



Ethical Decisions in Lifestyle Choices

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Program Chair

Alvin Williams
President



SOCIETY FOR MARKETING ADVANCES

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Ethical Decisions in Lifestyle Choices

Jie G. Fowler and Jeri Weiser, Editors

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Dear Members and Friends:

It has been a privilege and an honor serving as the Program Chair for the 2017 Society for Marketing Advances (SMA) Conference in Louisville, KY. SMA is known as being a good avenue to present both research and teaching ideas in a welcoming and friendly environment.

This conference would not happen without the work of the SMA Executive Committee. These members volunteer their time to make sure that the conference runs smoothly. It takes a lot of work and planning to deliver a high quality and memorable conference and I am very thankful for their contribution and dedication to the Society for Marketing Advances. The Executive Committee consisted of:

- Alvin Williams, President
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The conference would also not happen without all of the teaching and research track chairs, session chairs, and reviewers. I appreciate the time and effort each gave to make this conference a success. In addition, a big thanks goes to Chris Hopkins and Kevin Shanahan for leading the Doctoral Consortium; Barry Babin, Joe Hair, and Catharine Curran for leading the pre-conference workshops; Tom Baker for chairing the Steven J. Shaw Best Paper in Conference; Robert McDonald for chairing the Doctoral Dissertation Proposal Competition; and David Ortinau for chairing the Doctoral Student Best Paper Competition. The members of the Board of Governors, chaired by Chuck Ingene, also deserve credit as they focus on the long-term strategic vision of the Society. Lastly, I thank all the generous corporate and educational sponsors who supported the Society and the Conference.

In addition to running this Annual Conference, the Society for Marketing Advances is also dedicated to marketing advances through its two affiliated journals *Marketing Education Review* and the *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*. Under the leadership of their Editors, Jeff Tanner and Greg Marshall, these journals continue to grow in stature and impact. I am also appreciative of the *Journal of Managerial Issues* editor, Eric Harris, for his willingness to allow a special issue of his journal based on the conference theme, Ethical Decisions in Lifestyle Choices. Finally, SMA appreciates the effort by both Maria Kalamas and Chuck Ingene for reviving the Retail and Distribution Symposium and arranging for a special issue with the *Journal of Business Research* related to this symposium.

Thank you for attending the SMA Conference and for making 2017 a productive and enjoyable year. It is only because of your participation that the SMA Conference continues to be successful after 55 years. We hope to see you at the 2018 Conference in West Palm Beach, FL!

Sincerely,

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Michael R. Solomon

MICHAEL R. SOLOMON is Professor of Marketing in the Haub School of Business at Saint Joseph's University in Philadelphia, U.S.A. He has also served as a faculty member at Auburn University (where he was Human Sciences Professor of Consumer Behavior), The University of Manchester, U.K. (where he was Professor of Consumer Behaviour), Rutgers University (where he was Chairman of the Marketing Department), and New York University (where he was also Associate Director of the Institute of Retail Management). He received his Ph.D. in Social Psychology from The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Michael's primary research interests include consumer behavior and lifestyle issues, branding strategy, the symbolic aspects of products, the psychology of fashion, decoration, and image, services marketing, and the development of visually-oriented online research methodologies. He has published numerous articles on these and related topics in academic journals including the *Journal of Consumer Research*, *Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Retailing*, *Journal of Advertising*, *Journal of Advertising Research*, *Journal of Business Research*, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, and others. He was identified as one of the 10 most productive scholars in the advertising literature and one of the 15 most productive scholars in the field of apparel psychology. He has served on the Editorial or Executive Boards of the *Journal of Consumer Research*, *Journal of Retailing*, the *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *Psychology & Marketing*, and *Journal of the Advancement of Marketing Education*. He is active in several professional organizations, and he served on the Board of Governors of the Academy of Marketing Science. In 2015 he received the Innovative Marketer of the Year Award from the Marketing Management Association. In 2017 he received the Tengelmann Award for Excellence in Teaching and Research, Saint Joseph's University's highest academic honor.

Michael has authored numerous textbooks, including *Consumer Behavior: Buying, Having and Being*, which is now in its 12th edition and is the most widely used book on this topic worldwide. His other widely used textbooks cover Principles of Marketing, Introduction to Business, Introduction to Advertising, Consumer Behavior and Fashion, and Social Media Marketing.

Michael advises global clients in leading industries such as apparel and footwear (Calvin Klein, Levi Strauss, Under Armour, Timberland), financial services and e-commerce (eBay, Progressive), CPG (Procter & Gamble, Campbell's), retailing (H&M), sports (Philadelphia Eagles, CrossFit), manufacturing (DuPont, PP&G), technology (Intel) and transportation (BMW, United Airlines) on marketing strategies to make them more consumer-centric. He regularly appears on television shows including *The Today Show*, *Good Morning America* and *CNN* to comment on consumer issues, and he is frequently quoted in major media outlets such as *The New York Times*, *USA Today*, *Adweek* and *Time*.

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Donald R. Lehmann

R. LEHMANN is George E. Warren Professor of Business at Columbia University Graduate School of Business. He has a B.S. degree in mathematics from Union College, Schenectady, New York, and an M.S.I.A. and PhD from the Krannert School of Purdue University.

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Professor Lehmann has served as Executive Director of the Marketing Science Institute and as President of the Association for Consumer Research.

AWARD WINNING PAPERS

BEST PAPER IN CROSS-CULTURAL AND GLOBAL MARKETING TRACK

A Look at the Ethical Predisposition of Future South African Business Leaders Regarding Potential Misbehaviour on Both Sides of the Buyer-Seller Dyad

Sam Fullerton, Eastern Michigan University and North-west University
Christo Bisschoff, North-west University
Ziska Fields, University of KwaZulu-Nata

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Corporate Social Responsibility's Impact on the Employee's Perceived Job Satisfaction and Firm Performance:

The Employee Perspective

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Firm Level Drivers of Salesperson Brand Identification

Lee Allison, Eastern Kentucky University

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Your Doctor Is Skilled, But My Doctor Is Nice.

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FROM THE EDITOR

For more than five decades, marketing professionals from around the world have attended the *Society for Marketing Advances Annual Conference*, held this year in Louisville, KY. I would like to thank the authors, the reviewers, the executive committee members, and the board of governors who contributed to the 2017 SMA conference.

I especially want to thank Charles A. Ingene, the chair of the board of governors, and Alvin J. Williams, the President, who dedicated their time to organize the SMA events. I also thank Diane Edmondson, the President-Elect, who engaged in the review process and organized the conference programs. In addition, I thank all SMA executive members, Pia Albinsson, Rebecca VanMeter, Michael Levin, Cheryl Ward, and Kesha Coker for their dedication to SMA.

As we come to the close of these 2017 SMA Proceedings, I find myself thinking about a scene I recently witnessed. My seven-year-old daughter had somehow come across a Rubik's Cube, the three-dimensional puzzle that had first stirred so many kids a generation or two before. It was all mixed up in her hands, and she would twist and turn it, trying to find the solution. Here and there, she'd have an a-ha moment only to be thwarted by the toy. But she worked and worked at that puzzle until she finally managed to get all the colors together for one side. She was so proud. I asked her about the other sides, and she said, "I just wanted to see the pink side. I'll get to those other colors in a bit."

In a way, we are all very much like her. We are working away at the puzzles set before us, trying to find solutions and work through problems. And when we finally make a breakthrough and solve one little part of the puzzle, we do so knowing that there are more questions and answers out there to be dealt with. But we will get to those all in good time. For now, we bask in the glow of the pink side. We'll get to the other colors in a bit. Thank you again!

Best Regards,

J. G. Fowler

SMA Proceedings Editor

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**SESSION 1.10: CENGAGE PRIDE-FERRELL INNOVATIONS IN
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Chair:

Larry Neale, Queensland University of Technology

Judges:

D. Joel Whalen, DePaul University

Tracy Meyer, University of North Carolina Wilmington

Innovations in Teaching

Experiential Learning with Mock Consultancies

Elizabeth A. Minton, University of Wyoming, USA

Students often complete end of semester summative projects, but many students finish their college careers saying they do not have adequate skills for real marketing practice. Groups also face challenges with cohesive dynamics so that each group members knows what they are contributing to the group and contributions across group members are fair. Thus, a mock consultancy teaching innovation is used to address two key problems: (1) providing real-world experience and (2) enhancing teamwork/group cohesion. Students self-select into groups, with their first task of branding their new mock consultancy. Each mock consultancy is challenged throughout the term with coming up with a set of recommendations to address the client's actual marketing problems, complete with conducting market research, analyzing data, writing up a report of recommendations, and presenting recommendations in an innovative pitch style to the client and board of directors at the end of the semester.

Description of the Innovation

This innovation consists of students setting up mock consultancies and then working with a real client to solve marketing issues. Such experiential learning activities have been found to be important for students to apply foundational skills learned in classes as well as improve satisfaction with the field of marketing (Karns, 2005; Petkus Jr, 2000). For the mock consultancy, students first self-select into consultancy groups and develop branding for their new mock consultancy before interacting with the client throughout the term to identify marketing challenges, conduct market research, analyze data, and present recommendations in a pitch style before the client and other judges at the end of the semester. This teaching innovation is unique in that it gives students hands-on experience with real business challenges as well as gets students involved in all aspects of marketing consulting (e.g., all the way down to branding). Additionally, the competitive environment of the project allows students to experience the real-world challenges and thrills of pitching ideas to clients.

Implementing the Innovation

This mock consultancy project is implemented in junior/senior level marketing courses where students have already obtained the requisite prior knowledge to adequately act as consultants (e.g., have taken courses in marketing research, consumer psychology, etc.). In implementing this project over the last three years, three keys to success for this teaching innovation have been identified: (1) empowering students, (2) individualized contact with students, and (3) individualized time with the client. First, students are empowered by setting up mock consultancies to make the project seem as real as possible, are given the opportunity to actually implement solutions during the course of the term (pending client approval), and are in a competition with other consultancy groups to have their ideas favored at presentation pitch time. Second, three meetings are arranged throughout the term where class is cancelled to have time to meet with each student group individually and discuss idea development as well as review written updates. Third, three client interactions are required throughout the term where students meet individually with the client to further refine their ideas.

After consultancy groups finish final presentation pitches to the client, students complete a self-reflection writing assignment at the end of the semester to discuss what they have learned, what they would do differently, and advice they have for students entering into the consultancy project in the future. This provides an opportunity to see what students have learned as well as adapt the project to make it even more successful in years to come.

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Summary Brief

Growing Technology Expertise through Team Teaching

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Introduction and Motivation

In today's high technology world, remaining current with rapidly changing digital market systems can be challenging for professors. The courses that feature experiential learning of such technological advanced systems are in high demand. When student demand exceeds current teaching capacity, how do you quickly acquire faculty with the new skill set while maintaining high quality instruction and student engagement to meet increased enrollment? This teaching moment provides insight into how one university met the challenge using a mentor teaching relationship that evolved into team teaching. This team teaching innovation provided additional support to all students enrolled in the course who benefited from numerous touchpoints from both faculty resulting in a quantified positive experience. Future utilization of this innovative teaching approach can allow other universities to expand skill sets among its faculty.

A nationally ranked on-line MBA program (US News and World Reports, 2017) experienced high student demand (over 100 students) for a MBA course that utilizes the Google Online Marketing Challenge (GOMC) with real companies to teach search engine optimization (SEO). While a digital marketing knowledgeable adjunct professor was available to teach, the professor had no experience in GOMC. The demand for the class was double the anticipated volume, the university preferred to not limit the number of students taking the class. Additionally, the university wanted to not only meet the students' needs but to also ensure that the quality of the instruction remained high and interactive. To meet these criteria, a mentor approach was devised to take advantage of the adjunct professor's current knowledge while at the same time ramping up GOMC expertise. Within the first four weeks of the sixteen-week semester, the mentor approach evolved into a team teaching approach providing the students broader expertise, deeper subject matter exposure, and with the use of multiple teaching methodologies.

Overview of Innovation

The lead professor in this study had industry, digital marketing experience. Over several years, she developed the MBA Marketing course while enhancing her expertise using the GOMC. The academic challenge presented was how to maintain high quality experiential education for adult learners while developing faculty expertise. This challenge was forefront throughout the course design. Upon finding an adjunct professor to partner with, the lead professor shared the course syllabus and all education materials including lecture notes. The two professors created a two pronged approach to provide students instruction on marketing concepts covered by the text and real-world digital marketing instruction with clients (20 different companies).

Classes with the lead professor were scheduled for mixed teaching of face-to-face and on-line (both synchronous and asynchronous) and held on Tuesday evenings. The second set of classes taught by the adjunct professor were held on-line only and scheduled for a Wednesday evening, recorded class. To ensure continuity of education, the adjunct professor joined in as an on-line observer for each Tuesday evening class to ensure that consistent teaching content and methods were developed. The lead professor presented GOMC concepts and client campaign analysis during her class time. Because the classes were recorded, all students could take advantage of this expertise, while developing the adjunct professor's knowledge. This blending of classes began a process that carried throughout the course.

All sections utilized the same syllabus content with each professor's name and contact information. All assignments and tests were consistent across the two classes. To handle continuity of grading, the assignments were graded by one professor across both classes insuring a balance of work volume between professors. For example, pre-campaign GOMC analysis graded by one professor and the post-campaign graded by the other. The professors read all reports to be knowledgeable of the team's concepts and objectives.

Google suggested that professors have, on average, five teams per class. To exceed ten teams, Google must provide special authorization for the faculty sponsor. The number of student teams involved in this teaching process

was twenty, reaching the maximum for two professors. The number of teams registered were far too many for a single professor to provide quality support and feedback to the students. The GOMC had two disqualification gateways students must navigate prior to getting funded (\$250 AdWords) for a campaign. These restrictions and potential fail points mandated faculty expertise to support the students. The faculty team approach, provided a successful academic structure for the student teams' success. At the same time, it provided a role model of the expectations for students of working in a team environment.

Results and Outcomes

Because the GOMC team taught format is the first for the university, student feedback was solicited. Morris (2016) provided insight of team teaching when two professors distinct skill set was needed and no single professor had the skills, so team teaching was utilized. The student survey by Morris (2016), was used to record student post-course feedback. Key results (based on n=80).

- 63.75% of students agreed/strongly agreed that the team-teaching approach services student needs.
- 45% of students agreed/strongly agreed that two professors for the same class provides twice the value of learning
- 63.75% of students agreed/strongly agreed that they would take another team taught course

Student evaluations for online students increased Team Teaching 4.77 (out of 5) versus single instructor 4.68 (previous semester with 34 students). Team teaching is an instructional strategy that results in several pedagogical and intellectual benefits that assists in the development of critical thinking skills (Gaytan 2010). Additionally, using the team-teaching concept allowed for the development of faculty expertise while fulfilling the goal of a strong student experience. With the development of faculty expertise, more students can now be supported in these real-life learning experiences in the university setting.

Innovative Teacher Comment

Keeping Goliath on His Toes: A Case Discussion Method for Increasing Engagement and Individual Accountability in Large Classes

Lora Mitchell Harding, Belmont University, USA

Introduction

Grading can be burdensome for instructors who teach large classes and, as a consequence, application-based assignments may be eliminated to keep grading manageable. Further, student groups are often employed to minimize grading requirements; however, group work has its own limitations—of particular interest herein, the potential for students to free-ride on the efforts of others. This article presents an innovative solution to these problems: the 4Ps method of case discussion. This four-phase method is designed to hold students in large classes accountable for case preparation while maintaining a high level of engagement during case discussions. Further, the 4Ps method helps students develop their business writing and presentation skills while minimizing grading requirements for the instructor. Results from implementation in a marketing communications course are presented.

The 4Ps Method of Case Discussion

The 4Ps method consists of four phases: prep, ponder, pivot, and present. In the prep phase, students individually prepare for case discussion by reading the case and submitting answers to two case preparation questions before class begins. Responses to each question are restricted to 100-130 words, which both helps students hone their business writing skills while also keeping grading manageable. Most importantly, this individually-graded deliverable increases the likelihood that students will come to class prepared to fully engage in the case discussion.

The remaining phases of the 4Ps method take place in class. When students arrive to class on a case discussion day, they discuss their collective impression of the case with their team members (nine teams assigned). This period at the beginning of class is the ponder phase. Once students have had time to ponder the case, the broader case discussion begins. This discussion is organized around three central questions posed by the instructor. As each question is introduced, teams are given time to formulate a response. It is during this pivot phase that teams have the opportunity adjust their thinking based on new information and insights gleaned from the previous discussions. Once teams have had an opportunity to discuss each central question, a representative from each of three teams is randomly selected to present, resulting in all nine teams presenting at some point during the class. It is during this presentation phase that teams are assessed on the quality of their team representative's response. Because of the random nature of team and team representative selection, all students are kept "on their toes" for the duration of the class period.

