrepreneurship as an integral part of the course content.

Comparative case studies between successful startups in Western and emerging economies for understanding the distinctions between growth-oriented startups in developing economies and SMEs with limited growth prospects.

Development of a transnational startup business plan in a selected emerging economy and industry of choice, applying the aforementioned tools and analyzing their importance for conceptualizing, developing and managing successful TE ventures.

CONTRIBUTION AND LIMITATIONS

Startups are under pressure to innovate faster and operate in a more agile fashion in order to survive in a highly competitive market and compete with established companies. Learning from startup experiences is an effective way to demystify entrepreneurship as a career choice. Because startups face different challenges than established companies, our ethnographic research has enabled us to identify new issues that otherwise may not be pertinent, or apparent to large multinationals in China.

We used Chinese education industry as an example, shedding light on opportunities currently presented to Transnational Entrepreneurs in one of the fastest growing industry segments in the world. We demonstrate the benefits of entrepreneurial and ethnographic approach for devising innovative communications strategies that could be used as business strategy.

Westerners often waver between fascination and fear when it comes to China (Faure, 2003). With this in mind we try to demystify China from yet another angle in order

to inspire innovation in cross-cultural research. This is particularly relevant considering that global consideration of entrepreneurship education is needed to recognize the impact of culture, acknowledging that values arising from the nation and region resonate down to the level of the organization (George and Zahra, 2002).

We posit that integration of TE case studies from emerging economies into existing courses would contribute to globalization of universities and enhance their role as catalysts of social and economic development.

Although ethnographic research is based on the analysis of one cultural group (Creswell, 2002), our research is limited to a single company in one city. We encourage research in second and third tier Chinese cities offering multiple opportunities for TEs in multiple service segments.

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THIN SLICE JUDGEMENT ACCURACY: THE IMPACT OF STARVED KNOWLEDGE WITHIN THE INTERNET WEBSITE ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT

The impact of thin slice judgements can be seen throughout the field of marketing including consumer psychology, brand management, customer service, (Peracchio & Luna, 2006), sales (Ambady et al, 2006), and services marketing (Naylor (2007). This study proposes an explanation for the thin slice judgment phenomenon that supports the work of Ambady and Rosenthal (1992). The study is conducted in the context of internet websites to extend the thin slice judgment enquiry into another inanimate context. The study's design deliberately starves the thin slice judgment of knowledge availability under control conditions to demonstrate absence of this effect. As a result, it is learned that the occurrence of thin slice judgment phenomenon can be found in evaluating internet websites.

INTRODUCTION

Intuitive mental processing is critical for effective social and interpersonal interactions (Ambady 2010). These thin slice judgements are based upon tacit, implicit knowledge that makes verbal explanations and reasoning unnecessary. Research on thin slice judgments shows that exposure to fleeting stimuli can lead to the decoding of conspicuous symbolism (Scott, Mende and Bolton, 2013), social judgements (Ambady, 2010), accurate evaluations of salesperson performance (Ambady et al. 2006), judgements regarding brands and customer service (Peracchio and Luna 2006) accurately predict end of semester course evaluations for teachers (Ambady and Rosenthal 1993) and patient satisfaction in the doctor-patient relationships (Hall, Roter and Rand 1981). Thin slice judgments seem to exhibit characteristics of an automatic process along the lines of cognitive efficiency of the judgment, co-occurring with a lack of control, lack of awareness, and lack of intention (Peracchio and Luna 2006). Thus, unlike effortful control processes that are resource hungry, automatic processes yield a cognitive ability to complete effortless, mundane tasks without conscious thought to intermediate steps or sequence.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

An intriguing aspect is the *accuracy* in thin slice judgments. In a meta-analysis across 65 studies based on ratings from behavioral observations of no more than 300 seconds, Ambady and Rosenthal (1992) report an average effect size of .39 (correlation between predicted thin slice judgments and the corresponding objectively established fact) and offer three 'tentative' explanations for this accuracy.

The first, based on an ecological approach to social perception (McArthur and Baron 1983), suggests that dimensions of personality that are interpersonally oriented are detected faster (i.e., from thin slices) because it is a survival requirement. This view leans on observations of expressive human behavior (Ambady and Rosenthal 1992) and hence, falls short in explaining judgments that involve inanimate stimuli. However, as we discuss below these effects prevail in several instances even with inanimate stimuli.

Their second explanation is based on activation of plausible judgments from memory based on stereotypes and categorizations. According to Rosch (1978), people seek 'cognitive efficiency' by categorizing objects and events in a way that maximizes similarity among objects in a category. A new object is 'identified' as belonging to a category by a matching process that minimizes the differences between the attributes of the new object and the 'prototype' or the category exemplar most representative of the category (Rosch 1978). Thus,

thin slice judgment is an outcome of an adaptive cognitive system that adopts heuristics--explanations that are generally valid most of the time.

Finally, a third likely explanation is where thin slice judgments prevent distracting stimuli from masking the fading feelings resulting from the focal stimulus that precede judgment. For example, it has been shown in other contexts that stereotypes are often automatic and are activated even in individuals who are otherwise committed to egalitarian views, unless consciously replaced by the individual (Devine 1989).

While humans can rapidly predict social outcomes from brief samples of behavior of other humans in an unaware, non-conscious manner (Ambady and Rosenthal 1992), can stimuli from inanimate objects obtain similar effects? For example, one study shows that people can predict the personality type of a person from thin slice exposure in a visit to a person's room (Gosling et al 2002) with remarkable accuracy. Further brief encounters with material objects such as boardroom tables and brief cases can elicit automatic judgments (Kay et al 2004).

In evolutionary terms, judgments need to be both fast and accurate while being limited by availability of cognitive resources. The human cognitive system is adaptive and plays a percentage game in seeking to conserve cognitive resources and in providing faster responses by adopting heuristics--explanations that are generally valid most of the time. Accessibility is the 'activation potential' (Higgins 1996) of a knowledge element and "...the greater the overlap between features of some stored knowledge and attended features of a stimulus... the greater is the likelihood that the knowledge will be activated in the presence of the stimulus (Higgins 1996)." It is reasonable that explanations that are generally valid most of the time enjoy greater overlap with the stimuli and have greatest likelihood of recall. Thus, thin slice judgments are adoptions and heuristic deployments of explanations that have been generally valid most of the time.

The availability heuristic shows that accessibility experience mediates judgment (Tversky and Kahneman 1974). A vivid demonstration of this heuristic is the ease-of-retrieval effect where Schwarz (1991) showed that when participants were asked to recall twelve, as opposed to six, instances of self-assertiveness, they subsequently judged themselves to be less assertive. One could argue that ease-of-retrieval effect obtained thus is an exploitation of the thin slice judgment on its way. Further, applicability of the accessed knowledge through judged usability (Higgins 1996) or diagnosticity (Feldman and Lynch

1988) is a downstream phenomenon that occurs after 'mere accessibility' (Raghubir and Menon 2003).

Thin slice judgments, by definition, preclude the possibility that accessed knowledge would be stopped in its tracks for further validation before deployment. Menon and Raghubir (2003) show that ease-of-retrieval effect exhibits all features of an automatic phenomenon; that it reverses if discounted (i.e., equivalent to stopping thin slice judgment on its tracks) but only if such discounting happens under adequate availability of cognitive resource (equivalent to persistence of thin slice judgment). It should be unsurprising then that thin slice judgments are accurate. Ease-of retrieval is an effect obtained by false stepping thin slice judgment. The only instance when accurate thin slice judgment will not ensue is when the knowledge itself is unavailable because one can only access what is available (Higgins 1996).

This study proposes an explanation for the thin slice judgment phenomenon that supports the work of Ambady and Rosenthal (1992). We do this in the context of internet websites to extend the thin slice judgment enquiry into another inanimate context. Our design deliberately starves the thin slice judgment of knowledge availability under control conditions to demonstrate absence of this effect.

Perrachio and Luna (2006) suggest research in several potential application areas in consumer psychology involving 'thin slice' judgment that include consumer judgments of websites given that the internet pervades everyday life today. However consumer attention span on the internet is rather limited. A visitor may wait no more than 4-5 seconds for the page to fall and in that time he makes a thin slice judgment on the website. New websites bury links into e-mails that an occasional recipient clicks, draws a thin slice and decides to linger or move on. Therefore, our primary research purpose is to determine whether thin slice judgments apply to judgments made about websites. And, if they apply, how accurate are those judgments?

METHODOLOGY

Overview

American participants, who could not read, write, or speak Japanese, responded on Medialab™ to a brief exposure to screenshots of either a Japanese news or bank website. The websites were completely in Japanese language. Further, elements of the stimulus were experimentally manipulated in terms of color and presence/absence of human faces. Color psychology research and color research in marketing (Madden et al., 2000) describe the informative properties of color and underscore importance of appropriate choice based on context. For example, Madden et al. (2000) report that 'blue is associated

with wealth, trust and security'... and is associated with being peaceful, gentle and calming,' while red conveys an active and exciting state. Further, blue and red are at the opposite ends of the visible spectrum and are often discussed in color psychology in a contra indicative vein. Thus, where blue is appropriate, red would be uninformative and vice versa. For example, blue color is appropriate for a bank site given its associations with wealth and trust where red color would be uninformative. Similarly, red color would be appropriate in the context of a news website given accompanying associations with excitement and activity.

Participants and Stimuli

The experimental design was a 2-color (blue vs. red) X 2 (Presence vs. absence of human faces) X 2 durations (2 seconds vs. 15 seconds) X 2 website categories (bank vs. news) between-subjects administration. There were also two dependent variables that were measured as responses to the statements 'This is a bank website' and 'This is a news website', both with responses measured on a 7-point Liker-type scale. Seventy-nine participants, all undergraduate students from a mid-western university and all unfamiliar with the Japanese language and script, participated in the experiment in exchange for extra credit in their coursework.

Procedure

Participants were administered the study on MediaLab™. They responded to questions displayed on the computer screen. They answered several questions pertaining to their internet usage experience and then briefly saw the target website screenshot after which they continued answering several questions including the focal question described as above. In order to minimize measurement induced error, participants responded also to 'This is a mail website,' 'This is a university website,' and 'This is a government website,' in addition to the two focal statements although the stimuli pertained only to either a bank or a news website. After the study, they were debriefed and dismissed.

Data analysis and coding

The responses were directly captured by Medialab™ and subsequently analyzed on SPSS. Responses were reverse coded where appropriate (e.g., response to 'This is a bank website' when the site presented was a news website to ensure correct rejections were accounted for). Because no

significant differences were observed on either of the two dependent variables ("This is a bank website' and "This is a news website") due to the duration of exposure (2 seconds or 15 seconds), the data were collapsed into a 2X2X2 design (blue vs red color; presence vs absence of human faces; bank vs news website).

Results

An analysis of variance was performed on accuracy ratings by the human and color factors. Only one factor showed statistical significance with regard to either dependent variable ("This is a bank website", "This is a news website"). The color factor (Red/Blue) was significant with regard to the news website [F (1, 8.09), p<.006].

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Within the entire 2X2X2 design only one factor, color, proved statistically significant in determining the type of website being presented. Neither inclusion nor exclusion of other variables was statically significant in determining the nature of the website, regardless of the amount of time participants were exposed to the website.

While we find support for occurrence of thin slice judgment phenomenon in yet another arena--namely internet websites--the larger contribution this study makes is in highlighting what underlies accuracy of thin slice judgments. Ease-of retrieval leads to a confident judgment because usually they are accurate and an ease-of-retrieval effect is a byproduct of the more fundamental thin slice-judgment phenomenon.

A more fundamental phenomenon underlies this finding and that is the activation potential (Higgins 1991). Explanations that are generally valid, most of the time, tend to be readily 'flammable' requiring very low thresholds to 'light up.' The first explanation by Ambady and Rosenthal (1992) perhaps overplays the need for expressive behavior although we acknowledge that some trigger would be required to set off thin slice judgment. We did require minimally expressive elements such as presence of human faces or appropriately expressive color to elicit accuracy in thin slice judgments.

Our findings resonate more closely with their second explanation. We find direct support for a category-based memory process (if it is red it must be news website). Furthermore, absences of distraction is in line with the automatic nature obtained because of the adaptive cognitive system that deploys the heuristic--explanations that are valid most of the time, are good— thus playing a percentage game.

Since it is not a controlled process, diagnosticity is not able to intervene and because it is a percentage game occasionally this mechanism falters and can be 'fooled' to head in the wrong direction. Thus, the chain beginning from knowledge availability, accessed through a low activation potential and consequent non-conscious automatic deployment is a unifying explanation that we offer to the academic community for further exploration and refinement.

Going forward, it would be interesting to answer a few more research questions regarding the online context. Namely, how may websites create accurate recognition and a favorable impression in that thin slice? Do website thin slices predict quality, trustworthiness, reliability, friendliness, helpfulness and such other characteristics of consumer importance? A basic goal in website designs is accurate identification in the first encounter. How accurate is the initial identification of the website to belong to a category such as a banking website or a news website? What cues of a website do consumers recruit to perform such thin slice judgment?

For the marketer, it is clear that viewers judge websites very quickly, and almost subconsciously reach subjective decisions regarding the brand and offerings being presented. Thin slices, or very brief observations are not only sufficient for drawing accurate automatic trait inferences; they actually improve accuracy, relative to inferences based on larger amounts of information (Ambady, et al. 2006). Confirming what Kardes (2006) finds, too much information or too much knowledge can conceivably reduce the accuracy of intuitive judgment, but too much analysis can also reduce the accuracy of intuitive judgement. However, the initial, thin slice, exposure consisting of only a few seconds can easily transcend from short to long term memory and lasting opinions of the brand. Yes, first impressions are extremely important, and research such as this supports efforts to insure that initial exposures to a firm, its brand, and its product and/or service offerings are as positive as humanly possible.

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FACE CONSCIOUSNESS, GENDER, AND BRAND VARIABLES

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationships among these variables with an emphasis on understanding the link between gender, face consciousness and brand variables. Based on literature reviewed, eight hypotheses were proposed. Data were collected from 213 (135 women, 78 men) U.S. undergraduate students from 50 different majors. MANOVA/ANOVA was conducted to test the hypotheses. All hypotheses were supported except one (gender and brand prestige). Men and participants high in face consciousness gave higher ratings to all brand variables. Results provide guidance for brand marketers or corporations to create effective brand management strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Expanding and maintaining a customer base determines a company's continuing success. Effective marketing strategy to accomplish that task depends on understanding the relationship between consumers and the company's brand. Fournier (1998) proposed relationship theory as a context for understanding consumers' connections to brands—asserting that brand relationships can provide functional, social, psychological, and emotional benefits and that brands can and do function as relationship partners.

Face consciousness. Face consciousness refers to an individual's desire to gain, maintain, and avoid losing face in relation to meaningful others in social contexts (Bao, Zhou, & Su, 2003). Face reflects favorable social self-esteem and the goal to be respected (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). Those with strong face consciousness give more importance to extrinsic attributes (e.g., brand) than intrinsic attributes (e.g., quality) because extrinsic attributes display social status and self-image to the public (Belk & Pollay, 1985). Consumers with strong face consciousness are willing to pay more for brand name products (Li & Su, 2007). Face consciousness positively influenced brand consciousness (Bao, Zhou, & Su, 2003). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that face consciousness affects consumers' brand consumption or relationships for variables like brand charisma, brand prestige, or self-expressive brand.

Brand charisma. Charisma can be defined as “the quality which is imputed to persons, actions, roles, institutions, symbols, and material objects because of their presumed connection with ultimate, fundamental, vital, or order-determining powers” (Smothers, 1993, p. 100). A charismatic brand is a product for which consumers believe there is no substitute (Neumeier, 2005). Brands with charisma build on imagery, symbolism, and prestige to create extraordinary levels of buyer attachment. A charismatic brand has integrity, a distinct competitive position, and is especially important in successfully launching an innovative brand (Neumeier, 2005).

Brand prestige. Brand prestige is the relatively high social status of product positioning related to a brand (Steenkamp, Batra, & Alden, 2003). Brands with higher prestige may be relatively scarce and more expensive compared with less prestigious brands creating greater prestige appeal (Bearden & Etzel, 1982). Some consumers purchase expensive brands to enhance their self-image (Friedman, 1990) and social status (McCracken, 1986). Through a process of meaning transfer, prestige attached to a brand may be transferred to a wearer (McCracken, 1986). Brand prestige contributes to a stronger consumer self-brand relationship through vicarious association of brand prestige with self prestige.

Self-expressive brand. The degree to which a brand is self-expressive refers to a perception of how well a specific brand reflects a consumer's inner self and enhances his/her social self (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Individuals select self-expressive brands as

one way to express their personal characteristics. A self-expressive brand enhances the bond between a brand and a customer (Aaker, 2009) and may provide a social benefit by affecting perceptions of the wearer.

Gender and brand consumption. Regarding gender and brand consumption, women were more likely to be brand conscious than men (Beaudoin & Lachance, 2006; Seock & Bailey, 2008; Warrington & Shim, 2000). Women had stronger responses than men to brand consciousness and brand sensitivity (Workman & Lee, 2013). Workman and Cho (2012) concluded that, when shopping for clothing, both men and women cared equally about brand names.

Purpose of study. Based on prior research, it can be predicted that consumers with higher levels of face consciousness will have stronger brand relationships. There is little research exploring links among face consciousness, gender, and brand variables even though understanding the links may lead to marketing advantages. The purpose of this paper is to examine links among gender, face consciousness and brand variables. Eight hypotheses were proposed. H1a-d: Consumers with higher (lower) face consciousness will score higher on (a) brand charisma, (b) brand prestige, (c) inner self-expressive brand, and (d) social self-expressive brand. H2a-d: Women and men will differ in strength of response to (a) brand charisma, (b) brand prestige, (c) inner self-expressive brand, and (d) social self-expressive brand.

METHOD

Procedure. Data were collected in large classes from students in a mid-western university in the U.S. Participants were chosen, not only for convenience, but also because companies targeting this segment need to understand their brand attitudes in order to develop long-term, dependable relationships (Nusair, Parsa, & Cobanoglu, 2011; Vahie & Paswan, 2006). Consumers in adolescence and early adulthood tend to rely on devices such as brand image to display their identity (Noble, Haytko, & Phillips, 2009).

The questionnaire contained demographic items and scales for face consciousness (Tse, 1996), brand charisma (Vercic & Vercic, 2011), brand prestige (Hanzaee & Taghipourian, 2012), and self-expressive brand (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Each participant listed their favorite brand (70 fashion brands were listed) and then used a 7-point scale to indicate degree of agreement with each item.

Materials. No instrument for measuring brand charisma was located so a generic charisma scale (Vercic & Vercic, 2011) was adapted to measure brand charisma. Of the original 24 items, 17 were applicable to brand products. Brand prestige was measured with 3 items (Hanzaee & Taghipourian, 2012). Self-expressive brand was measured with an 8-item scale; 4 items measure a brand's potential to express the inner self; 4 items its potential to express the social self (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006).

Analysis. Descriptive statistics, Cronbach's alpha reliability, and M/ANOVA were conducted to analyze data. Scale reliability ranged from .89 to .92.

RESULTS

Participants were 217 students (135 women, 78 men) from 50 majors (age range 18 to 30; $M = 21.18$). Descriptive statistics: Face consciousness ($M = 15.39$; $SD = 6.63$; range = 4-28); Brand charisma ($M = 94.13$; $SD = 16.97$; range = 50-119); Brand prestige ($M = 15.01$; $SD = 4.66$; range = 3-21); Inner self-expressive brand ($M = 19.41$; $SD = 6.03$; range = 4-28); Social self-expressive brand ($M = 18.99$; $SD = 6.03$; range = 4-28).

M/ANOVA was used to test hypotheses with face consciousness (high, low based on median split) and gender as independent variables, and dependent brand variables of charisma, prestige, inner self-expressive, social self-expressive. MANOVA results revealed that face consciousness [$F(5, 205) = 4.68$, $p < .000$] and gender [$F(5, 205) = 3.86$, $p < .002$] were significant for the brand variables. ANOVA showed that *face consciousness* was significant for all brand variables: *Brand charisma* [$F = 5.33$, $p < .022$; High face $M = 96.56$; $SD = 16.40$; Low face $M = 91.75$; $SD = 17.97$]; *Brand prestige* [$F = 8.02$; $p < .005$; High face $M = 15.81$; $SD = 4.14$; Low face $M = 14.27$; $SD = 5.08$]; *Inner self-expressive* [$F = 11.04$; $p < .001$; High face $M = 20.46$; $SD = 5.46$; Low face $M = 18.17$; $SD = 6.49$]; *Social self-expressive* [$F = 20.77$, $p < .000$; High face $M = 20.49$; $SD = 5.92$; Low face $M = 17.28$; $SD = 5.84$]. ANOVA revealed that *gender* was significant for all brand variables except brand prestige: *Brand charisma* [$F = 7.65$, $p < .006$; Women $M = 92.0$; $SD = 17.51$; Men $M = 98.10$; $SD = 16.30$]; *Brand prestige* [$F = .08$, $p < .776$; Women $M = 15.22$; $SD = 4.44$; Men $M = 14.83$; $SD = 5.05$]; *Inner self-expressive* [$F = 5.80$, $p < .017$; Women $M = 18.75$; $SD = 5.95$; Men $M = 20.46$; $SD = 6.15$]; *Social self-expressive* [$F = 4.86$, $p < .029$; Women $M = 18.45$; $SD = 5.66$; Men $M = 19.86$; $SD = 6.70$]. All hypotheses were supported except H2b.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Results provide insight into how consumer-brand relationships are affected by face consciousness and gender. Gender and degree of face consciousness affected consumers' responses to a brand's charisma, prestige, and self-expressive potential.

This study contributes to consumer-brand relationship literature by exploring impacts of face consciousness and gender on consumers' responses to brands. Results provide useful information that brand marketers or corporations can use to establish stronger consumer-brand relationships and to build more creative brand management strategies. Further study of consumer-brand relationships requires a greater variety of brand variables. Consumers in collective (vs. individualist) cultures are more concerned about how others view them, making it important to examine the impact of face consciousness on responses to brand variables within and across cultural contexts.

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HOW SOCIAL CLASS INFLUENCES CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM: THE SIGNIFICANCE OF EDUCATION, OCCUPATION, AND MARITAL STATUS

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ABSTRACT

A national survey conducted in the United States produced a representative sample containing demographic characteristics and respondent consumer ethnocentric dispositions. Using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), this study investigates the influence of all seven demographic variables on consumer ethnocentrism simultaneously analyzed in a single model. Results demonstrate a social class influence on consumer ethnocentrism towards automobile brands in the United States. Education and occupation are each significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism, whereas sex, age, race/ethnicity, and household income are not. One result found here that is not common in the literature is the significant relationship between marital status and consumer ethnocentrism.

INTRODUCTION

Consumer ethnocentrism represents an individual's concern about fellow citizens and their home country's economic prosperity. It is common knowledge that ethnocentric tendencies often influence purchase decisions when domestic products are believed to be superior relative to products produced in other countries or regions of the world. Earlier studies report that varying sets of demographic characteristics may influence the formation of ethnocentric tendencies (e.g., Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Han & Terpstra, 1988; Johansson, Douglas, & Nonaka, 1985). Recent studies also report similar results concerning exactly which combination of demographic variables impact consumer ethnocentrism (e.g., Carpenter, et al., 2013; Rojas-Mendez, Chaubey, & Spillan, 2013; Strehlau, Ponchio, & Loebel, 2012). In one of these studies that gathered data across eight countries, Cleveland, Laroche, and Papadopoulos (2009, p.116) report that "links to the various demographic antecedents vary considerably from sample to sample." Inconsistent results such as these may be due to factors such as varying geographical areas or non-random sampling procedures, but change in consumer sentiment across America regarding imported brands over the past several decades cannot be denied. According to Neese and Haynie (2015, p.334), "consumers in the United States are increasingly more familiar and satisfied with

products originating in other areas of the world. They expect to be able to purchase and consume whatever brands are desired without guilt of putting their fellow citizens out of work." Thus, continuing to study how demographic characteristics influence consumer ethnocentrism is meritorious.

This study is particularly interested in how socioeconomic variables might impact consumer ethnocentrism in a contemporary United States. Social class, measured in this study using education, occupation, and income, is an important influence in the formation of consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Shimp (1984) explains that the family unit is the primary socialization agent, yet peer groups, opinion leaders, and even mass media influence the formation of ethnocentric beliefs, attitudes, and behavior during childhood. A person's consumer ethnocentric orientation acts much like religious dogma and racial attitudes by providing a person with an identity and sense of belonging. As Shimp (1984, p.285) states, "This orientation, once formed, should carry into adulthood with few changes except in those instances where one's socialization influences are markedly altered." Kaynak and Kara (2001) report that strugglers (i.e., younger married low-income females) display the highest levels of consumer ethnocentrism in their study, whereas self-actualizers (i.e., married high-income males) display the lowest levels of consumer ethnocentrism. Ueltschy (1998) reports that both

education level and higher income results in less consumer ethnocentrism. As Caruana (1996, p.40) states, “Consumers associate brands of products and services with social classes and this affects what products they buy.”

The exact set of demographic variables significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism in this sample is difficult to predict given the literature’s equivocal nature, yet a significant set from the total group measured is expected, and that set should include one or more variables measuring social class. The following specific hypothesis is therefore established:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Consumer ethnocentrism in the United States will be significantly influenced by (a) education, (b) occupation, and (c) household income.

METHODOLOGY

A traditional mail survey conducted nation-wide in the United States adopted Shimp and Sharma’s (1987) 10-item CETSCALE measure, arguably one of the most widely-recognized measures of consumer ethnocentrism, using a 7-point Likert format. Structured to capture a person’s view of how appropriate it is to purchase imported brands instead of products manufactured in America, a higher mean score is oriented toward a Buy-American position whereas lower CETSCALE means represent individual consumers who are more pro-import. The CETSCALE has been widely tested to determine its psychometric properties such as reliability and validity (e.g., Herche, 1992; Netemeyer, Durvasula, & Lichtenstein, 1991).

The mailing list was purchased from a commercial company and developed from households that subscribe to a variety of print publications (e.g., the *Chicago Tribune*). Surveys were professionally printed and folded. The outbound questionnaire included a pre-stamped return envelope and a monetary incentive. Although the hypothesis is focused on social class, the complete set of demographic variables measured in the survey is tested together in a single model to account for shared variance. These include marital status, sex, age, and race/ethnicity along with education, occupation, and household income. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is the quantitative technique used to test H1a, H1b, and H1c.

RESULTS

The initial database of 336 usable responses out of 2,251 outbound questionnaire packages results in a 14.9 percent response rate. However, for purposes of this analysis, 67 of the original usable responses are

excluded due to missing demographic data. This sample does profile reasonably well with the population at large in the majority of categories, but respondents do report higher levels of education and income than the population as a whole, plus Hispanic participation is lower than expected. The frequency distribution of this sample is displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Variable Frequency Distributions

Variable	Category	Freq.	%
Marital Status	Never	45	16.7
	Married	160	59.5
	Other	64	23.8
	Total	269	100.0
Sex	Female	157	58.4
	Male	112	41.6
	Total	269	100.0
Age	18-25	15	5.6
	26-40	51	19.0
	41-65	161	59.9
	Over 65	42	15.6
	Total	269	100.0
Race or Ethnicity	African American	30	11.2
	Asian American	6	2.2
	Caucasian	205	76.2
	Hispanic or Latino	10	3.7
	Native American	8	3.0
	Other	10	3.7
	Total	269	100.0
Education	High School	111	41.3
	Bachelor’s Degree	71	26.4
	Master’s Degree	38	14.1
	Doctorate	13	4.8
	Other	36	13.4
	Total	269	100.0
Household Income	Under \$25,000	43	16.0
	\$25,000-\$49,999	68	25.3
	\$50,000-\$74,999	71	26.4
	\$75,000-\$99,999	34	12.6
	\$100,000 or More	53	19.7
	Total	269	100.0
Occupation	Exec. or Manager	22	8.2
	Professional	47	17.5
	Marketing or Sales	24	8.9
	Education	18	6.7
	Secretary or Clerical	9	3.3
	Construction	5	1.9

Agriculture	4	1.5
Manufacturing	1	.4
Transport or	13	4.8
Shipping	55	20.4
Retired	71	26.4
Other	269	100.0
Total		

That aside, this sample has face validity. For example, 44 states are represented by respondents, and the unknown origin of another 20 returns creates the possibility that the total number of states represented is even greater than 44. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (<http://www.census.gov/popclock>), the five largest states in terms of total population are: California (12.1%); Texas (8.4%); New York (6.2%); Florida (6.2%); and Illinois (4.1%). After missing data are removed, the largest percent of responses by state in this sample are: California (10.4%); Florida (6.7%); Texas (5.2%); New York (5.2%); and Illinois (4.8%).

Table 2 documents that the seven demographic variables modeled together influence CETSCALE means significantly (see Corrected Model, $p < .01$). Cronbach's alpha score for the single-factor 10-item CETSCALE is .92. With an Adjusted R-Squared of .15, the reader should note that these demographic variables account for a small but statistically significant percentage of the total influence. Three variables are significant: *Education* ($p = .03$), *Occupation* ($p = .02$), and *Marital Status* ($p = .05$), with occupation (Partial Eta Square = .08) accounting for the largest effect size, followed by education (.04) and marital status (.03). Support is thus found for H1a and H1b, but not H1c.