Effectiveness of the 4Ps Method

To gauge the effectiveness of the 4Ps method, students' pre- and post-case responses to seven questions about the broader topic of each particular case were compared. Whereas the first three questions gauged students' perceived comfort level with the material, the remaining four questions gauged students' mastery of the material (i.e., four multiple choice questions with correct/incorrect answers). All students who completed assessments for at least two of the three cases were included in the analysis ($n = 31$). As expected, one-way repeated measures ANOVAs on both perceived and actual learning revealed a main effect of time, such that students felt more comfortable with and exhibited greater mastery of the material after (vs. before) the case discussion ($M_{\text{perceived learning}} = 5.93$ vs. 5.34 ; $F(1, 30) = 24.73$, $p < .001$; $M_{\text{actual learning}} = 57.08$ vs. 51.75 ; $F(1, 30) = 3.47$, $p = .07$). Thus, not only does the 4Ps method facilitate stimulating case-based discussions which enable students to apply course concepts, it also improves perceived and actual learning outcomes while keeping grading manageable.

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Summary Brief

What's Your Flavor? Using a Product Line Extension to Reinforce Principles of Marketing Concepts

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Overview of the Situation

The Principles of Marketing course can be overwhelming to students because it encompasses a wide array of concepts. Upon completion of the course, students may be able to recite definitions of the concepts without really understanding how the concepts work together. A project in which students extend a company's existing product line may help students appreciate how the various marketing concepts form the basis for an organization's marketing strategy.

The 'a-ha' moment for this innovation came when it was discovered that students did not have an appreciation of how the marketing concepts learned before the midterm exam related to the later course concepts. This project is innovative in that it is a 'mini' marketing plan that connects and reinforces concepts learned throughout the semester. In addition, the selected product lines are familiar to students and thinking of a new flavor comes naturally to them.

Description and Implementation of the Innovation

The New Flavor project is an individual assignment administered in the Principles of Marketing course. It requires students to add a new flavor to a company's existing product line. The company and corresponding product line are designated by the instructor. The new flavor will appeal to a target market identified by the student. Students will then answer a series of questions and/or make decisions related to the target market, product, price, place (distribution) and promotion.

Successful implementation of the innovation begins with the selection of the product line. First, the product line should contain products that clearly fall into either the convenience or specialty product category. This allows for a consistency with regard to the marketing mix decisions. For example, a convenience product would be intensively distributed, purchased by consumers exhibiting routine response behavior and have a relatively low price. Demand for this product would likely be elastic and a penetration pricing strategy would appeal to these consumers during the introduction of the new flavor. Examples include product lines such as Twizzlers Twists, Starburst Fruit Chews and Lays Classic Potato chips.

Conversely, a specialty product would most likely be selectively distributed in the case of many food products. For a new flavor of a food product, consumers would likely exhibit limited decision making. The price for this product would be high relative to the product category. Since these are products for which consumers are unwilling to accept substitutes, demand will likely be inelastic and price skimming would be the appropriate strategy to appeal to these consumers during the introduction of the new flavor. Examples include Fest Cola (a New Orleans craft soda product line), Theo chocolate bars (bean-to-bar Fair Trade chocolate sold in retailers such as Whole Foods) and Blue Bell ice cream (a premium ice cream distributed throughout the southern states).

Second, the company website should visibly display the products in the product line. Students should be able to see the current product line and product descriptions. This allows the student to envision how his or her product is an extension of the company's existing product line. As the design of corporate websites changes quite frequently, it is important to inspect the website in the weeks before assigning the project. If students cannot visually see the product line, it is better to select a different company and product line.

Finally, students should be able to relate to the product line. Since students enjoy eating, utilizing food products has been very successful. Even if they are not familiar with the selected company and its products, they are usually familiar with the product category. While many of my students have not eaten fair trade bean-to-bar chocolate, they enjoy chocolate and can think of an endless variety of flavors they would like to taste. I encourage students to create a new flavor for someone like themselves.

Innovations in Teaching Comment

DigitalU – Bridging Multichannel Marketing and ROI

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Marketing has always been a data driven domain but students often fail to truly understand the nature of data in decision making. While professors and industry experts scream ROI from the rooftops most programs do not include applied projects on calculating ROI outside of case studies and simulated data. Students often do not understand the tracking of costs and impact across campaigns and instead focus on getting requirements and rubrics from the instructor and try to check boxes in pursuit of a grade. To truly engage students and drive home the concept of data and ROI in marketing, a project must resonate with the students, be of use to them, and include the option to use both their creativity as well as skills in an applied and ‘real’ setting.

Introduction

I created this assignment out of a need to engage students in a capstone class and bring together skills learned throughout their four years and showcase it using web analytics. The DigitalU project was designed to enable students to showcase their portfolio of work and apply their creativity to marketing themselves online over multiple channels and then calculate the ROI of their efforts to evaluate their campaign using analytics. Students finish this project with a website and a clear writing sample that showcases their skills as a digital marketer.

The Project

The students develop a website (a simpler alternative would be to post to a common website administered by the instructor) with content that features their own areas of expertise along with their resume, portfolio of work and a professional picture. They promote this website (or post) over multiple channels (minimum of five for the assignment – email, mass mail, Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, offline marketing, QR or similar codes, search, Text, Instagram etc.) to achieve the most number of visits over a four-week period. By using Google Analytics (instruction covers link/URL tagging with Google URL tagger, event tracking coding, and Google Analytics training) to measure their success in driving traffic, micro conversions (visits/views, time spent) macro conversions (resume downloads, visits to professional portfolios, LinkedIn, social media) and calculate ROI (by each of the five channels) of their efforts using a spreadsheet for the campaign taking into account, reach, frequency and cost (salary for themselves, cost of tools, websites, software etc.). In other words, this project brings together their four years of training as a digital marketer into a highly relevant project that makes them career ready. A sample ROI template is provided to the student.

Implementation

Students are given the instructions for the project and shown a successful example (usually the instructors own sample post) and then given the requirements and templates for ROI calculation. DIGITALU is designed for capstone classes but can be used anywhere in the program in classes such as new media marketing, social media marketing, internet marketing or search marketing. The key points of learning include the ability to have a toolbox of skills combined with the ability to truly calculate the ROI of every medium/channel using digital analytics. The cost for implementing this assignment is non-existent (if instructor administered) unless the student creates their own website (.com website domain cost + hosting approximately \$12 for the first year).

ROI Template

<http://www.rajmurthy.com/files/sma2017/DigitalUROITemplate.xls>

7 Steps to Implement

- a) Writing the content (a professional hire-me post)
- b) Writing the title (search optimized title with name of students and a tag line)
- c) Building an about me page with a resume (PDF) and links to portfolio of work and LinkedIn
- d) Tagging the post URL (use Google URL tagger to make campaign URLs)
- e) Testing Analytics (before running campaigns test and make sure everything reports)
- f) Run campaigns (email, mass mail, Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, Groups, Messaging, QR codes etc.)

g) Measure ROI and report using template

Benefits

Concepts such as segmentation, message framing and multichannel marketing that students sometimes gloss over become interesting as students see their own data flow into analytics. The project resonates with the student as they essentially promote themselves and 'compete' with their classmates by using their extended social networks. Students finish the project with a website and a great writing sample that becomes a good talking point for interviews. Further, the exercise cements the concept of consumer engagement and the relationship between micro-conversions and macro-conversions and reinforces the need for multichannel marketing as well as multichannel ROI measurement.

SESSION 1.1: SOCIAL INTERACTIONS AND SOCIAL MEDIA

Chair:
Alisha Blakeney Horky, Elon University

Summary Brief

Brand-Consumer Interactions and Platform Use

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Julian K. Saint Clair, College of Business Administration, Loyola Marymount University, USA

Andrew J. Rohm, College of Business Administration, Loyola Marymount University, USA

The pervasiveness of digital connectivity offers managers myriad communication platforms to engage consumers. Using a two-month diary study from a sample of Millennials, a latent class analysis reveals that while about half of the interactions are active C2B (consumer-to-brand) and C2C (consumer-to-consumer) interactions on social media, almost a quarter of the interactions are face-to-face C2B, C2C and B2C (business-to-consumer) interactions. Findings highlight the importance of multichannel engagement strategies that employ both new media and traditional communication platforms.

Introduction

Concurrent with the widespread popularity of the Internet and social media, consumers use multiple platforms for brand interactions (Singh, 2013). Given the myriad interaction platforms available to consumers and brands, managers seeking new approaches to channel and messaging strategies would benefit from a clearer insight into customers' choice of interaction platform (Gensler et al., 2013; Labrecque, 2014; Rapp et al., 2013; Rohm et al., 2013). Our research examines whether consumers are more likely to choose certain platforms for certain types of brand interactions.

We identify three primary factors that describe brand interactions: 1) the proactive, reactive, or passive nature of the interaction, 2) the direction of communication (C2C, C2B, B2C), and 3) the valence of the interaction (positive or negative). In a diary study, we examine the extent to which consumers engage in these various types of interactions across communication platforms: face-to-face, phone, email, company website, Facebook and Twitter.

We use latent class analysis to identify types of interactions using the above factors. Results reveal seven classes of interactions. Surprisingly, we find that while social media is generally dominant, face-to-face interactions are the next most common type. This insight helps guide brand managers' multichannel engagement strategies.

Empirical Evidence

One hundred and thirty-three undergraduate students, 56% female, recorded their interactions with one brand of their choice in a consumer diary over a period of two months. Participants selected a wide variety of different brands: retailers (42%; such as Nordstrom, Forever 21, Costco), sporting and lifestyle brands (16%; such as Nike, Adidas, Lululemon, REI), media brands (10%; such as Facebook, Variety), electronics (8%; such as Apple, HTC), fast-moving consumer goods (7%; such as Coca-Cola, Hershey's), online services/entertainment (6%; such as Netflix, Spotify), restaurants/grocery stores (5%; such as Ralphs, Trader Joe's, Whole Foods) and luxury/fashion brands (4%; such as Lacoste, Ralph Lauren, Ducati). Participants described each interaction in their own words and indicated the platform(s) used; more than one platform could be selected.

Participants recorded 1,716 brand interactions. Two coders from diverse backgrounds adopted the procedure described by Kaltcheva and Weitz (2006) to establish a common categorization scheme (see Table 1) and independently code all responses. The most frequently listed interactions were: Proactive to Brand – Positive (62%), Passive – Positive (32%), Proactive for Brand – Positive (25%), Reactive to Brand – Positive (13%), Reactive by Brand – Positive (9%), Proactive to Brand – Negative (8%), Passive – Negative (7%), Reactive by Brand – Negative (2%), Proactive for Brand – Negative (2%), and Reactive to Brand – Negative (1%). Platform use was as follows: Facebook (30%), face-to-face (27%), email (19%), brand website (18%), Twitter (15%) and phone (6%).

Table 1: Interaction Descriptions

Content Category	Customer...
<i>Proactive to Brand – Positive</i>	Seeks out brand and interaction is satisfying
<i>Proactive to Brand – Negative</i>	Seeks out brand and interaction is dissatisfying
<i>Proactive for Brand – Positive</i>	Actively promotes/recommends brand or talks positively about it
<i>Proactive for Brand – Negative</i>	Actively dissuades people from purchasing brand or talks negatively about it
<i>Passive – Positive</i>	Receives communication from brand, likes it; takes no action
<i>Passive – Negative</i>	Receives communication from brand, doesn't like it; takes no action
<i>Reactive to Brand – Positive</i>	Responds to brand (e.g., clicks an email link); positive experience
<i>Reactive to Brand – Negative</i>	Responds to brand (e.g., clicks an email link); negative experience
<i>Reactive by Brand – Positive</i>	Brand reacts to customer positively (e.g., accommodates a request)
<i>Reactive by Brand - Negative</i>	Brand reacts to customer negatively (e.g., doesn't answer an inquiry)

We performed latent class analysis (LCA) to identify classes of interactions based on platform use, nature and direction of the communication, and valence (Collins and Lanza, 2010). We evaluated, in Mplus 7, an LCA model for complex data, which accounts for interdependence among brand interactions from a given respondent (Muthen and Muthen, 2010). The entropy (accuracy) statistic (Collins and Lanza, 2010) and fit criteria (BIC, sample size adjusted BIC and AIC) were optimized for the seven-class model described below. Results reveal that while 51% of the interactions involve C2B and C2C social media use (Classes 1, 3, 6), 22% involve face-to-face engagement in C2B, C2C, and B2C contexts (Class 2).

- (1) “Influencer” (24%) – Facebook + Phone: C2C (Proactive for Brand/Positive and Negative).
- (2) “Face Time” (22%) – Face to Face: C2B (Proactive to Brand/Positive), C2C (Proactive for Brand/Positive), B2C (Reactive by Brand/Positive).
- (3) “Engaged Follower” (19%) – Facebook + Twitter: C2B (Proactive to Brand/Positive), B2C (Passive/Positive).
- (4) “Web-Centric” (12%) – Website: C2B (Proactive to Brand/Positive).
- (5) “Email Opt-In” (9%) – Email: B2C (Passive/Positive). Consumers rarely respond (Compare to Class 7).
- (6) “Troll” (8%) - Facebook + Twitter: C2B (Reactive to Brand/Negative) (Compare to Class 3).
- (7) “Bipolar Email” (6%) – Email: C2B (Reactive to Brand/Positive and Negative), B2C (Passive/Negative).

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Presentation

Fexit: Exploring the Impetus and Effects of Consumers Exiting Facebook

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Facebook continues to be the most widely used social media site, with 1.2 billion daily users as of March 2017, which is more than any other social media platform, including Twitter, Snapchat, and WeChat (Moreau, 2017). While Facebook is continuing to grow, some users are abandoning the platform, and still others are changing the way that they use the social media site. In order to better understand the effect that leaving Facebook has on consumer-to-consumer and consumer-to-firm relationships, we undertake a qualitative study to discover underlying themes regarding motives and effects of leaving Facebook. A quantitative study is then proposed expanding on the qualitative study.

Introduction

Facebook users are increasingly sharing created content and news items on Facebook while posting less personal information. One study found that individual posts by users declined by 21% between 2015 and 2016 (Griffith, 2016). Users are not only changing the way they share on Facebook; some users are abandoning the platform altogether. At the end of 2016, NPR asked to hear from former Facebook users who had left Facebook after the 2016 Presidential election. They received over 150 responses from users who described feeling exhausted by the news, overwhelmed by negativity from friends on both sides of the political spectrum, and a desire to be more connected to the non-virtual world (Selyukh, 2016). However, individuals were leaving Facebook long before the 2016 election cycle. Two studies in 2013 focused on this topic, and found that the primary reason for individuals to leave Facebook is privacy concerns (Steiger, Burger, Bohn, & Voracek, 2013).

Facebook is still a very popular social media site, allowing users to interact with one another, with brands, and with other entities. However, marketing literature has yet to explore how Facebook leaving behaviors impact relationships between users and brands. Many brands rely on social media marketing and electronic word-of-mouth, but how are those strategies impacted when users disconnect from the world's most popular social network? The purpose of this research is to explore the reasons that Facebook users stop using the social media site and to understand how leaving Facebook impacts users' relationships with individuals and brands.

Literature Review

Word of mouth – user to user

In addition to the value of social media campaigns and having a brand presence on social media, social networks are of value to firms due to their ability to facilitate electronic word of mouth. Social influence may manifest in social media, where Facebook brand community members may share positive word of mouth with other current and potential customers of the firm (Munnukka, Karjaluoto, & Tikkanen, 2015).

Facebook users can also be useful in helping to create the brand's image. By participating in social media exchanges with a brand and other social media users, consumers co-create brand stories (Singh & Sonnenburg, 2012). Moreover, Facebook users can be useful to a brand by sharing advertisements or other brand promotions with their social network via social media, helping these promotional items become viral (Hayes, King & Ramirez, 2016).

Social media marketing

Liking a brand on Facebook is shown to influence brand attitudes, feelings of connectedness to the brand, and purchase intentions for both product and service-based brands (Pelletier and Horky, 2015), and can lead to positive changes in brand evaluation (Beukeboom, Kerkhof, & Vries, 2015). Consumers consider themselves knowledgeable about the brands that they like on Facebook, regardless of the focus of the brand.

Method

Because there are few studies that explore why consumers choose to exit Facebook, we first undertake a qualitative study to discover underlying themes regarding motives and effects of leaving Facebook. We developed an open-ended questionnaire, which was distributed to 311 student respondents. In order to ensure that the respondents were appropriate for the survey, they were first presented with two dichotomous questions asking if they were now or ever had been active Facebook users. Next, respondents were asked multiple-choice questions concerning their current daily Facebook usage activity followed by their Facebook usage when they first became Facebook users.

Respondents were then asked whether they had ever left Facebook for a period of time. If a respondent answered that they had indeed left Facebook, he or she was asked a series of qualitative questions about why they left the site, how leaving affected their relationship with brands they followed and their friend and family connections on Facebook, if they ever returned to Facebook, and what factors led to them either returning to Facebook and staying off the social media platform. The data collected from the survey is then analyzed, coded, and reported. Overall, it is our hope that this research will add to existing social media and brand relationship knowledge and examine the effects that consumers leaving Facebook has on consumer-to-consumer and brand-to-consumer relationships.

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SESSION 1.2: SALESPERSON CREATIVITY AND INFORMATION

Chair:

David Houghton, Xavier University

Presentation

Planning or Learning? A Comparison of Strategy Creation Approaches at the Level of the Individual Salesperson

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Joe F. Hair, University of South Alabama, USA

Individual salesperson performance has been of great interest to both academics and sales managers with numerous studies conducted in an effort to understand which factors best predict sales success. The meta-analysis by Verbeke, Dietz, and Verwaal (2011) highlighted the important role of “selling-related knowledge,” a category that includes the selection of customer-specific strategies. Our study is focused on this domain and seeks to increase the understanding of which approach to the development of those strategies is likely to be most effective in producing individual sales results.

In both the firm-level and individual salesperson-level literature, having a strategy has been positively related to financial success. The literature is more equivocal regarding the best approach to creating that strategy—should strategy be planned in advance or should it emerge through a trial and error process of learning? The “learning/planning debate” famously played out in the strategy literature by the leading adherents of the opposing approaches -- scholars Igor Ansoff and Henry Mintzberg. Ansoff (1965) favored a rational planning approach and Mintzberg (1978) promoted a “learning” or “emergent” approach in which a firm’s strategy becomes apparent *ex post facto*, following a series of management decisions.

The reasons that planning as a means of strategy creation has been found to be related to firm level performance are posited to also apply at the level of the individual salesperson: 1) time savings as compared to trial and error, 2) facilitating initiation of strategic response in advance of the need, and 3) reduction in strategic errors (Ansoff 1991). This process of theory borrowing is advocated by strategy scholars (e.g., Whetten 2009) and its application in the area of sales performance is one of the contributions of this study.

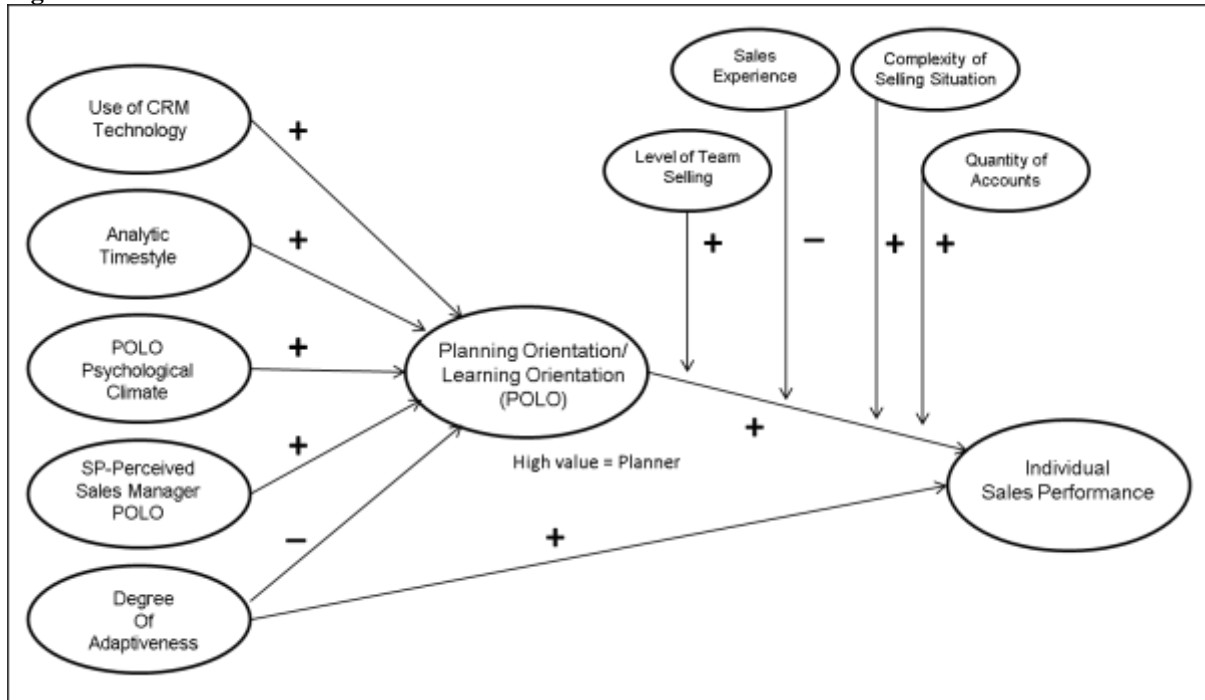
The theoretical model (see Figure 1 below) for this research posits that salespeople will be more oriented toward one or the other approach. We propose a new construct, POLO (Planning Orientation/Learning Orientation), along with antecedents to the construct and variables that moderate the relationship between POLO and sales performance. CRM use is proposed as a predictor of a planning orientation not only because it enables planning (Salojärvi and Sainio 2015; Hunter and Perreault 2006) but also because it could serve as a signal to the salesperson that planning (one of the functions of CRM technology) is important to company management. An analytic timestyle is expected to promote planning as is a climate that is oriented toward planning (in the model, a psychological climate for POLO). The fourth antecedent is the level of planning orientation of the sales manager, the individual who most directly affects the salesperson’s success on the job (Evans, et al. 2002). The final antecedent is the level of adaptiveness of the salesperson, which is proposed as being negatively related to planning, being more likely to be associated with the emergent (learning) approach to strategy creation.

This research has potential to contribute to sales scholarship by providing an additional predictor of individual sales performance, considering which approach to strategy creation likely is most impactful on sales success. Further, it applies knowledge from the firm level strategy literature at the level of the individual, a practice encouraged as a way to improve the quality of theory-based organizational scholarship (Whetten 2009). Finally, the POLO construct utilized in the study could have useful applications beyond the current research by relating the salesperson’s orientation toward a particular planning approach to other sales constructs of interest, such as job satisfaction, job involvement, emotional intelligence, customer orientation, and sales force compensation approaches.

For practitioners, a better understanding about how to approach optimizing strategy creation can instruct the sales process by advocating one or the other approach depending on conditions. This insight can also lead to better choices for the focus of sales training. As a final benefit, the determination of the antecedents to a planning or learning

orientation holds potential to provide an important input to the hiring process by helping sales recruiters understand which characteristics lead to the most effective strategy creation orientation and ultimately to improved sales results.

Figure 1: Theoretical Model



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**SESSION 1.3: CHALLENGES IN PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING AND
ONLINE-ONLY ENVIRONMENTS**

Chair:
Judi Billups, Salisbury University

Presentation

Conducting Marketing Education in Online-only Environments: Process and Practice

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This paper describes a pedagogical approach to conducting marketing education in online-only environments using an organized, interactive, and engaging course design. The approach described resulted in high course averages and success rates for the students while making the course administration more manageable for the instructor.

Introduction

According to a study reported by US News & World Report, it is not just older, non-traditional students seeking online courses. The report conducted by Aslanian Market Research and the Learning House found that online undergraduate programs were growing in popularity with those under 25 and that business administration was the most popular discipline (Haynie 2015). However, with a lack of online course standards in many institutions, not all online courses are created equal. In addition, many students do not know what is expected of them in online courses or how to navigate the courses through the semester. This often results in frustration for both the student and instructor. Although previous studies have addressed the popularity and success of online education, there has been limited research on the methods and strategies that provide the most effective course instruction in an online-only setting specifically for marketing subjects. This study extends the existing literature by proposing a systematic process for creating online marketing courses and providing descriptions of effective teaching methods.

Literature Review

Much research has been conducted and strong evidence has been found to support the theory that online learning is just as effective as traditional formats. In fact, “about 92% of all distance and online education studies find that distance and online education is at least as effective, if not better, than traditional education” (Nguyen 2015). One such study compared four courses, two online-only and two traditional, in order to determine if there was a significant difference in success rate between the two formats. The study found no significant differences in withdrawal rates and failure rates between the two modes of course delivery. In fact, the student’s cumulative GPA was the major success rate prediction factor in either course format. Further, the study recommended frequent efforts by online instructors to engage students to ensure continued success, especially for those students with lower GPAs (Allen and Wilson 2011). Now knowing that online education can be as equally effective as traditional formats and that instructor engagement is critical, the question becomes how to design an effective online marketing course.

Marketing Course Structuring Process

The Principles of Marketing course described in this paper was offered online-only during the 2016-2017 academic year. The components were outlined using the Quality Matters™ Higher Education Rubric, Fifth Edition, 2014. Quality Matters (QM) is a national program consisting of a set of standards described in a rubric to evaluate the design of online courses (QM 2017). The course used an electronic textbook and all assignments and tests were submitted online. The course was delivered through a Sakai-based online learning system. Simple instructions were posted on the course home page to give the student a starting point, and a welcome video of the instructor covering the course syllabus so the student would know what is expected of them over the semester.

The weekly lessons opened on the same day each week under the Lessons section and consisted of the following pages for the student to progress through: Objectives, Checklist, Readings, Tests and Quizzes, PowerPoint Slides, Lecture, and Assignments. The students had one week to finish each week’s lesson module. Objectives listed the learning objectives from the course syllabus that would be covered that week. Each objective followed a numbering system used in the syllabus for cross-reference. The checklist consisted of a list of items with deadlines that were to be completed that week such as readings, lecture videos, assignments, quizzes, and exams. The list was also emailed and posted in the Announcements section at the beginning of each week. Every assignment due date and test date was entered into the learning system calendar and a list of the upcoming dates was highlighted in the student’s home screen to help students stay on-track. The readings consisted of a list of required textbook chapter readings to be completed that week, as well as supplemental readings referenced in the lectures when appropriate.

On weeks with no quizzes or exams, the Tests and Quizzes directed students to use the ebook practice quizzes and listed the matching course learning objectives. On weeks with quizzes or exams, this page listed the date and time the exam would be open. Each exam was open for twenty-four hours on the exam date and students were given one hour to complete the exam once they started. The PowerPoint Slides page provided a link to download the student version of the PowerPoints for the chapters covered that week. These slides included blanks in the content for the student to fill-in while watching the lecture videos to facilitate active learning. The Lectures page included embedded lecture videos for the chapters covered that week. Each week consisted of a set of about four videos, each ten to fifteen minutes in length. The videos included the instructor's image in a thumbnail on the side of the screen with the PowerPoint slides stretched out across the screen. This provided a personal contact with the instructor while allowing a clear view of the materials presented. The assignments page included a list of assignments for the week, complete with instructions and deadlines. The students were assigned a forum posting each week in the form of a "tweet". Called the "Tweet of the Week", the student was directed to post a tweet summarizing the most interesting thing they learned that week or something they had a question about. This allowed the instructor to read timely feedback from the students about what they were learning and to communicate directly with each student.

In addition to the Tweet of the Week, the course assignments included a LearnSmart™ assignment provided by the publisher for each of the sixteen chapters. Credit was given for the completion of the assignment by the due date, so incorrect answers were not counted. Final grades were calculated by dividing the number of points earned by the number of possible points. A "Brownie Point" was added to each final average. The "Brownie Point" was announced at the beginning of the semester as a point that could be revoked for failure to take an exam or complete an assignment on time. This provided a motivation for the student to keep on schedule in the course.

Conclusions and Discussion

Student success was high in the online course. The course average was 85%, when averaging the Fall and Spring semesters together. Adding the Tweet of the Week assignment in the Spring semester raised the average three percent from 83.57% to 86.62%. The extra points helped their average by lessening the impact of high-stakes exams, as recommended by Quality Matters, and held them accountable to log-in and watch the videos each week to stay on-track. Providing students with an interactive and engaging course can lead to high levels of student satisfaction and high teacher evaluations. Programs like Quality Matters can provide a starting point for a clear, organized course design. Communication between the instructor and student is also a key factor in online marketing courses. The instructor had a policy of returning email messages received during the week within 24 hours. This provided the students with a good example of prompt replies and the opportunity to practice effective written communication. Future papers on this topic will feature quantitative data comparing outcomes between different delivery formats as well as identifying specific course tools that are the most effective.

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Summary Brief

What are Marketing and Exchange?: An Active Learning Approach

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Often the beginning of a semester is a stressful time for both professors and students. Everyone is getting to know what another, classroom expectations are being established, and first impressions are being cemented into lasting attitudes. Active learning through games can help alleviate the pressure and give students a positive experience, which can then turn into a lasting positive feeling about the class overall. One such game is described and is useful for introducing the concepts of marketing and exchange.

Introduction

The first or second session for any class can be stressful for both the students and the instructor. Usually the instructor spends time during the first class doing introductions and going over the syllabus, only to have several students add or drop the class before the next meeting. Students are not usually left with a lasting impression of what the class is about or the basic concepts to be learned in the class. Instead of spending that time going over information that will inevitably need to be repeated, why not engage the students in an activity to introduce them to marketing and its basis in exchange? Student enthusiasm, participation, and class interaction expectations are set at the very beginning of the semester and are enhanced through dynamic activity (Vander Schee, 2007). Active learning, especially during the beginning of the semester, can encourage students to not only read the material in the textbook and hear the material through lectures, but also experience the concepts through physical game play. This, in turn, can create enthusiasm for further learning as the semester progresses (Vander Schee, 2011).

Active learning

Active learning occurs when the class experience is focused on engaging the students with course content through physical activities, such as role-playing games (Vander Schee, 2011). Active learning happens when games take place in a pleasant and engaging classroom experience, which can increase both student perceptions of the class and actual classroom performance (Drea, Tripp, and Stuenkel, 2005). A major increase in concept understanding can take place with as little as five minutes of active learning during a typical fifty minute class session (Felder and Brent, 2003). Students become participants in the learning process, not just passive recipients of knowledge, which can be beneficial in developing problem-solving skills, encouraging critical thinking, and improving attitudes towards the course (Drea, Tripp, and Stuenkel, 2005). The purpose of active learning is creating motivated learners, students who are engaged, focused, and enthusiastic, and when a student becomes a motivated learner, he or she tries hard and persists in attaining knowledge over time, driven by his or her own determination. An activity is intrinsically motivating when it is challenging and creates curiosity (Garris, Ahlers, and Driskell, 2002).

Class activity

In classes such as Principles of Marketing, the concept of exchange and the definition of marketing are introduced early in the semester, usually in the first chapter of the textbook. Hunt, Mello, and Deitz (2018) define marketing as “an organizational function and set of processes for creating, communicating, and delivering value to customers” (p. 4). One of the anticipated outcomes of marketing is exchange, where people trade something of value for something more desired (Lamb, Hair, and McDaniel, 2014). The activity described below is designed to allow students to engage in active learning at the very beginning of the semester to encourage understanding of the marketing definition and the exchange concept. Students in classes at a large mid-southern university and at a small, private east coast college have engaged in this activity with similar positive feedback.

Before class, the instructor needs to procure enough trinkets for half of the class and create marketing bucks for the other half of the class. The trinkets become the products to be sold and the marketing bucks become the currency. The products should be various inexpensive items picked up from the convenience or dollar store and should be worth varying amounts, such as cans of soda, packs of gum, gel pens, and small bags of chips. For example, in a class of 30 students, fifteen would be given products (possibly blindly picked from a bag) and fifteen would be given marketing

bucks, three given something worth three marketing bucks, five given something worth two marketing bucks, and seven given something worth one marketing buck.

The class is then told that the room is a marketplace. Buyers and sellers should interact and see what happens. Students should not be told that they have to buy or sell, but also should not specifically be told that they do not have to buy or sell unless they otherwise directly ask. Students should also be encouraged to exchange names, especially if the activity is taking place during the first or second class periods. The class is given approximately ten minutes to conduct business. At the end of the ten minute period, students are asked to return to their seats with either the product or the marketing bucks. Discussion of the activity then begins. The instructor can ask a series of questions such as the following: How was value created, communicated, and delivered?; Who started with marketing bucks and now has a product? Who started with a product and now has marketing bucks? Do you feel like you made a good trade?; Who started with marketing bucks and still has marketing bucks?; Who started with a product and still has a product? Is it the same product with which you started?; Did anyone make more than one trade?; Did any students combine marketing bucks or products to conduct a trade?. Students should always be encouraged to discuss how their end situation occurred. If the learning objective centers on the conditions for exchange, the conditions can be discussed and whether each one was or was not present. Also, the instructor can reinforce the idea that even if all the conditions are present exchange may not occur, but marketing does occur.