Table 2. Mean CETSCALE Distributions across Demographic Categories^a

Source	Type III Sum of Sq.	df	Mean Sq.	F	Sig. of F
Corrected Model	130.80 ^b	29	4.51	2.56	<.01
Intercept	425.70	1	425.70	241.83	<.01
Education	18.73	4	4.68	2.66	.03
Household Income	1.11	4	.28	.16	.96
Occupation	38.38	10	3.84	2.18	.02
Marital Status	10.69	2	5.34	3.04	.05
Sex	5.02	1	5.02	2.85	.09
Age	1.83	3	.61	.35	.79
Race or	11.56	5	2.31	1.31	.26

Ethnicity			
Error	420.73	239	1.76
Total	5408.76	269	
Corrected Total	551.53	268	

^a See Table 1 for a List of Demographic Variable Categories.

^b R-Squared = .24 (Adjusted R-Squared = .15).

Figure 1 shows a bar chart illustrating significant differences in category means for education; the same in Figure 2 for occupation categories; and in Figure 3 for marital status categories.

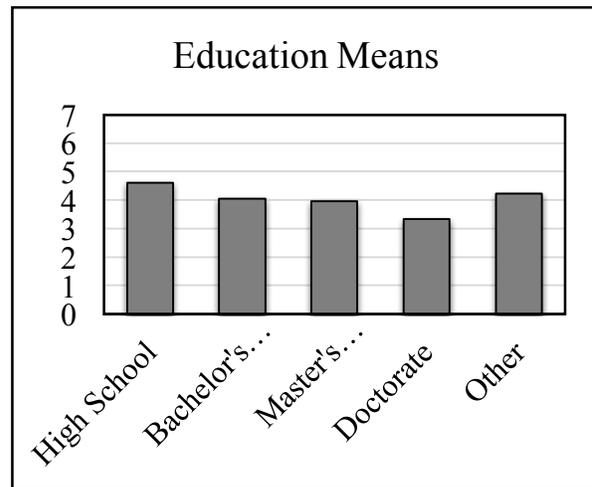


Figure 1. Differences in Education Means^a

^a CETSCALE means are as follows:

- (1) High School = 4.60;
- (2) Bachelor's Degree = 4.04;
- (3) Master's Degree = 3.95;
- (4) Doctorate = 3.32;
- (5) Other = 4.24.

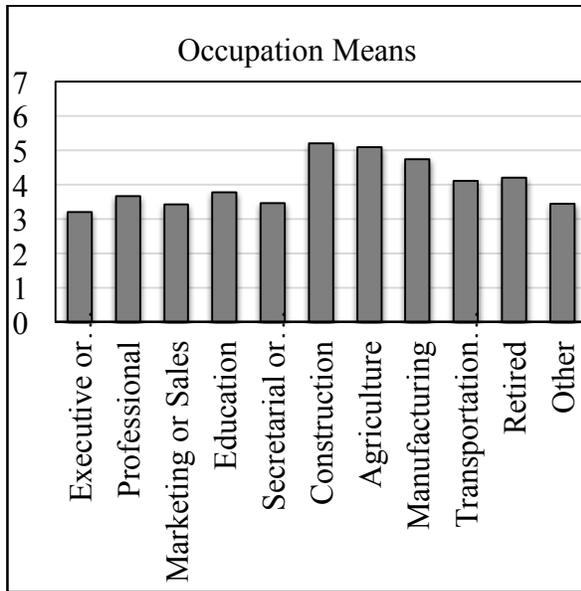


Figure 2. Differences in Occupation Means^a

^a CETSCALE means are as follows:

- (1) Executive or Managerial = 3.20;
- (2) Professional = 3.67; (3) Marketing or Sales = 3.42;
- (4) Education = 3.78; (5) Secretarial or Clerical = 3.47;
- (6) Construction = 5.21; (7) Agriculture = 5.10;
- (8) Manufacturing = 4.75;
- (9) Transportation or Shipping = 4.11;
- (10) Retired = 4.21; (11) Other = 3.44.

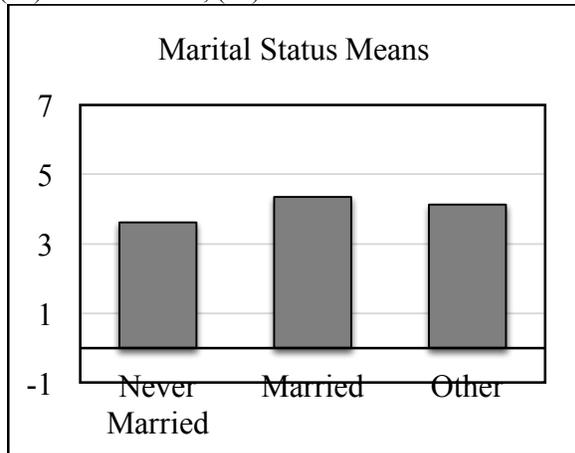


Figure 3. Differences in Marital Status Means^a

^a CETSCALE means are as follows:

- (1) Never Married = 3.62; (2) Married = 4.35;
- (3) Other = 4.13.

Pairwise comparisons between means in each category indicate that for education, significant differences materialized between the *High School* category and the *Bachelor's Degree* ($p = .02$), *Master's Degree* ($p = .03$), and *Doctorate* ($p < .01$) categories. For occupation, significant differences

occur between the *Executive or Managerial* category and the *Construction* ($p < .01$), *Agriculture* ($p = .01$), and *Retired* ($p < .01$) categories; between the *Professional* category and the *Construction* ($p = .02$) and *Agriculture* ($p = .05$) categories; between *Marketing or Sales* and the *Construction* ($p = .01$), *Agriculture* ($p = .02$), and *Retired* ($p = .03$) categories; between *Education* and *Construction* ($p = .05$); and between *Secretarial or Clerical* and *Construction* ($p = .03$) and *Agriculture* ($p = .05$). In addition to the categories listed above, *Construction* is also significantly different from the *Other* category ($p < .01$), as is *Agriculture* and *Other* ($p = .02$). Further, the *Retired* and *Other* categories are significantly different ($p = .01$) from each other as well as the occupation categories previously mentioned. Finally, for marital status, a significant difference occurs between the *Never Married* and *Married* categories ($p = .02$).

DISCUSSION

Concerning *Education*, two groups exhibit the strongest Buy-American tendencies, those with a high school education and the *Other* category. Consumer ethnocentrism significantly decreases to the benefit of foreign imports as educational attainment increases. Respondents having earned an undergraduate college degree report more ethnocentric tendency than those with a master's degree, and respondents with a doctorate exhibit the most pro-import orientation. These results are consistent with country-of-origin studies that use measures other than the CETSCALE. For example, Neese and Hult (1996, p.53) report that the "group with no college experience exhibits... an anti-import bias [whereas] the education group... most favorable towards imports was the 'Some College' segment."

When *Occupation* is considered with the influence educational attainment appears to have in the formation of ethnocentric tendencies, social class appears to be a relatively strong factor when it comes to the acceptance of imported products. Shimp and Sharma (1987, p.287) report that the "upper-lower class is the most ethnocentric... followed by the lower-middle class... and upper-middle class." According to Shimp and Sharma (1987, p.287), "older working-class individuals... are especially threatened by the prospects of losing jobs to foreign competitors," whereas middle and upper-middle class individuals have more stable employment and greater job security. The results reported here support that contention. The reader should note that separate one-way ANOVAs were also performed on the individual demographic

variables. These tests yielded comparable results to those reported where all demographic variables were analyzed simultaneously, with one exception. When analyzed separately, the *Income* demographic is also significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism ($p = .04$).

Executives and managers, those employed in marketing and sales, secretaries and clerical workers, professionals, and respondents employed in the education profession report the least amount of consumer ethnocentrism. In addition, the *Other* category profiles as more pro-import. In contrast, construction workers and those in agriculture exhibit the strongest Buy-American sentiment, along with manufacturing and workers in transportation and shipping. The *Retired* category also profiles as more Buy-American. Construction, manufacturing, and agricultural industries tend to house workers with the strongest "Made-in-America" sentiments, which is consistent with the fact that their jobs directly depend on economic activity occurring in the continental United States. Interestingly, jobs for workers engaged in transportation and shipping occupations may depend more directly on carrying imported products, and these respondents report less consumer ethnocentrism than the other categories that are relatively high on this scale.

The final significant demographic determinant of consumer ethnocentric dispositions in this sample is *Marital Status*. One can arguably expect higher rates of marriage among higher social class households as measured by education and occupation, which should result in lower, more pro-import CETSCALE scores for married respondents. Sassler and Miller (2011, p.163) report that "middle-class cohabitators were more likely to have become engaged than their working-class counterparts" in their study. However, married respondents in this study report significantly higher Buy-American sentiment compared to their counterparts who have never been married. Since respondent marital status does not significantly interact with their education or occupation characteristics, that result may be an artifact of this particular sample.

There are some possible limitations involved in this study. Although the sample studied here does profile reasonably well with the U.S. population at-large, it is not a perfect match and that could have influenced these results. In addition to higher self-reported education and income levels (plus lower Hispanic representation), some occupation categories are under-represented which is a concern. Nonetheless, the results reported here do possess face validity based on the existing literature, and contribute to the

knowledge base by continuing to track consumer ethnocentrism in a changing United States.

Future Research

This study offers some interesting directions for future research. For example, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) report an interaction between the product category and the country-of-origin, likely due to the fact that some countries are known for producing high quality brands in certain categories (e.g., German automobiles or Italian cuisine) but not in others. Future research should analyze how this effect interacts with social class. In addition, other measures of social class besides those analyzed here have been established that should be investigated in terms of consumer ethnocentrism. These include such variables as personal prestige, group associations, social class consciousness, upward mobility, and political power and influence (Gilbert and Kahl, 1982). Finally, a more in-depth analysis compared to what is undertaken in this study is warranted to better determine the interaction among social class, marital status, and consumer ethnocentrism.

CONCLUSION

Although predicting an exact composition from the total array of demographic variables measured is problematic, a set of those seven personal characteristics under analysis in this study does significantly influence the magnitude and direction of consumer ethnocentrism. Captured through CETSCALE responses, this set specifically includes *Education*, *Occupation*, and *Marital Status*. The significant influence of educational attainment and occupation supports H1a and H1b as well as the ethnocentric literature that has reported some degree of social class influence among consumers considering domestic versus imported brands.

The current study updates this literature with a contemporary dataset recently produced by consumers in the United States. The changing nature of consumer sentiment regarding imported brands in the United States was previously cited in this manuscript (i.e., Neese and Haynie 2015); this survey contributes one additional piece of evidence featuring the demographic dimension of that evolution in consumer behavior, specifically the significant relationship between social class and consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

As here, other studies have determined that sets of variables tested to determine their collective influence on consumer ethnocentric tendencies vary across research domains and result in significant, but lower,

predictive ability (Balabanis, et al. 2001). Although the R-Square values in such studies may be “moderate” as Balabanis, et al. (2001, p.170) phrase it, the total body of literature portrays a more complete image when its pieces are taken in their entirety. Multiple recent studies have looked at the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on consumption in a wide-variety of countries and regions around the globe, and found varying results (e.g., Chowdhury and Ibn Rahman 2014; Stehlau, Ponchio, and Loebel 2012; Sepehr and Kaffashpoor 2012; Hamelin, Ellouzi, and Canterbury 2011). There is a reason why interest in this topic remains strong among researchers: practitioners should find these types of analyses useful when they launch product lines in each specific locale, because each is likely to have a unique ethnocentric profile among native consumers (Carpenter et al. 2013), and dimensions that are useful in one country for positioning brands may not be as appropriate in others.

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MOBILE VS. IN-STORE PURCHASES: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION OF CONSUMER PURCHASING BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT

This study examines buying behavior based on mode of purchase being in-store or through mobile devices. The research objectives were to compare and contrast mobile and in-store purchase locations and how demographics and psychographics influence consumer purchase behavior. Our descriptive research study used a sample of 762 respondents. Our findings reveal several variables to be significant in-store buying decisions but not on a mobile device, and other variables that are common to both in-store and mobile device purchases. These insights should prove helpful to managers in evaluating customer segments to target via in-store and mobile purchase channels.

INTRODUCTION

Gartner Inc. predicts that the world's mobile shopping market will reach a value greater than \$617 billion and 448 million users by the end of 2016. Almost all major retail stores have some form of mobile shopping available to customers, many with their own customized application. Studies show 50% to 60% of e-commerce users are making several purchases a week (WaveCollapse, 2012). More people are looking at their mobile phones as a tool to help them shop than ever before, there was a 62% increase in mobile payment transactions from 2011 to 2012 (GartnerInc, 2013). By 2016, the number of smartphone users will surpass 2 billion (eMarketer, 2014). M-shoppers tend to use mobile devices to shop for habitual products that they already have a history of purchasing (Wang R., 2015). Consumers' knowledge of products is an individual characteristic that has been shown to have an effect on the purchase process (Karimi S., 2015). This shows the massive shift in purchasing methods that are currently happening.

We set out to look at two research questions: whether or not there is a relationship between mobile and in-store purchasing habits, and what personal characteristics influence consumers' purchasing behavior. By looking at these research questions, we can infer that data we gained through conducting our study has the potential to be important to all companies participating in the mobile and in-store channels, from a current and future standpoint. Our research findings

help answer what type of personalities drive different shopping habits and what people value most with each shopping method. In using a consumer-centric approach, after examining the relationship between mobile and in-store purchasing habits, it can aid marketing decision makers to tailor marketing plans, increase traffic in-store and on mobile applications and provide better overall service to customers.

METHODOLOGY

We used an electronic survey to gain insight into our research questions. For our survey we implemented a Likert-type seven-point interval scales to more precisely measure each construct. We used two scale descriptors at the very end of each side of the scale, using "Strongly Disagree" at scale point one and "Strongly Agree" at scale point 7. To assess internal consistency we used Cronbach's alpha. *Table 1* illustrates the citation and sources of scales used, how they were modified, as well as our Cronbach's alphas.

Table 1. Chronbach's Alphas

Scales	Score
Big Five Personality	0.728
In-Store Consumer Behavior	0.645
Consumer Impulsiveness Scale	0.749
Consumer Shopping Perceptions	0.736
Mobile Consumer Impulsiveness	0.749
Mobile Consumer Behavior	0.645

Through social media, Reddit, and contact lists we were able to get 1,117 unique respondents to start our survey. Our sample consisted of 946 participants, in which 184 of these participants had never shopped on a mobile device. After cleaning our data we then reduced the number of responses to those who had shopped both in-store and on a mobile device, which left us with 762 valid responses to conduct data analysis.

Of the participants that purchased both in-store and on mobile devices (762), 31.8% were male and 68.2% were female. A majority of participants were between the ages of 18 to 25 (60.9%). 8.0% were between 26 to 34 years of age, 20.2% between 35-54, 8.8% were between 55-64 and 2.1% were 65 and over. 87.5% of these participants had completed some college or higher. 38.7% of the participants were single, 33.3% were in a relationship, 15.9% were married and 12.1% were married with children. 19.9% of participants reported income of \$30,000 or less. 20.1% of participants reported income of \$150,000 or more. 15.1% said they would rather not disclose. The majority of participants reported that they lived in a suburban area (63.5%). The remaining 36.5% reported that they lived in either urban or rural areas. These statistics are shown in *Table 2* below.

Table 2. Survey Demographics

Age	
18-25	60.90%
26-34	8.00%
35-54	20.20%
55-64	8.80%
65 or over	2.10%
Relationship Status	
Single	38.70%
In a relationship	33.30%
Married	15.90%
Married with children	12.10%
Income	
Less than \$30,000	19.90%
\$30,000 – \$49,999	11.40%
\$50,000 – \$99,999	18.80%
\$100,000 – \$149,999	14.70%
\$150,000 or more	20.10%
I would rather not disclose	15.10%
Education Level Completed	
High School / GED	12.50%
Some College	41.10%
2-year College Degree	9.60%
4-year College Degree	23.40%
Graduate Level Degree	13.50%
Gender	
Male	31.80%
Female	68.20%

Area You Live In	
Urban	14.70%
Suburban	63.50%
Rural	21.80%

DATA ANALYSIS

Our ANOVA analyses conclude that a consumer who is open to experience does have an impact on buying expensive brands in-store ($p=0.027$; $F=2.398$). The F-value of 2.398 can further show that whether a person is open to experience is positively related to buying expensive brands in-store. However, results of our ANOVA analysis indicate that a person who is open to experience does not have a statistically significant impact on buying expensive brands on a mobile device ($p=0.231$; $F=1.353$). The results further show that whether a person is open to experience is positively related to buying expensive brands on a mobile device.

Our findings indicate that gender does have a statistically significant impact on the level of self-control a consumer has when shopping in-store ($p=0.002$; $F=9.843$). Similarly, the level of education is positively related to the level of self-control a consumer has when shopping in-store. However, results indicate that gender does not have a statistically significant impact on the level of self-control a consumer has when using a mobile device ($p=0.853$; $F=0.034$). Gender indicated no impact on the level of self-control a consumer has when shopping on a mobile device.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

We felt that researching both mobile and in-store purchasing behaviors was important because of the massive amount of money spent in retail each year. This information can help alter the types of advertising different companies do to reach the type of consumers that they want. For example, a company like Apple that is in the technology sector for computers, may want to focus on consumers who are just finishing high school, in college, graduate school and just starting their career. Apple believes they have the best computers and their product shows that. As our results suggest, using these target markets will make the product more marketable and increase brand recognition in the long-term.

Our research and findings will be beneficial to companies and managers of both physical stores and stores offered on mobile devices. Mobile purchasing is becoming second nature to consumers, 64% of smartphone owners are now using their mobile devices to shop online and this trend is expected to increase (eDigitalResearch and Portaltech Reply, 2012). With

the use of geo-conquesting, mobile coupons are no longer being limited by physical location. Mobile technologies enable offline brick-and-mortar retailers the capability to maintain a presence even at their competitors' doorstep (JMR, 2015). It is crucial to understand why and what affects this has on in-store purchasing. With this information, companies who currently do not offer an online store may find it advantageous to do so. We believe our research will also help companies determine how psychographics and demographics influence purchasing. With technology being such a large part in today's society, understanding the online market will be useful to marketers in the decision-making process.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on our results we found that survey respondents who identified as being most open to experience had the highest mean likelihood to buy expensive brands in-store with a mean of 4.50 (Likert 7-Point Scale). The group least open to experience had the lowest mean likelihood to purchase expensive brands in-store with a mean of 3.13. It was expected that this relationship was theoretically insignificant and results indicated to the contrary. More expensive and high quality businesses should take this into account so that they can target consumers who identify as being more open to experience. On a mobile device, our findings show that respondents who are open to experience does not have an impact on buying expensive brands. Respondents most open to experience had a mean of 4.05 and those least open to experience had a mean of 3.50. Our hypothesis stated this relationship to be theoretically significant but after analysis we determined it is not of sufficient statistical significance. Businesses should take this into account and target consumers who are both least and most open to experience and not focus on one or the other.

In further analysis, we found that gender does have an impact on the level of self-control a consumer has when shopping in-store. Our findings show that in-store men are more self-controlled than women (with means of 5.26 and 4.91, respectively). However, on a mobile device we found that gender does not have an impact on the level of self-control a consumer has when shopping. Our findings show men and women are more self-controlled on a mobile device than in-store with respective means of 5.33 and 5.36. Businesses can use this information to focus their time and money, in regards to marketing and advertising, on women in-store since they have less self-control. On a mobile device businesses should focus their advertising slightly more on men than women, and give reasons in the ads to make the consumer less self-controlled. It can then be concluded that businesses that target

women in-store will generate more profit than that of men.

In general when shopping, age has an impact on a consumer's ability to know a product's quality by brand name. Our results enabled us to confirm this relationship to be statistically significant in-store and on a mobile device ($p:0.0001$). Our data shows that respondents who were between the ages of 18-25 were most likely to recognize a product's quality by brand name in-store and on a mobile device, with a mean of 4.79. As age increased the mean likelihood to know a product's quality by brand name decreased. Consumers 65 years of age and older were least likely to know a product's quality by brand name with a mean of 3.50. This can be of great use to businesses because if you are a newly established company with high quality products and services one could target people between the ages of 18-25. Brand recognition is much higher than consumers 65 years of age and older and this increases word of mouth promotion.

Income level has an impact on the level of carelessness a consumer has when shopping, we found the relationship to be statistically significant, both in-store ($p:0.000$) and on a mobile device ($p:0.032$). In looking at our data consumers who reported income of less than \$30,000 had the highest mean likelihood to purchase carelessly in-store. Consumers who reported income of \$150,000 or more were had the least likelihood to purchase carelessly in-store with a mean of 2.24. Comparatively, on a mobile device, respondents who reported income of less than \$30,000 were most likely to purchase carelessly, with a mean of 3.05. Respondents who reported income of \$150,000 or more had a mean of 2.56. Respondents with the least likelihood to purchase carelessly on a mobile device were those who reported income between \$50,000 and \$99,999, with a mean of 2.50. We recommend businesses spend more time and money in-store, whether it is through advertisements or promotions, to people who have an income of less than \$30,000. On a mobile device, we also recommend that businesses allocate resources and capital to people who have an income of less than \$30,000 because their likelihood to purchase carelessly is the highest out of all income levels.

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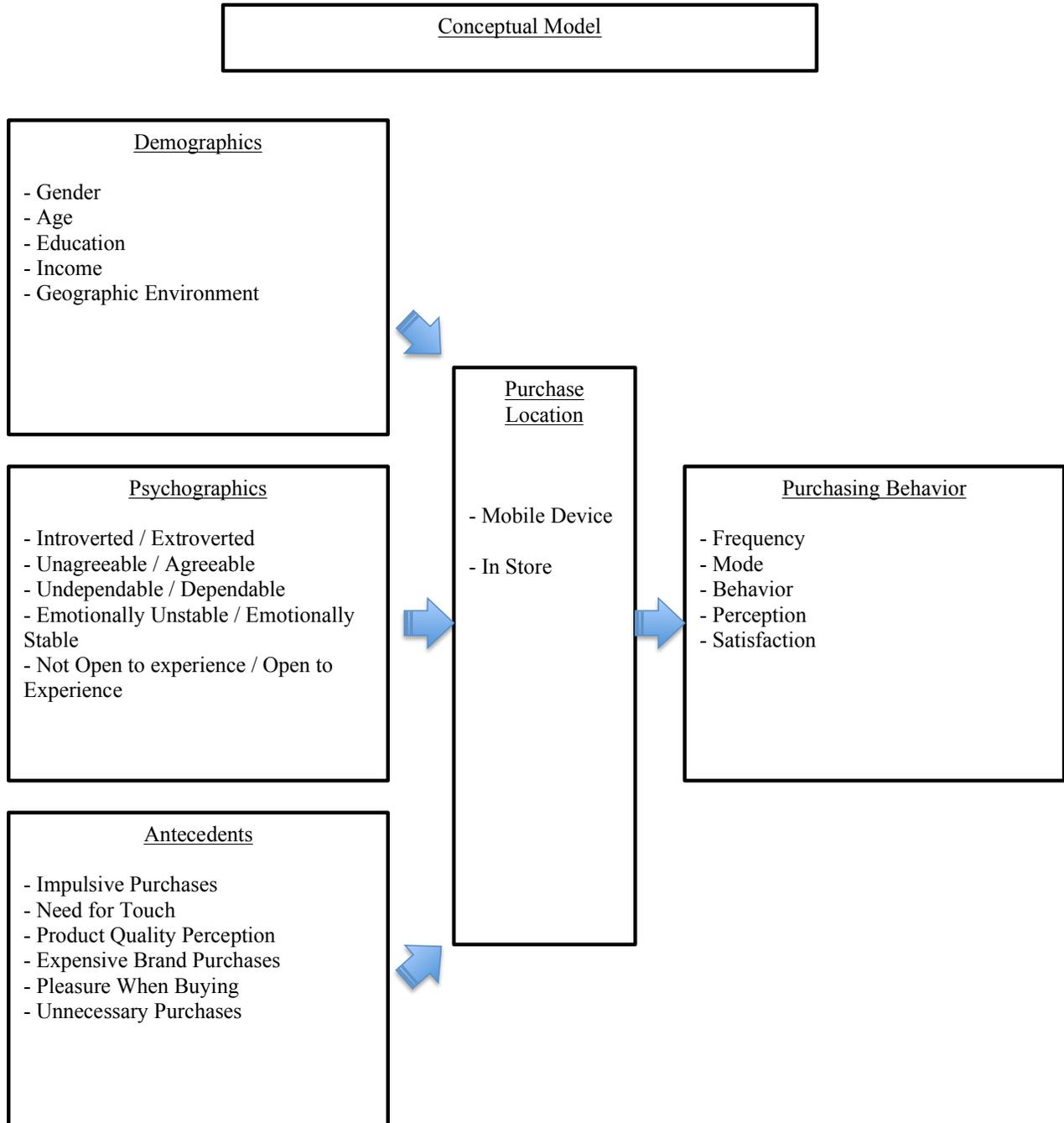
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MORE GIVING, LESS HAPPINESS: IMPACT OF ONLINE GAMING SWEEPSTAKES ON CUSTOMER SATISFACTION: THE CASE OF HSN'S SPIN TO WIN

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ABSTRACT

Customer satisfaction has been long considered the cornerstone and the objective of all marketing activities. Businesses go out of their way to offer additional value to increase customer satisfaction. Customer engagement, online communities, games and sweepstakes are all tools that are deployed to, ultimately, increase value and satisfaction. Yet therein lies a dangerous road as additional modes of engagement coupled with promotional tools may create additional expectations leading to dissatisfaction and complaining. We analyze the text of negative posts disappointed customers left in the HSN online community on the subject of a free "Spin to Win" game to gain an understanding of the negative feelings that such tools can produce.

KEYWORDS: CUSTOMER SATISFACTION, EXPECTATIONS, ONLINE GAMES, ONLINE COMMUNITY, COMPLAINING, DISSATISFACTION

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION IN THE PRESENCE OF ONLINE ENGAGEMENT EFFORTS AND PROMOTIONS

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

Customer satisfaction is largely believed to be the cornerstone of marketing (Churchill & Suprenant, 1982; Oliver 1997; Szymanski & Henard, 2001; Zeithaml, Berry & Parasuraman, 1993). Typically, customer satisfaction is viewed through the lens of customer perceptions relative to the expectations the customers had (Friedman, Brown & Taran, 2011). Customer expectations get confirmed when the product performs as expected and disconfirmed otherwise; Disconfirmation is positive when the product performs better than expected and negative when it performs worse than expected. Positive disconfirmation may lead to customer delight (Oliver, Rust & Varki, 1997) and negative disconfirmation to dissatisfaction (Churchill & Suprenant, 1982).

While the results on the impact of customer satisfaction on purchase intentions appear to be much more mixed than the theory suggests (Szymanski & Henard, 2001; Taylor & Baker, 1994), in general it is accepted that higher levels of customer satisfaction yield positive consequences for the firm (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993).

One of the typical ways in which customers express dissatisfaction is through complaining behavior (Nyer, 1999). Perceived fairness or unfairness contribute to disconfirmation in general and complaining in particular (Oliver & Swan, 1989).

As people have expectations regarding different aspects of the transaction, disconfirmation of expectations happens on different dimensions of the experience, including post-consumption experience (Mano & Oliver, 1993). At the very least, two separate items of transaction and information are shown to be disconfirmed (Spreng, MacKenzie & Olshavsky, 1996). Additional company actions, promotions, for example, in themselves can lead to dissatisfaction if the expectations they set are not fulfilled, even when consumers like the product itself. For example, offering free samples and not delivering on them can give rise to dissatisfaction (Kuzma & Wright, 2015).

It stands to reason that companies that put extra efforts into building online communities and creating extra opportunities of engagement at the very least create additional possibilities for creating expectations that can be disconfirmed. This creates somewhat of a paradox as the whole effort to increase engagement and build up a community is directed toward providing additional value to the customer. Research evidence already suggests that customer engagement may be detrimental at least for some businesses and with some customers (Kaptein, Parvinen & Pöyry, 2016).

Companies seeking to increase customer engagement have at their disposal a variety of tools. This paper concentrates on online sweepstakes and contests in the context of an online community-

building effort by a business with a significant online presence.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the reasoning above, we pose a set of research questions.

Research Question 1. Can a sweepstakes designed to enhance customer-engagement efforts lead to dissatisfaction with the business?

Research Question 2. What are the particular sources of negative feelings?

To help answer our questions, we turn to a business with an online community that also engages in sweepstakes, contests and promotional games. We find a case of such a business in HSN (Home Shopping Network).

Ultimately, we aim to investigate if and how engagement efforts can produce negative feelings.

HSN CASE

Home Shopping Network (HSN) is a “\$4 billion interactive multichannel retailer” boasting of its offering “differentiated digital experience by leveraging content, community and commerce” (HSN, 2015). It sells and delivers its content via TV, online and mobile platforms. Of interest to this paper, HSN serves as a host to an online community and offers arcade games, in particular, a so-called Spin to Win game that a player can play daily for a variety of rewards. Playing games is rewarded by varying amounts of “tickets” which can then be entered into raffles for various products and gift cards. The Spin to Win game typically gives tickets as awards, but sometimes HSN adds more valuable prizes as part of particular campaigns. This combination of an ongoing set of sweepstakes and an online community makes for an opportunity to study some of the reactions of shoppers to these efforts.