After the initial discussion, students are told that those who have products may keep them. Students who have marketing bucks should write their names on the back and pass them forward. Those students will receive extra credit according to the amount on the marketing bucks. Now the value of the products and the currency have changed. Students are asked further questions such as, “If you knew originally the true value of what you had, would you have conducted your transactions differently?” Students are encouraged to give real world examples.

In conclusion, active learning can be an extremely effective way to begin the semester-long learning process, especially if it is specifically tied to an important learning objective. Playing this game on the first day of class is also an excellent way for students to get to know each other and the professor, which promotes course satisfaction. Students may use these interactions to build connections which can be useful in forming groups for in-class and out-of-class assignments (Vander Schee, 2007). Students may become more excited about the course and involved with the course material (Vander Schee, 2007). In short, the marketplace activity is an excellent way to begin the semester in an appealing way, which can lead to a more engaging semester for both the students and the instructor.

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SESSION 1.4: DOLLARS AND CENTS: PERSPECTIVES ON CONSUMER SPENDING

Chair:

William C. Martin, Eastern Washington University

Summary Brief

Adoption of Mobile Shopping in Emerging Markets: A Case Study in Colombia

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The primary objectives of this study analyzed what drives online shopping via mobile phone in Colombia based on the unified technology acceptance model. An online survey with 768 mobile shoppers indicates that performance expectancy, effort expectancy and facilitating conditions have a direct and positive effect on the behavioral intention to shop by cell phone. In addition, the behavioral intention has a direct and positive impact on the purchase behavior. This article concludes with academic and managerial implications.

Introduction

Thanks to the improvement of mobile technology, consumers can use their devices for more than just sampling making phone calls. Of interest, is the use of mobile devices for mobile commerce (m-commerce) and mobile shopping (m-shopping) (Fritz, Sohn, and Seegebarth, 2017). The purpose of the study is to investigate what factors influence the intention and behavior to shop online using a mobile phone in Colombia. Based on the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, and Davis, 2003; Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu, 2012).

Conceptual Background and Hypothesis

According to Wong, Lee, Yong, Bobby, Beng and Han (2012), mobile shopping was defined as "any monetary transaction related to purchases of goods or services through the internet-enabled cell phones or over the wireless telecommunication network."

The theoretical framework for this study emerged from Venkatesh et al. (2003) who developed the UTAUT model base on previous theories that contemplated the effects of the use of technology and behavioral intentions to perform and execute a given task. This model proposes four core constructs which can influence the behavioral intentions to use technology. Behavioral Intention (BI) is the predictive variable, which strongly predicts an individual's behavior to perform a given task. In the case of this study, the behavioral task is shopping by using a mobile phone. The BI is influenced by four constructs. The constructs of the UTAUT model are explained below.

First, construct Performance Expectancy (PE), defined by Venkatesh et al. (2003) as the level in which a person assumes that by adopting and using a new technology, he/she will obtain a better performance. The second construct, Effort Expectancy (EE); defined as the perceived level of complexity in the use of technology to perform a task (Venkatesh et al., 2003). The third construct, Social Influence (SI), defined as the "degree to which an individual perceives it is important that others believe that he/she should use a system" (Venkatesh et al., 2003; p. 451). The fourth construct, Facilitating Conditions (FC); refers to consumers' perception of the resources and support available regarding computer hardware and software necessary to shop online (Brown and Venkatesh, 2005; Venkatesh et al., 2003). Based on the theoretical framework, the study hypothesizes that: (H1) PE has a direct positive effect on the BI for m-shopping; (H2) EE has a direct positive effect on the BI for m-shopping; (H3) SI has a direct positive effect on the BI for m-shopping; (H4) FC has a direct positive effect on the behavior for m-shopping; (H5) BI has a direct positive effect on the behavior for m-shopping.

Method: Participants and Measure

The sample consisted of 768 online shoppers selected non-probabilistically from internal databases and students from two Colombian universities. The responses were selected with the following criteria: (1) participants had made an internet purchase using a mobile application in the last month, and (2) the participant was living in Colombia. The final questionnaire included 22 items adapted from UTAUT Model from previous research in which these scales have been shown a good psychometric performance regarding validity and reliability.

Results, Discussion and Contributions

Results on the reliability of the scales show that Cronbach's Alpha and the composite reliability values of all the constructs were 0.7 or higher; suggesting that the constructs were reliable. Convergent validity evaluated that all the items, which completed the standardized loadings over 0.6 and Lagrange Multipliers Test, which did not show

significant relations between dimensions. According to these criteria, all items shows a good model fit ($\chi^2 = 379.425$; $df = 129$; $\chi^2 / df = 2.94$; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.078; NFI= 0.902; IFI=0.933; RFI= 0.908; GFI= 0.899; AGFI= 0.891).

Discriminate validity was assessed testing the correlations between pairs of construct items and was significantly different from unity. Root square of variance extracted (AVE) of each factor was higher than the correlations between factors respect each pair of constructs. In summary, all the measured variables explain the variance of latent constructs and support the validity and reliability of the measurement model. A maximum likelihood was employed as estimation to compare the structure coefficients between the latent variables.

Structural model analysis showed a good fit according to the estimates of different goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2 = 377.315$; $df = 129$; $\chi^2 / df = 2.92$; CFI = 0.94; RMSEA = 0.073; NFI= 0.91; IFI=0.93; RFI= 0.91; GFI= 0.89; AGFI= 0.81). Test of hypotheses indicates that PE ($\beta = 0.39$, $p < 0.001$), EE ($\beta = 0.46$, $p < 0.00$), facilitating conditions ($\beta = 0.61$, $p < 0.00$) positively affect the intention to m-shopping. The relation between BI over purchase behavior were confirmed ($\beta = 0.49$, $p < 0.03$). The results provide support for all the hypotheses, except for the H5 (SI on BI).

Results of this study confirm that FC, EE, PE has a positive and direct effect on the BI of m-shopping. Results are consistent with Tang, Lai, Law, Liew and Phua (2014) who in addition to reporting the same relationships, refers to the strongest effect of facilitating conditions respect other variables of the UTAUT model to predict BI to m-shopping. Results are also consistent with Tang et al. (2014) regard to the absence of support of the relationship SI over BI.

From the theoretical implications, the study contributes to the explanation and analysis of the consumer behavior in the new channels currently offered by technology in emerging economies. For practical implications, results are consistent with studies in technology adoption, where FC represented an important variable to predict the intention and acceptance of the technology.

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Full Paper

Competing for the Consumer Dollar: How to Interest Gen Y in Union Membership?

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Unions' sustainability hinges on their capacity to understand their consumers purchase journey and to respond with appropriate branding messages in a complex selling environment. Gen Y consumers' attitudes towards unions are explored in relation to their stated reasons to purchase membership or not purchase membership of their appropriate union (National Tertiary Education Union). These reasons are a critical concern for unions who are experiencing steady decline in Australia over the last several decades (Freeman, 1995; Griffin & Svensen, 1996; Peetz, Webb, & Jones, 2002) with the exception of all but a few.

Gen Y consumers who had not purchased included reasons such as there being no benefit in membership, because they believed they received benefits regardless of financial membership, they felt that they did not need the services of a union and, if they did need industrial relations skills and expertise they had those skills themselves. Others cited not being asked to join, while not bothering to join was given as the next reason. Not bothering to join was entwined for interviewees with what they believed were their unsuitable personal circumstances making membership unlikely. A clear reason for not joining was the price that was perceived as too high for what they believed they would receive.

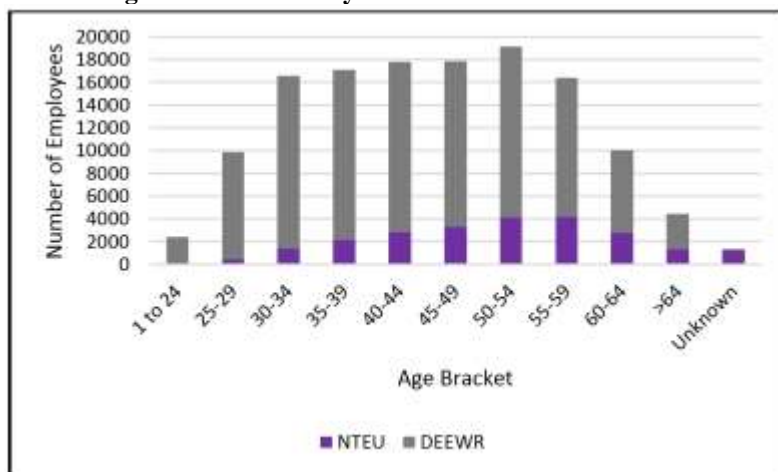
Introduction

The current decline in union membership is not a trivial issue since trade unions have traditionally fulfilled many important social and economic roles. A strengthening of union numbers translates into unions achieving their aims of lifting “the living standards and quality of working life of working people” (Australian Council of Trade Unions, 2016) benefiting many in society. This research draws upon marketing and Industrial Relations disciplines to explore the sustainability of unions with a focus on Gen Y consumers.

Current NTEU Membership as a Portion of the Sector

Part of the explanation for Gen Y's lower union participation rates in the tertiary education sector is that they tend to delay ‘adulthood’. Gen Y often take ‘gap-years’, extend post-secondary studies and travel overseas funded by part-time or seasonal work, thereby postponing their entry into the full-time workforce. The slower rate of absorption particularly for academic staff is the often long progress through educational and accreditation processes prior to taking up work in the sector.

Figure 1: FT/FFT Density by Age; Members and Non-members in Tertiary Education (NTEU/DEEWR) - National figures for all tertiary education workers



Source: National Tertiary Education Union, 2014

Note: DEEWR stand for The Australian Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations

The entrenched low membership levels across all age brackets are apparent in Figure 1. The glaringly low number of National Tertiary Education Union (NTEU) members as a proportion of the sector reveal the extent of the problem for the NTEU.

The reduced number of people joining may be the effect of the same causes that are prevalent in many Australia unions in other industries.

Research Methodology

A social research case study approach using qualitative data collection methods and applied thematic analysis was adopted as it is the most suitable design to provide comprehensive description and analysis to reveal complex meanings by using textual data sets (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). Aaker et al. (2007) stipulate that case study analysis is particularly suitable when the issues are contemporary as is this research.

In total 35 interviews were conducted. In-depth interviewees numbered 35 (all Gen Y age bracket), with the aim that by the end of the interviews all pertinent issues and perceptions would be revealed (DePaulo, 2000) and that with a base of 30 interviewees there would be a 95 per cent confidence that the results could successfully be applied to the general population with similar characteristics (DePaulo, 2000).

Findings

Rationale for Joining

Slightly less than one third of interviewees (excluding NTEU officials), were members at the time of the interviews. Interviewees who were members, were asked why they had joined the NTEU and nine provided answers. Their responses ranged from suggesting that purchase was routine, to seeking membership to protect their working rights. In several instances members experienced several interactions with the union through its representatives, delegates, promotional materials and its influence in the workplace prior to joining, and these influences were the impetus to joining.

The first interviewee, DF, (female, member) recalled that she had a history of union membership and it was a natural step for her to join the NTEU. Additionally she explained that sometimes a workplace can take advantage of workers and membership in a union can mitigate against that effect. She commented:

I don't remember if someone asked me, I think I, I've always joined the union in every organisation I've worked.

In 2012 the university in the study introduced a different staff structure that significantly affected staff. HI (female, member), commented that:

And so we started asking questions and all of that sort of stuff and found out that we actually are getting screwed but there is at least someone who's got your back in the sense of the union. So now we are all card toting union members.

Union membership in earlier employment positions was also an influence for KQ, (male, member). He was also prompted to join by a senior colleague. He explained that:

But I've always been [a union member], I think it's very good. I have experience in the past where the union were very supportive and they help you not just to go through a different period but they provide you with, lawyers and legal advice.

TT, (female, member) had worked in secondary education prior to gaining an academic position in tertiary education. She explained that she felt some reticence about joining, because she felt the membership fees were high. Nevertheless she did join at her husband's urgings. She commented that:

But I have been a member now for three or four years but probably if he hadn't pushed me to be a member I wouldn't necessarily be, although in the last little while there's times when I'm glad that I'm a member, and I have a very positive view of unions and there are times that I feel that they become the barrier to actually moving forward.

Rationale for not Joining

Several reasons for not purchasing union membership were provided by the interviewees.

Benefit Anyway

Interviewees were asked the broad question of why they had or had not joined, but the issue of free riding was not explicitly mentioned by the interviewer. In this research few members commented on their perception of fairness

issues about free-riders, (it was not an interview question) but in forthright explanations of not joining the union, several non-member interviewees commented on receiving the service for free.

Two members initiated conversation about the topic with the first simply mentioning it in passing (KU, female, member). The second interviewee however (TT, female, member) was extremely agitated and irate at the recollection that non-members also received a pay rise and improved conditions in the last round of Enterprise Bargaining. She stated that:

Some people aren't part of the union and yet they reap the benefits and I think you either are or you're not and if you're not then bad luck! You don't go to the doctor and not pay!

Non-members, who commented on the topic, were well satisfied with their decision. The comments reveal the tone and attitude with the first from ZM (male, non-member), who said that:

Well, I think it's perfectly fine with me – because I'm among the beneficiaries [of free NTEU benefits].

The other interviewee (TD, female, non-member) who discussed this topic stated that;

See, the union to me, they fight for everybody, whether you're a member or not. What's the point in giving them money, when I'm getting it anyway?

Free-riding is a vexatious issue which requires further research, and is notably not included in the regular surveys by the Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU) and the NTEU and yet appears to be a major factor in the consumer decision process.

The non-member who commented on this earlier (TD, female, non-member) suggested that, if the NTEU clearly differentiated between members and non-members on other issues, it would be a prompt for her to consider membership. This point was also taken up by the union recruiter (GR, male, NTEU member and recruiter), who explained that when in a sales cycle he would use a counter argument that non-members cannot access union shopper or Teacher's Health, health fund.

Not Needed Union

The question of needing a union or self-managing one's workplace rights were explored with interviewees. Some interviewees indicated they believed that they could negotiate for themselves. However, other reasons why a person may also respond that they do not need a union exist including that a worker may never have had work issues arise (or at least not that they know of), that needed to be resolved or when they have had the good fortune to be working for an affable supervisor.

The view about the need for a union, according to FN (female, non-member) is that it is good to have the union's presence, because it keeps pressure on the system to maintain overall working standards. However, on a day to day basis she considered that she did not need the assistance of the union. She stated that:

Now I think we do have better rights as workers.

[I] never felt like I needed external help.

She also stated that the existence of suppliers such as the Ombudsman meant that she could, if need be, look out for her own interests in the workplace. Another scenario of not needing any representation was mentioned by MH (female, non-member). She said that:

It's just that I just feel that, in my position at [name] university, I don't really need them.

These views also relate to how Gen Y are characterised in the education and social media literature as seeking immediate gratification (Arhin & Johnson-Mallard, 2003; Buissink-Smith, Spronken-Smith, & Grigg, 2008; Temkin, 2008) therefore, it is suggested that their need for immediacy has become so normalised, that it applies even to the purchase of union coverage. If and when the union is needed is when membership will be entered into, with the market aware that on payment of only 12 months' back dues a full suite of service can be delivered by the NTEU for newly joined employees.

Can Negotiate and Manage Conditions for Myself

When asked if she were able to negotiate with her manager and sort out problems herself, interviewee, FN (female, non-member) replied briefly. She said:

Yeah, yep.

She noted earlier in the interview that she felt bad about saying she did not need a union. She explained that:

Because I sort of feel like every worker needs the presence of unions.

The presence of unions as expressed by FN (female, non-member) was also explored by the National Assistant Secretary of the NTEU and he presented a case for joining. He said:

So while you may be perfectly able to negotiate for yourself, it is about something more than just that question of being able to negotiate. I know that for myself if I was back in the university, I'd probably be quite capable of negotiating for most part the things that I need to negotiate but that doesn't account for the decisions that get made, that are made at a level that I can't negotiate with or that are made by an employer or boss who's a complete bastard.

The free availability of industrial resources was another factor cited, when interviewees were asked why they had not joined the union. UG (male, non-member) stated that there were plenty of alternative sources of industrial information. He said that:

A lot of the information these days in regards to your rights at work and what-not, in terms of, individual circumstances, I think is accessible out there. We all have access to the legislation, we all have some sort of access to the advice and what-not.