METHOD

We utilize the netnographic method by analyzing the online discourse revolving around the Spin to Win game. Introduced by Kozinets (Kozinets,

1997), the term netnography refers to “ethnography on the ‘Net’”, that is, observing people’s behaviors online. In particular, online discourse in chat rooms, forums, social media, and other electronic communications outlets is studied (Kozinets, 1997; Stern, 2002). By the very nature of it, it is a qualitative research tool. As analyzing online conversations lends itself to uncovering important latent dimensions of customer satisfaction (Tirunillai & Tellis, 2014), this tool is appropriate to answer the research questions.

We examine the threads on the HSN.com forum where the last posting was made within the 6 months preceding the writing of this article. Within the past 6 months, 53 threads in the Arcade forum dedicated to games had a subject mentioning Spin to Win, with an average of about 27 posts. Of the 53, 32 have fewer than 10 responses, and most of them have to do with problems in playing/loading/etc. Out of the 53, four are explicitly negative (“Spin to win sucks!”, “Spin to win is a joke”, “Well, today (Saturday) Spin-2-Win is definitely a rip-off!”, “Spin2Lose!”), five question if anybody has ever won or express desire to win more surely (“Spin to Win Give us at least 10 points for playing”), and one is asking “Is spin to win a ripoff? make your voice heard!” Thus, 18.8% of the threads are in the negative direction, while the majority of them are simply titled variations of the game name.

While 18.8% of expressly negative headers is not an overwhelming number, it is still sizable. Notably, of the 21 threads with more than 10 responses, nine have negative headers. At the very least, this creates a situation where these threads are the most visible to the rest of the community, possibly setting up some negative social context.

The thread “Is spin to win a ripoff? make your voice heard” has the highest count of responses, 462, thus offering a field survey of sorts. 69 unique nicknames posted unequivocal responses of “yes” and another 70 can be considered negative even though they are not saying “yes.”

As is common in qualitative methods (Kozinets, 1997; Stern, 2002), themes were formulated based on reading of the posts. Themes found in the negative responses are tabulated in Table 1 below, along with supporting/representative quotes. Note, we kept the original spelling and punctuation.

Table 1. Themes and quotes of customer discontent

Theme	Quotes
Feelings of being lied to and misled	“Spin to Win is a rip-off!”
	IT'S A CON!!! IT'S CALLED'BAIT AND SWITCH'
	“I spend mucho mucho dollars with them and they treat their customers like this. I wonder if the whole Arcade thing is a scam. Has ANYONE out there ever won ANYTHING? I'd really like to know”

	<p>It is a cruel joke on HSN's customers</p> <p>Why does HSN claim you can win a gift card if there are usually no gift card icons in the game or at most one lone gift card icon? There is no way to win a gift card in the games I've played.</p> <p>... deceiving... YES... dissapointing... YES... always an excuse for the prize that you did not REALLY win... if the game ended on July 31st then it should have been changed immediately and not led people to believe they won gift cards ... the replies from HSN sound weak at best and downright insulting at worst... I am sure with all the money people spend at HSN they could afford to have "honored" the gift cards that were after the July 31st date BECAUSE THAT IS WHAT THE PRIZE WAS DESCRIBED AS HSN..</p>
<p>It's simply marketing ploy designed to trick into buying</p>	<p>"Nothing more than a gimmick to get you to see their products on the wheel and hopefully click on them and buy.</p> <p>Sure, lots of tickets have been won by many, but really, what does that cost HSN. NOTHING!!!</p> <p>\$25 gift card? Don't spend it all in one place. I know I know, some of you will reply, Oh I appreciate the \$25, it helps with S&H. So then who is the winner here, you or HSN. HSN is not going to promote a gimmick that they will lose any \$\$\$ on. HSN is here to make money off you and your positive, share share share statements. Don't be fooled people! The CEO doesn't get a \$6million bonus for nothing.</p> <p>A cheap gimmick where as you lose, HSN wins always. It's a one way street with HSN and don't forget it."</p> <p>It is not silly or selfish to want to win something on these games, afterall, it is a sweepstakes, and it is hard work to get the tickets. It is promoted as a sweepstakes- and I gotta tell you, since I have started playing the last 2 weeks, I have purchased quite a bit from HSN (more than I have every purchased-so obviously their marketing with the arcade works well (like Pavolv's Dog). Pairing the "games" with shopping-is very, very effective.</p> <p>ALL YOU WIN ARE MOSTLY TICKETS-AND GOOD LUCK @ #THE REWARD STORE" WHICH I THINK IS ALSO A JOKE! REMEMBER THESE ARE GAMES (AND PROBABLY MARKETING PLOYS) BUT GOOD LUCK TO ALL.</p>
<p>General unhappiness</p>	<p>The game is pathetic.</p> <p>Hate this game. Won no prizes. Want the coupons back</p>
<p>Disappointment</p>	<p>I have never won a prize. Disappointing.</p> <p>They seem to only give free tickets for the most part and I find that very disappointing</p> <p>spin 2 win can be a let down, as it is so limited, no real prizes by hittine 3 in a row, no wild cards.</p> <p>IT'S SO NOT FUN TO LOSE EVERYDAY. SOOOOOO DISCOURAGING. KILLS HOLIDAY SPIRIT IT IS SUPPOSED TO ENGENDER. I'D SO MUCH PREFER THEY DIDN'T BOTHER WITH JUNK LIKE THS AND JUST GAVE BIRTHDAY DISCOUNTS OR FREE SHIPPING LIKE THEY USED TO</p> <p>Come on HSN. Get tickets to enter contests for prizes with high odds? I'm more likely to win the lottery. What happened to the old games with coupons for discounts and more plentiful giftcards? Very disappointing. Worst game ever</p>

<p>Unfairly stacked game</p>	<p>I feel that the odds are against us when it comes to spinning and actually winning a product when playing spin to win because HSN game creators have been advised to create the game in a way that will not allow us to win except on very few rare occasions. In my opinion, HSN really does not want to give away free products on the spin to win game.</p> <p>I have not won anything but a 100 points a few times. I think it is not a very good set up. They used to give you free shipping and 15% off tokens but not any more. The points are useless because I have one over 50,000 points and I have never won even a \$25. gift certificate and that is what I always use my points for.</p> <p>yes [it is a ripoff-ZT] i let it spin and spin so many times barely see 3 items that match ther are 25 in one row nothing to go with it in middle row except 500 tickets and 50 in third row or vice versa so yes they are not playing fair</p>
<p>Missing previous promotional giveaways</p>	<p>i miss the other prizes they used to offer like a percentage off of an item OR a free shipping coupon. it would be nice if they added those back in along with the gift cards and tickets.</p> <p>I do miss the percentages off or Free Shipping though New and Improved is not necessarily an improvement</p> <p>They used to give you free shipping and 15% off tokens but not any more. ... Also, they have taken away where you get points for giving reviews on products so I don't do them any more unless I really like something. Also, they had the other fun ways where you could get points. It's just not as fun anymore</p>
<p>Lack of reward; need there to be a reward for loyal customers</p>	<p>“HSN makes millions of dollars from the money that we spend each year ordering products, keeping them in business, and honestly we sometimes pay more for the products (especially electronics) when we order from HSN because we want to take advantage of the flexpay offers.”</p> <p>i believe HSN should do what they advertise. win MONEY OR POINTS. it states money and shows money on screen. marketing or not this false.</p> <p>i win a lot of ticket's on spin to win and that is also marketing. we need a give away money from HSN</p> <p>FOR THE HOLIDAY SPIRIT.AMEN</p> <p>HSN is making so much money on shipping and handling, they should give their customers a break. I wish they would come up with a program like amazon where you pay a once a year price for shipping and that's it. I would buy a lot more if they did.</p> <p>[in response to another poster saying that nobody forces you to play, etc.] It's not about being forced to play, but the promotion as you called it used to be not only for fun, but a reward to loyal customers. And I feel was HSN's way of saying ty to those customers, that's the point people are trying to make ! Obviously you have missed the reason people are posting, so stroll right on to not getting anything for being a loyal customer !</p>
<p>Threats to 'take business elsewhere' and claims of shopping less</p>	<p>“... I have chosen to do my gift shopping elsewhere online this year. I really have used the free shipping in past years.”</p> <p>“Past years I enjoyed spin to win much more. There were free shipping coupons, % off coupons, dollar amounts to win. There was sound to the game. Over all I looked forward to double points on the games during the bithday month and that did not happen. I wait to shop during this month due to the deals and new vendors. This month has luckluster and with very few surprises or good deals.. I have not spent liked I planned to . I wanted to get a jump on</p>

	<p>Christmas.”</p> <p>I usually buy way more things in December...no coupons on spin to win to win this year...</p> <p>I was more enticed to shop with those [previous – ZT] prizes</p> <p>NEVER WIN I am not buying much this month the birthday [HSN’s promotional “birthday month” –ZT] is boring. The past years SPIN2WIN had better give aways,that made me want to shop. 🤔</p>
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DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

To answer our first research question: yes, there are customers who are unhappy, and at times very unhappy with the free promotional sweepstakes game. Notice all the capital letters and multiple exclamation points. Customers are not simply discontent; they are at times very, very irate. They feel lied to, misled and toyed with, and as a result are quite badly disappointed.

One theme that emerges is “reward for regular/loyal customers,” which some posters felt was lacking and should be remedied by (much) more frequent and valuable winnings in the Spin to Win game. Since perceived “reward for regular customers” has been shown to be highly influencing perceived consumer-retailer relationship (Siddiquei, Awan, Asghar, Ghafoor & Abrar, 2015), this aspect may be of importance. A further question then arises if the introduction of the S2W increases the expectations of such rewards and their salience, and if so, to what degree.

The limitations of this study include those related to the method itself (a purely qualitative, subjective approach, investigating just one game at one site), and the technical issues with forums (HSN deletes messages it deems particularly offensive or disrespectful to other posters or otherwise violating its rules. Hence we might be missing on some complaints; we cannot verify anybody’s identities and have no way of knowing whether two different nicknames belong to a single one person). Additionally, having no access to HSN sales and other data, we cannot truly evaluate the impact of this discontentment on its business.

Out of the limitations comes a direction for future research: staging controlled experiments to understand the changes to the customer satisfaction model that having online promotional sweepstakes and community dictates.

This paper’s implications are two-fold. It expands on the understanding of satisfaction and lays the ground work for an updated model accounting for interactive nature of a business.

Additionally, it can serve as a useful discussion material for a senior-level undergraduate or a master’s-level class.

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PRODUCT DISPLACEMENT AND THE EFFECTS ON BRAND SUBSTITUTION

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ABSTRACT

Product Displacement can be generally described as the covering, masking, or otherwise obscuring of a brand during a television show or movie. Product Displacement is used to remove a trademarked image from the visual field of the viewer, and is generally used to prevent the broadcaster from paying a licensing fee, to prevent advertising a product, or at the request of the trademark holder. In order to establish the reaction of consumers to product displacement and the displaced brands this research looks to existing product placement research to draw parallels. This study explores how ego-depletion moderates the impact of product displacement on brand recognition. Displacement commonly uses several methods to hide the brand. These methods can be compared to the subtle or blatant product placements in existing literature. The goal of this research is to explore the effects of product displacement on brand recognition.

INTRODUCTION

Audiences are generally welcoming of product placement because it enhances the credibility and makes for a more realistic and reflective portrayal of everyday life, additionally branded items in shows can help evoke a certain feeling or sense of location (Jones, 2014). A key question for advertisers is how to most effectively place their products in a chosen medium (Gillespie, 2012). Subtle ad placements are presented visually and are not connected to a shows plot or characters, while blatant products are presented in auditory or audiovisual context and are integrated into the shows plot or characters (Russell, 2002). While these are well-documented techniques, there is limited information about consumer attitudes towards product displacement (Mehpare, 2014).

Displacement commonly uses several methods to hide the brand that can be compared to subtle or blatant product placements. One method is to pixelate or blur the brand logo so that the image is not clearly visible but colors and general shapes are recognizable. This method is subtle and does not immediately capture attention and is not as generally visible unless the image is shown multiple times. A second method is to remove any reference to the brand and refer to the brands product in the most generic of terms. These methods can be classified as subtle attempts to displace a brand. Subtle placements generate positive attitudes toward the brand and have little incremental effects (Homer, 2009). The third and more blatant method is for the brand logo to be digitally “blacked-out” or otherwise

physically hidden from view. Due to the contrast between the natural environment and the completely “blacked out” image, this method is more immediately noticeable and can be considered as blatant or prominent attempts to displace the brand. Blatant attempts result in decreased brand attitudes, and are perceived to be more distracting, less realistic, and interfere with plot; furthermore, these effects increase with repeated exposure (Atkinson, 2003).

This research explores the effects of product displacement on brand recognition. The conditions in which a consumer encounters brand displacement are typically during “prime-time” television viewing, and therefore are likely to be in a state of ego depletion. This effect, combined temporal integration will illustrate that consumers react to the repetitive brand displacement practices found in popular television programming by substituting a liked or familiar brand in place of a subtly or blatantly displaced brand. This substitution may or may not result in the selection of the correct brand, but will merely use the brand most cognitively available. Consumers who are not ego depleted have more cognitive resources at their disposal, and as a result will devote more of these resources to determining the correct identity of the brand.

A difference between product placement and displacement is that while placement intends to draw attention to the brands, displacement intends to conceal the brand. Placement literature also indicates that blatant attempts are highly visible to both depleted and non-depleted viewers (Gillespie, 2012), this suggests that ego depleted consumers will react to subtle and blatant attempts in a similar manner. Product displacement differs in that it requires a level

of cognitive ability in order to process both subtle and blatant product displacements.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESIS

Subtle displacement attempts offer a “hint” to viewers in determining brand identity through the visibility of colors and shapes. Blatant attempts completely conceal many aspects of brand identity, and therefore require a higher level of cognitive ability to determine the correct brand. Ego depleted viewers react to subtle attempts by relying on the visual cues to substitute the most similar brand, and will simply use the most salient brand in blatant displacement. Non-ego depleted viewers will have available cognitive resources to sufficiently recognize both subtle and blatant attempts at displacement. These viewers will use the available cognitive resources to process the cues provided in subtle displacement to determine the brands true identity. In blatant displacement, viewers will use cognitive resources to observe product attributes, usage, and other indicators to determine a probable brand identity. Ego depletion will allow consumers to rely on familiar brands when presented with displacement methods, and consumers without ego depletion will attempt to determine the brands identity. The effects of ego depletion on cognitive ability and the nature of product displacement lead to the following hypothesis:

H1: Product displacement will interact with consumers experiencing ego depletion so that consumers will substitute the most recognizable or favorite brands for both subtle and blatant displacements.

H1b: Product displacement will trigger consumers not experiencing ego depletion to use cognitive ability to process visual clues to determine the brands actual identity.

According to previous research, processing fluency improves evaluation of and encourages the choice of fluent objects; therefore there are advantages to designing advertisements to increase fluency (Shapiro, 2013). Additional processing of logos will create a stronger memory trace, more fluency on subsequent viewings, and increased preference for the brand (Shapiro, 2013). Because of the increased processing resources that are allocated to the displaced products across repeated exposures, the fluency of brand logos will be greater for blatant techniques, which communicate a greater visual change, compared to subtle techniques that are not as

visually noticeable. The nature of product displacements creates a disturbance in the visual field and will therefore attract the eye of the viewers; in this context the blatant attempts at product displacement create a larger visual disturbance. This leads to the following hypothesis:

H2: Repeated product displacement attracts consumer’s attention to the brand (triggers desire to discover), and this effect will be greater in blatant displacement attempts.

DISCUSSION

Product displacement is an attempt by production companies to reduce brand identification due to trademarks, company requests, or a desire to prevent free advertising. The purpose of this research is to show that, although the intended brand may be hidden, consumers will substitute a favored brand in place of the displaced brand when under a condition of cognitive load. A potential consequence of the phenomenon is that by trying to prevent the recognition or promotion of certain brands, television shows are actually reinforcing the image of other brands. This is due to a consumer’s propensity to substitute the familiar in the place of the unknown. Practical application of these results may indicate that production companies may be better served to simply alter camera angles, remove the stimulus, or to refine displacement techniques. Additionally, repeated attempts at brand displacement may actually increase the viewer’s awareness of these attempts and cause a desire to know the true identity of the brand, thus defeating the purpose of displacement. These consumers may react negatively to their favorite brand being obscured and may transfer these negative feelings towards the viewed programs.

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HOW DID YOU HEAR ABOUT US?

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE MOST IMPORTANT MARKETING COMMUNICATIONS SOURCES FOR HERITAGE TOURISTS IN PENNSYLVANIA

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ABSTRACT

Quantitative research was conducted throughout the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania to determine which marketing communications media are the most important sources of information about heritage-related tourism sites. The study employed a quantitative survey method with both paper and online questionnaires. "Word of Mouth" was the overwhelming source (58%) of information cited by respondents. "The Internet" was the second most-cited source with 17% of total mentions, followed by traditional media like newspapers, magazines, billboards, TV, and radio; all with single digit responses. Limitations of the study as well as implications for future research and future managerial directions are also discussed.

INTRODUCTION

This manuscript reports on a key aspect of a major study investigating tourism within Pennsylvania's Designated Heritage Areas (DHAs).

The DHA program was first established in 1988 and has grown to include 12 multi-county heritage areas located throughout the Commonwealth. Over the course of nearly three decades, the focus of DHA programs has gradually shifted to regional efforts that center on the conservation of natural areas and the relationship of conservation programs to economic development, tourism, preserving a sense of place, community education about local heritage, and the preservation of historic buildings and artifacts (Mahoney, 2014).

This project builds on three previous studies to that looked at Pennsylvania's DHAs. These studies employed both qualitative and quantitative data collection approaches.

A qualitative approach was used successfully in 2012 study that focused on case studies of tourism promotion agencies in different geographic areas of the Commonwealth (Holoviak, 2012). Another study of National Heritage Areas in the Northeast Region of the U.S. (Tripp Umbach/ National Park Service, 2013) also helped guide the methodology for this research.

A quantitative approach was used in a 2010 study of Pennsylvania's DHAs to gather information about visitors titled "The Economic Impact of Pennsylvania's Heritage Areas" (Center for Rural Pennsylvania, 2010). The work on this previous study also helped guide the development of present research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The term "heritage tourism" has been explored by numerous researchers over the past three decades stretching back to the early work of Hewison (1987). Since then the topic has been the subject of "increasing interest from a range of disciplines" (Poria *et al.*, 2003: 240). A description of the term that is very helpful to the present study is provided by Poria *et al.* when they define heritage tourism "...as a phenomenon which, at its core, has not the heritage attributes of a specific site, but rather the motivation to visit it, both in relation to that site's attributes and the tourists' perception of their own heritage" (Poria *et al.*, 2001: 1047). This captures the way many visitors to Pennsylvania's DHAs view their destination. An example would be the Johnstown Flood Museum, a facility that documents the 1889 Flood in Johnstown, PA, within the Allegheny Ridge DHA. Visitors to this facility often plan trips to the area based not only on the historical significance of

the flood event itself, but also by their family's historical connection to Johnstown history.

More specific to this paper is a discussion of literature related to the marketing communications tools used by tourism-related entities. Kotler, Bowen, & Makens (2006) identified a number of different marketing communications tools that are commonly used by the hospitality industry including advertising, public relations, personal selling, and forms of sales promotion. Of these tools, advertising has been studied by several groups of researchers including a study of print advertising images by Smith & McKay (2001) and of television imagery by Pan (2011). This existing research establishes a base for the consideration of the marketing communications tools examined in the present study, including advertising in magazines, on the radio, on television, and on billboards. Not mentioned in any of the literature to date has been the effect of "word of mouth," and "new" media including the internet, and social networks. These tools will be examined in the present study.

METHODOLOGY

A sample of five DHAs were selected from among the total of 12 areas across the Commonwealth for budgetary reasons. The five targeted DHAs were selected jointly by representatives of the project sponsors. The selection process included consultation with leaders of all the groups and agreement on three points: that the five DHAs should represent a diverse geographical range within the Commonwealth; that the executive directors of the study DHAs should be willing and enthusiastic participants; and that the five study DHAs should not include those that participated in a previous study of DHAs in Pennsylvania (Tripp Umbach/National Park Service, 2013). The five DHAs selected for the study were Allegheny Ridge, Lincoln Highway, National Road, Pennsylvania Route 6, and Susquehanna Gateway.

Building upon the research noted above, this study employed a quantitative approach using surveys that were administered over an eight-month period during the spring, summer and fall of 2014 beginning in May and ending in December.

The survey instrument was developed in a collaborative process that included major stakeholders of the project and which incorporated best practices from other economic impact studies the research team had been involved with in the past. Once the paper questionnaire instrument was completed, an identical online version was created using Qualtrics, the approved online and mobile research vendor approved by the sponsoring university's Internal Review Board (IRB).

Paper surveys were distributed to visitors by volunteers during spring, summer and fall of 2014. Visitors were encouraged to complete a paper questionnaire instrument. To encourage response, a \$200 gift card was awarded to a randomly-selected survey participant from each of the five DHAs involved in the study. A questionnaire was designed for local officials in each of the five DHAs with a unique identify for each area, although all survey questions were identical across each of the five DHAs.

Data collection supervisors were selected by the executive directors of each DHA, and worked with a range of anchor sites scattered throughout each area. The anchor sites were also chosen by the executive directors of each DHA based upon their knowledge of the local tourism environment. The number of sites varied by DHA, based largely upon the geographic size of the area. Volunteers were recruited by the data collection supervisors at each of the anchor sites. Most of the data collection was via the passive collection method whereby visitors to the site were advised about the survey, and then chose to complete either the paper or online version. Many anchor attractions using this method placed the survey instrument near high traffic locations such as the reception desk or visitor guest book. A minority of the data collection was performed by either volunteers or data collection supervisors as a visitor intercept at the anchor attraction sites. This method was used during high-profile events at anchor attractions that were identified by the executive directors and the data collection supervisors. In this situation, data collection supervisors or volunteers would approach visitors and ask them to complete either the paper or online instrument. The same instruments were used in both passive and intercept methods.

Online surveys were available for visitors who did not wish to complete a paper survey. This option used an internet-based version of the paper questionnaire instrument noted above hosted on a secure site by the vendor Qualtrics. Invitation cards were distributed to participants passively at stations as well as during intercepts by the data collection coordinators for those who did not have time to participate at the time of their visit. These participants were also incentivized to complete the questionnaire by the chance to win the \$200 gift card.

Once the paper and online data were collected, the research team merged the two sets of data using Microsoft Excel and transferred the data to SPSS for more detailed analysis. SPSS allowed the research team to investigate many different measures including the total number of respondents, their awareness of DHAs, the source of information about the DHAs, and demographic data.

This statistical analysis also allowed for a degree of control over the duplication of paper versus online questionnaire respondents. However, since the survey was billed as an anonymous enterprise, no unique identifier information about respondents was recorded unless they voluntarily provided their telephone number for a chance to win the \$200 gift card. The analysis identified one telephone number match between a paper and online questionnaire respondent (.05 percent of the sample), but the records were not thrown out because the research team believed the respondent(s) could have been unique individuals within a party traveling together. One respondent may have chosen to complete the paper questionnaire while another decided to take the survey online.

One surprise that emerged from this paper and online methodology was the relatively low proportion of online responses. In fact, 93% of all completed questionnaires were of the traditional paper type, with only 7% being completed online. The research team believes there are two possible explanations for this outcome. First, the demographics of the sample skew older (the largest single segment is 55-64, representing 25% of respondents) as indicated in the following pages, suggesting that there may be less of an inclination for this population to use the smart phone technology required to scan the online invitation card's QR code or enter the URL address in a web browser. Second, the summer of 2014 included a number of highly publicized "hacks" of major retail databases, including Home Depot. These incidents may have discouraged potential respondents from using the online questionnaire out of fear for the security of their information.

The combined number of paper and online questionnaires that were deemed usable by the research team totaled 3,524, representing a response rate of 0.0243% of the total estimated visitors from across all five DHAs of 14,555,743. The total number of usable questionnaires was less than the 2010 study- 4,078- but that project surveyed visitors in eight DHAs whereas the current project studied only five DHAs. Therefore, when compared to the 2010 study, average responses per DHA were higher in this study with 705 questionnaires per DHA versus an average of 510 per DHA in the 2010 study (Center for Rural Pennsylvania, 2010).

Using the sample error estimate online calculator provided by Decision Support Systems, LP, a respected national marketing research consulting firm, this response rate yields an estimated error rate of approximately +/-1.7%. This error estimate is based upon a sample proportion of 50% and a confidence interval of 95%, and is calculated using a method that is most appropriate for a random sample. Since the

sample for this study is a convenience sample and not random, the error rate would be higher, but this provides a rough estimate of the range of error.

The sample included respondents from 1,678 different zip codes from throughout the U.S. representing visitors from 46 states. In addition, the sample included visitors from 16 foreign countries from as close as Canada to as distant as Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Colombia, and Venezuela, to the European nations Austria, Denmark, England, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain and Sweden.

The sample also included 240 different destination zip codes located throughout the Commonwealth. This compares with data collected at 106 sites in the 2010 study (Center for Rural Pennsylvania, 2010). The locations are primarily located within the boundaries of the five study DHAs

As noted earlier, the sample skewed older with the largest single segment (25%) of respondents reporting an age of 55-64. Slightly less than half of respondents (48%) reported their age within the 25-54 demographic often used by marketers to target consumers. Only 6% of respondents reported that their age in the 18-24 segment.

Sample respondents skewed toward females by a 60/40 proportion. In terms of household income, the sample skewed fairly upscale with the single largest segment of respondents (25%) reporting household income of \$50-75,000, and 68% of all respondents reporting income of more than \$50,000. Only 9% reported household income of less than \$25,000.

The sample skewed toward higher levels of education with nearly a third of respondents (30%) reporting the attainment of a bachelor's degree. Overall, a majority (55%) had at least a bachelor's degree, with 25% reporting they had earned a masters' degree or higher.

More than one-third (39%) of respondents indicated that this was their first trip to the DHA where they completed the questionnaire. This percentage of first-time visitors was exactly the same as reported in the 2010 DHA study at 39% (Center for Rural Pennsylvania, 2010).

FINDINGS

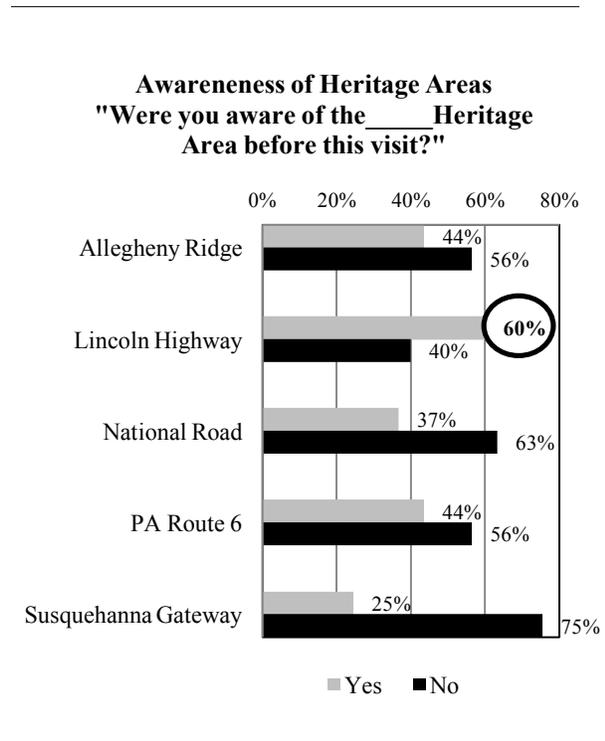
Consumer Awareness

Analysis of the data indicates that existing marketing communications efforts have not been very effective in generating awareness for the DHA program as a whole. Only one-third (33%) of respondents reported that they were aware of the existence of the Pennsylvania DHA program (67% reported a lack of

awareness). This result compares unfavorably with the 2010 DHA study (Center for Rural Pennsylvania, 2010) in which 44% of respondents reported that they were either “not familiar” or “not sure” about the existence of the DHA program.

Awareness of some of the individual study DHAs was higher than the overall program as a whole. The Lincoln Highway DHA enjoyed the highest awareness of all five study DHAs with 60% of respondents reporting that they were aware of the area before their visit. It was also the only DHA where more than 50% of respondents reported awareness prior to their visit, as illustrated in Chart 1 below.

Table 1. Awareness of Heritage Areas



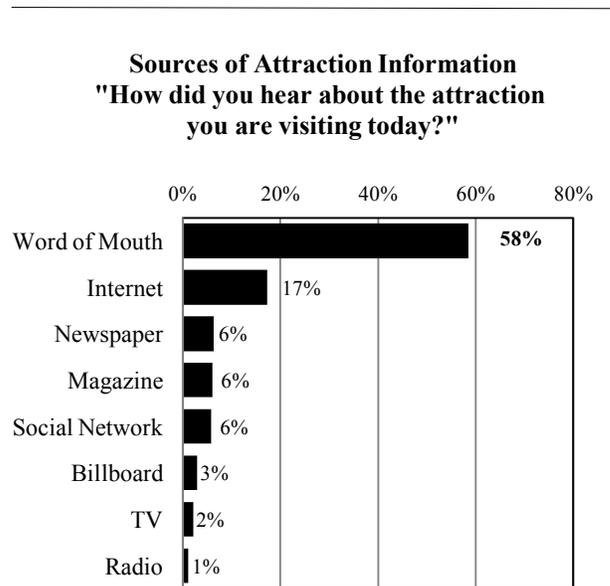
Source of Marketing Communications Information

Analysis of the data indicates that two marketing communications media dominated. “Word of mouth” was the overwhelming source (58%) of information about the site where respondents completed their questionnaires, while “the internet” was the second most-cited source with 17% of total respondent mentions.

There was a second tier of sources, with each cited by 6% of respondents. Two of these sources are the traditional media newspapers and magazines. The third was “social networks.”

The final, lower tier of sources were all traditional marketing communications media, including “billboards” with 3% of respondents citing as their source, followed by “TV” with 2% and “radio” with 1%, as depicted in Chart 2 below.

Table 2. Sources of Information



LIMITATIONS/IMPLICATIONS

This study has two key limitations. First, the methodology of the study ensured that findings provide a relatively strong representation of the awareness and respondent sources of marketing communications information about heritage sites for the five study DHAs. However, there may be unique features of the remaining seven DHAs that would render extrapolation of the results to all 12 areas very risky.

Second, the exclusive focus upon Pennsylvania DHAs certainly limits the generalization of results beyond the boundary of the Commonwealth. Heritage sites in other states may have unique characteristics that could create differences in results, such as variations in state funding of heritage attractions or the relative proximity (or distance from) major population centers that Pennsylvania enjoys due to its location in the populous Middle Atlantic region.

The findings of this study indicate both weaknesses and opportunities in terms of heritage area marketing communications.

First, the study illustrates the weakness of existing marketing communications efforts in generating awareness for the overall DHA program. However, the breakout of awareness by DHA also indicates an opportunity to improve upon these results. This is as evidenced by the success of the Lincoln Highway area, where awareness of the DHA was nearly twice as strong as for the program as a whole at 60%. This suggests a key implication: to more closely study the marketing communications efforts of the Lincoln Highway area to determine the reasons for its relative success. Could it be that there is a latent level of elevated awareness for this area due to the national scope of the Lincoln Highway (perhaps somewhat akin to another famous highway, Route 66? Or is it due to some unique marketing communication message or media campaign? Further research into Lincoln Highway's success could provide some useful insights.

Second, the findings related to the source of marketing communications information suggest that "social networks," perhaps surprisingly, are not as powerful a medium as "word of mouth," or "the internet" with only 6% of total mentions. However, could it be that some respondents may have unintentionally included the impact of "social" media like Twitter or Facebook within the response category of "the internet," or perhaps even "word of mouth?" On the other hand, this also suggests an opportunity to harness the overwhelming strength of "word of mouth" by more aggressively employing social media tools to create positive "buzz" and "word of mouth" about heritage sites.

Finally, the research process required close collaboration among the five DHA staffs, and as a result of this collaboration, we observed an opportunity to implement a common visitor survey method. Prior to this project, the five study DHAs did not employ a common approach to collecting visitor data. We recommend that all DHAs implement a common survey technique, built on the practices used in this study, using the paper and online questionnaires going forward. We also offered to assist DHA staff on how to input data into Excel spreadsheets for further analysis. If this protocol was employed across all 12 Pennsylvania DHAs at frequent intervals (perhaps 3-5 years), the overall program and the individual DHAs would benefit from more up-to-date data on awareness and sources of visitor information.

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ACTIVE LEARNING AND GENERATION NEXT PERCEPTIONS OF ENGAGEMENT AND MOTIVATION: AN ATTRIBUTION THEORY APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

Many challenges face educators teaching Generation NeXters. These digital natives, may not be academically prepared, think “me first” and have issues with correct self-appraisal and esteem. However, many faculty members are digital immigrants using traditional passive teaching methods which generate low-level learning. Hence, there is a growing conversation in the academic literature around the topic of “flipped” classroom pedagogy and its role in improving student performance. Researchers found a positive correlation between “flipped” classroom pedagogy and student performance in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics. Thus, we propose an examination of active versus passive learning strategies in the business education arena.

INTRODUCTION

There are many challenges facing educators as they grapple with teaching generation NeXt. Generation NeXters are digital natives who may not be academically prepared, tend to have a “me first” orientation, as well as issues with correct self-appraisal and esteem (Coates, 2007; Hersch & Merrow, 2005; Prensky, 2001a, 2001b; Taylor, 2005, 2007, 2010; Tapscott, 2009; Twenge, 2006). However, many faculty members are digital immigrants using traditional passive learning teaching methods that generate low-level learning and do not stimulate the new generation of learners (Taylor, 2010). Hence, there is a growing conversation in the academic literature around the topic of “flipped” classroom pedagogy and its role in improving student performance (Beichner, 2006). This pedagogy involves the notion of flipping the classroom where the course content is pushed outside of the classroom via reading assignments and other activities, while instructors spend class time ON active learning activities to engage students (Beichner, 2006). Researchers found a positive correlation between “flipped” classroom pedagogy and student performance in the Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) disciplines. Thus, we propose an examination of active versus passive learning strategies in the business education arena. In addition the study will examine how student

attributions correlate with their motivation and engagement in various learning environments.

ATTRIBUTION THEORY

Attribution is the process that individuals use to explain the causes of their behavior and events. These attributions can be of others or of self. For example, a professor sees a student make a mistake on an assignment can attribute that mistake to the student’s lack of interest in the subject matter. On the other hand a professor sees a student make a mistake on an assignment can attribute the mistake to their own inability to convey information to the student. Most people engage in the attribution process unconsciously several times in a given day. Attribution theory suggests that individuals’ attributions shape their emotional and behavioral responses (Weiner, 1985). Previous research suggests, three attribution styles: optimistic, pessimistic and hostile. People with an optimistic style tend to believe in their ability to succeed. Pessimistic styles tend to lack confidence in themselves and their ability to be successful. People with hostile attribution style tendencies believe that their failure can be attributed to an external “entity” (Douglas & Martinko, 2001). In addition to attribution styles, there are several motivational states associated with attributional tendencies: learned helplessness, aggression, empowerment and resilience. Learned helplessness is when people are passive and lack

motivation to take action because of past failures which leads to the attribution of their inability to be successful as the task or action. Aggression, unlike learned helplessness, leads to actions but those actions tend to be negative. Empowerment is a motivational state in which an individual expects that their efforts to accomplish a given task will be positively rewarded in some way. Resilience is a motivational state in which an individual has an accurate view of themselves and their environment and make decisions to adapt and improvise to major changes that they may encounter (Coutu, 2002). In this paper, we propose that students' attribution styles will influence their perception of learning styles used in the classroom and thereby influence their motivation and engagement for academic success.

ACTIVE LEARNING

Active learning is a classroom environment where the instructor serves as a facilitator of learning or the "guide on the side" versus the traditional lecture method where the instructor is viewed as the "sage of the stage." Studies have shown that student-centered teaching can improve students' memory as well as raise their consciousness of communication strategies, which is a skill often overlooked and dismissed by Generation NeXt. It has further been suggested that Generation NeXters are natural born leaders. They "take an active approach to tasks" and "are willing to take risks". That said, Generation NeXt learners are likely to engage in the challenge to lead their fellow classmates.

GENERATION NEXT AND ACTIVE LEARNING

Generation NeXt students are digital natives who constantly interface with technology. Traditional paper and pencil assignments are not always the best way to engage students with course materials. As such, a second approach to flipping the classroom is utilizing a learning system for the passive learning activities prior to class. In traditional classrooms, students come to class for lecture and then complete homework assignments. In traditional classrooms, students complete homework assignments outside of class and come to class for lecture. When learning systems, such as MyMarketingLab, are used in the active learning classroom, instructors are provided the opportunity to assign various types of assignments for students to complete prior to class. The instructor can then analyze student performance on course learning objectives prior to class to determine areas where students may need more assistance during the class session. Thus,

the learning system assignments are used as the foundation for in-class activities.

Lastly, the average Generation NeXt student needs exposure to course material more than once before assimilation of that information occurs. Therefore, a third suggested active learning strategy entails engaging students through pre-class assigned reading. Typically, students rely on being exposed to or "spoon-fed" material in the traditional manner through course lecture. To initiate an active learning teaching style, we propose that in the class prior, several questions about the reading material are given to students to be answered for the next class session. In the following session, students work in pairs or groups to discuss their answers and explain their points of view. After their discussion, students are asked to develop one additional question for the instructor to be addressed in an open forum. For the instructor, this reveals which concepts may warrant additional coverage.

STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

Astin's (1984) Student Involvement Theory defined involvement as, "the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience." (pg. 308). The concept of student engagement has evolved from and heavily relies on this theory. Specifically, engagement is conceived as being related to the level of investment of oneself into a role, and tends to be predictive of task performance (Rich, Lepine & Crawford, 2010). In essence, as students become actively involved in the classroom, the energy they dedicate increases. Further, student engagement is thought to be a predictor of learning.(Burch et al., 2015). Like Astin (1984) engagement is proposed to occur on emotional, physical and cognitive levels. Thus we have hypothesized that:

H1a: In an active learning classroom environment, students who have a pessimistic attribution style are more likely to have greater engagement than in a passive learning environment.

H1b: In an active learning classroom environment, students who have a optimistic attribution style are more likely to have greater engagement than in a passive learning environment.

STUDENT MOTIVATION

Motivation may be defined simply as the factors that lead people to act in the manner as they do (Solomon, 2015). Students can be academically motivated for a varied number of reasons. For example, students may

have made personal pledge to do well, they may like the subject and consider it important or perhaps they believe there is value in the activity (Young, 2005). In terms of students, Rothstein (1990) and Woolfork (1990) both describe motivation as not only the driving force behind learning goals but also the actions people choose to take to and the intensity with which these actions are undertaken to reach those learning goals. It is our contention that active classroom environments facilitate student motivation. Thus we have hypothesized that:

H2a: In an active learning classroom environment, optimistic students will experience greater motivation than in a passive learning classroom environment.

H2b: In an active learning classroom environment, pessimistic students will experience more motivation than in a passive learning environment.

CONCLUSION

In sum, Marketing educators are challenged with the need to balance engaging and motivating Generation NeXt learners in the classroom while meeting assessment requirements of accrediting organizations. This challenge must be addressed because flipping the traditional school paradigm upside down allows educators to create opportunities for Generation NeXters to learn in a new and remixed way. There is some research on active learning and student learning gains in the math and science disciplines. However, there is a lack of empirical evidence in the business education disciplines. We propose that an instructors' active learning teaching style positively improves the classroom environment to increase student engagement as well as student learning in the business education arena.

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PRODUCT INFORMATION AND CONSUMER CHOICE CONFIDENCE IN MULTI-ITEM SALES PROMOTIONS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Consumers rely on diagnostic information to inform and support confident choice decisions. Many firms make substantial investments in marketing communications in an effort to provide diagnostic, or useful, information. However, even when such information is provided, its influence on consumer remains highly susceptible to contextual factors. To more fully understand the influence of diagnostic information on consumer behavior, it is necessary to evaluate its effects under different conditions of presentation and combination with other market factors.

This research evaluates the joint influence of product information and a marketing promotion on consumer choice confidence. Product information and marketing promotions represent two marketing interventions that are often employed simultaneously. For purposes of this research, diagnostic information was operationalized as the presence or absence of informational cues that indicated a superior alternative in the choice set. A multi-item promotion is one in which more than one product is promoted simultaneously. The form of the multi-item promotion (MIP) employed in this research is buy-one-get-one-50% off. Multi-item promotions can be formatted as free-selection (in which the consumer is allowed to select the promoted items) or fixed-selection (in which the retailer or manufacturer selects the promoted items).

Findings from two studies demonstrate a weaker influence of diagnostic information on consumer choice confidence under free-selection MIP than under fixed-selection MIP. These results suggest that freedom to choose attenuates the influence, and perhaps value, of diagnostic information. The results from this research hold important implications for promotion strategy. They suggest that, when the promoted product category is not characterized by brand or product leaders, free-selection (as opposed to fixed-selection) MIPs may produce higher choice confidence.

Additionally, this research indicates that perceptions of information adequacy partially mediate the influence of external information diagnosticity on choice confidence. This provides greater insight into the mechanism by which information affects desired consumer responses. Moreover, the research results provide some indication that, positive feelings produced by information that is higher in diagnosticity may not translate into greater choice confidence.

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THE RISE AND FALL OF AN ICONIC BRAND: ALFA ROMEO

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Brand literature has in the last decade introduced religious-like concepts such as icons and cults among others (Muniz and Schau, 2005) in order to depict how a small set of brands is able to produce extreme attachment and love amongst consumers. A brand becomes an icon (Holt, 2006) when it delivers innovative cultural expressions through offering a compelling myth, a story that can help a large group of people - often a nation - resolve tensions in their lives. A brand becomes a cult (Belk and Tumbat, 2005) when it enjoys exclusive devotion from a small group – a community - of consumers who form personal or virtual cult-like followings. Notwithstanding the introduction of these two concepts, the conceptual difference between them is still unclear (Thompson, Rindfleisch and Arsel, 2006) as are the possible transitions between these two states in the life of a brand. In this research, we revisit these two concepts - iconic brands and cult brands - to specify their similarities and differences. Then, we focus on the specific case of brands that are national icons and run the risk of losing their iconicity (Torelli and Cheng, 2015).

The aim of our research is to contribute to knowledge on iconic brands, cult brands and brand iconicity by following the ‘career’ of an iconic brand: from creation to the period of iconization to episodes of loss and regain of iconicity. To this end, we investigate the case of the Italian brand Alfa Romeo created in 1910, which was taken over by the Italian Fiat Group in 1986. Alfa Romeo is deemed iconic for Italians.

Following the investigation method that Holt (2006) calls “brand genealogy” the research combines the close examination of a nation’s cultural discourses and social tensions as they unfold over time (1945 to 2015) with a careful textual analysis of a brand’s performance. As the iconicity of a brand is mainly visible in the manifestations of the brand in popular culture (Holt, 2006), largely in mass media outside the firm’s direct control (films and television programs, books, music, sports, and journalism), it has been conducted an analysis of 14 of the most popular Italian movies released from 1945 to 2015 and coordinated by Italian famous film directors (Lucchino Visconti, Vittorio De Sica, Carlo Verdone, Carlo Vizzani amongst others), to explore the iconicity of Alfa Romeo. These films have not directly celebrated Alfa Romeo but have impacted heavily on how popular culture portrays this brand. Interpretation of the artistic text of films has enabled an understanding of the embedded ideals and myths (Holbrook & Grayson, 1986) associated with the Alfa Romeo brand.

In addition, with the aim to show the actual state of things in Italian society, it has been conducted 27 phenomenological interviews (Thompson, 1997) with today’s Alfa Romeo owners and enthusiasts (4 nostalgic-aged owners; 4 lay-aged owners; 19 young owners) on the role of the Alfa Romeo brand in their lives. Furthermore, it has been arranged 10 personnel interviews with Alfa Romeo non-owners in order to explore which are the brands that play an iconic role in today Italian society. These interviews globally aimed to assess the level of perceived iconicity of Alfa Romeo. The analysis has required a multi-method approach including text mining and thematic cluster analysis.

Findings highlight how the Alfa Romeo brand became an icon for Italian society and how it subsequently lost its iconicity through key episodes in its life: the first Formula 1 championship in the 50’s, Alfa Giulietta production in the 60’s, Alfasud introduction in the 70’s, Fiat takeover in the 80’s. Alfa Romeo cars increasingly featured in Italian movies from post-World War II to the 80’s. Thereafter, from the second half of ‘80s, the presence of Alfa Romeo cars in Italian movies decreased and became marginal. Findings emphasize that Alfa Romeo is no longer considered an iconic brand. Consumers have strong iconic memories of the Alfa Romeo myth and nostalgic feelings

especially due to the fact that their parents nurtured the iconicity of Alfa Romeo when they were young. Nevertheless, these iconic memories do not imply that Alfa Romeo remains an icon.

Alfa Romeo's chaotic iconic career in Italy helps us elaborate a repertoire of the key issues concerning iconic brands, cult brands and brand iconicity as avenues for future research.

First, the loss of a brand's iconicity implies its transfer from society to a community. A brand that has lost part of its iconicity can still benefit from a community of devotees. It thus becomes a cult brand. Its devotees maintain the cult of a "dead icon" while the rest of society considers it a well-known brand (high brand awareness) without being able to link the brand with something greater or sacred. This, according to our findings, marks the loss of brand iconicity.

Second, a period would seem to be required between the episodes in the life of a brand and becoming the cultural expression of a nation such as in movies. An average period of 10 years between the occurrence of an episode and its cultural expressions appears to be rule in a large part of Alfa Romeo brand's life. However, these timeframes may be reduced today with the use of the Internet.

Third, when an iconic brand loses its iconicity, this implies a lack of managerial competences or willingness to manage the mythology of the brand or playing it wrongly through inadequate product features and advertising content. When this does manifest, fandoms defend the extant mythology and protect it through out-group aggression within a smaller in-group. In the Alfa Romeo case, nostalgic enthusiasts play this managerial role, defending the heritage of the brand and rejecting the new meanings and content created by the corporate brand management. A cult brand is thus a brand that for a small part of the fandom is steeped in nostalgic and religious iconic memories.

By investigating the ways an iconic brand can lose its iconicity and the consequences of such a loss in terms of cultism, our research contribute to the overall knowledge on brand culture and brand management.

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LISTENING TO THE DRUMBEATS OF CONSUMER OPINION: A PRIMER ON SOCIAL MEDIA AND CONSUMER REVIEW MONITORING TOOLS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Since the ancients first realized they could fashion clay into utilitarian items such as pots and amphorae and then trade those items for the necessities of life, business people have been very aware of a basic rule: If the demand for your product or service is not sufficient, your business' profitability will less than desired. And in a world increasingly influenced by social media, this demand is intimately related to what your customers are "saying" to each other about your business' offerings; that is, demand is affected by "the drumbeats of consumer opinion."

The aforementioned fact of business survival is quite closely related to what is widely recognized as one of the most popular analytical approach for evaluating the profitability potential of a business, Porter's "Five Forces" model (Porter 1980, 2001). Based on the vast array of literature focused on industrial organization, Porter identified the following five forces as determinants of industry structure as well as a firm's viability: 1) the rivalry among existing firms; 2) the threat of substitute products/services; 3) the bargaining power of "buyers," defined as including both channel members and end users; 4) the bargaining power of suppliers; and 5) barriers to entry into the market.

It is reasonably easy to see that each force has a direct effect on the demand for a firm's product or services. The most apparent of these effects, on a force-by-force basis, are:

- Force #1 – The rivalry among existing firms (i.e., the degree of competition) affects the market share, and therefore the potential demand, for any one firm in, or a new entrant into, the market.
- Force #2 – The threat of substitute products/services can have a very influential impact on the demand for existing products/services.
- Force #3 - The power of "buyers" (especially end users and what they are saying concerning a business) is the focal point of the demand issue.
- Force #4 – The bargaining power of suppliers can affect the availability of both a product/service and its price, which in turn can impact demand (depending on the product/service's price elasticity of demand).
- Force #5 – Barriers to entry (related to Force 1) can directly impact any one firm's potential to capture market share.

Especially pertinent to this paper is a 2001 article in which Porter transported his Five Forces Model into the Internet era. In that article, Porter contended that the Internet, to a considerable degree, shifts bargaining power to end consumers (Porter, 2001). It is the latter contention that provides the focus for the present paper: Porter's Force 3, *the bargaining power of end users (i.e., consumers)*. Specifically, we discuss Web-based tools designed to discern and even aggregate the social media "drumbeats of consumer opinion" and how online business can react to the "rhythm" of consumer sentiment revealed by those beats. This paper should prove useful to owners of online businesses and web marketers who want to increase their knowledge of the subject material, as well as to individuals who teach and study e-commerce.

Staying tuned in to the online "chatter" about a business can be an effective way to monitor the firm's online reputation, reply to (and perhaps offset) comments in a timely manner, improve products and/or services, and enhance customer experience based on the "drumbeats" of customer opinion. That "chatter" can occur on many social networking and/or user review sites, so the task of keeping up with each might at first seem quite

daunting. However, social media and consumer review monitoring tools can remove a great deal of this burden because they automate the monitoring process. The following paragraphs briefly summarize the features of a few of these tools.

With Google Alerts (www.google.com/alerts), the user can receive email notifications any time that Google finds new results on the search terms he/she specifies: business name, a product/service offered by the business, a competitor, or the business' marketplace, for instance. When one establishes the parameters for an alert, Google queries its massive search engine database for the search terms under the set of constraints/options specified. These constraints, or options, include "Sources" (blogs, news, web, video, books, discussions, and/or finance), "Language" (chosen from a list of many), "Region" (most any country in the world), and "How many?" (only what Google considers the "Best" results or "All" results). One also can choose how frequently they want to receive the alerts: a) as the alerts happen, b) no more than daily, or c) no more than weekly (Google, 2015).

Social Mention (www.socialmention.com), also a free service, functions in a manner that is similar to Google Alerts and calls itself "a real time search platform." It gives users the ability to easily monitor what consumers are saying about their company, their employees, a particular product, or any other key term across social media. Social Mention performs this task in real time by directly monitoring more than 100 social media sites, including Facebook, Twitter, Google+, and YouTube (Social Mention, 2015).

Hootsuite, arguably the "grandfather" of social media monitoring tools, is the world's most widely used platform for managing social media, and at last count is available in 16 languages. Hootsuite (<http://www.hootsuite.com>) is specially designed for monitoring social networks for business name mentions and other keywords on social networking sites Facebook, Twitter, Google+, and LinkedIn, although the monitoring of other sites is available for what the company says is "an additional reasonable fee (Hootsuite, 2015)."

It was the authors' intention to include information in this paper that will be of use both to business owners/web marketers and to individuals who teach about and study e-commerce in general, and web marketing in particular. After providing a brief history of social networking, we discussed examples of tools designed to assist businesses who want to learn what consumers are saying about their products and/or services. Then, we discussed how businesses can respond to end user reviews, particularly negative ones, and how they can beneficially interact with those users by "claiming" their business listings. Finally, we concluded with short discussions of five examples of rating and review sites that allow firms to make those claims. There was never any intention to make the scope of this paper all-inclusive; instead, the authors prepared it as a primer, or introduction to, the subject matter.

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THE EFFECTS OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE INCIDENTS ON THE NFL'S PUBLIC IMAGE

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Prior to the "Information Age," sports organizations, teams, and players were evaluated based on their "on-the-field" activities. For the most part, players' off-the-field behaviors were not known about or were overlooked by outside organizations, media outlets and the general public. However, as the proliferation of information available regarding off-the-field behavior became more readily available, outsiders began to pay more attention to issues within sports organizations, team and players. In this paper, we examine in particular how the media coverage around the National Football League's domestic violence issues were handled through the lens of Benoit's (1995) Image Repair Theory.

In the last several years, there have been several domestic violence incidents in the National Football League. The USA Today Arrest Database reports that in 2014 there were 83 domestic violence arrests among NFL players, which was 55.4% of the relative total arrest rate for players when compared with the general population. This suggests that the number of domestic violence arrests for NFL players occurs at a higher rate when compared to the general population.

Previous research suggests that the media has a significant impact on the framing of the public view of athletes involved in scandals. Based on Benoit's image repair theory, this research examines traditional and social media coverage of domestic violence incidents by players in the National Football League and the techniques used by the players, teams and the NFL to restore their image and reputation. Furthermore, this research attempts to determine how the media portrays the athlete and team based on their responses or reactions to domestic violence accusations. We will use content analysis of relevant social media posts and traditional media outlet coverage of the domestic violence incidents by NFL players from 2010-2015. The study explores how the athlete, the NFL and team's public images are managed in the media.

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EFFECT OF BRAND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION ON SHARING INTENTION

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Influencing sharing intention has become a priority of marketing departments as today's consumers are heavily using social sites to communicate with friends and acquaintances. Brand communities are an ideal place to share information and influence consumers as they "represent highly valuable marketing, innovation management, and customer relationship management tools." (Zaglia, 2013, p. 216) Brand community participation is important as it has a positive effect on the brand loyalty, product repurchasing, and willingness of the consumer to share online (Thompson & Sinha, 2008; Labrecque, 2014; Chan, Zheng, Cheung, Lee, & Lee, 2014). Current research of brand communities has focused on the participants that contribute (e.g. post, share, comment) to the brand community. These studies both overlook the often untrackable view-only participants which constitute the largest number of participants to the brand community (de Valck, van Bruggen, & Wierenga, 2009) and have not adequately directly compared brand community participants to non-participants within the same study.

It is important to understand the differences between the sharing intention of contributing brand community participants, view-only brand community participants, and consumers that do not participate within a brand community. Whether word-of-mouth (WOM) in-person or electronic-word-of-mouth (eWOM) through social sites, consumer-to-consumer communication is considered the direct advice of experienced peers and is trusted more by consumers than traditional advertising methods (Zaglia, 2013). We know that there are significant differences in sharing intention for WOM and eWOM and studies have found that consumers are not as likely to share online as they are in person (Eisingerich, Chun, Liu, Jia, & Bell, 2015).

In order to study the differences in sharing intention of the two brand community participation types (contributing and view-only) and non-participants, we will use a survey to collect data from one hundred fifty to two hundred Respondents. This study does not follow prior research by approaching specific brand communities or their participants to collect data. Instead, the survey is offered to Respondents without prior knowledge by authors of their brand community participation to allow for an unbiased comparison of brand community participants and non-participants within the same study. Also, it does not focus on one product or brand as it asks each Respondent to answer three questions about in-person WOM, four questions about eWOM on social sites, and one to four questions on brand community participation (Eisingerich, Chun, Liu, Jia, & Bell, 2015) (Zhou, 2011). These questions were repeated for each Respondent's favorite brand of product in three different product involvement categories (Traylor & Joseph, 1984).

This study expands upon what is known about brand community participation's effect on sharing intention. First, where research has focused on the contributing participants of the brand community, this study works to show the importance of the larger brand community audience, its view-only participants. Second, this research directly compares brand community participants to non-participants within the same study, using the same method, to more truly show any correlation of brand community participation to sharing intention. Finally, the research will show any negative correlation between the product involvement and sharing intention; and it looks at the moderating effect of brand community participation on this product involvement category effect.

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MARKETING SPORTS IN THE MIDST OF FRANCHISE DIVERSITY SCANDALS: AN EXAMINATION OF IMAGE RESTORATION -- STRATEGIES OF THE ATLANTA HAWKS AND THE LA CLIPPERS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Wrong-doing is a pervasive aspect of human activity that can be actual or perceived. As a series of diversity-related sports marketing scandals demonstrate, wrong-doing often occurs within the context of sports (Dickerson & Sims, 2015). Using Benoit's (1995a, 1995b, 1997) theory of image restoration, this research examines the various image restoration strategies used by two sports franchises in the midst of diversity-related scandals. Details concerning each scandal are offered from the perspectives of news media and franchise marketing communications. Following a historical account of each scandal and the associated franchise response, an analysis of restoration strategies is offered.

Benoit's (1995a, 1995b, 1997) work in image restoration and corporate apologia stems from the early work of several scholars (Burke, 1970; Scott & Lyman, 1968; Ware & Linkugel, 1973). Benoit classifies image restoration situations as incidents involving attacks where a person or organization is presumed responsible and where the act is considered offensive. Both diversity scandals occurring within the Atlanta Hawks and LA Clippers franchises place the franchise diversity scandals of 2014 within the bounds of Benoit's theoretical framework. Benoit's five image restoration strategies are: denial, evasion of responsibility, reducing offensiveness of the event, corrective action, and mortification. The presence (or absence) of each strategy is examined in this research through a review of the franchise responses and associated public scrutiny. In addition, suggestions are offered for sports marketers when faced with similar or different diversity-related scandals or crises.

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A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK APPLYING GAME THEORY TO MOTIVATE LEARNING

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This paper considers the application of game theory to motivate student learning. The advantage of game theory is that ultimate payoffs are made explicit and constitute the basis for student motivation of an extrinsic and intrinsic nature. This paper reviews game theory and offers an experimental design to assess the direction, intensity and persistence of student learning in Principles of Marketing courses. Students tracked their cumulative weekly hours devoted to studying marketing as a measure of student motivation to learn. It is hypothesized that explicit emphasis on long-term payoffs (comments at the start of class identifying the career paths, incomes and prestige forthcoming to successful marketers) will manifest as greater motivation to study as well as deeper learning.

Approaches to motivate student learning (particularly deep learning that takes place independently from the class environment and assignments) is a perennial topic that seeks continual contributions. The contribution of this paper is to envision how game theory may be applied to motivate student learning. This abstract outlines both the literature review and methodology expressed in the original paper.

Learning in its many guises has evolved from the passive didactic into highly participative methods (experiential, service, action) that help students become valuable problem solvers. The emphasis on learning to learn (lifelong learners) across the many and varied careers graduates will experience requires that learning shifts away from the delivery of knowledge and toward the development of knowledge and skills (Bridgestock, 2014). This conceptual piece is designed to examine whether application of Game Theory is useful to help students increase their motivation to learning. The classic game theory modelling exercise is a game (a formal abstraction of the social interaction) with the following five conditions (Vega-Redondo, 2003; Simley and Hell, 2015).

1. Each decision maker (player) has two or more choices or sequences of choices.
2. All possible combinations of decisions result in a clear outcome: win or lose.
3. The scenarios (strategies) have well-defined outcomes with decision makers receiving a “payoff” (the value of the outcome to the participants) that they will gain or lose depending upon the outcome.
4. The decision makers know the rules of the game as well as the payoffs to the other decision makers.
5. The decision makers are rational: when faced with two alternatives, players will choose the option that provides the greatest payoff.

The payoff function for each player is effectively a preference ordering over the set of all possible outcomes. There is an implicit assumption that the “payoff function” drives the decision maker’s actions (otherwise there would not be much point in defining a payoff function).