Along with the view of managing and negotiating for oneself is the consideration that the union itself could not really bring in any additional skills or knowledge, which the interviewee did not already possess. IN (female, non-member) said that:

Like, what could the union do that I couldn't already do for myself?

She added that the NTEU may have the potential to assist in a minor way. Nevertheless, she commented that she had the requisite skills to self-manage her conditions at work and that she could support and stand up for herself.

These views were reiterated by NI (male, non-member). He stated:

If I was working in that side of things [advertising agency] I would certainly sign up to be a union member because people get exploited. In the higher education sector that doesn't happen and I think the union plays a vital role in that and I'm comfortable negotiating myself and I do appreciate the role of the union has played a part in that.

It is clear that there is an emerging theme from the views of non-member interviewees that they did not want to join for the various reasons listed, but they still appreciated a union's presence and the ability to access union power when needed.

Not Asked to Join

Some interviewees commented that they had simply not been asked to join. MU's rationale for not joining was that she had never been employed in an organisation that had high union density. She stated that:

[Not employed] in one of those highly regulated industries where it's [union membership had] been heavily pushed around.

She too commented that the union could not offer anything that she could not already manage for herself.

Never Bothered to Join or Consumer Circumstances do not Warrant Membership

Several interviewees commented that because of their employment status (temporary work visa, an employment history of short term contracts, likelihood of changing industries and casual teaching contracts) they were unlikely to join the union. Several commented on the lack of provision for casual staff in the union and were unaware of the introduction of Academic Teaching Scholars; the role of which was specifically designed to move casuals into on-going positions and which was negotiated as a national mandatory claim by the NTEU.

One of the non-members, (EW, female, non-member) commented that her expectation upon commencing work at the university was to sign up to the union, but she felt confused about what it entailed and consequently did not join.

Price too High

GP (female, non-member) felt that joining the NTEU as a member, was not worth the expense, because she was only working sessionally. However, she also expressed the idea that a union was needed to engage successfully with university management. She stated that:

You do need people in there [in the NTEU] in order to have the bargaining power.

The union as 'safety net' emerged as a major theme in the research and is driven in part by the idea that unions did a great deal in the past to create today's good conditions. Those efforts are respected, but there is little to no loyalty for an organisation that existed in days gone by. Unions are especially disregarded, when there are other options, such as those expressed by interviewees. The argument's conclusion is that unions are still needed, but only in reserve, to maintain the status quo.

However, there is insufficient loyalty toward unions to join. The tendency for Gen Y is that, when there are sufficient other brands (in the case of unions the other options are not brands but other service options such as the Ombudsman, Fair Work Australia or free industrial relations information on the web), Gen Y are far less likely to remain loyal to any one brand (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009), although this is understood to be the case with all generational markets to varying degrees.

Many interviewees were unaware of the price for membership and almost all were not aware that membership fees were tax deductible. JE, (female, non-member) expressed her unwillingness to pay at all. She said that:

And my whole issue is I don't have a problem with unions, I actually think they're good for the employees but I don't really know enough about them to be quite happy to just sign away all this money and I'm quite happy to go and read up more about it and look more into it but at the time I didn't have the time to do that and I'm not happy just to say okay I'll give you this much money each month and I don't really know what you're doing for me.

Her comment highlights the importance of a well-known product category (unions) and a favourable opinion of a brand (NTEU).

Another approach used by non-members to explain not joining was to underrate a large part of the union's role and then claim the services remaining were not of sufficient value to join. Undervaluing of the NTEU's work was directed towards either, the local level of operation (what was done for members within their work environment) or the overarching level (such as Enterprise Agreements including pay increases and lobbying government). The claim was that the remaining portion of the NTEU's role was valueless was noted by UX (male, non-member). He stated that:

But those two things with negotiations and salaries are the two things that have been mentioned to me that the union does and neither one of them is something that I feel I need to pay a \$1,000 dollars.

Additional Issues with Union Membership

Several non-member interviewees, commented that they believed work measurements should be based on performance and that the union protected staff employed with the university for a long time that were no longer productive. Such protection meant, in the interviewees' minds, that the organisation therefore operated less efficiently.

Interviewees also perceived that inadequacies of the NTEU were also part of the rationale not to join. One interviewee (UG, male, non-member) felt that some of the industrial cases should not have been defended by the union and that this was another reason that he was not comfortable with joining. However cases are deemed to be legitimate based on whether there is a breach of the Enterprise Agreement or other work rights.

Several non-member interviewees expressed their views about salary negotiations and Enterprise Bargaining with UX (male, non-member) commenting that he would forgo a pay increase via NTEU bargaining and prefer to base increments on his work abilities and performance. He did not refer to management's prerogative to arbitrarily increase workloads, remove benchmarks and individualise performance expectations.

But I haven't really felt that that's ... is something too important for me either. Because I'd rather, if it's a matter of increasing my salary I would rather put my effort into my own performance and look for a promotion instead of bargaining for the increase at my increment level. I'd rather look in myself and see what I can do to increase my increment, to increase my own increment. That's my view on that.

The final point mentioned as a reason not to join the union was that the staff seen to be associating with the NTEU was something to shy away from and was effectively a career killer, if the NTEU was used to openly assist a staff member. UX (male, non-member), stated:

It's like bringing your mum to a business meeting sort of thing; that I'm weak and fragile and can't negotiate my own terms. I should establish a good working relationship with my superiors and to bring in

someone else to negotiate for me it is an aggressive move saying that I don't trust you as my boss and I'm going to get you and add some artillery to myself.

Conclusion and Future Research

Gen Y's motivations to join or not join a union were explored. Members gave rationales for joining that included needing industrial assistance, claiming that it was 'the right thing to do', that they were receiving the benefits and should therefore pay, and that membership was a natural consequence within a highly unionised environment. Several mentioned that they had joined because they had been asked. The majority had a narrative describing several influences that culminated in membership. The interviewees were strongly influenced by being asked in person to join, particularly if they already perceived both the product category (unions) favourably and brand attitude (NTEU) favourably. The established literature describes each of these influences, (Bray et al. 2005; Peetz, 1995) but there is little extant research that provides such a rich narrative, weaving together the individual factors that resulted in members joining the union.

Non-members gave a range of reasons they did not join, including the fact that they received the benefits regardless of their membership status. Other reasons included not needing the services of the union, the perceived ability to negotiate for oneself, not having been asked to join, circumstances not appropriate for membership such as casual employment, the price for membership being too high and under-estimating the services provided by the NTEU in bargaining and lobbying government. Again, several of these reasons are described in the literature. However, new areas are explored such as awareness of tax benefits from union membership fees and a frank illustration of the free-rider phenomenon as described by interviewees when talking about their motivations for not joining unions. The forthright explanations provided by Gen Y interviewees about their ability to negotiate workplace conditions and expertly source and understand industrial relations materials was also new ground not as yet explored in the literature.

Revealing the causes of downward trends of union membership is of great importance to Australian society and other Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) nations as well as to the unions themselves. Future research to determine Gen Y purchasing behaviours in this area would help to create a favourable brand image and one consistent with Gen Y values, creating an environment conducive to long awaited membership renewal.

A quantitative method such as a questionnaire survey should also take place in future research as a complementary method to the in-depth interviews. The researchers can use surveys to gather information from a large audience in order to further identify and understand the reasons, Gen Y who work within the higher education sector, choose to join or not to join the union.

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Summary Brief

Examining Financial Risk Tolerance via the Hierarchy of Retirement Needs

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In this study, the theory of the hierarchy of retirement needs is used to offer new insights into the potential antecedents of financial risk tolerance. Using this theory, consumers' current assets, including funds in checking and savings accounts, are found to be positively associated with financial risk tolerance. Subjective financial knowledge, future orientation, and belief in the growth of future income all strengthen the positive relationship between current assets and financial risk tolerance. Consumers' current debts are not found to be significantly related to financial risk tolerance. These findings support the theory of the hierarchy of retirement needs.

Introduction

One of the most imperative aspects of consumers' investment choices is having an appropriate degree of financial risk tolerance, the level of uncertainty that one is willing to bear for the purpose of achieving adequate returns on investments. Many consumers are unwilling to take on the financial risk generally recommended by financial planners in order to meet long-term financial goals, including retirement (Larson, Eastman, and Bock 2016). Understanding the factors underlying financial risk tolerance, then, is important for consumers, policymakers, financial planners, and the investment industry as a whole. In this paper, the theory of the hierarchy of retirement needs (Kitces 2017) has been used to identify the factors that influence consumers' financial risk tolerance.

Literature Review and Hypotheses

Financial risk tolerance is defined as "the maximum amount of uncertainty that someone is willing to accept when making a financial decision" (Grable 2000, p. 625). While many socioeconomic factors that can impact financial risk tolerance have been identified, the recent theory of the hierarchy of retirement needs (Kitces 2017) proposes that consumers do not realize the need for future income unless their current income and current assets are viewed as acceptable. Taken together:

H1: Perceived current assets are positively associated with financial risk tolerance.

While the theory of the hierarchy of retirement needs does not directly address current debts, they can be viewed as counter to current assets. Consumers' debts represent an expense that reduces current assets as well as current income. As such, consumers' debts may cause them feel less secure and willing to take on financial risks:

H2: Perceived current debts are negatively associated with financial risk tolerance.

Financial knowledge can have a significant impact on consumers' investment decisions. There are two primary forms of knowledge: objective knowledge and subjective knowledge (Carlson et al. 2008). Subjective financial knowledge is more predictive of consumers' financial behaviors. Higher levels of familiarity with a topic generally lead to lesser perceived risk (Fischhoff et al. 1981). Thus:

H3: As subjective financial knowledge increases, the positive relationship between perceived current assets and financial risk tolerance strengthens.

A future-oriented person places greater importance on future consequences of their actions as opposed to those which are more immediate (Aspinwall 2005). Consumers appear to require at least a modest awareness of financial concepts before they perceive a need for planning for future financial needs. Future orientation, when combined with at least a modest awareness of financial concepts, leads to greater participation in retirement plans, though future orientation has no impact on this participation when financial knowledge is low (Howlett, Kees, and Kemp 2008). Thus we hypothesize:

H4: As future orientation and subjective financial knowledge both increase, the positive relationship between perceived current assets and financial risk tolerance strengthens.

According to the theory of the hierarchy of retirement needs, current income needs must be met before future income needs are activated (Kitces 2017). As such, if consumers' current income is not adequate to meet their spending

requirements, they are unlikely to take on the financial risks generally needed in order to meet their need for future income. Therefore, we hypothesize:

H5: As satisfaction with current income increases, the positive relationship between perceived current assets and financial risk tolerance strengthens.

H6: As satisfaction with current income increases, the negative relationship between perceived current debts and financial risk tolerance weakens.

When consumers believe that their income is likely to grow in the future, they are apt to sense a reduction in the potential consequences of financial risks, hence, they will be more likely to take on financial risks in the present. As such, we hypothesize:

H7: As perceived future income growth increases, the positive relationship between perceived current assets and financial risk tolerance strengthens.

H8: As perceived future income growth increases, the negative relationship between perceived current debts and financial risk tolerance weakens.

Methods

Survey data were collected via the student referral method. Students in various marketing courses at a university in the Pacific Northwest were offered course credit for participation in the survey. These students were also allowed to refer up to four other individuals, at least two of whom were required to be over the age of 40, to participate in the survey.

Results

Fit of the measurement model is satisfactory all the items load significantly on their respective constructs. The hypotheses were examined using multiple regression analysis. There was no evidence of multicollinearity being present. Hierarchical multiple regression was used to investigate the hypothesized moderating variables. The data support H1, H3, H4, H7 and H8. However, we found no support for H2, H5, and H6.

Implications

This study suggests that more base needs such as current income and current assets must be at least minimally fulfilled before the higher-level need for future income is activated. Second, our findings provide additional evidence of the power of subjective financial knowledge in impacting consumers' financial decisions. Third, our findings coincide with prior research in demonstrating that a future orientation alone is insufficient to enhance consumers' financial risk tolerance; subjective financial knowledge is needed as well. In addition, this research shows that when consumers perceive that their current assets, including checking and savings account balances, are acceptable, they are more apt to take on financial risk in their investments, which is viewed as generally positive by financial planners. Second, the positive effect of current assets on financial risk tolerance is enhanced when consumers believe themselves to be knowledgeable of financial topics.

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SESSION 1.5: ETHNIC CONSUMERS: A DETAILED LOOK

Chair:

Yi Peng, The University of Alabama

Summary Brief

Does Local Celebrity Scandal Influence Global Firm Value?

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The research that links the celebrity endorser's negative publicity to the endorsed brand's economic value has not widely been tapped in marketing field. By using a market model, this paper examines the impact of a local celebrity endorser scandal event on the endorsed brands' global stock market value. The results suggest that the entire endorsed brand portfolio exhibits statistically significant gains on both daily average abnormal returns and cumulative abnormal returns on the global stock market shortly after the scandal event. This study also investigates the effects of perceived blameworthiness of involved celebrity in endorser scandal event. The discussion of managerial and policy implications is presented in the concluding section.

Introduction

Celebrity endorsement is a widely adopted marketing communication strategy that has been used for a long time (Biswas, Hussain, and O'Donnell, 2009). Traditional media as well as social media advertisements that feature celebrity endorsers enjoy high popularity among consumers and brand managers in both Western and Eastern societies (Amos, Holmes, and Strutton, 2008). Furthermore, the economic value of using celebrities to endorse products is well documented in the marketing literature (Keel and Natarajan, 2012). However, the existing studies linking celebrity endorsement and firm stock value have clashing findings. Some scholars found using celebrity endorser in their advertising campaign could positively influence firm stock value while the other scholars found insignificant or even negative relationship. Knittel and Stango (2014) suggested the clashing results might come from the fact that announcement event could have a pre-exposure effect long before the formal announcement date. And they suggest that negative publicity is often more of a surprise than endorsement announcement, and therefore provides "cleaner identification".

In the western setting, all studies focusing the negative endorser events found a negative impact on firm's stock value. Once there is endorser negative event, firms tend to distance the involved endorser and quickly remove the relevant ads and terminate the ongoing promotion campaigns. Global firms take similar actions in international markets when they encounter negative endorser event. However, these firms fail to notice the culture difference between West and East, and overlook issues such as the degree of blameworthiness of involved endorsers. In fact, when making causal inferences, the reasoning of East Asians displays a relational-contextual style while the reasoning of European North Americans displays an inferential-categorical style. This means, when there is a negative publicity event, East Asians are more likely to separate the "culprit" and the "victim". Plus, the global brand's products are usually perceived as high quality and high status. For example, Nike and Adidas in US are just shoes for average people, but in developing countries it means you are in middle or high social class. We believe that endorser's negative publicity event could cause the endorsed brand name goes out in a big way in developing countries. Beginning from these rationales, we speculate that (1) the global brands' stock price will benefit a gain rather than suffer a loss when encountering an endorser negative event and (2) the global brands' stock price of low-blameworthiness endorser will benefit more than that of a high-blameworthiness endorser. The empirical results proved our speculations.

To the authors' best knowledge, the current study is the first of its kind to provide empirical evidence on whether local celebrity endorsement events could be able to influence the endorsed brand's global firm value. By using a standard event study method, this study addresses an important topic that deserves the attention of both marketing researchers and brand managers given the importance of "glocalization" as a strategy for multinational firms.

Methodology

Studying the stock market events is a common measurement of a firm's or brand's performance in terms of market returns resulting from celebrity endorsements (Knittel and Stango, 2014). Particularly, this event-study method estimates "abnormal" returns that are defined as the differences between a brand's normal returns and the post-returns of a major economic event (Brown and Warner, 1985). Compared with abnormal returns, a normal return is calculated as a company's expected stock performance relative to the market index in the absence of any major economic events

(for a detailed mathematical calculation of the process and examples see Clark, Cornwell, and Pruitt, 2002; Ding, Molchanov, and Stork, 2011; Knittel and Stango, 2014). Employing a standard event study method, this study empirically tested our hypotheses.

Conclusion

Celebrity culture is widespread in Asia, and it has gained momentum in a relatively short space of time. Some Asia countries such as China has in the past put its trust in leaders and elders for guidance. However, under the new socialist market economy model, it is celebrities rather than political leaders or military heroes who now symbolize knowledge, trust and aspiration in the eyes of consumers and investors. Therefore, savvy Western businesses, especially those who own global brands, may consider increasingly employing local celebrities to help sell their products in this potentially lucrative market in despite of the fact that endorsement scandals are inevitable sometimes. From the investor's perspectives, this study examines the impact of celebrity scandals on the market returns of the involved global brands.