The preceding would suggest that the use of classical game theory to model student behaviors and preferences could produce similarly inconclusive and unwieldy outcomes. Izquierdo’s (2008) review of the game theory literature offers various approaches for overcoming the extreme rationality, deductive thinking and precision of classic game theory exercises by using case-based reasoning or cognitive game theory applications (Flache and Macy, 2002; Macy and Flache, 2002). Given that the goal of cognitive game theory is to identify learning mechanisms that will lead to patterns of behavior observed in real-world interactions as compared with case-based reasoning that assumes high levels of player knowledge, we propose the use of cognitive game theory as the theoretical framework for this study.

To test the direction, intensity and persistence of student motivation to learn and develop new skills, we propose a simple quasi-experiment after-only with controls experimental design. The study will be fielded in two sections of Principles of Marketing.

The first section constitutes the control group. Students will be invited to log their course related activities (quality and duration of time spent per type of activity, e.g. studying, reviewing, writing projects, etc.) in a personal diary. Diary information will be parsed into three dimensions of student motivation to learn: “direction” is the student’s self-reported effectiveness (e.g., was the time well spent?), “intensity” is an index of how many different types of course-related activities the student engaged (including whether they stay within or venture outside the scope of assigned materials), and “persistence” is the cumulative time spent on all activities in a given week. These three dimensions of motivation are the three independent variables (IV1, IV2, IV3) that serve as indicators of the underlying construct of student learning. The dependent variable (DV) for both control and experimental groups will be grades earned (excluding any extra credit) from the mid-point of the course to the end of the course to capture any treatment effect taking place. This latter point is essential in that it will allow the capture of quantity and quality of cumulative hours spend outside the class on marketing materials. A default mean value for both groups will allow for a more robust set of comparisons pre- and post-treatment implementation.

The second section constitutes the experimental group. Similar to the control group, students will be invited to log their course-related activities (quality and duration of time spent per type of activity, e.g. studying, reviewing, writing projects, etc.) in a personal diary. The treatment will start mid-way through the course as a short (<5 minutes) introduction in each class session highlighting various aspects of how a marketing career provides a fulfilling personal experience, substantial salary range, transferrable soft and hard skills, professional status and other valued benefits.

The dependent variable (DV) for both control and experimental groups will be grades earned (excluding any extra credit) from the mid-point of the course to the end of the course to reflect the hypothesized treatment effect. Moderating variables may be assessed such as high versus low performing students, age and other factors to be determined. Additional DVs may include the proportion of students switching to the marketing major at the completion of the course.

We propose two options facing students, an outside and an inside option. The outside option is to increase learning as a strategic career benefit, whilst the inside option is to carry on as is. Cuyat (1988) suggests that an outside option payoff amounts to a status quo and their bargaining power is automatically increased. That is, if the offer (information about marketing careers) fails to inspire the student to learn more, then the outside option is the default selection. The challenge is to inform and persuade the student to consider and then accept the outside option that in this case bodes well for a professional career. Furthermore, even though the initial form of information is asymmetric (students do not know all the benefits of being a professional marketer), information symmetry evolves as students gain additional and tangible evidence of professional marketing benefits from their instructor. The takeaways are to seek a strategic fit between highly motivated student learners and employers that value this skill (career, career), otherwise the best the student can hope for is a job without a future.

Hypotheses and statistical design follow. The first hypothesis would be whether the treatment resulted in enhanced direction, intensity and persistence when studying course materials.

Hypothesis 1a: Students in the experimental group will be more “directed” (higher self-reported effectiveness on average) interacting with course-related marketing materials as compared to students in the control group.

Hypothesis 1b: Students in the experimental group will demonstrate greater “intensity” (interacting with a more diverse array of course-related materials and more diverse activities overall including activities that go beyond the scope of assigned materials) as compared to students in the control group.

Hypothesis 1c: Students in the experimental group will be more “persistent” (more cumulative hours per week interacting with course-related marketing materials as compared to students in the control group).

The second hypothesis is to test whether the additional time spent outside of class working on marketing materials results in an improved grades over the course of the treatment.

Hypothesis 2: Students in the experimental group will earn higher grades over the course of the treatment period compared to students in the control group.

A recent study by Elbeck and DeLong (2015) discovered that for extra credit opportunities, higher performing students were more likely to take the opportunity, and therefore our third hypothesis. Hypothesis 3: In the experimental group only, high performing students will exhibit significantly higher average scores on all three motivational measures as compared to low performing students.

Finally, as a test of this study's overall game theory contribution, the fourth hypothesis will capture the number of students changing their major to marketing. Hypothesis 4: A larger proportion of students in the experimental group will change their major to marketing as compared to the students in the control group.

We are excited to share our potential contribution and methodology with fellow marketing educators and look forward to your suggestions!

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WHEN SHOCK ADVERTISING HURTS...

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

As competition increases, advertisers and marketers are now trying to come up with more global campaigns to capture the global market before their competitors (Kaplan, 1994) as they are of the opinion that consumers around the world have similar needs and demands. Levitt (1983) proposed that the global consumer market can be captured by standardized advertising messages. The rapid emergence and expansion of global media have helped speed up the development of international advertising campaigns. (Chan et.al. 2007). Most empirical studies have implications that advertisers should consider the taste of the culture and accordingly design their advertising campaigns and messages for the success of the campaign (Cheng, 1997; Ramaprasad and Hasegawa, 1992). As suggested by Kim Shyan Fam, 2003, this is an important area for further research as international marketers expand the global marketplace and are faced with new ethical issues and responsibilities. Although advertising has a long history in both U.S. and India, contemporary advertising is significantly different in each country (Khairullah and Khairullah, 2002). . In 2002, ad expenditures totaled \$1.8 billion in India compared with \$242 billion in the U.S. (Euromonitor, 2004). The average American was exposed to 600 times more advertising messages than an average Indian (Kanwar, 1993). Per capita GDP in 2013 was approximately \$52,800 in the U.S., compared with \$4000 in India for the same year (World Fact book, 2013). There have been contrasting views on the ways the two countries perceive advertisements. Some authors say, India has negative thoughts compared to USA and some say the attitude is positive. India and USA were considered because of two reasons: The sharp contrast in the use of shock advertising in India and USA and the cultural and behavioral differences being extreme between the two nations. Different types of Shock Appeals were introduced by Dahl et al. in 2003. This study focuses mainly on four types of shock appeals and compares two cultures – India and America.

Impropriety: Violations of social conventions for dress, manners, etc. (Dahl DW, Frankenberger KD, Manchanda RV. 2003). Indian advertising has a different way of demonstrating nudity as nude ads are strictly censored. Women emerging from pools of water with their clothes clinging to their bodies as men gaze at them with admiration in commercials for Fair & Lovely Soap and Emami Cream pay homage to Bollywood's long tradition of sexualizing film heroines without violating censorship laws that prohibit female nudity (Radhika P Arameswaran, 2009). Thus if the marketers plan an offensive advertisement having impropriety as the theme, gets us to our first hypotheses:

H1. Indians are more offended by the shock appeal demonstrating Impropriety than Americans

Moral Offense: Harming innocent people/animals, gratuitous violence or sex, alluding to people or objects that provoke violence (e.g. Hitler), violating standards for fair behavior (e.g., shooting a person in the back), putting children in provocative situations (e.g., sexual, violent), victim exploitation (Dahl DW, Frankenberger KD, Manchanda RV. 2003). The National Television Violence study (Debling 1998), a content analysis of over 8,000 hours of broadcast and cable television, found that over 60% of the programming aired in the United States contained violence. Desai & Krishnaraj (2000) mentioned that although recent research on the portrayal of women in the Indian media, especially the print media, is limited, the available literature review suggests that the overall trend seems to be in favor of portraying women in domestic roles or as decorative sex objects. Thus, Indian and American advertisements have portrayed lot of moral offense in advertisements, but which audience is more offended? This leads us to our next hypotheses:

H2. Indians are more offended by the shock appeal demonstrating Moral Offense than Americans

Sexual Content: References to masturbation, implied sexual acts, sexually suggestive nudity or partial nudity (Dahl DW, Frankenberger KD, Manchanda RV. 2003). This field of research is characterized by highly contradictory conclusions on the effectiveness of use of sexual appeals in advertising (Galjina Ognjanov, Christian Dianoux, Zdenek Linhart, Jelena Filipovich, 2009). While American advertising pushed the envelope with commercials that put very young male and female models in provocative postures, most notable, Brook Shields for the Calvin Klein Jeans in the 1980s, “nothing comes between me and my Calvins” (Media Awareness Network, 2010); and in 2007, Virgin Money’s new home loans multi-platform advertising titled ‘Everlasting Love’ showed an elderly male

cupping the breasts of an elderly woman (Vallejo, 2007). Indian commercials so far have refrained from such practices and children or elderly do not appear in sexually charged commercials. Thus, resulting into the following hypotheses:

H3. Indians are more offended by the shock appeal demonstrating Sexual Content than Americans

Obscenity: Swear words, obscene gestures, racial epithets (Dahl DW, Frankenberger KD, Manchanda RV. 2003). This topic of obscene or indecent content has usually been into controversies in both the counties. This brings us to our next hypotheses:

H4. Indians are more offended by the shock appeal demonstrating Obscenity than Americans

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BUY 1 GIVE 1 OR BUY 1 GET 1?

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Given that promotional activities constitute a significant percentage (in many instances, more than half) of firms' marketing budgets (Ailawadi et al. 2006), a large research literature has evolved examining the effectiveness of discount-based promotions. Although they are capable of improving important marketing metrics (e.g., sales volume, store traffic; see Aribarg and Arora 2008), discounts can also adversely affect price sensitivity and brand equity (Blattberg and Neslin 1990). These potentially harmful effects of price discounts have prompted managers to consider alternative sales promotion tactics, including donation-based promotions, in which product purchase triggers contributions to charities. Similar to traditional deals, donation-based promotions can increase sales response (Krishna and Rajan 2009), possibly without the negative effects of discounts (Arora and Henderson 2007; Henderson and Arora 2010). One reason donation-based promotions are becoming more commonplace in promotional strategies lies in their effectiveness: 80% of consumers report that they would switch to a brand that supports a cause when it is equal in price and quality to other brands (Cone 2010). But what is it that drives the consumers to switch to a brand that supports a cause?

The growing reliance on donation-based promotions has prompted investigations of such offers relative to traditional deals. A notable difference between these two promotional approaches is that traditional discounts generate favorable outcomes for the purchaser, whereas donation-based promotions trigger rewards that benefit an entity—a social cause or charity—other than the purchaser (Arora and Henderson 2007). Other than the materialistic benefits one gets from promotions, may it be give or get, are there any other side effects or benefits of promotions? While extant research has considered the impact of consumer identities on evaluations of charitable appeals (e.g., Arnett, German, and Hunt 2003; Shang, Reed, and Croson 2008) and on traditional deals (e.g., Barone and Roy 2010), the impact of the promotion preference of donations versus discounts on the subjective well-being of an individual himself is yet to be examined. To address this void this article tried to study the direct impact of selecting an option of buy 1 give 1 on one's subjective well-being versus that of buy 1 get 1. The first study demonstrates that when a consumer goes for a promotional offer of charity saying buy 1 give 1, he feels mentally healthier and thus reports a higher score of subjective well-being of himself than the consumer who selects a promotional offer which says buy 1 get 1.

Donation based promotions – Buy One Give One

Buy 1 Give 1 as shown above is a form of donation. Donation is a tangible form of social support where Social support may be regarded as resources provided by others, as coping assistance or as an exchange of resources (Schwarzer et al., 2004). Although the benefits of providing support have long been acknowledged among spiritual and religious texts as a key to living well, the predominant focus in psychological research on social support has been on the benefits one enjoys when one receives social support (e.g., McClellan et al. 1993; Wu 2007; Van Duyn et al. 2007). The act of giving to someone else may have mental health benefits because the very nature of focusing outside the self-counters the self-focused nature of anxiety or depression. (Schwartz, Carolyn, et al., 2003.). Findings by Schwartz suggest that helping others is associated with higher levels of mental health, above and beyond the benefits of receiving help and other known psych spiritual, stress, and demographic factors. The various benefits of social support mentioned above, trigger an obvious question, can the marketing managers use this theory of positive impact of providing social support in their promotional strategies? As we see above, buy one give one promotional offer is a form of donation which is a tangible form of social support. We also saw that providing social support to peers or act of giving to someone else has mental health benefits. Joining all these dots together, we come up with the following hypotheses:

*H₁: The act of selecting the buy one give one promotional offer brand is **positively** associated with the psychological subjective well-being of self*

Discount based Promotions – Buy One Get One

There have been ample of studies which show that receiving support can be harmful. (Seeman, Bruce, & McAvay, 1996). Depending on other people for support can cause guilt and anxiety (Lu & Argyle, 1992). Receiving support measure significantly increases mortality risk. (S.L. Brown et al., 2003). And feeling like a burden to others who presumably provide support is associated with increased suicidal tendencies, even after controlling for depression (de Catanzaro, 1986). Several studies suggest that getting assistance from others may actually exacerbate distress (Barrera, 1981). The emotions of guilt are negative in valence (feelings). (Dunn, Jennifer R et al., 2005). Models of emotion and health have been developed to understand these associations and have primarily considered mechanisms that might link negative emotion to poor health. (Laura Smart, et al., 2005). Although the area of psychology has had a detailed research on impact on one's health and well-being when a person receives support from peers and others, the area of marketing is yet to see the impact of receiving support by means of various rewards and promotional strategies on one self. This gap in the area of marketing thus brings us to our next hypotheses:

*H₂: The act of selecting the buy one get one promotional offer brand is **negatively** associated with the psychological subjective well-being of self*

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WILL SHOWING IMAGES SELL MY FOOD?

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

One of the main objectives facing marketers is to present consumers with information on which to base their decisions (Anderson and Rubin 1986; Bettman 1975). Presenting such information is not simple, and it contains an interesting dilemma. On the one hand, a vast amount of information could be relevant, even very relevant, to some consumers. On the other hand, presenting superfluous information might impede consumers' ability to make good decisions (Bettman, Johnson, and Payne 1991; Jacoby, Speller, and Berning 1974; Malhotra 1982; Scammon 1977). Therefore the task facing marketers is not simply to present consumers with every piece of semi-related information but, rather, to present consumers with information that is appropriate for their specific current needs. The difficulty is that marketers cannot always know a priori what information is needed for any individual consumer. Without knowing what information is relevant, the amount of information that is potentially relevant can be very large. In the spirit of this idea, the central goal of the current work is to examine the benefits and disadvantages of providing consumers with too much information of a healthy food item on a fast food restaurant menu. (Description of the food item along with calories and images). So much of information provided to help consumer to make a purchase decision may backfire and result in reduction in purchase intention instead of the predicted appeal.

Cognitive load

In essence, cognitive load theory proposes that since working memory is limited, learners may be bombarded by information and, if the complexity of their instructional materials is not properly managed, this will result in a cognitive overload. This cognitive overload impairs schema acquisition, later resulting in a lower performance (Sweller, 1988).

Cognitive load is a combination of mental load that is imposed by material and mental effort that is allocated to the demands of material (Pass 1992). When syntactic complexity increases, readers experience increased cognitive load, which leaves them less working memory capacity for reading comprehension (Britton et al. 1982). The existing literature has shown that cognitive load tends to draw individuals' attention and thus may prevent them from achieving personal goals (Carver and Scheier 1982; Ward and Mann 2000). Drolet and Luce (2004) showed that cognitive load disrupted appreciation of self-goals and resulted in trade-offs among attributes that are relevant to self-goals. Consumers' choice strategies were altered because the cognitive load disrupted their motivational processes.

Linkage between healthy food items, cognitive load and purchase intentions

Lurie and Mason(2007) have used the term "visual perspective" to refer to how a given visual representation changes the relationship between visual information and the decision maker. Visual stimuli can acquire positive or negative value through their association with rewards and punishments, a process called reinforcement learning. (Paton, J. J., Belova, M. A., Morrison, S. E., & Salzman, C. D. (2006) **Thus**, the link between visual perspective and decision making may be mediated by either taking a positive path or a negative one. Here considering the salad, eaters would exhibit disinhibited eating behavior when under high cognitive load, as they would no longer be capable of evaluating that eating in terms of their normal dietary restrictions. (Ward, A., & Mann, T. (2000). Thus, the participants can observe this visual stimuli as a punishment resulting in the negative decision making. Thus, after viewing the connection between how visual stimuli of a healthy food item can be considered as a punishment and how can that result in negative decision making, the current study hypothesizes the following:

H₁: The presence of visual information will negatively impact the purchase intention of a healthy food item in presence of description.

Methodology and Major Findings: In a pilot study, I collected data on the best image of salad providing them with 6 options from the real time fast food restaurants and asked the participants to click on the best image of salad as per their choice. Evidence from 100 participants led me to select the most voted image of salad to be used for my study 1. My first experiment investigates whether there is any main effect of the presence of images or/and calories of the salad on the purchase intentions on the consumer.

Participants: An online sample of 174 University of Mississippi students (32% males, 22- Average age) were selected to evaluate their purchase intentions.

Stimuli and Procedure: Participants were presented with one of the four created stimuli (calorie presence versus absence; image presence versus absence) in a randomized order. The same description of the salad was picked from a real world fast food restaurant which had the image most voted in the pilot study. They were first shown with the stimuli of the salad, followed by questions on their demographics. Each stimuli had the same description with either presence or absence of calorie information as well as presence or absence of images. Thus resulting in a 2x2 between subject randomized design.

Results: As expected, participants rated higher purchase intentions when they were provided with only description i.e. absence of images and calories ($M_{\text{none}} = 5.52$) and lowest purchase intentions when provided with presence of both calories and images ($M_{\text{both}} = 4.65$). The purchase intentions were rated average when only calories were present ($M_{\text{calories}} = 5.41$) and when only images were present ($M_{\text{images}} = 4.91$). Also, the presence of images significantly negatively influenced the purchase intentions of the consumers ($M_{\text{no-image}} = 5.451$, $M_{\text{image}} = 4.796$), $F(1,173) = 10.149$, $p < 0.005$. Thus, we see that images impact negatively on consumers' attitudes towards the healthy food items. There was interesting 3 way interaction found between presence of images, calories and type of gender, $F(1,173) = 3.909$, $p = 0.05$. The purchase intentions were higher for males in the absence of both calories and images ($M_{\text{female, no calorie, no image}} = 5.09$) and lowest for males in the presence of both images and calories ($M_{\text{male, calorie, image}} = 2.85$). Thus, showing that males were highly negatively impacted when images were presented to them for a healthy food item.

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THE EFFECTS OF GOAL SETTING AND TYPES OF GOALS IN APPLICATION TO PROSPECTING ACTIVITIES AND SALES PERFORMANCE

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to map out propositions that address the impact of goal setting activities, types of goals and their applications to prospecting activities and overall sales performance. This initial working paper will explore an argument tying the impact of goal setting to sales related activities, prospecting and performance. This paper will also address the possible moderating effects of goal difficulty, goal specificity and goal commitment on performance as well.

There has been a significant amount of research indicating that goal setting efforts do lead to enhanced levels of activity and performance across multiple settings. Based on the research of Gibson, et al; (1997) goal setting is designed to define and establish goals. A goal can be viewed as a specific target of action an individual is seeking to achieve. According to Locke and Latham (2002) the research addressing goal setting consistently provides evidence that performance is improved through the use of challenging and specific goals. The provision of meaningful on-going feedback also leads to increased performance (Karakowsky and Mann, 2008).

According to Locke (et al; 1981), the three attributes that are the most closely linked to successful performance are goal specificity, goal difficulty, and goal attainment. Goal specificity refers to the degree of measurable preciseness of a goal. Goal difficulty addresses the extent of goal intensity being sought. Goal commitment accounts for the amounts of effort actually used to accomplish the goal. The propositions in the study will state that the greater amounts of each of these goal setting aspects will lead to higher levels of sales performance.

Goals that are specific are more capable of being measured because the boundaries of the goal are well defined. The accomplishment of the goal will be able to be recognized. Locke and Latham (1984) state that specific goals need to be quantitative in nature. A measurable goal can allow for on-going progress to be known throughout the goal achievement effort.

It is generally recognized in the goal setting literature that challenging goals lead to greater performance than easy or moderate goals. In 175 studies relating goal difficulty to performance, 91% of them showed a positive relationship (Locke and Latham, 1990). Locke et al (1981) found in their meta-analysis that 51 of 53 studies (a total of 96%) showed specific/difficult goals significantly outperformed “do your best” goals. Wright and Kacmar (1994) found that goal specificity actually raised the level of goal commitment of the participants.

Commitment can be viewed as needed component in the pursuit of goal achievement. The research of Martin and Manning (1995) indicated that goal commitment moderates the impact of task difficulty on task performance. This would suggest that salespeople who are more committed to their goal are more willing to accept difficult tasks and perform them effectively.

Chung (2015) states that putting constraints on sales commissions can be harmful to sales performance. In addition, he also identifies that managers basing an upcoming quota on the strong performance of the previous year can actually dampen motivation of sales professionals. Sujan et al (1994) argues that salespeople that work smart and hard have a focus of not only the desired end sale goals, but relevant sales activities that will lead to end goal accomplishment. Kwicien (2010) is very clear that the activities of salespeople are not the same as results. It is his perspective that approximately only 5% of the workforce is readily able to manage itself. Because of this, sales managers should place particular focus on activities that will lead to sales performance.

The propositions to be tested in ongoing study of goal setting efforts and activities of sales professionals include the following:

1. A greater degree of sales goal specificity will lead to a greater degree of sales performance.
2. A greater degree of sales goal difficulty will lead to a greater degree of sales performance.
3. A greater degree of sales goal commitment will lead to a greater degree of sales performance.
4. Developing step by step prospecting activity goals will lead to salespeople working with a greater amount of qualified prospects.
5. Developing clear sales conversion goals will increase the efficiency of prospect to customer ratios.
6. A greater degree of activity goals will lead to achieving a greater degree of sales result goals.
7. A greater degree of conversion goals will lead to achieving a greater degree of sales result goals.

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EMBEDDEDNESS, VALUE PERCEPTIONS AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS AMONG COLLEGE ATHLETES

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Student athletes face a great deal of pressure to perform both academically and in the athletic domain. Emerging studies to examine their perceptions of these pressures and how, as a result, the student athlete's behavior is impacted have proven useful in building athletic programs and determining best practices in coach-athlete interactions (Felton and Jowett, 2015). The purpose of this paper is to examine the relationships among collegiate athletes' embeddedness, perception of value, and future intentions toward their respective institution. While considerable research exists on job embeddedness, or one's feeling of attachment to an organization, a question that remains unanswered is whether embeddedness among college athletes will yield similar outcomes, therefore enabling the prediction of future behaviors of these student athletes.

It is hypothesized that the embeddedness construct will allow for more effective examination of the impact on value perceptions and behavioral intentions as it captures the extent to which the athletes feel attached without significant consideration of the reasons why they are attached (Crossley, Bennet, Jex and Burnfield, 2006) as these reasons can vary. Given that perceived organizational support lends itself to positive behavioral outcomes such as turnover intentions and performance (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa, 1986), these mediating effects of organizational support will also be considered in addition to service quality perception and satisfaction.

Student athlete participants will complete an electronic questionnaire that will request for them to respond to items measuring the above mentioned constructs on a 7-point scale. Sport administrators will utilize the findings of this study in analyzing student athlete behavioral intentions and also managing potential barriers to athlete alumni as athletic and academic donors (Shapiro, Giannoulakis, Drayer and Wang, 2009).

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FORGIVE OR BE FORGOTTEN: THE IMPACT OF BUSINESS FORGIVENESS ON ENHANCING CUSTOMER EXPERIENCES

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Consumer mistake leads to worry. A company's service representative can demonstrate their understanding of the situation (empathy) and feel sorry for their misfortune (sympathy). If the company can resolve the problem in the form of forgiving the consumer's careless mistake, without a doubt, the customer will develop positive attitude toward the service quality and develop trust with the company. This research is intended to explore the concept of business forgiveness (not consumer forgiveness) and its impact on enhancing customer experiences.

As a human being, consumer certainly makes mistakes (Bubb & Kaufman, 2013; Hanna, Yuh, & Chatterjee, 2012). A deliberate mistake is considered consumer misbehavior. This study only addresses careless consumer mistakes, or consumer misstep or failure. When realizing their mistakes, consumer tends to feel loss of control, which is one of the six core emotional needs identified in Empathetic Marketing (Ingwer, 2012). The unsettling feeling results in deep frustration and even panic, which in many cases prompts consumers to seek out help from the company that they deal with in that matter.

Empathy is defined as "understanding the feelings someone else is having." (Rees, 2014) In service setting, front line employees saw empathetic behavior as critical to service quality (Varca, 2009). One of such empathetic behavior is to forgive what the customer has done wrong. In company and customer dyad, there is consumer forgiveness and business forgiveness. Compared to conceptual and empirical examinations of consumer forgiveness, there is little existing research investigating business forgiveness. However, real world marketing examples have demonstrated the impact of business forgiveness on customer experiences and subsequently, consumer loyalty. For example, the success of accident forgiveness policy by Allstate auto insurance suggested that consumers are willing to pay extra premium for the peace of mind knowing that they are cared for in case of an accident due to their fault (Ingwer, 2014; Kurd, 2014).

The above literature review provides evidence that there is little existing research on business forgiveness. Our research intends to explore the following questions: 1. what constitute consumer emotional needs? Despite the wide acknowledgement of its importance, the knowledge of consumer's emotional needs is anecdotal in nature and lacks the support of empirical studies. 2. What is the nature of business forgiveness? More specifically, we want to understand the forms of business forgiveness (how it is done in various service settings) and its relationship with empathy. 3. What outcomes will business forgiveness possibly bring? More specifically, we would like to examine the effects of business forgiveness on outcomes such as: enhanced customer experiences, brand equity, and brand loyalty.

The preceding literature review calls for a three part research design. Part One involves a qualitative research focusing on exploring consumer emotional needs and various forms of business forgiveness. At this stage, we will use in-depth personal interviews to collect consumers' accounts of one of their mistakes and how it is get resolved with (or forgiven by) the business eventually. With this qualitative data, we try to identify the components of consumer emotional needs and forms of business forgiveness. Part two of the research entails the tasks of devising a scale to measure the multi-dimensional nature of consumer emotional needs, and conducting a survey to validate the scale. Furthermore, the antecedents and consequences of consumer emotional needs, including need for business forgiveness will also be investigated. Part Three of the research focuses on examining the relationships between empathy, forgiveness, and outcome variables such as customer experiences, perceived service quality, or brand loyalty.

Market practitioners have long claimed that empathizing with customers can win their trust, which is the foundation to customer loyalty. But where does it all start for service professionals? This study intends to argue that actively listening to your customers, sharing their concerns and worries, and forgiving their missteps will lead to customers reciprocating with positive feelings, which in turn will transform the service experience and build lasting customer relationship.

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PARADIGM SHIFTS IN MARKETING MANAGEMENT STRATEGY UTILIZED BY VISUAL ARTISTS FROM RENAISSANCE TO PRESENT

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

In order to be financially and critically successful, artists must benefit from a marketing management strategy. In this panel presentation, we will analyze key advancements in marketing management that changed the way artists marketed themselves and achieved financial and critical success since the Renaissance. Through the lens of traditional marketing methodologies surrounding consumer behavior, target markets, price, promotion, distribution channels, branding, affiliation, positioning, and networking, we will discuss how artists initiated paradigm shifts in marketing management strategy. Questions addressed will include: How did shifting economic and cultural conditions instigate new marketing techniques? What is the combination of specific artistic and marketing skills for an artist to be successful? Who is the audience and how did artists connect to them? Are some of these marketing management skills universal over time?

In the context of these methodologies, artists examined will include Raphael, Gentileschi, Rembrandt, Reynolds, Cassatt, Mucha, Warhol, Hirst, and Murakami, among others. These artists have been selected because of their unique strategic balance of understanding and incorporating audience desires, cultivation of critical acclaim, proficiency of technique, and the development of some sort of new innovative technique or approach. From a marketing perspective, these artists considered the desires of their customers balanced with the artist's own desire to advance their artistic medium.

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COLOR AND THE ENDOWMENT EFFECT

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

How can product characteristics influence behavioral decision choices? Previous literature has discussed endowment effect in domains such as risky and riskless choices, finance among others but the effect of product attributes on endowment effect has been consistently ignored. This paper attempts to fill this literature gap by experimentally illustrating that the color of a product has a direct effect on the endowment effect. Grounded in loss aversion and ownership account theories, this paper explains how the color of a product impacts consumers' willingness to pay (WTP) and willingness to accept (WTA) at different levels. I will also analyze the moderation impact of a personal level trait variable within this relationship.

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A PROPOSED INVESTIGATION OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY REPORTING ON FORTUNE 500 CORPORATE WEBSITES

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to establish an agenda to investigate the current state of corporate social responsibility (CSR) reporting by Fortune 500 corporations. Preliminary data analysis found corporate size influences presence or absence of CSR-related information on corporate websites, and the labels used to identify this information. Seven research propositions are developed and a proposed methodology is presented. The propositions designed to investigate the labels used on the corporate website, and correlation of actions reported by the corporations in the content of CSR reports posted on corporate websites are:

Proposition 1: Corporations engaging in global (multi-national) operations will include one or more global reporting standards (GRI, CDP, ISO) in their CSR report documents.

Proposition 2: Corporate size will influence the inclusion of one or more global reporting standards in their CSR report documents.

Proposition 3: Third-party auditing/credibility ratings will be included or referenced in CSR reports.

Proposition 4: The industry in which a company operates will influence the content emphasis in corporate CSR reports.

Proposition 5: The country/countries of operations will influence the content of CSR reports.

Proposition 6: Global locations of operations and facilities will influence CSR reporting and the content of CSR reports.

Proposition 7: Size of the corporation will influence CSR reporting, and influence the content of CSR reports.

During data collection, 413 of the 500 2014 Fortune 500 corporations had CSR-related information posted on the corporate website, using 71 different labels. Preliminary data analysis found corporate size influences presence or absence of CSR-related information on corporate websites, and the labels used to identify this information. Further analysis will include investigating the role industry plays in the type and/or emphasis of CSR focus. The research presents a framework for that content analysis of what specific CSR-related activities are included in the CSR reports, and if these actions are correlated to industry, geographic location, global/multi-national operations, corporate size and the additional research propositions posed.

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ONLINE SHOPPING ATTITUDES, INTERDEPENDENT SELF-CONSTRUAL, AND NEED FOR TOUCH AMONG KOREAN COLLEGE STUDENTS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

According to consumer motivation theory (Childers et al, 2001), consumers with utilitarian motives seek objective, tangible information and are motivated to find efficient ways to use their resources. Conversely, consumers with hedonic motives will seek subjective, psychological information and are motivated by the desire for a pleasurable shopping experience. Touching products can provide both objective and subjective information for consumers to use during shopping. Instrumental touch involves goal-directed touch (utilitarian); autotelic touch involves pleasure-seeking (hedonic). Peck and Childers' (2003) two-dimensional Need For Touch (NFT) scale measures consumer preference for obtaining and using information acquired through the haptic sensory system (e.g., autotelic or instrumental touch). Peck and Childers discovered that purchasing products online was negatively related to NFT.

Certain products can be viewed as expressions of the self (Escalas & Bettman, 2005; McCracken, 1988; Reed, 2004). Self-construal consists of thoughts, feelings, and actions about the self as independent from others and as interdependent with others (Singelis, 1994). Individuals vary in how well-developed their independent and interdependent self-construals are (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Individuals with well-developed independent self-construal view themselves as separate persons. Individuals with well-developed interdependent self-construal focus on external public statuses, roles, and relationships, engaging in socially appropriate ways, being accepted, and interacting with others (Singelis, 1994). Harmonious interpersonal relationships and the flexibility to adjust to various situations are ways that those who focus on status, roles, and relationships can increase self-esteem. Citizens of collectivist cultures, such as South Korea, are likely to focus on harmonious interpersonal relationships (Triandis, 1995). Individuals with a well-developed interdependent self-construal may have a high level of NFT because these persons enjoy interacting with other people; they may also enjoy interacting with products through touch.

The importance of these variables has been accepted in consumer behavior literature separately as variables that may influence consumers' online shopping attitudes. However, there is little research that has examined online shopping attitudes and self-construal with regard to need for touch. Because consumers cannot touch or see actual products when shopping online, it is important to investigate these variables related to need for touch. The purpose of this study was to examine online shopping attitudes, interdependent self-construal, and need for touch. Based on previous studies about need for touch, six hypotheses were proposed as follows: H1a-c: Individuals with more (vs. less) positive online shopping attitudes will have lower NFT (total, autotelic, instrumental). H2a-c: Individuals with high (vs. low) interdependent self-construal will have higher NFT (total, autotelic, instrumental).

Method: Participants were students from five universities in Seoul, South Korea. Out of 691 participants, 60 percent (n = 413) were women and 40 percent (n = 278) were men, from four different majors (Business, Fashion, Social Sciences, Engineering). Ages ranged from 20 to 38 (mean age = 23.18). According to the Korean Educational Development Institute, there were over 3.5 million college students in Korea (KEDI, 2009). Korean college students spend about \$300 monthly on fashion clothing, entertainment, hobbies and other discretionary things (Kim, 2010). The main consumers of global luxury brands in Korea are consumers in their 20s (South Korea, 2010). Korean college students are an important target market in size, purchasing power, and interest in shopping. Thus, it is vital to understand traits of Korean college students that affect their consumer behavior. The questionnaire included demographic items and items measuring NFT (Peck & Childers, 2003), online shopping attitudes (Kim & LaRose, 2004), and interdependent self-construal (Singelis, 1994) on 7-point scales. The questionnaire was translated into

Korean using back translation, pretested (Green et al., 1980), and analyzed using descriptive statistics and M/ANOVA. Cronbach's alpha reliability of the scales was acceptable and ranged from .66 to .92.

Results: Scores on total NFT ranged from -36 to +36 ($M = 5.13$, $SD = 12.72$); autotelic NFT (range = -18 to +18; $M = .91$; $SD = 7.03$); instrumental NFT (range = -18 to +18; $M = 4.22$; $SD = 6.63$). Scores for online shopping attitudes ranged from 23 to 91 ($M = 59.45$; Median = 59.00; $SD = 10.98$). Scores for interdependent self-construal ranged from 28 to 73 ($M = 50.96$; Median = 51.00; $SD = 6.79$). To test hypotheses, groups were formed based on median split – more/less positive online shopping attitudes and higher/lower interdependent self-construal. MANOVA was conducted with online shopping attitudes (more/less positive) and interdependent self-construal (higher/lower) as independent variables, and total, autotelic, and instrumental NFT as dependent variables. MANOVA results revealed that both online shopping attitudes [$F(2, 686) = 7.06$, $p < .001$] and self-construal [$F(2, 686) = 5.40$, $p < .005$] were significant for total, autotelic, and instrumental NFT.

ANOVA results for online shopping attitudes were significant for NFT total [$F(1,687) = 9.80$, $p < .002$], autotelic [$F(1,687) = 4.79$, $p < .029$], and instrumental [$F(1,687) = 13.59$, $p < .000$]. Individuals with more positive online shopping attitudes scored lower on total NFT ($M^{\text{more positive}} = 3.74$; $M^{\text{less positive}} = 6.74$), autotelic ($M^{\text{more positive}} = .39$; $M^{\text{less positive}} = 1.55$) and instrumental ($M^{\text{more positive}} = 3.35$; $M^{\text{less positive}} = 5.19$). H1a, H1b, and H1c were supported.

ANOVA results for interdependent self-construal were significant for NFT total [$F(1,687) = 7.44$, $p < .007$], autotelic [$F(1,687) = 3.61$, $p < .058$], and instrumental [$F(1,687) = 10.36$, $p < .001$]. Participants with higher (lower) interdependent self-construal scored higher on total NFT ($M^{\text{higher sc}} = 6.55$; $M^{\text{lower sc}} = 3.94$), autotelic ($M^{\text{higher sc}} = 1.48$; $M^{\text{lower sc}} = 0.47$) and instrumental ($M^{\text{higher sc}} = 5.07$; $M^{\text{lower sc}} = 3.47$). H2a, H2b, and H2c were supported.

Implications: Results showed that participants with less positive online shopping attitudes were those who had a higher NFT. Online shopping venues must somehow compensate for the non-touch nature of online shopping if they are to attract customers with high NFT. Accurate information about products (e.g., size, texture, color) is imperative because consumers cannot touch or see actual products when shopping online. Risk associated with not being able to touch products might be reduced by offering free return shipping, a generous time frame for returns, and so forth. Useful tools may include swatch samples for touching. In the future, technological advances may allow customers to vicariously “feel” textures on cell phones or other touch devices. These strategies may encourage online shopping.

Results showed that participants with higher interdependent self-construal were those who had a higher NFT. Individuals with well-developed interdependent self-construal focus on harmonious interpersonal relationships and flexibility to adjust to various situations (Singelis, 1994). Because touching can provide objective and subjective information, touching may be one way to be flexible in gaining information required to adjust to various situations.

This study examined South Korean college student consumers only—young consumers from a collectivist culture. Research with a greater variety of ethnic consumers or ages could provide additional information on NFT. For example, there may be similarities/differences based on collectivist and individualist cultures (Triandis, 1995).

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RECYCLING: MARKETING SUCCESS OR COSTLY MISTAKE?

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This working paper sets the framework against which the larger discussion will be set. We first revisit the greening of business strategies that took off in the early 1990's. We then open up the discussion of whether recycling programs have been successful, and issue that has been discussed with some frequency over the past twenty years. We close the working paper with a road map for the work to come.

In 1993, Biddle asserted that despite the proliferation of curbside collection bins and public awareness campaigns, recycling programs around the United States have proven to be victims of their own success. Because recycling is not just a matter of recovering recyclable material, but rather the development of a total economic system, only a few people realized that their local curbside collection program was only the beginning of a recycling loop. In the early 1990s, and in order to close the recycling loop, top managers at American Airlines, Bell Atlantic, and Coca-Cola, for example, made buying recycled products and investing in green R&D part of their overall business strategies. Twenty years after Biddle's article, Munger (2013) is still arguing that we still have no way of determining whether something is a resource or just garbage. Following Munger's line of thinking, societies should recycle resources (a savings in resources) and not garbage (an unnecessary use of resources). Our intention here is to explore the renewed discussion on whether recycling activities are worth the expense. As we develop the paper, we will dissect the debate regarding mandatory or voluntary recycling policies, including an analysis of the economic problem of pricing landfill space and how it affects recycling policies. Additionally, we will discuss whether recycling must be cost effective in order to represent good stewardship of our environment, and the impact that green marketing has had in selling recyclability without regard to the economic impact to communities implementing recycling policies. Finally, we will look at the role marketing efforts may play in the development and implementation of cost effective recycling policies.

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CONSUMER REACTIONS TO DESTINATION MARKETING CAMPAIGNS: A QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF WEB AND SOCIAL MEDIA CONTENT

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Branding strategies for destination marketing organizations (DMO's) have transformed radically over the past decade as social media and travel blogs have completely changed the development of destination marketing campaigns. Today, consumers share images, videos, stories and travel experiences around the world with the press of a button, which provides DMO's with a huge amount of data that, if carefully analyzed, may help these organizations understand the voice of consumers and craft more creative, engaging and effective campaigns.

These data, deemed user-generated content (UGC), can be defined as "any material created and uploaded to the Internet by non-media professionals" (IAB 2008, p. 1), whether it is a comment left on a travel blog, a traveler's video uploaded to YouTube, or a traveler's comment posted on a destination's Facebook page. Due to the massive growth of mobile technologies and social networking sites, UGC has become one of the fastest growing forms of content on the Internet. Today, many DMO's and travel and tourism firms are looking at UGC as a helpful resource to understand the impact of their destination marketing efforts.

Given the rapid growth of UGC and the relevance of such content for destination marketing, it becomes critical for DMO's to develop (or adopt) methods that can help them collect, analyze and understand UGC about their promotional efforts. This paper uses a 3-step qualitative research methodology focused on understanding the impact of destination marketing campaigns on consumers through the analysis of UGC on travel blogs and social media sites. Using this methodology, DMO's managers may collect, organize, analyze, and gain valuable insights from large amounts of textual data, with regard to their marketing campaigns and/or promoted destinations.

To understand the voice of consumers (i.e. potential travelers), expressed in travel blogs and social media in the form of UGC, a 3-step methodology was used. To test the methodology, one of the most successful destination marketing campaigns in the last years –#MeetSouthAfrica– was selected. This campaign was launched by the South African Tourism office in October 2013. As part of the campaign, South African Tourism invited 15 international travel bloggers to embark on four different itineraries covering all nine provinces of South Africa. The main campaign's objective was to market South Africa as a tourist destination on social media platforms, thus bloggers were expected to showcase the best spots in the country through online content in the form of pictures, videos, and blog comments. For this exploratory study, the following research questions were posed:

RQ1: What do consumers think about the #MeetSouthAfrica campaign? Basically, what are the most relevant topics or themes discussed by consumers in blogs and social media?

RQ2: What is the sentiment of the #MeetSouthAfrica campaign among consumers?

To select the sample of documents (texts), an extensive search of posts on travel blogs and social media containing the phrase #MeetSouthAfrica was undertaken. Two real-time social media search engines were used, namely Social Mention (<http://www.socialmention.com/>) and Google Alerts (<http://www.google.com/alerts.>) These tools collect information about a topic from thousands of websites, blogs, and social media sites. A first search produced 156 results on Social Mention and 264 results on Google Alerts (a total of 420 search results) generated during the first 6 months after the launch of the campaign (October 2013 – April 2014). A preliminary analysis of results was performed to identify duplicated or non-significant documents (i.e. posts containing information not relevant to the campaign or posted by the South African Tourism office). A total of 146 documents were selected for the final analysis.

The 3-step methodology applied for the analysis of UGC consisted of three text analysis methods: word frequency analysis, textual map analysis, and sentiment analysis. The word frequency analysis resulted in more than 600 keywords, including terms such as: “bloggers,” “trips,” “photos,” “experiences,” “adventures,” “marketing,” “tours,” “culture,” “exploration,” “itineraries,” “Instagram,” “Facebook,” “Twitter,” “beautiful,” “holiday,” “provinces,” “engagement,” “nature,” “attractions,” “ambassadors,” “conversations,” “story travelers,” “architecture,” “discovery,” and “mountains” among others. Keywords were scrutinized in order to combine synonymous keywords and keywords with related meanings. The final list of keywords was analyzed and keywords were classified into different categories, each of them representing a theme around the campaign. The keywords and themes were then converted into a textual map, which depicts the main themes as circles and their relationships with the campaign as lines of different colors depending on the strength of the tie among them (i.e. red = strong tie, green = medium tie, blue = weak tie.)

Based on the word frequency analysis and textual map, the following four themes were uncovered:

- ***An effective integration of digital marketing channels.*** As discussed in the documents, a key factor in the success of the #MeetSouthAfrica campaign was the integration of the official campaign websites with different social media applications, including Instagram, YouTube, Twitter, and Facebook.
- ***Real people participating and generating content for the campaign.*** Several of the comments in social media emphasized the participation of ‘real people’ in the campaign, represented by the international group of travel bloggers that explored South Africa and shared their discoveries, which made the campaign more genuine and credible for followers.
- ***Adventure and cultural heritage as the main themes of the content generated by participants.*** The analysis of keywords revealed a bloggers’ focus on sharing content (especially photographs) related to their adventure in traveling through South Africa and the heritage of the African culture.
- ***Engagement of potential visitors through content sharing.*** According to the keyword analysis, users appeared to be very engaged with the ‘content sharing’ component of the campaign and very positive to get to know more about the natural wonders of South Africa from the ‘eye of a travel blogger.’

Lastly, the sentiment analysis resulted in 92 (63.01%) positive documents, 15 (10.27%) negative documents, and 39 (26.71%) neutral documents. Based on these results, it may be concluded that most consumers had a positive opinion of the #MeetSouthAfrica campaign, considering both the positive and neutral documents at the aggregate level (which accounted for 89.73% of total comments).

The methodology proposed in this study is a helpful tool for tourism managers and could be used to understand the effectiveness of destination marketing campaigns or analyze the most discussed themes by travelers about a destination, hotel, or destination marketing organization. Furthermore, this methodology demonstrates the relevance of social media and blogs as valuable sources of traveler-generated information. Listening to what customers have to say, and where and how they are saying it, can help destination marketers make decisions regarding their locations, brands, products, and services. Tourism managers must recognize the power of social media mining and the analysis of traveler-generated content on blogs and social media. Overall, the process of analyzing content generated through social media and discovering the latent themes in their stories can provide tourism managers with useful information to improve their destination marketing campaigns.

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USING MACROS IN DEVELOPING AND MODIFYING POWERPOINT PRESENTATIONS: DEMONSTRATED VIA A MARKETING EXAMPLE

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Whether to enhance the delivery of course lecture material or for formal presentation purposes, faculty spend a considerable amount of time creating, developing, and modifying their PowerPoint® presentations. Like the other Microsoft Office applications, PowerPoint has macro capability, but unlike Word and Excel, it does not have the ability to record macros. Perhaps because of this, macros are seldom used in PowerPoint. This proposed workshop will provide an introduction to the creation of macros for use in the development and modification of PowerPoint presentations, and distribute a few utility macros for use by the participants in developing their own presentations. Of course, macros can also be used during a presentation, and although not the focus of this workshop, an example will also be illustrated.

Macros are typically used to automate tasks in an Office application. For example, Excel macros are often used to create charts or pivot tables from data entered in the spreadsheet. Similarly, Word macros can be used to generate mailing lists or filling forms. Macros, however, can also be used to *create* Excel spreadsheets or Word templates; for example, formatting rows, columns, and cells in Excel, or generating tables in Word. This function of macros is especially useful in PowerPoint. We will demonstrate its application through illustration of a marketing example.

Macros are actually computer programs written in Visual Basic for Applications (VBA), an object oriented programming language. While learning VBA is beyond the scope of this workshop, simple tasks can be automated by macros with little understanding of VBA. We propose to demonstrate how to access the VBA editor, and how to build and execute a macro. We then present illustrations of how to scroll through the objects (textboxes, diagrams, charts, pictures, etc.) on some or all of the slides in a presentation, changing their characteristics, or properties, using macros. Characteristics subject to change may include font, font size, and font attributes (bold, italicize, underline, etc.) of textboxes, size and position of various objects on slides, and the animation of these objects, including animation order and motion paths.

Few realize that objects on a slide, as well as the slides themselves, can be named by the user instead of deferring to the defaults supplied by PowerPoint. By labeling objects, manual tasks such as animation can be greatly simplified. Macros can use these names to choose which objects to manipulate. In fact, macros can also be used to actually name not only objects on a slide, but the slides themselves.

To this end, we offer some tips and techniques for creating and using macros, including how, when and when not to use them. We also provide reference to additional resources for both macros and PowerPoint VBA, then conclude by demonstrating an automation macro that moves objects on a slide during a presentation. As this example will show, the ability to not only convey complex concepts, but engage an audience, can be greatly enhanced with an understanding of how to embed macros into PowerPoint presentations.

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THE EFFECT OF BRAND IMAGE ON PERCEIVED VALUE AND CONSUMPTION INTENTIONS FOR EXPERIENTIAL GOODS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Much research adopts a utilitarian conceptualization of perceived value, identifying it as a consumer's comparison of what is received versus what is given up in an exchange. In relation to branding, this approach generally leads to linking perceived brand quality, economic costs, perceived value, and consumption intentions (e.g., Grewal, Krishnan, & Baker, 1998; Chen & Tsai, 2007). For many goods, marketers can appropriately monitor and manage their brands through this utilitarian lens. However, some suggest that it is important to distinguish between different forms of perceived value, particularly in service contexts (Boksberger & Melsen, 2011). Many services are highly experiential and engage consumers in a personal way (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Thus, they have the opportunity to create types of value that are inherently personal and perhaps better explained by alternative conceptualizations of perceived value (Klein, Kleine, & Brusnick, 2009). This raises interesting and meaningful research questions. For example, do different brand perceptions lead to different types of perceived value in experiential goods? Also, do alternative types of perceived value all drive consumption intentions? Answering these and related questions can provide meaningful theoretical and managerial insights regarding branding and perceived value in the context of experiential goods.

This study is a work in progress where we examine the effect of different brand image perceptions on multiple types of perceived value and consumption intentions in a tourism context. We build on Chen and Tsai's (2007) integrated tourist behavior model that connects destination brand image, perceived value, and travel intentions. Their theoretical and empirical research indicates that destination brand image may directly impact future travel intentions or it may impact these consumption intentions through its influence on perceptions of trip value. Similar to Boksberger and Melsen's (2011) call for more research on different forms of perceived value, Chen and Tsai (2007) argue that tourism managers can create more effective marketing strategies once they better understand various types of value their locations offer consumers.

Our empirical study involves a historic town located in Southwest Indiana. Many people living in the town's region are familiar enough with it to have formed a brand image of it. We use intercept surveys in a mid-sized city in its region to gather data, leading to a total of 484 completed, usable surveys. Our survey instrument measures several elements of the town's brand image, each related to either its standard tourism image (i.e., safe, fun, and friendly), a general image of the town being unique (i.e., a different kind of place), or the town's desired brand image (i.e., artistic, inspiring, peaceful). It also measures perceived economic value, perceived entertainment value, perceived unique experiential value, and perceived transformational value. We also captured various travel behaviors and intentions, including a general travel disposition, recommendation likelihood, information search tendencies, and other demographic measures.

We analyze our data in several multiple regression analyses, examining which brand image perceptions impact each type of perceived value and examining what drives intentions to visit the focal town. We find that different brand image components tend to drive different types of perceived value. Specifically, one component of a standard tourism brand image (i.e., being fun) and one of the town's desired brand image components (i.e., being inspiring) drive perceived transformational value. Alternatively, brand image perceptions related to the town being fun, being artistic and being different each drive perceived unique experiential value. Initial analyses also suggest that perceived unique experiential value, and perceived transformational value drive intentions to visit. Our data indicates that perceived economic value does not drive intentions to visit after controlling for these alternative experiential-based types of perceived value.

Overall, our initial results identify several findings that deserve additional research. First, we find evidence that multiple types of perceived value can be identified in an experiential good context. Second, it appears that different types of perceived value can be driven by different brand image perceptions. Third, initial results suggest that multiple types of perceived value may at least partially mediate the influence of brand image perceptions on consumption intentions. It is interesting to note that in our study, perceived experiential value measures are statistically related to consumption intentions while economic perceived value is not. While these initial findings indicate that further research into different types of perceived value for experiential goods would be valuable, additional work is needed to address this study's limitations and strengthen the statistical analysis used in the work reported, here.

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INFLUENCE OF PROFESSIONAL COMMITMENT AND PERSON-JOB FIT ON JOB OUTCOMES: AN INVESTIGATION OF PHARMACEUTICAL SALESPERSONS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Professional commitment is defined as the psychological attachment and identification with the profession (Chang & Choi, 2007) and is likely to be witnessed in professions such as law, medicine and accounting where members adhere to an explicit code of conduct and there are high levels of collegiality. There has been little research on professional commitment and its consequences in the context of salespersons. This study examines the impact of professional commitment on salesperson attitudes. The objective of this study is to investigate the influence of professional commitment and person-job fit on salesperson job satisfaction, organization commitment and turnover intentions. The data was collected from a survey of pharmaceutical salespersons working in a major metropolitan city in India.

Extant literature in organization behavior suggests that person-job fit positively influences job satisfaction and organization commitment (Saks and Ashforth, 1997) and negatively influences turnover commitment (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1990). Job satisfaction has been found to have a positive influence on organization commitment (Brown and Petersen, 1993) while organizational commitment has been found to have a negative influence on turnover intentions (Mathieu and Zazec, 1990). This study aims to understand the influence of professional commitment on job outcomes in the presence of person-job fit. Based on a review of the literature on organization behavior and sales management, the following hypotheses were proposed for the research:

- H₁: Person-job fit positively influences job satisfaction.
- H₂: Person-job fit positively influences organization commitment
- H₃: PJ-fit negatively influences turnover intentions
- H₄: Professional commitment positively influences job satisfaction.
- H₅: Professional commitment negatively influences turnover intentions
- H₆: Job satisfaction positively influences organization commitment.
- H₇: Organization commitment negatively influences turnover intentions.

About 140 pharmaceutical salespersons working in the city of Bangalore were invited to participate in a survey and 121 complete responses were obtained. The sample had a good mix of age, experience and education and consisted of salespersons working for Indian as well as multinational firms. The mean age of the sample was 30.2 years and the mean experience was 7.7 years. The constructs used in this study were measured using items taken from existing scales to ensure reliability and validity. PJ-fit had two items from Donovan, Brown and Mowen (2004), professional commitment had three items taken from Peters, Jacofsky and Salter (1981) and job satisfaction had two items from Brown and Petersen (1993). Organization commitment was measured with two items from Speir and Vishwanath (2002) and turnover intentions had four items adapted from Bluedorn (1982). In line with the two-step approach recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a measurement model was evaluated using confirmatory factor analysis. The standardized loadings ranged from 0.68 to 0.99 and the average variance extracted ranged from 0.79 to 0.93 which indicates good convergent validity. The composite reliability of the constructs ranged from 0.64 to 0.86 which suggests good discriminant validity.

The Chi square for the structural model was in the unacceptable range (Chi sq₍₅₇₎ 89.1 p = 0.004), but the fit indices suggested an acceptable fit (RMSEA = 0.069; CFI = 0.971; IFI = 0.972; GFI = 0.904; AGFI = 0.846). H₂ states that PJ fit positively influences organization commitment. H₂ found support as the path coefficient was 0.337 (*t* = 2.76). H₄ which states that professional commitment positively influences job satisfaction, was supported with a

significant path coefficient of 0.618 ($t = 5.18$). H_5 tested the positive relationship between professional commitment and turnover intentions. There was support for H_5 with a path coefficient of -0.334 ($t = 2.43$). H_6 which states that job satisfaction positively influences organization commitment was also supported as the path coefficient of 0.325 was significant ($t = 3.09$). H_1 , H_3 and H_7 were not supported

The results indicate that professional commitment of pharmaceutical salespersons has a significant impact on both job satisfaction and turnover intentions. This finding is interesting because professional commitment is not expected to be strong in the sales field unlike in some of the more structured professions such as accounting, law and medicine. Another finding was that in the presence of professional commitment, PJ-fit's impact on job satisfaction and turnover intentions is insignificant. The managerial implication of the findings of this study is that managers should look beyond PJ-fit as an antecedent of salesperson job outcomes. Sales managers should attempt to increase the professional commitment of salespersons as this is likely to result in increased job satisfaction and reduced turnover intentions.

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DETERMINANTS OF ENVIRONMENTALLY SENSITIVE PURCHASE BEHAVIORS: A HOLISTIC PERSPECTIVE

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Recently, there is an increased interest amongst consumers towards purchasing goods and services that are ecologically sensible. Although in recent years many studies on green purchase behavior of consumers have been published, the holistic underlying causes of these types of behaviors have not been theoretically explained. The purpose of this study is to offer a holistic theoretical perspective to understand the motivations that drive people to purchase environmentally sensitive products and the determinants and/or barriers to pro-environmental purchase behaviors. More specifically, the present study aims to understand the factors that predict environmentally sensitive purchase behavior (ESPB) of consumers by examining the extent to which such behaviors depend mostly on moral considerations, feelings, or self-interest motives.

This research makes three important contributions. While research on factors that influence individual eco-sensitive purchase behavior has grown in recent years, most papers have explored demographic and/or geographic characteristics of consumers and product characteristics as predictors. This research adopts a psychological perspective to understanding ecosensitive purchase. Second, while extant literature has largely used piecemeal and disparate theoretical explanations, this research adopts a holistic perspective by employing Goal Framing Theory (GFT) that combines the three psychology-based theories of Planned Behavior, Value-Belief-Norm, and Affective Motives. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first empirical study that employs GFT as a combined holistic theory to understand ESPB. Third, most research has tended to use qualitative approaches or small experiments to address these issues. This paper adopts a large-sample consumer survey to lend statistical power to the analysis and results. The study addresses these three important research gaps in the context of eco-sensitive purchase behavior.

This study considered environmentally sensitive purchasing as the purchase of goods and services that have minimal effect on the natural environment. Steg and Vlek (2009) suggest the importance of studying multiple motivations to explain these types of behaviors. In response, this study focuses on multiple psychosocial variables to explain ESPB of consumers by adopting the GFT (Lindenberg, 2006), which incorporates three different types of motivations: hedonic, self-interest, and moral. Based on the suggestions of Onel and Mukherjee (2015), GFT was adopted and a model was developed using the three underlying theories, i.e., Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), Values-Beliefs-Norms (VBN) Theory, and Affect Theory, each representing a different type of motivation. The proposed model included three variables as antecedents to environmental concern (EC): biospheric (i.e. concern for the welfare of biosphere), altruistic (i.e., concern for the welfare of others), and egoistic (i.e., concern for the welfare of self) values. EC is hypothesized to affect awareness of consequences; awareness of consequences is hypothesized to affect ascription of responsibility; and ascription of responsibility is hypothesized to affect pro-environmental personal norms. Furthermore, in the proposed model, affect is conceptualized to influence attitude towards behavior, while perceived behavioral control (PBC), subjective norms (SN), and attitude toward behavior are hypothesized to affect intention to perform the relevant purchase behavior. Finally, in the proposed model, intention is hypothesized to be the immediate antecedent of the actual ESPB.

The study was based on primary data obtained from individuals who are active members of TerraCycle recycling company based in the US. The twelve hypotheses and model were tested with Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using survey responses from 281 individuals. After the confirmatory factor analysis, we conducted a SEM to determine the fit between the theoretical structure and the data. The structural model achieved a good level of fit: $\chi^2 = 1779.07$; $p = .00$; $df = 869$; $\chi^2 / df = 2.05$; $IFI = .92$; $TLI = .91$, $CFI = .91$; $RMSEA = .061$.

The results of the study indicated that GFT is an important framework in explaining eco-sensitive purchase behaviors of consumers. The findings suggest that while values (biospheric, egoistic), environmental concern, awareness of destructive consequences, ascription of responsibility to self, personal and subjective norms, attitudes towards behavior, and intention explain ESPB, perceived behavioral control does not have any power in explaining behavior related intention. Variables of the VBN Theory, which assess moral concerns, seemed to have the greatest explanatory power for ESPB of consumers.