An interesting finding from the current study implies that although local celebrity endorsers involved in scandals who gain large press coverage and develop a negative reputation from the open media exposure, those scandal events might not have predictably impaired the global brands' market returns in the short-run. Different from some studies in the Western where celebrity scandals usually lead to stock market losses, the entire endorsed brand portfolio exhibited significant gains in terms of cumulative abnormal returns on the global stock market. One major contribution of this study is to provide further evidence that the cultural difference in making causal inferences plays an important role in explaining the impact of local celebrity endorser scandals from the emerging market perspective. Moreover, the current study has contributed to academia by extending signal theory to the global investors' decision-making process when facing a local celebrity endorser scandal event.

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Summary Brief

How Do Turkish Adolescents React to Sexual Appeals in Advertising?

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This is a descriptive research paper attempting to enhance the understanding of sexual appeals in advertising in a country considered to be conservative toward sex. In particular, this preliminary paper studies the impact of sexual ad appeals on Turkish adolescents' attitudes toward products and services. 211 Turkish adolescents participated in an online survey and the descriptive results show that sex appeals in advertising may not be very effective in Turkey. Turkish adolescents mostly consider sex appeals in advertisements to be uncomfortable. Besides, although sexual appeals in advertisements make adolescents remember the products, services, or the brands being advertised, sexual appeals do not convince them to buy the products. The paper also fits well with the conference theme, "ethical decisions in lifestyle choices", and provides some suggestions to advertisers who target Turkish adolescents.

Introduction

Adolescents present a significant purchasing power even though they do not have a steady income. Marketers pay close attention to adolescent buying behaviors because they are trendsetters, have strong influence over their parents' spending habits, and offer great potential to become life-long loyal customers (Martin and Bush, 2000). In a highly competitive media environment, marketers look for ways to break through the clutter and grab adolescents' attention for their messages. Therefore, marketers and advertisers use different execution styles including using fear appeals, humor, striking contrasts, music, or celebrity endorsers to stand out. Among these methods, using sexual appeals, which may or may not be related to the product or service being promoted, is considered one of the most effective ways to attract teenagers.

Advertisements play a crucial role in persuading customers to purchase products and services. Therefore, every company uses different advertising strategies to attract customers from different segments of the market to achieve sustained competitive advantage. They have, for many years, been using many ways to advertise their products and services. It is quite clear that using sexual appeals in advertisements is one option for companies, as well. Therefore, this paper tries to address the following questions. What is the impact of sexual appeals in advertisements on Turkish adolescents' buying behavior? What is the Turkish adolescents' attitude towards the brands containing strong sexuality in their advertisements? Do the sexual appeals in advertisements they have seen make them think of the way they see themselves? Do Turkish adolescents think that advertisements containing sexuality are unethical and should be banned? This paper endeavors to answer these questions which have both theoretical and practical values.

This study attempts to find out the responses of different age groups towards the sexual appeals in advertisements on adolescents' attitudes towards advertisements and products and services being advertised, and adolescents' buying behaviors. Besides, researchers will try to figure out how the Turkish adolescents approach sexual appeals in advertisements in terms of both ethically and economically. This paper strives to determine the gap in using sexual appeals in advertising for Turkish adolescents. Due to the fact that all Muslim countries are very conservative towards sex and sexism, it has been sufficiently unstudied area. It is because all Arab/Muslim countries object to some extent to the use of sexuality in advertisements by considering them offensive (Boddewyn, 1991).

Marketers prefer to use sexual appeals in advertisements for many decades. It is simply because the using sexual appeal in advertisements help the audiences remember the ads better. This is to say, sexual appeal can enhance the audience's remembering and recognition of an ad, the advertised brand and the main message points (Reid and Soley, 1981). Shimp (2007) finds that sexual appeals in advertisements can enhance brand and message recall because sexual content is often easy to associate. Releasing sexual appeals in advertisements is not enough. The effectiveness of sexual appeal also depends on its appropriateness to the advertised product. Richmond and Hartman (1982) posit that sexual stimuli may enhance brand remembering only if an appropriate relationship remains between the product category and the advertising. Nevertheless, companies prefer to use sexual appeals in their advertisements regardless of the context of their products and/or services. No matter for them, whether or not, it has been related to products and/or services. Hennink-Kaminski and Reichert (2011) provide in their study how sexual appeals are used to promote cosmetic surgery. By using a content analysis of advertisements appearing between 1986 and 2007 in large city magazines, they

reveal that advertisements position surgery as a means of boosting sex-esteem, and enhancing one's sexual attractiveness. Liposuction and breast augmentation, as invasive procedures, are the top procedures advertised with sexual appeals and most advertisements feature nude or partially nude white female models.

Here are the five relationships tested in this study:

P1: Gender has an impact on Turkish adolescents' attitudes towards ads.

P2: Cultural background has an impact on Turkish adolescents' attitudes towards ads.

P3: Sexual appeals in advertising have an impact on Turkish adolescents' recall of brand being advertised.

P4: Education level has an impact on Turkish adolescents' attitudes towards ads.

P5: Age has an impact on Turkish adolescents' attitudes towards ads.

Method

Data were collected by a convenience sampling method. An online survey was distributed through social media accounts. 211 participants took the survey. Among them, 130 were males (61.6%) and 81 were females (38.4%). The questionnaire employed consisted of two sections. In the first section, their ages, gender, the level of education and their reactions when they see a sexual appeal in advertising were asked. In the second part, 12 items regarding to sexual appeals in advertisings were stated and it was requested from the respondents to express their opinion about the items. Likert Scale was used for each items ranging from 1 to 5 where 1 had been coded as "strongly disagree" and 5 had been coded as "strongly agree".

Conclusion

Turkey is considered to have a Muslim society and its people are confined and surrounded by some kinds of cultural and religious barriers. Despite globalization and modernistic endeavors, Turkish adolescents have ethical concerns about the advertisements. Additionally, it is well known that Muslim countries disapprove all kinds of body display and direct and/or indirect sexual references. There is an obligation to conform to codes of sexual conduct and social interaction, including modest and convenient dress for both men and women. While new companies enter into Turkish market, they should pay attention to the effects of culture and religion on consumers' attitudes towards advertisings, products/services, and advertisings. If the marketers think that their advertisings must include sexuality, they should be on the safe side anyway by adapting some introspective procedures.

It is obvious from the results of this study that a very large group of adolescents still remain unaffected by the sexual appeals in advertisings. Namely, the sexual appeals in advertisings can attract their attention, remember the product/services and brands, however, it does not impel them buy the products/services being advertised. If the advertisings contain strongly sexuality, they are significantly more negative towards that product or service and that brand. Turkish adolescents do not like watching sexual appeals in advertisings. When they see the sexuality in advertising, their first reaction is to be surprised. The sexual appeals that they have seen in advertisings do not make them think of the way they see themselves. Besides, they think that the Turkish culture is too closed-minded to sexuality, human beings have sexual elements and we should not hide them. They are of the opinion that sexual appeals in advertisings can demean men and women by depicting them as pure sex objects. Although sexual appeals in advertisings are legal to some extent, they do not consider them to be ethical and should be banned because of its possible damages for young people.

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Presentation

U.S. Hispanics and Non-Hispanic Whites: Understanding Ethnic Identity, Brand Switching, and Price Sensitivity

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The buying power of the US multicultural and Hispanic segments accounts for about 26% and 10% of total US buying power, respectively. The US Hispanic segment tends to be brand loyal. Price sensitivity and brand switching are core to understanding brand loyalty. Brand loyalty and its relationship to ethnic identity within U.S. ethnic groups has been an important focus of marketing research. The current work brings together all three topics into one study. Using a large, representative sample of US Hispanics and Non-Hispanic whites, the current study updates the literature on this important area of cross-cultural research.

Introduction

The multicultural reality of the American population is a characteristic that corporate America has taken into account in its marketing and branding efforts since the 1980s. Much of our understanding of the different racial and ethnic groups is a result of cross-cultural research conducted at the request of corporate America. In addition to the racial and ethnic groups' cultural, linguistic, or consumer behavioral differences, the size and growth of the buying power of these groups was and is a driving force behind corporate America's interest in multicultural segments. With time, the buying power of the multicultural population has seen great increases. According to Selig Center data, the estimated 2016 total US multicultural buying power (combining African, Asian, Native, and Hispanic Americans) was \$3.6 trillion, or about 26% of the 2016 total US buying power. Of this \$3.6 trillion, the US Hispanic portion was about \$1.4 trillion, or about 10% of total 2016 US buying power. This data suggests that the US Hispanic and Non-Hispanic White segments have the greatest buying power, with non-Hispanic whites holding about \$10.3 trillion and US Hispanics holding about \$1.4 trillion. Given the purchasing power of these two groups, it is of interest to understand their similarities as well as differences in their consumer behaviors. In addition to updating our consumer behavior understanding for Hispanics and non-Hispanic whites, the current study appears to be the first to consider if, and how, non-Hispanic whites ethnic identity relates to consumer their behaviors.

Background

The role of ethnic identity in consumer behavior for US Hispanics has been studied for many years and continues to evolve. Earliest research took a between-group approach by comparing Hispanics to other racial groups, including non-Hispanic whites and African Americans (e.g., Wilkes and Valencia 1986). Hispanic consumer behavior research then evolved by taking a within-group approach, considering how the level of ethnic identity, high versus low, was related to consumer behaviors such as brand loyalty (e.g., Deshpande, Hoyer, and Donthu 1986). Currently Hispanic consumer behavior research uses a complex, bivariate, within-group approach to understanding Hispanic consumer behavior. Such studies have suggested 4 within-group Hispanic segments that differ on their consumer behaviors (e.g., Villarreal and Peterson 2009). However, research into the role of ethnic identity in consumer behavior for non-Hispanic whites is essentially nonexistent. This lack of consideration, however, is not shared in other domains of study. Current research in psychology, for instance, considers the role of ethnic identity for non-Hispanic whites in relation to psychological outcomes. There is evidence for the important role ethnic identity plays in other ethnic groups. It therefore is logical to consider the same questions for non-Hispanic whites.

Table 1: MEIM on Brand Switching and Price Sensitivity

	Between-Group Results				
	MLE	(SE)	<i>t</i> -ratio	95%	CI
MEIM	.93	(.10)	8.64	0.66	1.03
Brand Switching	0.79	(0.15)	5.16	1.23	0.45
Price Sensitivity	0.90	(0.16)	5.53	1.15	0.40

Consumer behavior research that suggests ethnic identity plays an important role in marketing communications and brand loyalty (Villarreal and Blozis, 2015). The current investigation takes both a between-group and within-group approach in understanding and assessing ethnic identity, brand switching, and price sensitivity for both Hispanics and non-Hispanic whites. The between-group approach allows for a comparison to determine if the two groups differ in terms of ethnic identity, brand switching, and price sensitivity. The within-group approach considers an individual's level of ethnic identity as a predictor of their level of brand switching and price sensitivity. Expected between-group differences in brand switching and price sensitivity derive from past research. First, a comparison of the average strength of ethnic identity between the two groups is tested. Based on previous research US Hispanics should have a higher level of ethnic identity relative to non-Hispanic whites. For brand switching and price sensitivity, individuals who are brand loyal are expected to have lower scores on each of these measures. That is, a person loyal to a brand is not expected to strongly endorse behavioral indicators of brand switching (e.g., Shukla, 2009). Likewise, a person who is brand loyal is not expected to strongly endorse behavioral indicators of price sensitivity (Yoon and Tran, 2011). This, combined with past research on US Hispanics and brand loyalty, suggests Hispanics will have on average lower scores relative to non-Hispanic whites on both brand switching and price sensitivity. For the within-group analyses, past research on US Hispanics suggests an inverse relationship between ethnic identity and both brand switching and price sensitivity. That is, those with higher levels of ethnic identity have been shown to have lower levels of brand switching and price sensitivity. What is currently unknown is the role of ethnic identity for non-Hispanic whites in relation to these consumer behaviors. This study therefore investigates the within-group relationships between ethnic identity and the consumer behaviors and compares the groups with regard to the strength of this within-group relationship.

Methods

The current study uses a representative sample of US Hispanic and non-Hispanic white adults. Random digit dialing and surname lists were used for sample selection. Sample sizes for the groups are 485 and 231, respectively. As participants in a larger study, respondents answered questions relating to ethnic identity, price sensitivity, and brand switching. Ethnic identity is measured using the Phinney's (1992) multigroup ethnic identity measure (MEIM); three items from Raju (1984) measure brand switching and five items from Lichtenstein, Ridgway, and Netermeyer (1993) measure price sensitivity. All items were assessed using 10-point scales, with 1= strongly disagree to 10 = strongly agree. The model assumed a bi-factor structure for responses to the MEIM and single factors representing price sensitivity and brand switching. Using maximum likelihood estimation, all items had high loadings with their respective factors (.630 or higher) and each set of scores had reliability of .70 or higher. Based on current research, the MEIM was analyzed using a bi-factor model, an approach more appropriate given the nature of ethnic identity. A test of factorial invariance of was acceptable (configural model, RMSEA=.058; metric model, RMSEA=.058; scalar model, RMSEA=.059).

Key Findings

Between-Group

Hispanics and non-Hispanic whites differed on average with respect to ethnic identity, with Hispanics having a statistically higher mean level relative to non-Hispanic whites. Hispanics had significantly lower means for brand switching and price sensitivity relative to non-Hispanic whites. Table 1 below presents the between-group results.

Within-Group

For Hispanics, higher ethnic identity tended to relate to lower levels of price sensitivity and brand switching, consistent with previous studies. For non-Hispanic whites, however, no relationship between ethnic identity and both price sensitivity and brand switching was detected. Table 2 below presents the within-group results.

Table 2: MEIM on Brand Switching and Price Sensitivity

	Within-Group Results				
	MLE	(SE)	t-ratio	95%	CI
<i>US Hispanics</i>					
MEIM x Brand Switching	0.83	(0.13)	6.12	0.56	1.1
MEIM x Price Sensitivity	0.80	(0.12)	6.35	0.55	1.0
<i>Non-Hispanic Whites</i>					
MEIM x Brand Switching	0.04	(0.21)	0.82	-0.37	0.47
MEIM x Price Sensitivity	0.01	(0.20)	0.08	-0.38	0.41

Implications

Overall, the results suggests that US Hispanics may be more brand loyal than non-Hispanic whites, supporting earlier work on US Hispanics and brand loyalty. In addition, results suggest that US Hispanics are receptive to brand communications and incentives. In addition, brands can target high-ethnically-identified Hispanics with such efforts. For Hispanics with low levels of ethnic identity, brands may develop incentives and communications designed to move them towards brand loyalty. For non-Hispanic whites, a different approach is needed. That is, brands may have to do more to convince this group that brand loyalty will be beneficial to them. In addition, brands may have to work harder in creating marketing strategies that ultimately move non-Hispanic whites to be more brand loyal.

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**SESSION 1.6: A LOOK INTO INTERNATIONAL CONSUMERS AND
THEIR DIFFERENCES**

Chair:

Emi Moriuchi, Rochester Institute of Technology

Summary Brief

A Preliminary Exploration of International vs US MBA Student Interpretation of Vague Language

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Miscommunication makes coordinating actions and making decisions difficult, hurting productivity and feelings, and making future work with individuals or organizations undesirable. Differences in cultural background and native language may exacerbate miscommunication. The growing population of international students in U.S. graduate business programs can be a benefit, as they and U.S. students gain insights into communicating with others who have different worldviews. However, such insights and benefits depends on how well communication occurs while interacting in groups and dyads. An exercise that highlights a common source of miscommunication is used to explore international and domestic interpretations of common communication and coordination terms. Results suggest that vague language is ubiquitous in its potential to disrupt effective interaction.

Introduction

The precise communication of important information has long been an elusive but important goal (Coupland, Wiemann, and Giles, 1991; Haywood, Pickering, and Branigan, 2005; Janicki, 2002; Brewer and Holmes, 2009). Productivity can improve if ideas, plans, and other information are delivered both accurately and timely. Thus, there have been regular efforts to improve communication among education and training providers. One such approach that has proven useful with our students is the miscommunication exercise first described by Holmes and Brewer (2006). This exercise presents common terms for time (soon, ASAP, today, tomorrow, and right away) and probability (probably, usually, always, never, and often) and asks participants to respond with specific definitions.

The proportion of international students in our MBA classes increased dramatically over the past decade and we have thus found some communication difficulties within the team format used for applying marketing concepts and models and participating in marketing simulations. We have found no attempt to determine if the exercise is equally effective with international subjects or how their responses may differ. The research described here seeks to improve our classroom practices in the hope that better communication will result, thus improving outcomes.

Research Question

If responses differ we may need separate debriefings, or even a replacement exercise. Our research question is this: Is the traditional debriefing and discussion approach sufficient for both international and domestic students?

Hypotheses

H1: International student responses to terms will differ from those of students from the United States.

H2: International student responses to terms will be more aligned with the definition of terms, when such definitions are possible (i.e., for today, tomorrow, always, and never), than the responses of students from the U.S.

Method and Results

We ran the exercise introduced by Holmes and Brewer (2006) in two MBA marketing courses. Participants recorded each term and their definition of it. We used t-tests to compare means for U.S. and international responses. Only one term in one class (often) showed a significant difference. Indeed international and U.S. responses were quite similar, thus H1 is not supported. H2 stated that terms with a "dictionary definition" (today, tomorrow, always, and never) would cause international responses to be based on such definitions (because of formal English training in their home countries and/or ESL courses). Responses were similar for the groups; H2 is not supported.

Discussion

Regarding our research question, this preliminary examination suggests our current practice of discussing the results in aggregate terms is appropriate. One interesting note is that international students often mention that they are familiar with vague terms from their own cultures and languages. This has been a regular feature of post-exercise

discussion in the classroom. Because of this experience, we have begun collecting vague terms from students for potential incorporation into the exercise, related general communication training, and further research.

As is often the case means do not tell the whole story. In looking at other statistics (i.e., median, maximum, and minimum) for each term in the two groups for one section of the class, we realized that there is even closer agreement than with the means. Means are not as useful when the range of responses has outliers, as this data does. From a practical standpoint, you never know how the one particular customer (or subordinate, or student) you are talking to interprets a particular word or phrase compared to how you do. This is true whether you've articulated it in a classroom exercise or, not having done so, still hold it as an internal definition. Thus, the most important lesson of the exercise is to clarify any such term you find yourself using, or seek such clarification from your counterpart(s).

Future Research

Our results point to an effect that transcends country of origin and merits further study. Others have explored miscommunication in virtual teams (Brewer, 2010; Verdugo et al. 2013) and could provide helpful insights. Brewer and Holmes (2010) have also used a situation-specific environment, via a mini-case, to control for definitions being based on widely varying contexts among participants. Other ways of controlling context could be explored. As on-line education continues to grow so does our need for understanding and agreement of time issues in such settings. Virtual environments often lack context important for communication to succeed (Ferrazzi 2013). On-line education and business activities include factors and barriers that impact our understanding and agreement about time. On-line forums with heavy participation may cause a sense of information overload. Expectations of what time lags between a post or comment and a response should be vary. It is worthwhile to examine implications for the classroom and workplace environment.

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Summary Brief

Attitudes toward Star Ratings: Generational Differences among Indian Consumers

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This study examined differences among Indian Gen Xers and millennial consumers in the attitudes toward online reviews and their subsequent influence on behavioral intentions. The proposed model comprises of six variables: Online star rating involvement (INV), perceived usefulness (PU), perceived ease of use (PEOU), intention to use, attitude, and purchase intention. The results show that both Gen Xers and millennials consumers agree that online star rating involvement has an impact on their perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness of star ratings as well as the intention to use online star rating. These results indicated that only two factors, involvement and perceived ease of use affect Gen Xers' purchasing intention. In detail, involvement affects perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use. Perceived ease of use influences perceived usefulness and attitude toward star ratings. However, only perceived ease of use is related to purchase intention among Gen X. For millennials, all six variables have significant relationships. Among them, perceived ease of use is not directly related to attitude, but perceived ease of use affects perceived usefulness.

Introduction

Online reviews are available for a wide range of products and services. Consumer behavior research has been interested in the effect of online reviews by focusing on the usage of the average product ratings to predict sales (Chatterjee, 2001; Chevalier and Goolsbee, 2003). Previous research findings explain that star ratings tend to be a credible short-cut for consumers to predict the product quality and boost consumers' confidence in their purchasing decisions (Zhu and Zhang, 2010; Chu and Choi, 2011). This study aims to investigate Indian consumers' attitudes toward star ratings and their influences on intention to use. Also, this study examines generational differences between Gen Xers and millennials in the attitudes toward star ratings. The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) were utilized for theoretical framework and hypotheses

- H1:** Online star rating involvement is positively related to a) perceived usefulness, b) perceived ease of use, and c) intention to use online star ratings for both generational cohorts.
- H2:** Perceived ease of use positively affects a) perceived usefulness, b) attitude toward star rating and c) purchase intention for both generational cohorts.
- H3:** Perceived usefulness is positively related to attitude toward star rating for both generational cohorts.
- H4:** Attitude toward star rating is positively related to intention to use for both generational cohorts.
- H5:** Intention to use star rating is positively related to purchase intentions for both generational cohorts.
- H6:** Indian Gen Xers and millennials have different attitude, intention to use, and purchase intention with toward the level of star ratings.

Analysis and Results

Data were collected from Gen Xers (124) and millennials (241) who are Indian who live in India. Most Gen Xers fall in the age 52-60 and millennials are mostly 18-26 years old. For experimental treatments, two identical Amazon star ratings screens with low and high star ratings were created. Star rating manipulation was checked by comparing scores between high and low star ratings. The results revealed significance differences between the two groups ($F(1, 23.82) = 58.51, p = .000$). Therefore, the manipulation check was successful. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to test the overall validity of the measurement model. The CFA results showed a good model fit for a 32-item model, with $\chi^2 = 649.69$ $df = 440, p < .001$; Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .97; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .05; Normed Fit Index (NFI) = .92; the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = .97. Further, construct

validity was examined based on the factor loading estimates, construct reliabilities, variance extracted percentages and inter-construct correlations (Hair et al., 2010). The results supported the construct validity of the measurement model (Hair et al., 2010). Metric invariance between Gen Xers and millennial samples was examined. Overall, the unconstrained or “totally free” (TF) model fit reasonably well, with $\chi^2 = 1311.11$, $df = 880$, $p = .000$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .05; PNFI = 0.72. Next, constraining the measurement weights to be equal between groups, the model fit with $\chi^2 = 1347.46$, $df = 906$, CFI = .92; RMSEA = .05; PNFI = 0.73. The chi-square difference test results ($\Delta \chi^2 = 36.35$, $df = 26$, $p = .085$) satisfied the conditions for full metric invariance.

Next, an overall structural model fit for the two groups was estimated without any constraints imposed. The one-group SEM model provided a satisfactory fit of data with $\chi^2 = 678.37$, $df = 446$, $p = .000$; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .05; TLI = .97. Next, the procedures turned to a test of moderation using the generation variable. Overall fit measures of the “totally free” model indicated that the model was consistent with the data ($\chi^2 = 1419.08$, $df = 896$, $p = .000$; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .05; TLI = .91). By constraining all structural coefficients to be equal in both groups, the constrained Model was significantly different from the free model ($\Delta \chi^2 = 153.63$, $df = 35$, $p = .000$). Thus, it indicated that the model was moderated by generation. The SEM structural paths show that not all constructs were positively related in both samples. Comparing mean scores, the results explain that Gen Xers have favorable attitude toward high star ratings while millennials have favorable attitude toward. Also, Gen Xers indicate higher mean scores of purchase intention than millennials. Both generations have higher purchase intention when they saw high star ratings and low star ratings. On the contrary, millennials reveal higher intention to use of star ratings than Gen Xers. Millennials have higher intention to use when they saw high star ratings while Gen Xers indicate higher intention to use toward low star ratings.

Discussions and Conclusion

This study offers a theoretical contribution by applying the TAM and ELM models to online reviews specifically towards star ratings context. For Gen Xers, the usefulness of the star ratings does not have an impact their attitude toward star ratings. It might indicate that they may be more reliant on offline WOM rather than eWOM. Millennials, on the other hand, find that the usefulness of the information does have an impact on their attitude. This is probably because unlike the Gen Xers, millennials often use online information more than any offline information. The results also indicate that high star ratings have an effect on Gen Xers’ attitudes, while millennials find that low star ratings have an impact on their attitudes. Another difference between the two generations was that Gen Xers rely on low star ratings for their intention to use. Millennials, on the other hand, prefer to use high star ratings.

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Summary Brief

Strengthening the Relationship between Product Evaluation and Source Country Image

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The purpose of this conceptual manuscript is the examination of two factors that may influence the strength of inverse country of origin effects. Inverse country of origin effects describe the positive relationship between product evaluation and source country image. Specifically, inverse country of origin effects theorize that a consumer's positive experience with a product will positively impact her image of the source country for that product. Using a theoretical base of dissonance theory, this manuscript proposes that two factors; charging a premium price, and offering smaller discounts, will strengthen that relationship. Identifying factors that amplify inverse country of origin effects is important for those marketers seeking to increase revenues, and for those branding nations.

Introduction

Several studies demonstrate inverse country of origin effects, in which consumers' experiences with products influence their evaluations of those products' source countries (e.g., Gotsi, Lopez, and Andriopoulos 2011; Lopez, Gotsi, and Andriopoulos 2011; Magnusson et al. 2014; Myung-Soo and Kim 2014; White 2012). For example, if Susan enjoys driving her Miata, she'll have a more favorable image of Japan. Inverse country of origin effects are important because favorable country images have been linked to benefits, including consumer willingness to pay more for products from favorably viewed countries (Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos, and Oldenkotte 2012). These effects are especially important to marketers seeking to brand or rebrand nations, but are also important to individual firms seeking to increase revenues.

Identifying factors which strengthen the relationship between product experiences and source country image would provide marketers with tools to amplify inverse country of origin effects. The objective of this conceptual study is to identify some of these factors. Dual concerns guide our selection of factors: the ease of control by marketers and theory. Using cognitive dissonance theory, we develop propositions regarding two strengthening factors.

Propositions

Dissonance theory suggests that country image changes because of increasing tension. Tension increases when thought and behavior, or thoughts about that behavior, are inconsistent (Festinger 1957). In this context, a positive experience with a product creates tension if the image of its source country is less positive than that experience. Dissonance theory suggests a consumer will be motivated to reduce tension, which can be done by altering thoughts about the source country to be consistent with her thoughts about her product experience.

The strength of the change in country image depends upon the proportion of dissonant thoughts to total thoughts. Total thoughts include those thoughts consistent with the existing country image (e.g., a car manufactured in Japan is fun to drive) and thoughts that are inconsistent with the existing country image (e.g., this Japanese car is noisy). Thoughts consistent with country image are termed consonant thoughts while inconsistent thoughts are termed dissonant thoughts. The proportion of dissonant thoughts to total thoughts is termed the magnitude of dissonance.

Tension is greatest when the proportion of dissonant thoughts to total thoughts is maximized; the greatest tension occurs when the dissonant thoughts are just enough to evoke dissonant behavior (Festinger 1957). For example, giving someone one dollar to perform a dissonant behavior evokes more tension than giving someone twenty dollars, because there are more consonant thoughts in the latter case (Festinger and Carlsmith 1959). When consonant thoughts increase, the magnitude of dissonance decreases. When consonant thoughts decrease, the magnitude of dissonance increases because of a decrease in total thoughts.

Following dissonance theory, some marketing factors should work to amplify inverse country of origin effects. One example of this is price level. According to dissonance theory, as price increases consonant thoughts about buying a product will decrease. Consumer thoughts would reflect that the increasing price is inconsistent with saving money. Pricing at a premium should reduce consonant thoughts as long as other factors (e.g., quality) remain the same. Reducing consonance increases the magnitude of dissonance and increasing the magnitude of dissonance will

strengthen inverse country of origin effects. Consumers who pay more for a product will compensate for the increased magnitude of dissonance by a greater altering of source country image.

P1: Paying a higher price for a product will increase source country image more than paying a lower price.

Even luxury brands discount from time to time. At times, price promotions may be necessary to sell any product. However, if one is interested in strengthening inverse country of origin effects, how much of a discount should be offered? Festinger and Carlsmith (1959) paid subjects a low or high amount to engage in dissonant behavior. Those paid the lower amount showed a higher magnitude of dissonance than those paid a higher amount. The higher amount created more consonant thoughts than the lower amount. A higher level of consonant thoughts decreases the proportion that dissonance represents of total thoughts. Similarly, a slight discount would evoke less consonant thoughts than a larger discount. A consumer purchasing the product at a lesser discount would have fewer consonant thoughts relative to purchasing with a higher discount. Less consonant thoughts result in lower total thoughts and a higher proportion of dissonant thoughts; a slight discount will evoke greater magnitude of dissonance than a larger discount. A greater magnitude of dissonance would be associated with greater inverse country of origin effects. Consumers who receive a lesser discount will compensate for the greater magnitude of dissonance by a greater change in source country image.

P2: A slight discount for a brand will increase country image more than a large discount.

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**SESSION 1.7: BEING “POLITICALLY CORRECT” IN THE
MARKETPLACE**

Chair:

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Summary Brief

Integrating Religion into the Marketing Mix: Is there an Ethical Line?

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The earliest marketing literature on religion focused on segmentation and marketing strategies to create religious exchanges within religious organizations. Subsequent research examined religious influences on marketing, markets and consumer behavior. However, the literature remains limited on integrating religion into marketing mixes for profit. Moreover, little research has addressed questions about whether this practice ever presents an ethical issue. The presentation for this working paper will overlay ethics in marketing with ethics of religion to evaluate cases where religion is used in marketing mixes for a profit, address potential ethical issues, and outline an agenda for future research.

Introduction

Religion remains an influential factor of any society and human behavior. Religion also has the potential to affect consumer's choices. In turn, Marketing practices and activities also shape part of a society's values and the expectations of consumers within society, including religious choices and practices.

Marketing and religion often intersect in the market place as the content from one discipline may be integrated into the offering of the other. For example, marketing is used for religion when a church may implement a promotional plan to increase membership. Religion is used for a marketing exchange when a jeweler retailer may sell for profit those items with religious symbolism, such as a cross or Star of David necklace. However, Marketing and religion each have a distinct relational exchange that differentiates them from one another. As has occurred, content from religion is integrated into marketing mixes for profitable marketing exchanges through the market place.

The purpose of this research presentation is to pose the research questions: 1) Are there types of marketing mixes where integrating religion may blur the line for consumers in distinguishing a marketing exchange from a religious one? and 2) Is there ever an ethical boundary to integrate religion into a marketing mix for a profitable marketing exchange? While the first question is positive, or descriptive in nature, the second question poses a normative question related to ethics. Answers to these questions can identify types of marketing mixes that may raise ethical concerns both to marketing managers and religious organizational leaders.

Presentation Summary

The earliest research in marketing on religion focused on segmentation and marketing strategies to generate religious exchanges. For example, McDaniel (1989) addressed how marketing activities are employed by churches. Indeed, a wide body of literature among the social sciences agree that the success of organized religion in the U.S. is a result of marketing (Moore 1994; Verwiej et al. 1997; Iannaccone 1998; Barro and McCleary 2003). This consensus suggests that the literature subsumes this practice among other ethical uses of marketing. Conversely though, research is limited where religion is integrated into marketing mixes for marketing exchanges, and where this practice is reviewed with an ethical lens.

More recent literature also examines how religion, beliefs and practices may influence marketing and markets. Included in this literature is the influence of religion on consumer decisions and behavior. This literature includes a recent special issue of the Journal of Business Research (2014, Volume 67, Issue 2). and a special issue of Journal of MacroMarketing: Religion and Macromarketing (2016, Volume 36, Issue 4). More recently, Marketing has begun to examine the intersection of religion and marketing. However, Drenten and McManus (2016) note that much is missing from this area of research. Consequently, it is of interest to contribute to the literature on interactivity between religion and marketing (Benton 2016). Integrating religion into the marketing mix for profit also is visible throughout the market place - using the Christian fish, through corporate identity, through publicized operational practices, or by integrating religion into the augmented product or service.

While the use of religion may be integrated into marketing mixes for profit, the question remains as to whether ethical issues emerge in this practice. Concerns include potential exploitation with detrimental outcomes for individual consumers, including but not exclusive to those in vulnerable consumer groups. Additional concerns include

detrimental outcomes for society and exploitatively advantageous outcomes for sellers. To answer the two research questions for this working paper, the intent is to identify types of marketing mixes that may raise ethical concerns both to marketing managers and religious organizational leaders. Improved understanding can lead practitioners to provide value through a marketing mix in an ethical manner. However, the task at hand is not simple.

As two different types of social exchanges, marketing and religious exchanges share similarities in their networks (e.g., suppliers, buyers, brands, and influential actors). In addition, both marketing and religion share some content and processes that are quite similar, but with notable differences as found in Anderson et al. (1999). Despite these differences, the similarities of these two types of exchanges and the integration of subject matter from one exchange type into the elements of the other type of exchange may blur the line between them.