More particularly, the results show that the sustainable consumption and actions related to it are based on not just needs and wants of the consumers but also decision-making process that considers their social responsibilities. These social responsibilities, which the individual considers when making a behavioral decision, are found to be affected by the environmental concern. This in turn increases the awareness of the detrimental effects of relevant behaviors. Amongst the three types of value orientations, biospheric values seemed to be the strongest predictor of ecological worldview of individuals. This finding suggests that valuing the ecological well-being is important when a customer makes an eco-sensitive inclined decision. Although the results of this study suggest the link between low egoistic values and higher environmental worldview, the predictive power of this type of value orientation seems to be much lower than that of biospheric values. While literature suggests a strong positive relationship between consumer PBC and behavioral intention, the study results did not show a significant relationship between these two variables. One explanation of this could be that in today's market conditions, accessing these types of eco-sensitive products by consumers is not as difficult because of increased availability. Thus, accessibility of an eco-sensitive product may not influence purchase behavior, as in the past.

Based on the results, practitioners can focus on promoting consumers' intentions to purchase eco-friendly product options by strengthening their values, beliefs, personal and subjective norms, attitudes, and emotions regarding the behavior. The results imply that strengthening biospheric values can be especially crucial in promoting pro-environmental behaviors as opposed to the more commonly thought altruistic values. Evidently, this can be possible with proper social marketing strategies and promotional efforts. Furthermore, when developing marketing strategies, it would be important to communicate the detrimental consequences of a certain purchase behavior. This way, consumers would be aware of the direct consequences of their actions, which would help them make decisions based on their EC and increase their perception of self-responsibility to solve these problems. Knowing how their actions affect the environmental well-being seems to be very important in decision-making process in the context of ESPB because it affects personal moral obligations to act pro-environmentally, which also has a great effect on pro-environmental behaviors. Also, designing marketing communications to positively shape and/or change attitudes towards ESPB seems to be crucial because of the influence of positive attitudes on strong intention to purchase ecologically harmless products. It can be also important for companies that produce and promote green products to focus on these products' ecological aspects and their effects on protecting environmental well-being. This kind of direct information on the actual products purchased could increase the awareness and ascribed self-responsibility of consumers.

This study was conducted using a sample comprising environmentally inclined consumers which could raise issues concerning the generalizability of the results. It is crucial to point out that the study was a part of a wider comprehensive research, which we mainly aimed at investigating and determining differences in various eco-sensitive behaviors by selecting this specific group of consumers. Hence, future studies could focus on a more representative sample of the general population in the context of eco-sensitive behaviors.

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AN INTERNET-BASED PROJECT FOR THE INTRODUCTORY MARKETING COURSE – INCLUDING PEDAGOGICALLY SOUND SUGGESTIONS FOR ENHANCING PROJECT COMPLEXITY

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

E-business revenues have continued to increase, as is demonstrated by the fact that the compound annual growth rate of online retail revenues in the U.S. was more than 14 percent between 2002 and 2014 (from \$72B to \$322B) [Statistica.com, 2015]. Furthermore, projections of online revenue growth in the U.S. remain quite optimistic. For example, in 2014 Forrester forecasted a 9.5 percent compound annual growth rate for online retail between 2013 and 2018, with the expectation that online sales will account for 11 percent of all U.S. retail sales by 2018. [Forrester (2014)]. In addition, eMarketer recently estimated that spending on digital advertisements in the U.S. will exceed \$58 billion in 2015, with retailers' expenditures on online advertisements accounting for 22.0% (\$12.9B) of the total [eMarketer, 2015].

Added to the growth of e-commerce is the fact that students have become extremely comfortable with the use of technology and particularly with the use of the whole range of today's devices that access the Internet. We contend, therefore, that when taken together these two factors mandate that instructors of most business classes incorporate the use of the Internet in their in-class presentations as well as their out-of-class assignments. However, given the fantastically wide assortment of online resources, the problem facing instructors who want to incorporate Web exposure is not one of locating resources; instead, we view it as one of deciding on efficient and effective ways to use a purposefully-selected set of resources to enhance student learning by providing authentic tasks; that is, tasks that "... are situated in meaningful contexts that reflect the way tasks might be found and approached in real life" [Harris and Marx, 2009]. Although articles describing business-related websites have been published over the past two decades, it is our casual observation that only a relatively small number of these works suggest how a particular set of these sites might be systematically organized or assembled for use in the typical introductory marketing course. Because of this, we attempt here to provide at least one solution to this problem by discussing a project designed to acquaint students with online marketing-related information and applications, while reinforcing topics typically encountered in the introductory marketing course. In addition to presenting a scoring guide that facilitates evaluation of the project, we discuss how the project's cognitive level can be varied through the use of carefully selected action verbs in the project's learning outcomes statements.

The project we present here has three primary purposes, each of which is associated with the topics discussed in the typical introductory marketing course: 1) to acquaint students with online marketing-related information and applications; 2) to reinforce, enhance, and bring real world applications into students' learning experiences with respect to a number of topics covered in their textbook and in the course; 3) to assist students in becoming more adept in using Internet resources as research tools, especially those related to the field of marketing.

We believe that the pursuit of these purposes increases the spectrum of learning opportunities available to students during and beyond the duration of the course. In turn, this involvement provides students hands-on experience working with Internet sites and applies real world concepts that often are merely described in the pages of the typical introductory marketing textbook.

Most introductory marketing textbooks are arranged in units that discuss the environment and functions of marketing. A typical organization of these units might be as follows: 1) The economic, global, and ethical environments of marketing; 2) Market analysis and buyer behavior; 3) Product strategies; 4) Distribution strategies; 5) Promotional strategies; and 6) Pricing strategies.

The project is divided into several sections, each of which is in some way related to one or more of the units and/or topics listed above. (Additionally, we include a section in the assignment requiring “a professional presentation” as a prerequisite for it to be graded.) Each section, in turn, is designed to expose students to one or more sources of online marketing-related information and/or applications. We provide students with a Web-based version of the project assignment so that they may easily access hyperlinks to the appropriate websites. The greatest portion of this paper discusses each section of the project and suggests how instructors may effectively implement it in their classes. After these discussions, we conclude with strategies for amending the complexity, or cognitive levels, of the project’s learning outcome statements, and then summarize how the project is evaluated.

This detail of this project demands a significant time commitment from the student. In our opinion, it results in a report that is of reasonable length for the typical student in an introductory marketing course. If the instructor wishes to shorten the project, he/she could eliminate one or more sections and still have a project with significant educational benefits. Conversely, there are several ways to enhance the educational benefits of the project. For instance, most introductory marketing textbooks, as well as their companion websites, include a listing of links to Internet-based resources associated with the subject matter. One or more of these resources could be singled out and additional sections based on the chosen resources could be developed and appended to the assignment.

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EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF ECO-LABELING ON PERCEPTIONS OF CLIMATE CHANGE: A COMPARISON OF BLUE FLAG VS NON-BLUE FLAG HOTEL MANAGERS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

There is a growing concern about the potential negative effects of climate change and global warming, as well as an interest in how to combat these negative effects and take preventive actions. As part of these initiatives, eco-labeling has been promoted to support and communicate the notion of environmental sustainability. Blue Flag designation is a type of eco-labeling that indicates environmentally friendly practices in the tourism industry.

The consequences of climate change can be significant for the tourism industry, especially in terms of tourism activities that may occur in fragile places such as coastal zones, mountain regions, ski destinations, and beaches that climate change threatens. In recent years, we have seen an increased number of empirical studies and descriptive reports that demonstrate how climate change may affect the resources on which tourism is dependent. There are also studies related to eco-labels such as Blue Flag that focused on the impact these certifications have on people's awareness and perception (e.g., recognition of signals, knowledge of a label's purposes), their motivation to visit places or their purchase intentions.

Regardless of the nature and magnitude of climate change, the tourism industry as a whole and individual businesses and destinations will need to adapt to climate change in order to minimize associated risks and capitalize upon new opportunities in an economically, socially and environmentally sustainable manner. These issues necessitate research that includes tourism business managers (e.g., hotel managers) as key stakeholders. Understanding how climate change and global warming impact the tourism industry, as well as developing suitable adaptation and mitigation policies would be of immense value for the success and sustainability of the tourism industry and individual businesses.

The specific objectives of this research are: 1) to examine the hotel managers' perceptions of potential negative effects of climate change on the tourism industry, and the expected actions needed to mitigate these potential negative impacts in the next ten years or so, 2) to compare if the perceptions differ between hotel managers from Blue Flag (eco-labeled) and non-Blue Flag (non-eco-labeled) hotels regarding the impact of climate change, 3) to determine if the Blue Flag designation (eco-label) has any impact on hotel performance by comparing Blue Flag vs non-Blue Flag hotels.

A survey questionnaire was developed for data collection which included questions measuring the potential (negative) effects of climate change on the tourism personnel and the tourism industry. There were also questions to capture the commitment to actions within the tourism industry to combat the potential negative consequences of climate change, as well as questions about hotel performance and demographics. The survey was administered to various Blue Flag and non-Blue Flag hotel managers in Turkey. In total, 274 surveys (139 non-Blue Flag and 135 Blue Flag) were used for analysis. Factor analysis produced three distinct factors for potential negative effects and two distinct factors for commitment to protect environment.

Overall, results indicate that the hotel managers are aware and concerned about the negative effects of climate change and support the actions to prevent and mitigate these potential negative effects. They are most concerned about the issues such as negative effects on physical health, the sustainability of tourism industry, working

environment, leisure and recreation, and quality of life. The results show that hotel managers are also concerned about the effects of climate change on physical and economic environment, and the well-being and satisfaction of the tourism personnel. According to the results concerning commitment to protect the environment, the managers perceive actions to reduce harmful activities to protect the environment as the most important way to mitigate the negative effects of the climate change, which is followed by certification and energy initiatives for protecting the environment.

The results also showed that the managers at both non-Blue Flag and Blue Flag hotels have similar perceptions of the negative effects of climate change. On the other hand, while both types of hotel managers agree that actions to reduce harmful activities are important for protecting the environment, managers of hotels with Blue Flag eco-label support these actions significantly more than their non-Blue Flag counter-parts. However, managers from both hotel types have similar perspectives on certification and energy initiatives for protecting the environment. The results regarding the performance measures show that the hotels with Blue Flag designation are perceived to be more profitable than those of non-Blue Flag hotels. Eco-labels may help businesses to be more environmentally sensitive to the resources that would sustain their business activities over time.

It is important to note that the results of this study are based on the perceptions of the Turkish hotel managers. Similar studies should be conducted with Blue Flag and non-Blue Flag hotel managers in other countries. This study included only managers from Blue Flag and non-Blue Flag hotels. The future research should also include managers from other tourism establishments.

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EXAMINING GENDER-ORIENTATION AND SERVICE-STATUS STEREOTYPING PERCEPTIONS OF SERVICES: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY WITH MILLENNIALS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

There has been an increased interest in gender effects as more women have joined the work force. Several studies have examined the effects of gender on such issues as recruiting, selling effectiveness, service quality, service gender orientation, and service status, as well as the effect on majors and careers. Prior research has also examined the perception of whether an occupation or service is perceived as being male-oriented or female-oriented, in conjunction with their being low-status or high status. It appears that gender equality is on the rise and young adults are entering occupations previously dominated by one gender. Yet, a question still remains as to whether gender has an effect on classifying services as male-dominant or female-dominant, (service gender-orientation), as well as low status or high status (service gender stereotyping). In order to gain insights about these issues, this study explores service gender-orientation and service-status stereotyping by examining eight different services.

A review of the literature shows that the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm, Social Identity Theory, and Self-Categorization Theory are used to help explain gender differentials in a variety of phenomena. These theories predict that females will more likely consider services that are consistent with their gender image as female-oriented and males will more likely consider services that are consistent with their gender image as male-oriented. Prior research also suggests an existence of service gender stereotyping, where some services were rated as low status and some as high status. Moreover, it was found that service provider status (occupational stereotyping) has a significant effect on the perception of service quality received by the customer.

This study addresses two main research objectives. First, the study explores whether specific services are perceived as being male-oriented, female-oriented, or gender-neutral. Second, the study investigates whether certain services are perceived as low-status, or high-status services. The specific objectives are to: a) Examine service gender orientation of services to determine whether some services are perceived as male-oriented, gender-neutral, or female-oriented; b) Determine whether service status stereotyping exists in services classified as low-status and high-status; and c) Compare service gender-orientation and service-status stereotyping by respondent profiles of gender, culture (domestic versus international) and classification.

The survey instrument included services familiar to the respondents such as; bank teller/officer, coffee shop server, fast-food restaurant server, cell-phone service representative, pharmacist/staff, doctor, dentist and professor/teacher. The respondents were asked to provide preferences in order to determine gender-orientation and service-status stereotyping. A survey was administered to 312 students at a private Midwestern university; as members of the millennial generation they are believed to be more accepting of differences and are the emerging target customers. The factor analysis produced three distinct gender-orientation factors of male-oriented, gender-neutral and female-oriented groups, and two factors of high status and low status services.

It appears that despite all the recent efforts and progress in diversity, inclusion, and diversification of careers, that gender-orientation and stereotyping of services still exists among college students (Millennials). The comparisons of gender-orientation by respondent gender indicate that male and female respondents have different perceptions for male-oriented and gender-neutral services, but have similar perceptions for female-oriented services.

The findings show male respondents perceive these services to be more male-oriented than female respondents. This study also found that while Millennials of both genders have similar perceptions for female-oriented services, they have different perceptions for male-oriented services. Moreover, the significant differences between the domestic and international respondents for gender-orientation indicate the effect of cultural differences on the perceptions of service gender-orientations. Understanding these differences for service gender-orientations in different cultural contexts could be helpful and beneficial for international marketing strategies.

The results show that respondents (Millennials) perceive some services as low-status and others as high-status. It appears that service-status stereotyping exists among both domestic and international millennials. The results show that perceptions of low status and high status are the same regardless of respondent gender or nationality. The findings of this study indicate that service-status stereotyping exists among both genders and across-cultures, suggesting that some services are considered as low-status or high-status. These results could have employment and service quality implications for companies. Using millennials as a sample, this study provides insights about service gender-orientation and service-status stereotyping using eight different services. However, our results and conclusions must be put in the context of the potential limitations of the study and directions for future research.

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CONSUMER ATTRIBUTIONS FOR GOAL PROGRESS CO-PRODUCED WITH A SERVICE PROVIDER

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This research examines customers' attributions for better- or worse-than-expected progress towards a challenging goal (weight loss), when success demands significant and high-quality contributions from both the customer and service provider hired to help. Based on attribution literature (e.g., Folkes 1988; Weiner 2000), three hypotheses were tested to address this research question: who do customers credit for success or blame for failure?

The field study context was a naturally-occurring and intensively participative service. New members had just joined a well-known and reputable weight reduction program when invited to participate in this study. Upon agreeing, respondents reported beginning weight and expectations for weight loss. This reduction program provides specific guidelines and recommendations, but members are responsible for choosing what and how much to eat and otherwise implementing the program. After four weeks, participants completed a survey including pounds lost, perceived performance, performance disconfirmation, and attributions: internal, external/service provider and external/situational.

Preliminary findings show that those who lost *more* weight than expected (i.e., positive disconfirmation) made significantly stronger ($p < .001$) attributions to both themselves and the weight reduction program than those who lost less than expected. However, path analysis found that neither perceived performance nor positive disconfirmation (i.e., better- than-expected weight loss) predicted internal or external/provider attributions, although these attributions were correlated ($p < .01$). The variance explained was nil in both internal (.02) and external/provider (.01) attributions.

While respondents who lost *less* weight than expected (i.e., negative disconfirmation) made significantly weaker attributions, mean scores for both internal and external provider attributions nevertheless exceeded the scales' midpoints, indicating that these respondents blamed both themselves and the reduction program for their unexpectedly poor results. Negative disconfirmation predicted both internal (.35, $p < .01$) and external/provider attributions (.29, $p < .01$), and the attributions were correlated ($p < .01$).

Potential explanations for expected and unexpected study findings and broader applications of the relationships will be discussed at the presentation.

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BUILDING A MARKETING FRAMEWORK FOR THE MUSLIM CONSUMER SEGMENT

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Over the past 15 years, there has been an increase in the American media on Islam and its practitioners called “Muslims”. To say the least, the public perception is less than ideal. The media is replete with stories about terrorist complicity giving rise to what has become known as “Islamaphobia”. All notions of accepting Islamic lifestyle are presented as a competition or counterpoint to America’s core values. The American population numbers more than 300 million with approximately 5-7 million identifying Islam as their religion. This segment represents a diverse group, most of whom are well-educated with higher than average incomes. However, the public perception remains distorted as there is deep distrust. While the large majority of Muslims are non-Arab, there is a tendency to ignore the diversity and associate the religion with its darkest purveyors.

Given the difficulty that Muslims have in finding products and services suited for their lifestyles, it is then clear that any strategy used to market to Muslims must entail a number of details including core Islamic values, core societal values and an emotional appeal. It has been common in the limited research on Islamic Marketing to segment Muslims in a variety of ways including their level of devotion to their religion. This paper contends that this approach may not be able to overcome many of the misperceptions that are prevalent and that would keep companies very cautious and skeptical of creating successful ad campaigns without tremendous backlash. In May 2010, Ogilvy and Mather had launched the bold marketing initiative called “Ogilvie Noor”. This designed to target the world’s “third one billion” segment. Muslims are fast becoming an economic bloc with unique needs and wants with the disposable income to back their demands. In this study, they cited research stating that 98% of Muslims felt that American brands do not actively reach out to Muslim consumers.

The statement of the problem is that marketing channels are not fully optimized to reach this sizable, fast-growing and affluent segment and that there needs to be a framework designed to appeal to the Muslim consumership. The idea is to show that Islamic values are indeed consistent with values of society and thus acceptable to Muslims and non-Muslims alike. The idea is to move away from the myopic religious paradigms that many companies attempt to use to market to Muslims in place of more general approach using emotional triggers to attract Muslims. This is done by making rational content more prominent rather trying to force Islamic beliefs into marketing campaigns to make Muslims feel more comfortable. This paper will produce a framework that will present a decidedly different approach consisting of both rational and emotional factors to build successful marketing strategies for Islamic markets.

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EMBRACING SMART PHONES IN THE MARKETING CLASSROOM: AN ANDROGOGICAL ACTION RESEARCH APPROACH TO INCREASE STUDENT ENGAGEMENT AND LEARNING.

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The authors explore the use of action research in the marketing classroom as a method for better understanding the use of smart phone photo and video technology to enhance learning of course content. An action research class project was developed to analyze the question: Can smart phones enhance student engagement when used in an andragogical action research approach? The students used their smart phones to gather data in field research, to apply key concepts to the real world, and as a digital tool to deepen understanding of marketing concepts. Each author had a slightly different approach. The first involved four separate clients in an advertising class, over 600 consumer in-depth interview recordings and 85 students over two years. The same project was assigned for each class, which was to identify consumer insights through recorded qualitative research from which to develop campaign positioning. The second approach included 60 students and over 100 recorded observations in four courses over three years. Here the students were to capture consumer stories about marketing problems. Using action research to explore the validity of using smart phones in the marketing classroom proved to be an andragogical approach that resulted in collaborative learning, improved student skill development, improved in-class dynamics, and deeper content relevance.

Action research (AR), also called “Participatory Action Research (PAR),” is a method of inquiry that seeks to generate and implement practical and actionable solutions by getting practitioners to engage with the research. The purpose of action research is to learn through action and to improve current practices (Kates & Robertson, 2004; Koshy, Koshy & Waterman, 2010). A key component is reflection, based on participant interpretation (Meyer, 2000). Stephen Corey and Lawrence Stenhouse applied AR to the study of teaching and curriculum development (Koshy et al., 2010). Although there is little published regarding use of AR in studying marketing, Kates and Robertson (2004) did argue that AR is a viable method in academic marketing research contexts. Participatory video, as AR, is where participants themselves capture their experiences with video cameras. Films can have greater potential for communicating compelling emotion (Holliday, 2000; Ozanne et al., 2013). Photography, specifically, has been explored as a transformative AR tool to increase individual, group and community agency within social and policy change context (Ozanne et al., 2013). Methods include photo essay and novellas (Ziller, 1990; Ozanne et al., 2013); photovoice in power sharing methods (Catalani & Minkler, 2010; Ozanne et al., 2013); understanding health related issues (Rhodes et al., 2008; Ozanne et al., 2013); public policy making (Wang, Cash & Powers, 2000; Ozanne et al., 2013), and marketing decision-making (Viswanathan, Hastak & Gao, 2009; Schartz et al., 2007; Ozanne et al., 2013). Additionally, Kolb (2008) stated that research respondents using photography to engage in the research question can experience personal transformative change.

AR (AR) cannot be predetermined, but is an interactive, emergent process that changes and develops as collaborators deepen their understanding of the issues to be addressed. It is a method of story-telling where the data collected may be subjective and of a more personal nature. Best practices for photography in AR include institutionalized reflection (Kate & Robertson, 2004) and significant time to practice the needed critical analytical skills, particularly among groups that lack these skills (Ozanne et al., 2013). Themes that emerge while participants sort photographs through critical group discussions become a stronger basis for action as the images chosen are owned by the group (Kramer et al., 2010; Ozanne et al., 2013). Thus, the authors hypothesized that creating stronger buy-in to the meaning represented in the research videos selected would enhance the marketing understanding.

Typical AR, involves collaboratively testing a hypothetical theory, analyzing the feedback from the experiment and incorporating the learning back into the process. In their study *Adapting Action Research to Marketing*, Kates and Robertson (2004) found that the common thread among the AR models they examined involved “both research and intervention into real life educational or organizational contexts aimed at improving practice and theoretical knowledge”. They also identified a viable five step AR process, as follows: 1) Problem identification, fact finding, and analysis of an issue; 2) Planning for the intervention; 3) Executing the intervention; 4) Observing and examining the organizational effects of the execution (e.g. better practice, or restructuring, etc); and 5) Reflecting and planning for the next intervention, if deemed necessary (Carson et al., 2001). It was this model the authors followed with a focus on observing and examining the use of smart phone video and photography capabilities as a better practice in cost effective qualitative research methods.

AR, as defined earlier, is a method that seeks to learn by engaging practitioners in the cyclical process of researching a specific issue. In a similar manner, an andragogical approach to facilitating learning seeks to engage learners in the process of learning. Student engagement involves six principles: Learn Deeply, Focus on Problems, Collaborate, Mentor, Promote Interaction across Levels, Show & Do Research (Light & Micari 2013). Similarly, andragogy also involves six principles that understands adult learners - those not still in traditional k-12- are: internally motivated and self-directed, bring life experiences and knowledge to learning experiences, goal oriented, relevancy oriented, practical and like to be respected (Knowles). In their client project based classrooms, both authors used in-class time for problem focused inquiry, application, and assessment to increase deep learning. Both authors found that this technique provided increased engagement and relevancy as evidenced through faculty observation, assignment completion and course evaluations. In addition to illustrating the practical application of digital technology as a cost-effective tool to gain a deeper understandings of consumer insights, the AR methodology also highlights an approach that provides real-time understanding of key concepts, deep active engagement and relevant learning.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF SERVICE FAILURES, RECOVERY EFFORTS AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION WITHIN A PACKAGE GROUP TOUR

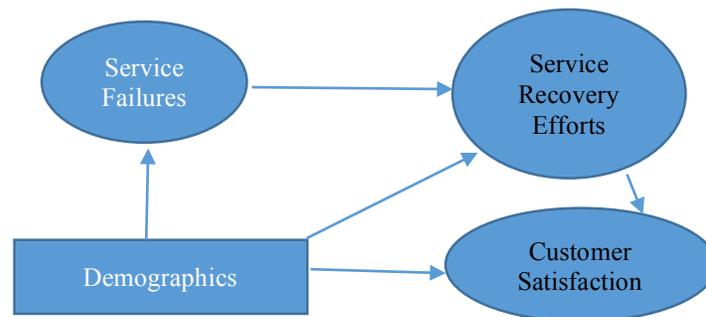
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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Service failures seem to be inevitable given the heterogeneous nature of services. In many cases, it is the service recovery efforts performed by service providers after a service failure that affect customer satisfaction. A model is proposed that considers the impact of service failures and services recovery efforts on customer satisfaction with a package group tour. The findings indicate that service failures are related to recovery efforts, and that recovery efforts are related to customer satisfaction. In addition, an analysis of various demographic factors suggests that age, employment status, and the frequency of non-business trips taken each play a role in these relationships.

The theoretical framework of this study utilizes the operational model presented in Figure 1. This model suggests that there is an antecedent relationship that culminates in customer satisfaction for package group tours.

Figure 1: Operational Model



All of the scales used to measure the constructs in this study were derived from instruments that were designed from previous studies. Because the validity of these scales has been supported in other research (Mattila, 2001; McColl-Kennedy & Sparks, 2003; McCollough, Berry, & Yadav, 2000), the primary goal was to reaffirm the reliability of these scales in the scale purification process. The internal consistency of each scale item and the overall alpha score for constructs was assessed using Chronbach's alpha.

In order to test the hypotheses and the research questions, correlation analysis will be utilized in addition to independent-samples t-tests and one-way ANOVAs. For the hypotheses, summated scores will be used in correlations to test the relationships between Service Failures and Service Recovery Efforts, and Service Recovery Efforts and Customer Satisfaction, respectively. The research questions pertaining to demographics and their relationships to the three constructs (i.e., Service Failures, Service Recovery Efforts, and Customer Satisfaction) will be analyzed with independent-samples t-tests and one-way ANOVAs.

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CONSUMER ETHICS AND LOCAL PURCHASE INTENTIONS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This research proposal is to examine the relationship between consumer's ethical behaviors and local vs non-local businesses. Local purchasing can be a broad geographical term and can include both regional chains present in the community and small locally owned businesses. This is a study which seeks to develop an understanding of the motivations behind consumer's desires to purchase from local owned businesses within the immediate community. Are there ethical concerns of consumers that influence or motivate purchase intentions towards other local businesses? This study develops a local ethics model to study the effects of ethics and cynicism on consumers' attitudes and intentions to purchase from locally owned businesses.

Unethical behavior of consumers has been explored as part of an overall study of consumer ethics that identifies distinct constructs: benefiting from illegal activity, passively benefiting at expense of seller, actively benefitting from questionable actions, no harm-no foul behaviors, an updated version of the scale includes a dimension for "Doing Good" which accounts for consumers performing good behaviors, such as correcting a mistake on the bill (Vitell 2005). Individual beliefs influence attitudes toward behavior and norms and there is a relationship between ethical beliefs, moral judgement, and intention. These judgements vary based on environment, prosperity, social influence, and individual ethics. This indicates that many consumers act in response to situational factors and personal values. Consumer behavior in these situations is dependent on the individual's perception of effect on the business, the consumer's personal level of cynicism and equity beliefs. Thus behavior towards local businesses will be influenced by a consumer's ethical beliefs and desire for doing good in order to support those beliefs.

Current research literature illustrates the relationship between level of commitment to a business and unethical behaviors, but does not address the how this commitment is affected by local or non-local ownership. Ethical decisions and interactions with a business can change based on the consumer perceptions of the ability of a business to withstand the effects of unethical behavior. There are reasons to believe that ethical behavior changes based on the ownership of the business. Consumer ethical behaviors are especially important when the decision to consume products expresses a desire to abide by a certain moral standard (Cho, 2011). The interactions between consumers and businesses will vary depending on the nature of business ownership. There is a link between ethical beliefs and intentions, therefore it is proposed that there is a link between consumer ethics and the desire to purchase from locally owned businesses. Similar to consumers who seek to purchase "Environmentally Friendly" products (Long-Chaun Lu, 2013), consumers with higher ethical beliefs for doing good will have a higher intention to purchase locally. Based on the information presented the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: *Consumer ethical beliefs are a positive predictor of the intention to purchase locally.*

Consumer communities based around a brand provide an illustration of how consumption can be guided by standards and certain community members stand out because of their skills or because of knowledge about goods or values associated with the brand (Garcia-Ruiz, 2014). The others members in the community recognize those consumers as role models because of a genuine and exemplary use of brand values. Viewing local businesses as a brand allows consumers to believe that supporting the local "brands" is an ethical duty. Consumer attitudes toward businesses are related to their ethical beliefs regarding consumer situations (Vitell, 2005). Based on these findings the following hypothesis is presented:

H2: *Consumers with a positive attitude towards local purchasing view other consumers who do support local businesses as behaving ethically.*

Cynicism is a stance of disengagement and distrust, contempt, and skepticism adopted towards humans, institutions and values: and adopted as a response to a belief that humans are motivated only by self-interest. Cynics engage in moral disengagement through distortion of consequences due to the belief that victims of unethical

behavior deserve the outcomes as the victims also unethical (Detert, 2008). This helps to explain unethical behavior as some consumers believe that large businesses are successful due to unethical practices and that locally owned businesses are more ethical. Cynical consumers may reduce the inclination to morally disengage with local businesses because they are able to more directly relate to the business.

Moral regulation can be deactivated by several disengagement mechanisms, including moral justification, advantageous comparison, disregard or distortion of consequences, and attribution of blame. Trait cynicism also has been found to facilitate moral disengagement, allowing for reduced sensitivity to others. This allows people to more easily distance themselves and diffuse responsibility or blame, because cynics believe that everyone is engaged in selfish acts (Detert, 2008). Cynicism towards a locally owned business will be reduced due to a reduction in the consumer's ability to justify a separation between themselves and the business. To explain these behaviors towards local businesses, the following hypotheses are presented:

H3a: *Consumers with high cynicism are more likely to behave unethically towards a non-locally owned business than towards a locally owned businesses.*

H3b: *Consumers with low cynicism will behave in a similar ethical manner to both locally and non-locally owned businesses.*

The Hunt-Vitell Ethics model proposes a predictive theory to describe the process by which consumers make their ethical decisions and has been widely adopted as a theoretical framework of consumer ethical decision making. The construct of consumer ethical beliefs will be measured utilizing scales from consumer ethics, and adapting from the Green Buying Intent (Kim, 2005) and the Green Consumer Values (Haws, 2014), with higher scores indicating a greater propensity to purchase from locally-owned businesses.

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NOBODY UNDERSTANDS ME! THE NEED FOR EMPATHY: EXPLORING THE MIND-SET OF CONSUMERS WITH MEDICAL PROBLEMS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Understanding consumers' feelings is essential in finding new and better ways to satisfy consumer needs. Consequently, the marketing literature has hosted significant amount of research on affect, mood, and emotions. In particular, scholars have studied how marketers influence mood states during consumption experiences (Gardner, 1985; Swinyard, 1993) and how various moods and emotions are induced via advertisements or other media (Goldberg & Gorn, 1987; Baumgartner et al., 1992). However, the research on the relationship between consumer mood states and satisfaction in services is sparse. One of the challenges service businesses face is that although consumers' mood states affect their decision making, information processing, perceptions, and memory (Pham, 2004; Rusting, 1998), the source of a mood state may be unknown or uncontrollable to the company. Further, defined as caring, individualized attention the firm provides to its customers, perceived empathy has been identified as one of most important indicators of high quality service (Parasuraman et al., 1988). The current research aims to enhance the understanding of the interplay between negative mood states and regular consumption behaviors and the role of perceived empathy in serving these customers.

Adopting a grounded theory approach, this research attempts to delve into an understudied service phenomenon, exploring the feelings of consumers with medical problems. These problems cause consumers to be in a negative mood during mundane consumption experiences. For the initial stage of this research, qualitative data were collected through in-depth interviews with six informants. The interviews lasted anytime between 25 minutes to 51 minutes and yielded to a text of almost 25,000 words. After the data is analyzed, future research directions are discussed. The following lines illustrate the distressed mental state of one of the informants while he recovered from an ankle surgery:

"When you think about it... When cavemen moved around from place to place, from hunting ground to hunting ground, the old people got where they could not keep up, they just left them. Somewhere in the back of your caveman mind, you are thinking: Well, it is a good thing, I am not gonna get left!"

The rationale behind studying consumers with medical problems is threefold: First, health issues are inevitable incidents in every consumer's life. Second, healthcare services in the United States represent 17% of the entire GDP and in the U.S. and many other developed countries, the average age in the marketplace has been increasing (Noble et al., 2004). This not only signals ever-increasing demand in the healthcare sector, but also indicates that firms outside of the healthcare realm will also have more customers with nagging medical conditions. Third, some service businesses, besides healthcare providers, frequently serve consumers facing medical problems. Insurance companies, pharmacies, or even transportation services deal with consumers with medical problems on a daily basis. In other words, experiencing temporary medical problems affecting daily activities is an inevitable part of human life. Therefore, studying consumers experiencing medical problems seems plausible while exploring the relationship between need for empathy and satisfaction.

"It used to be that good marketers were people who had a good feel for people, who could empathize with them," says David J. Reibstein, "today we do it much more by the numbers." (Moffitt, 2005) The current research primarily aims to draw attention to the importance of empathy in consumer research. Literature suggests that cognitive components and affective components determine consumers' attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, understanding the affective states that consumers experience and the stimuli evoking these feeling states are crucial. A consumer may be in a negative mood way before s/he is involved in a consumption experience. However, his or her attitude and behavior are still affected by the mood state s/he is in. In an attempt to enhance the understanding of this phenomenon, the author conducted a discovery-oriented qualitative study to explore the role of empathy

predicting consumer satisfaction when consumers are in a negative mood. The model developed in this paper proposes that the relationship between need for empathy and consumer satisfaction as well as the relationship between service failures and consumer satisfaction are moderated by negative mood induced by the perceived severity of a medical problem.

In particular, the author studied the feeling states of consumers who are experiencing temporary, yet daily-life-quality-altering medical problems. These negative mood inducing medical problems are and have always been a part of people's lives. Therefore, some businesses constantly, some occasionally, serve consumers in this condition. (e.g.: healthcare providers, insurance companies, pharmacies, transportation companies, parking services, etc.) People in a negative mood take a picky and moody perspective hindering them to see the big picture (Labroo & Patrick, 2009); they could be harder to satisfy. For example, consumers whose mobility is limited due to a medical problem become more involved with a transportation-related consumption. Therefore, their reaction to any possible service failure would be aggravated as much as their satisfaction with a pleasant service.

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USING PROSPECTIVE MEMORY IN MARKETING: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY IN SOCIAL INCENTIVES

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Remembering to remember, or what is otherwise referred to as prospective memory, helps describe the relationship between intentions and memory (Winograd, 1988). Prospective memory can also be defined as remembering to complete a task at a particular moment in the future or the timely execution of a previously formed intention (Kvavilashvili and Ellis, 1996). For example, picking up your dry cleaning after work or returning a library book before the due date. Both of these tasks cannot be completed when the initial intention is formed. There is a delay between when the dry cleaning is dropped off and when it is available for pickup. The same can be said for the library example. The intention to return the library book before the due date is formed when the materials are checked out. These examples help depict the complex set of cognitive processes associated with prospective memory.

Remembering future tasks/intentions (prospective memory) is different than remembering information from the past (retrospective memory). In retrospective memory tests, a respondent is instructed to enter a retrieval mode (Tulving, 1983). The respondent's ability to reproduce or identify previous learned information or materials is assessed. Difficulty in remembering to recall is minimized because the researcher provides explicit instructions to the respondent. In prospective memory, there is no one prompting the respondent to enter retrieval mode. Often, the information to recall might be easy to remember but remembering to recall may prove to be difficult. For example, passing a telephone message to a colleague, a failure in prospective memory would occur if one could not remember what the message was but a failure would also occur when one sees the colleague and forgets entirely to tell him/her that there was a message.

The completion of a prospective memory task requires not only specific cognitive skills but may also depend on the circumstances under which it should be realized (Ellis and McGann, 2003). Prospective memory is a part of our everyday lives and has social elements. The social consequences of a prospective memory failure can be seen in this anonymous quote, "the best way to remember your wife's birthday is to forget it one time." Munsat (1966) stated that there is a moral aspect that accompanies those individuals who frequently fail to follow through with their promises and intentions. Their character rather than their cognitive ability is deemed as flawed. When a failure in retrospective memory occurs, the individual's memory is seen as unreliable; however, when a failure in prospective memory occurs, the individual is seen as unreliable. A memory failure in a social context is embarrassing and affects one's credibility (Brandimonte and Ferrante, 2008). In order to truly understand prospective memory, researchers need to consider the nature of the interpersonal relationship involved (Meacham, 1988). The social factors can affect variables such as the strength of the intention and even the quality of the implementation of the intention. The performance on a prospective memory task is affected by an individual's social life and sensitive to social values (Cicogna and Nigro, 1998, Meacham and Kushner, 1980). Gollwitzer, Bayer, and Bargh (2005) found that social factors moderate an individual's strength of motivation, strength of intention/goal, and the quality of implementation. An individual's social group typically establishes which goals are desirable, feasible, or socially important (Atkinson, 1957; Lewin, 1951).

Prosocial behavior is defined as a voluntary behavior that is carried out to benefit another person without the anticipation of an external reward (Bar-Tal, 1976). The intrinsic value of committing the act is the focus of prosocial behavior research. Some studies have focused on the social effects of a prosocial act (Baston, 1998). Meacham and Kushner (1980) were one the first to examine the social dimensions of task importance. Their study revealed that social tasks were more likely to be remembered and performed than tasks that were object oriented. They isolated the conditions of task importance within a social environment; however the manipulation did not consider the motivational effects of goal value. One way to determine the role of motivation in the implementation

of an intention is to manipulate the direction of benefit of the prospective memory task completion. The direction of benefit identifies who is the recipient of the benefits associated with successful completion of the prospective memory task. In three conditions and a control group, this study examines who is the main beneficiary of the prospective memory task completion. In the social condition, the beneficiary is another individual (either family or friend); in the personal condition, the beneficiary is the test subject. The final condition examines the when both the subject and another individual (either family or friend) are rewarded for task completion. The control condition did not identify a beneficiary for completing the prospective memory task.

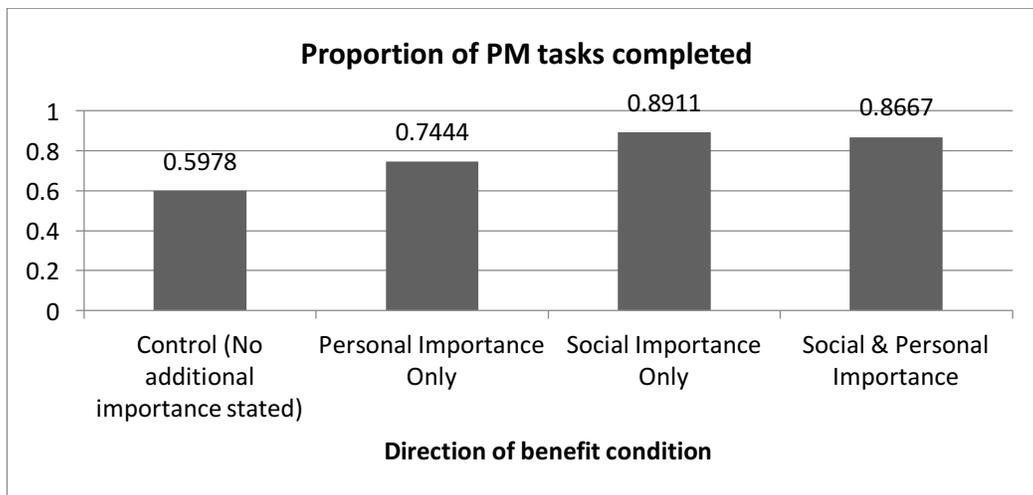
H1: Subjects in the social and personal importance condition will complete a greater percentage of prospective memory tasks when compared to those subjects in the social importance condition.

H2: Subjects in the social importance condition will complete a greater percentage of prospective memory tasks when compared to those subjects in the personal importance condition.

H3: Subjects in the personal importance condition will complete a greater percentage of prospective memory tasks when compared to those subjects in the no importance condition.

The overall means of percent of prospective memory tasks completed are seen in the graph below. Using an ANOVA analysis, there a significant difference between the control, personal importance and the social importance conditions but there was no significant difference between the social importance condition and the social and personal importance condition. Subjects in the social importance condition outperformed those in the personal importance condition. And those in the personal importance condition outperformed those is the control condition. These results were in-line with the last two hypotheses. Contrary to the first hypothesis, there was no significant difference found between the prospective memory performance level of the social incentive condition and the social and personal incentive (joint) conditions.

The joint condition was hypothesized to outperform the other conditions due to the additive nature of the incentive. It was believed that individuals would perform best in the joint condition because the subject would gain both a monetary benefit as well as a social benefit. Past research in social psychology has shown that under certain conditions, explicit incentives can lead to a decreased motivation and reduce task performance (Deci, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 1985). For example, paying for blood donations takes away from the intrinsic motivation to donate blood thereby reducing the willingness of the individual to donate. In a meta-analysis of 128 experiments, Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999) found that tangible extrinsic rewards have a significant negative effect on intrinsic motivation for interesting tasks. The joint incentive condition falls under this umbrella.



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ATTITUDE TOWARDS INSURANCE FRAUD AMONG CANADIAN AND JAPANESE CONSUMERS: A CROSS- CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This paper investigates how differences in cultural values' orientations (allocentrism-idiocentrism) could shape different attitudes towards insurance fraud across a collectivistic culture (i.e. Japan) and an individualistic culture (i.e. Canada). Two studies were conducted in this research. Results from study1 show that overall, consumers from individualistic cultures hold a more negative attitude towards all types of insurance fraud (soft, hard, planned and opportunistic frauds), compared to their counterparts from collectivistic cultures. However, when pooled into allocentric and idiocentric groups, allocentric consumers are found to hold a more negative attitude towards insurance fraud than their idiocentric counterparts. Study2 shows that consumers from individualistic cultures are more likely to use rationalization cues to justify their tolerance for insurance fraud than their counterparts from collectivistic cultures. However, at the individual level of culture, the attitude toward insurance fraud of allocentrics and idiocentrics in an individualistic culture is found to be shaped by both rationalization and the perception of inequity/unfairness. In contrast, in collectivistic culture, while allocentrics' attitude is shaped by rationalization and the perception of inequity/unfairness, idiocentrics attitude is only triggered by the latter.

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THE JOURNEY FROM CONSUMERS TO CO-CREATORS: EXPLORING CONSUMERS' CO-CREATION EXPERIENCES BY MEANS OF NEUROPHYSIOLOGICAL TOOLS

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Over the course of the past decade, many authors delve into the intriguing concepts of customers experiences and co-creation of value. Co-creation is the practice of designing and developing new systems, products or services through active collaboration between an organization and its customers, employees and other stakeholders. It involves a frequent, interactive, bidirectional, and face-to-face communication between participants to jointly create value (Ramaswamy and Gouillart, 2010; Gustafsson et al., 2012). The term “Co-creation” was firstly coined by Kambil and co-authors in their 1996 working paper “re-inventing value propositions”. A further development in the concept has been made by Kambil and co-authors in their article “Explore the Power of the internet for Co-creation”, published in Accenture’s Outlook Magazine in 1999, where they defined co-creation as “engaging customers directly in the production or distribution of value” (Kambil et al. 1999, p. 40). Subsequent academic research in co-creation followed Kambil’s work (i.e., Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2000; Vargo and Lusch 2004, 2008; Gronroos & Voima, 2013) highlighting the evolution and transformation of customers from passive audiences to active ones and emphasizing the importance of customers as co-creators of value and source of competencies.

While recent academic research continues to devote considerable attention to customers co-creation, what is missing from this research is a detailed investigation of various variables leading to and affecting customer decisions toward involvement in co-creation. Our goal in this research is to address this issue. Our research seeks to assess consumers’ co-creation experiences. More specifically, it proposes a coherent, integrated framework to assess consumers’ decisions toward involvement in co-creation. In doing so, the research draws on extending and deepening of the theory of planned behavior by incorporating some elements of appraisal theories of emotions. The conceptual framework examines the effect of level of co-creation involvement on behavioral intentions passing through a set of mediating variables and taking into account moderating variables consisting of relevant consumer traits along with some control variables. The mediating variables are; emotional states, attitudes, beliefs, perceived behavioral control and subjective norms, while, the moderating variables are empathy, regulatory focus, personality traits, sensation seeking, and level of self-concept. Moreover, our research investigates the effectiveness of using neurophysiological research as an assessment tool in this regard.

In order to accomplish the research objectives and empirically test our conceptual model, two studies will be conducted. For study 1, the research instrument is based on scenario manipulations, questionnaires, eye tracking, and skin conductance. A sample of 160 participants will be recruited. Between-subjects experimental design with two level of co-creation (high customer involvement vs. low customer involvement) will be employed. Each participant will randomly be assigned to one of the experimental conditions. Participants will wear a skin conductance band while sitting in front of a large screen with eye tracking watching an audio-visual presentation of hypothetical, but realistic, co-creation scenarios where they are asked to vividly imagine themselves actually experience the situations provided.

Then, they will be instructed to fill out the survey with dependent and other variables. For study 2, the research instrument is based on scenario manipulations, questionnaires, and Electroencephalography (EEG). A sample of 60 participants and will be recruited. The same experimental design and procedures as in study 1 will be employed.

In conclusion, our research resulted in expected to yield a significant theoretical and managerial implications. It complements recent emerging research on co-creation and customers experiences by proposing a comprehensive conceptual model of customers' co-creation experiences and empirically testing and validating it using multi-method measurement approach and neurophysiological tools.

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IMAGE INTERRUPTED: PURVEYORS, INTERCEPTORS AND RECEIVERS IN A SHAREWORTHY WORLD

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The management and preservation of a brand image and reputation is an ever-increasingly difficult proposition in today's environment where organisations' stakeholders have access to unprecedented levels of information at their fingertips. Advances in digital technologies and the advent of social network sites has seen a massive shift in how stakeholders not only absorb information about products and services, but also how quickly they share their experiences of companies with others. Managing and maintaining a consistent brand image and reputation for today's stakeholder has thus become an increasingly difficult challenge for organisations. The literature echoes this concern and calls out that organisations are increasingly losing control of their images as advents in technology such as web 2.0 and applications such as social networking sites have given individuals unprecedented power to be purveyors, interceptors, and receivers of the increasingly scattered images of organisations (Price et al, 2008; Breazeale, 2009; Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Fournier & Avery, 2011; Siano et al, 2011; Berthon et al, 2012; Gioia et al, 2014). There has however been very little empirically to understand how organisations perceive and manage purveyors, interceptors and receivers in today's social media landscape. Additionally, there is a dearth of empirical research and evidence within the literature to understand how receivers, upon exposure to interrupted images in today's social media landscape, perceive brands.

The overall purpose of this study is to further existing empirical knowledge of the concepts of image and reputation, from an organisational perspective, in today's social media landscape. Specifically, the study: 1) develops an understanding of how organisations *perceive* purveyors, interceptors and receivers of interrupted images in the social media context 2) develops an understanding of how organisations *manage* purveyors, interceptors and receivers of interrupted images in the social media context and 3) understands to what extent (if any) negative and positive eWOM from purveyors and interceptors affects brand image and reputation from a receiver perspective in the social media context.

To achieve the objectives of this study, two phases of research are involved.

- **Phase 1** of the research comprised an exploratory qualitative study where 10 representatives, executives and senior managers, from various industries of type and size were interviewed regarding their perceptions of purveyors, interceptors and receivers of their organisation's interrupted or scattered images in social media. In addition, their image and reputation management practices in today's social media environment were explored.
- **Phase 2** will involve a quantitative study where Twitter users in the United States will be provided with a survey and visual representation of positive and negative Twitter posts to examine the extent image interruptions have on their perceptions of the brand's image and reputation. The industry that has been chosen for this phase of research is the airline industry.

For the academic community, this research project furthers existing understanding and knowledge of the theoretical concepts of brand image and reputation and provides empirical data to enhance

theoretical assertions made within the literature. For practitioners, the findings from this project deepens the understanding of purveyors, interceptors and receivers and will specifically help practitioners to understand the perception of receivers when exposed to positive or negative Twitter posts about their brand.

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PROFESSOR WALKS INTO A BAR: USING HUMOR AND Q-SCORE TO DETERMINE INSTRUCTOR AND DEPARTMENT APPEAL

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The students wait impatiently, fidgeting with their smartphones while glancing up to see if the professor is ready to begin class. Based on their insights, this is the section to attend, the professor who won't bore, the course that they'll actually learn something in. "Will this hour feel like the longest of my life?" questions one of the attendees. In fact, many have conducted research prior to attending the performance – a simple Google search provides a wealth of information that determines whether this particular class is full or empty. The role of the professor in the 21st century has moved from all-knowing lecturer to entertainer, with students looking for a show from professors with no formal training in this art. However, there is one trait that can assist professors in delivering quality education in a way that engages students, invites participation, encourages learning, and increases retention of course material – humor.

Humor, defined as "the ability to be funny or to be amused by things that are funny" (Merriam-Webster.com, 2015), is a trait that can be beneficial in the classroom. Prior research has established that humor can increase learning and help students engage in course material (Mills, Robson, and Pitt, 2013), deepen student retention (Kothari and Khade, 1993), and create a more relaxing classroom atmosphere (Garner, 2006). Duverger and Steffes (2011) explore edutainment for millennials and recommend showing a humorous video before class to lighten the mood. In addition, Steffes and Duverger (2012) find that matching a video's content to the day's topic increases retention.

Martin, Puhlik, Larsen, Gray, and Weir (2003) assess the basic nature of humor and identify four sub-types: 1) cognitive ability (e.g., developing and remembering humorous material), 2) aesthetic response (appreciating humor), 3) habitual behavior pattern (being seen as a funny person), and 4) temperament trait (being seen as a happy person). The authors also develop a scale that established four different types of humor: self-enhancing (a person uses humor to make themselves feel better), affiliate (a person using humor to amuse others and be more inclusive), aggressive (a person using humor to make themselves feel better at the expense of another), and self-defeating (a person uses self-deprecating humor to make others feel better).

Given the different types of humor, it is important to consider what is and is not appropriate in a classroom. Kaplan and Pascoe (1977) analyze three types of humor that could be added to a lecture: 1) concept humor, which is humor related to the material in the course; 2) non-concept humor, humor that is unrelated to course material; and 3) mixed humor, which combines elements of course-related and non-course-related humor. An assessment just after and six weeks upon interjection of humor finds that students exposed to concept humor fared better during the test six weeks after the lecture in terms of retention of course material.

Research by Bryant, Comisky, Crane, and Zillmann (1980) establishes a positive relationship between humor in the classroom and positive student evaluations by analyzing open-ended student responses. Terms like "cheerful," "happy," and "good-natured" all contribute to students' views of a professor as being funny. By taping lecturers, tallying the number of humorous activities, and matching student evaluations to the instructor, the authors examine the potential effect humor has in contributing to a positive classroom experience. An interesting finding of the study is that students respond more favorably to spontaneous humor than to scripted humor, indicating that humor in the classroom is more effective than a rehearsed pitch.

Wanzer (2002) shows that humor increases attendance and attention in the classroom, and might affect memory. She proposes that humor can reduce tension and promote a classroom that is inclusive of communication between students and the professor. Further, Tomkovick (2004) suggests bringing humor into the classroom as a means to improve positive

thinking in students, which leads to better performance. Recommendations include using self-deprecating humor, beginning each lecture by making the audience laugh, or playing music to encourage positivity and laughter.

Martin et al.'s research (2003) mentions the possibility of using a Q-score-type measure to determine funniness. The Q-Score, a metric developed by Marketing Evaluations, Inc., is traditionally used to measure celebrity popularity. "Q-Scores are rankings determined by the company that have become the industry standard for measuring familiarity and appeal of performers, characters, sports and sports personalities, broadcast and cable programs as well as company and brand names" (Costanzo and Goodnight, 2006, p. 52). Extremely useful in advertising, Q-Scores assess not only familiarity of a source (e.g., celebrity or brand), but also where that source ranks in terms of being a "favorite."

In the proposed study, we encourage marketing professors to use an evaluative measure similar to the one they often teach about during their advertising and promotion courses—the Q-Score. Considering that a degree in marketing is based on communication, we seek to explore the effectiveness of professors' communication styles relative to students' perceptions of them—as a top professor or not. Students share professor recommendations with their network through word-of-mouth and also provide feedback to sources beyond their network by rating professors on websites such as RateMyProfessor.com and myEdu.com. These websites allow students to view professors' ratings and to identify top choices. While many students acknowledge that these websites are not always reliable, most of these students also acknowledge that their course selections are often influenced by the ratings they read online. Thus, being among the top rated professors can grow enrollment in class sections and program areas.

The academic version of a Q-Score may encompass multiple factors. While the Q-Score for celebrities used in the advertising industry considers the percentage of people who would say the celebrity is a favorite divided by the percentage of people who are familiar with the celebrity, the Q-Score in academia may want to avoid asking students for familiarity and favoritism. Familiarity may also be developed through assumptions based on the number of years a professor has taught at the institution, the number of different course titles taught, the average number of students taught each semester, and the amount of service that professor is involved in. Favoritism could be identified through a qualitative analysis of evaluations from popular websites such as Ratemyprofessor.com and myEdu.com. Ratemyprofessor.com provides annual lists of "top professors," which can be sorted by scores. While these suggested measures would not create a perfect score, it would provide a starting foundation for research in this area.

Once Q-Scores are established, we believe student evaluations can be combined with a Humor Orientation scale to determine how effective professors are based on entertaining the classroom. Booth-Butterfield and Booth-Butterfield's (1991) 17-item humor orientation scale measures the frequency and effectiveness of humor in communication. Use of the Q-Score metric and student awareness of perceived professor humor can assist professors in marketing themselves, the discipline, and the major. Additionally, cognitive effects found in extant humor research provide substantial evidence that integrating humor into the classroom can aid marketing professors in getting their message across and engaging students in their educational experience. Future qualitative analyses can identify how students perceive professors who are funny to examine if being humorous leads to success in the classroom and if students' opinions of instructors result in quality learning in addition to being entertained.

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SPECIAL SESSION TOPIC: HOW CAN SOCIAL MEDIA SERVE HIGHER EDUCATION TO ENGAGE STUDENTS?

Bela Florenthal, William Paterson University
Jaclyn Antonacci, William Paterson University
Jamie Bailey, Keele Management School, UK
Treasa Kearney, University of Liverpool Management School, UK
Chris Maher William Paterson University
Kyung-Hyan (Angie) Yoo, William Paterson University

The recent popularity of social media among Millennials has brought the higher education institutions an unprecedented opportunity to engage with their students while promoting the university's brand and/or developing innovating teaching techniques. A growing number of universities are using social media to interactively communicate with their prospective and current students. Many educators are also integrating the social media technologies into their classrooms to engage students and create collaborative learning environment. Social media serves as promotional and educational tools in the higher education today.

The special session is designed to discuss these emerging trends. The following four presentations will discuss the role of social media in the higher education from teaching and university's promotion perspectives.

The Influence of Social Media on Sense of Belonging in University Students

Jaclyn Antonacci and Kyung-Hyan (Angie) Yoo William Paterson University

As a growing number of higher education institutions are using social media to interact with students, recent research has examined how the use of social media influences students' perceptions and retention. Findings have indicated that creating a sense of belonging to the university community is important for student success in college, however previous studies did not specifically examine whether the students' sense of belonging is increased when they interact with their university on social media. This presentation examines the possible link between students' social media engagement and their sense of belonging to the university community. The practical implications and theoretical contributions will be discussed.

What Motivates College Students to Engage with the University's Social Media?

Chris Maher and Bela Florenthal, William Paterson University

As universities continue to develop and employ social media strategies, a key piece of information is the students' initial motivation behind engaging with social media. Uses and gratification (U&G) theory has been used to identify the needs fulfilled by social media use. A range of needs have been discovered, with each being satisfied to a differing degree depending on the social media platform used and the community dynamic. Utilizing U&G theory, this presentation will identify the motivations behind students engaging with the University's official social media, and determine how strong each motivation is within this specific context.

Social Media as a Facilitator for Consumer Value Co-Creation in the Higher Education Sector

Jamie Bailey, Keele University, UK and Treasa Kearney, University of Liverpool Management School, UK

The aim of this research is to develop and understand how collaborative Social Media Networks (SMNs), for example Flipboard, Pinterest or Storify, may offer opportunities to facilitate co-creation and contribute to value-in-use in the higher education sector. Healey et al. (2014) propose a conceptual framework outlining students as partners in learning and teaching in higher education. This framework indicates that student engagement, through co-learning, co-designing, co-creating and co-developing with other stakeholders, is core to the learning experience and that this 'active learning is key to meaningful student learning' (Healey et al. 2014, p. 36). Exploratory research will be conducted through the use of six longitudinal focus groups with two sets of students using specific constructive SMNs that are student led. The focus groups will involve free flowing peer to peer discussion to gain insight into student's perception of 'value-in-use' and to empirically investigate Healey et al.'s (2014) framework.

The Role of Social Media in Student Engagement and Learning

Kyung-Hyan (Angie) Yoo, William Paterson University

Despite a growing use of social media in higher education, there is a lack of understanding of the impact of social media use on student engagement and learning. Recent studies found mixed results in the effects of social media use in classrooms, which indicates the need for more research in this area. This presentation considers social media as potential educational tools that can encourage collaborative learning when the platforms are implemented with educationally relevant purposes. This presentation will describe a case that integrated social media platforms into classrooms and discuss the findings and implications.

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EMBEDDED SPSS AND AMOS TRICKS

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INTRODUCTION

Which statistical software do you use? The default is often to use whatever statistical software supported by your campus or institution, and the chance is that IBM-SPSS is an available option for many business professors and marketing professionals. If your school offers only a site license for IBM-SPSS but you're not used to it, this SPSS tricks session may not help you overcome the learning curve. However, for those who have used SPSS for basic statistical analysis (e.g., t-test, regression, ANOVA), Session 1 (SPSS Tricks) may enhance your efficiency in using SPSS as we plan to share a few SPSS tricks and we also encourage the participants to share their SPSS tricks. In Session 2, we will discuss some nice-to-know tricks for AMOS, a member of the IBM-SPSS family for the purpose of conducting structural equation modeling. Again, we will open up the special session to a group discussion for questions and a sharing of examples or difficulties encountered while using AMOS or other SEM software packages (e.g., Mplus, R, Stata, or even SmartPLS).

Session one:

SPSS Tricks

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was originally created for social sciences such as psychology and sociology, but its popularity soon expanded to other disciplines such as marketing and the health sciences. In this session, we intend to show some of the newly-added features from the current release, including file-splitting, SPSS output to smart devices, and other additions including creating a covariance matrix (with or without the cumbersome sample size and p-value) using SPSS.

Session two:

AMOS Tricks

IBM-SPSS Amos enables its users to specify and estimate conceptual models that involve not only measured/observed variables but also unobserved/latent variables. One notable advantage for the novice stats users is Amos' user-friendly graphical user interface. We plan to demonstrate how to run a multiple regression (MR) analysis using AMOS and compare the SPSS outcomes with the AMOS outputs. In addition, we plan to show AMOS' easy-to-use bootstrap tool in a second-order factor framework as well as its data imputation function—to create different data sets for subsequent analysis.

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