The objective within marketing is to create exchanges where each party receives equal value and where the seller's offering results in an exchange relationship. In religion, the exchange objective is for the participant to receive some spiritual reward in return for committing to a spiritual conviction required by the supplier. The supplier's exchange objective is often based upon principles defined by the organization's doctrine. In religious exchanges, the needs of the customer also are defined by principles of a doctrine rather than by the customer.

In some cases, there may be ambiguity about the type of exchange offered. For example, a restaurant open to the public with a religious theme throughout the atmospherics, and with religious messages delivered throughout the dining experience, may provide an offering where the religious message and experience is as much a component of the service offering as the meal provided. The integration of religion in this marketing mix may certainly blur the line between the two types of exchanges where a seller enjoys a profit.

To initiate discussion and complete this paper, the author will first distinguish between the two types of exchanges by identifying their objectives. Next, literature will be reviewed both on theory of ethics in religion and theory of ethics in marketing, where the two are overlaid to develop a framework. In completing the paper, data will be collected followed by discussion and a proposed agenda for future research.

These differences in the two exchange types are the starting point for developing the framework to evaluate interactivity between religion and marketing in marketing mixes. While an overview of exchange objectives is provided, subsequent steps of the working paper will be completed as outlined above. For the final paper, data collection will include marketing practitioners, consumers, and religious leaders. The presentation with an outline of an agenda for future research in ethical concerns for Marketing and Religion.

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Presentation

Qualitative Insights on Happy, Older, African-American, Never-Married Females: Marketing Strategy and Public Policy Implications

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This article illuminates many of the realities of the lives of older, never-married women. Contrary to common characterizations of them being lonely and miserable, the respondents largely articulate that their lives are fulfilling. In addition, they dispel the assumptions regarding the idea that older, never-married women are undesirable. In particular, the majority of them reported having been engaged to be married, in the past. Many of them had been engaged multiple times. The women in this study are never-married, African-American females, who are over the age of 50. Very importantly, they are “happy”. Understanding what is for many, a counter-intuitive level of contentment these women have, can be instructive in understanding the singles population overall. The information in this study lends itself to providing a number of implications with respect to companies’ marketing strategies and society’s public policy development with respect to the proliferating singles population, particularly as they age.

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to reduce some of the “knowledge gaps” that exist with respect to understanding the mindset of single individuals, and subsequently provide insights that can prove instructive for marketing and public policy strategists. Older, single, individuals, who are “happy” especially the never-married individuals among them, are considered to be a bit of an anomaly in American society. This study illuminates the contented lifestyles of these individuals in the face of stereotypes that abound that insist that these individuals are very disappointed with their lives. A continued societal naivety regarding the life paths of these individuals have led to potential holes in marketing strategies for companies and public policy planning for governments. Gaining an authentic understanding of the lifestyles and mindsets of these older, never-married individuals can be valuable for ensuring that the lifestyles of these individuals are factored into policy decisions.

Literature Review

Not everyone’s life follows the traditional family life cycle model of generally progressing through being single to becoming married, having children, and then being cohabitating spouses who are empty nesters. The fact is that the demographics of Americans have changed precipitously with respect to marital status. The most recent census data has revealed that the singles population is now the majority population among American adults (Schrager 2014).

In that regard, there is an unprecedented number of Americans who have never married. Among adults, 25 years of age or older, 23% of men have never married and 17% of women have never married. Within the singles population, the percentage of women who are never married can be considered as high as 40%. African-American females rival their male counterparts in this sea change. Among African-Americans, 36% of males have never married and 35% of women have never married (Pew Research Center 2014). When incorporating the age range of 15 to 44, 55% of African-American women have never married (Jayson 2012). In addition, African-American females in particular have gained in economic strength relative to their male counterparts (Kaba 2005).

Neither scholarly works nor business or public policy strategies have kept pace with this precipitous change in American demographics (Zhang and Hayward 2001; Edelbrock et al 2001). The lack of keeping pace with this phenomenon is akin to the historical perspective of limiting the study of heart disease to male subjects (DePaulo and Morris 2005). Antiquated themes regarding single women (e.g. negative portrayals in self-help literature, women’s choice for remaining single viewed as zero-sum, stereotyping and discrimination towards singles) are prevalent in the academy (DePaulo and Morris 2006; Koeing et al 2010; Lahad 2014). In general, there is an overall dearth in the research on singles (Baumbusch 2004). In that regard, understanding the life path of older, never-married, African-American women can be uniquely informative, particularly given that these females are a group that rivals their male counterparts with respect to being never-married and with respect to economic strength.

Society’s overall sluggishness in keeping pace with the significant ways in which the marital lifestyles of Americans have changed, can and have led to antiquated ways of viewing the necessary marketing strategies and

public policy enactments as well, needed for a thriving society. In today's society, it is essential to incorporate the evolving lifestyles of single individuals into scholarly discourse. "We need to reform all kinds of economic and social policies to better reflect the way that Americans are actually living, not the way they used to live 50 years ago" (Traister 2016). One salient fact regarding this population is that as they age, they will not necessarily have the benefit of having informal caretaking networks in the traditional sense (e.g. spouse, their own children) the way their married counterparts do (Baumbusch 2004).

Theoretical Underpinning

Social exchange theory is a paradigm that has been used to analyze familial relationships. This theory seeks to explain "the balance between the rewards that marital partners obtain and the costs that they incur by selecting themselves into marital relationships" (Nakonezny and Denton 2008). For women (particularly housewives), it has been historically assumed that their happiness is ascribed to being married. In that regard, happiness is considered to be one of the "rewards" of being married. Argyle (19987) has described marriage as a social ideal that is said to be a key source of happiness. Hence, according to Argyle, "the greatest benefits come from marriage."

Conversely, Heaton and Albrecht (1991) contend that the status of being married is not always as favorable as it is assumed to be. Betty Friedan describes in her seminal work, *The Feminine Mystique* that happy housewives are a fantasy figure (Friedan 1965). In that vein, this study sought to identify the happiness level of never-married, older, African-American females. If conventional wisdom is accurate (that the key to a woman's happiness is being a housewife), the individuals in this study should be quite miserable.

Methodology

The analysis for this study uses the constant comparative method. This methodology draws on the work of Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Lincoln and Guba (1985). The method involves segmenting respondents comments into discrete 'incidents' (Glaser and Strauss 1967) or 'units' (Lincoln and Guba 1985) and coding them to categories. This yields categories that likely take two forms. One category is built on the responses from the respondents in a way that is illustrative of their verbal expression and their cultural norms. The other category is built on concepts that the researcher discovers as being germane to the concept under study. The goal of the former "is to reconstruct the categories used by subjects to conceptualize their own experiences and world view. The goal of the latter is to assist the researcher in developing theoretical insights into the social processes operative in the site under study. Thus, the process of constant comparison stimulates thought that leads to both descriptive and explanatory categories" (Lincoln and Guba 1985).

In-depth interviews were held with twenty five African-American, females who are over 50 years of age and never-married. Each woman was asked a list of scripted questions regarding her lifestyles as an older, never-married female. The respondents were also asked to rank their happiness on a likert scale of 1-5, with one being very dissatisfied and five being very satisfied.

Research Questions

- Are these individuals anti-marriage?
- Are they lonely and/or reclusive?
- What is their socio-economic status?
- How do they perceive their socio-economic status?
- What myths do they see in how society perceives them?
- What are their key concerns as single individuals?

Results

There were approximately 25 women interviewed. The overwhelming majority of the women held college degrees. Many of them had earned advanced degrees. The sample contained women who ranged from living in some of the poorest areas of the deep south, to those who were living a robust middle-class lifestyle. With few exceptions, the women are very content with their never-married, marital status. This was consistent among all of the women irrespective of socio-economic status. The vast majority of the women rated their overall happiness at least a four (satisfied to very satisfied) on a likert scale ranging from one to five. Over half of the women had been engaged at some point. The majority of the women who had been previously engaged, had been engaged two or more times.

There were common themes that emerged that warrant public policy consideration. Those were the fact that extended family and their social networks appeared to be proxies for traditional marriage arrangements. Church was a key source of social support for many of the women. Many of the women prioritized careers over having relationships. The manifestation of that decision is that these women's consumption patterns with respect to "big ticket" items were not much unlike those of married couples. A key example is that many of the women had done extensive traveling. Overall these women were "fine" with their lifestyles, again irrespective of socio-economic status.

Conclusion and Implications

Society largely perceives single individuals, particularly older, never-married, females with a mindset that is more reminiscent of the 1950's than of the twenty first century. That mindset is that older individuals are unhappy, bitter, and live reclusive lives that are unfulfilling. Therefore, the assumption can be that these seasoned singles avoid the singles status, and therefore society need not incorporate this group into its overall policies. This antiquated way of thinking has created a knowledge gap with respect to understanding the quality of life and the lifestyles of single individuals overall. This naivety can reflect upon the way companies market their products, particularly luxury items like vacations. Furthermore, the ignorance about the singles population can also result in the lack of proper public policy strategies with respect to the aging population. As an example, older, single individuals buy homes, advance their education, and take vacations, in the same manner in which married individuals engage in these activities. Forward thinking marketing strategists need to ensure that this fact is incorporated in their target market activities.

On the other hand, older, single individuals do however lack the traditional "informal" network of individuals (e.g. spouse, children) to look out for their welfare as they age. Hence, American society needs to intensify its perspective on public policy issues as those policies address aging singles, particularly with respect to long-term housing and health care arrangements. None of the women addressed the disadvantages they might face as they age and potentially need the assistance of caretakers or the need for provisions for their living arrangements. Although the fact that most of the women were extremely content with the family, social, and community networks they have built for themselves, these women will not have the "informal" networks (e.g. children, spouses) that often form the safety nets that married individuals or individuals with children might have. Hence, the public policy implications for the housing and health care needs of this segment are a weakness in public policy discourse.

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Presentation

The Altruistic Brand

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Today's society has been inundated with countless corporate scandals and examples of unsavory business practices. Public opinion of business has seen significant decreases initiated in early 2000's with scandals such as Enron with most recent declines being a bi-product of the Great Recession. Such an environment makes it ideal setting for businesses and marketers to rethink what it means to provide value to our customers. In addition to profit and market share driven objectives, the current paper asks, "what societal benefits could marketers provide to their customers?" One such area is in regards to Prosocial Behavior. The current study presents an empirical model for not only positive outcomes of promoting Prosocial Behavior through marketing content but also potential antecedents of individuals that make them more apt to notice and be receptive to social marketing campaigns.

Introduction

As modern consumers become more educated and specific about what products and brands they purchase, companies are continually looking for new means for developing lasting relationship with their consumers (Keller, 2012). A growing notion among consumers and brand managers in recent years has been with cause-related marketing (CRM) (Barone, Miyazaki & Taylor, 2000; Basil & Herr, 2006). Cause-related marketing can be conceptualized as the pairing of a firm with a charity in a marketing effort (Basil & Harr, 2006). CRM has been shown to enhance product choice (Lichtenstein Drumwright & Braig, 2004), attitudes toward the firm as well as attitudes associated with the charity (Basil & Herr, 2006; Lafferty, Goldsmith, & Hult, 2004). Furthermore, CRM can positively impact a companies' brand equity, brand loyalty and purchase price premium (Nejati, 2014). These shifts have even been seen on Wall Street with the creation of a specific exchange designed to include more ethical companies (Gallucci, November 12, 2015). Furthermore, Buycott, a multimedia app, has been created that allows consumers to scan products they have purchased or are considering purchasing and it provides product and company information about the ethics associated with the product. Cause-related marketing is also being seen as a strategy for international firms (Wang, 2014).

While there has been significant research as to the consequences of cause-related marketing efforts, there has been inconsistent efforts in researching the antecedents of consumers' preference for cause-related marketing programs. In recent years, businesses have increasingly emphasized the role of morality and ethics (Hsu 2007). Both firms and consumers have demonstrated an increased desire to be more socially responsible (Nejati, 2014). However, this moral imperative is often viewed through the lens of prosocial tendency without addressing intrinsic contributions to such behaviors. The current study looks to investigate antecedents and consequences of cause-related marketing. Specifically, the study proposes a model of antecedents to preferences for cause-related marketing to include self-efficacy, and prosocial behavior personality. In addition the model posits that through the use of cause-related marketing, firms can develop stronger brand resonance with their consumer. Thus, the current study fills the gap in the current literature and proposes potential antecedents to such prosocial behaviors as well as a path model to explain consumers' preferences for CRM marketing practices.

Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as "the beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce a given outcome" (p.3). Individuals with higher self-efficacy are more likely to have higher aspirations, take long views, think soundly set themselves difficult personal challenges and commit themselves fully to meet those challenges (Bandura, 1997). By contrast, individuals with lower self-efficacy are likely to avoid difficult tasks, and have demonstrated a higher propensity towards depression. Perceived self-efficacy has been linked to motivation and behavior change and to enhance an affect regulation and psychosocial functioning (Iancu, Bodner, & Ben-Zion, 2015).

Prosocial behavior is defined as, "the desire to expend effort to benefit other people" (Grant, 2008, p. 49). Prosocial behavior has been conceptualized as the antonym to antisocial behavior and has been broadly conceptualized to denote a broad range of actions committed to the betterment of others without any immediately perceived reward. Common conceptualization of prosocial behavior has generally been concentrated on it as a personality trait

(Agnihotri, Krush, & Singh 2012). Hoffman (1982) posited two key components necessary for the development of prosocial behaviors; empathy and guilt. Hoffman (1982) posted that prosocial behaviors were not a result of intrinsic motivations but instead were driven by one's capacity to take others' roles into consideration (empathy) in collaboration with the desire to conform to social norms of actions (guilt). Recent research in psychology has highlighted the need to study alternative pathways or personality traits that might contribute to this prosocial behavior affiliation (Agnihotri et al., 2012). While this initial conceptualization provides an excellent foundation in which to position prosocial behavior it is the current study's intention to posit an additional antecedent to one's prosocial behavior tendency; self-efficacy. It is argued that a person's perception of control over future outcomes should have a direct influence on one's intention to engage in behaviors that are likely to benefit others.

H1: Generalized self-efficacy will have a positive relationship on individual's intention to engage in prosocial behavior.

Cause-related marketing has been an increasingly viable business model as the continued increase in consumers demanding more emphasis on ethics in the marketplace (Mercedes et al., 2014). An outgrowth from conversations regarding Business Social Responsibility (BSR), and first introduced in 1988 by Varadarajan and Menon, the construct came to refer to campaigns in which a company collaborates with an NPO making a contribution to a specific cause in terms of the product sale or product use. Cause-related marketing programs vary in scope and design. They may differ in the types of partners involved, causes promotes, manner of contributing, as well as the relationship between the parties. While their construction may vary, their outcomes seen sound.

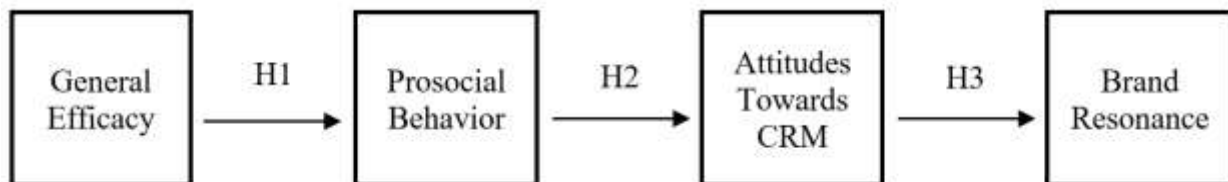
Consumer attitudes are a critical construct in social psychology and key to the explanation of consumer behavior in general (Mercedes et al., 2014). The fact that attitudes serve as precursors to consumer responses points to their relation to consumer behavior and purchase decisions (see Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Mercedes and colleagues (2014) posit that CRM programs provide an optimal marketing vehicle through which to attract and retain consumers. Most research has emphasized socioeconomic and demographic differences in individual's attitudes toward CRM (see Kropp et al., 1999; Moosmayer & Fuljahn, 2010). More recently, Mercedes et al. (2014) demonstrated a significant influence of values on consumers' attitudes toward CRM. Specifically, they observed consumers' susceptibility to interpersonal influence had a direct impact on individual's attitudes toward CRM. Both Self-efficacy and Prosocial Behavior can be seen as interpersonal values. We therefore posit the following hypothesis:

H2: Individual prosocial behavior will have a positive influence on attitudes toward CRM.

Keller (2012) proposed brand resonance as the top-tier outcome of a consumer relationship. Brand resonance is defined as "the nature of the consumer-brand relationship, and more specifically the extent to which a person feels that he or she resonated or connects with a brand and feels 'in sync'" (Keller, 2012, p. 188). Further, with true brand resonance, consumers feel an overwhelming degree of representation and conformity in building and sustaining the consumer-brand relationship. In addition, Vinodhini and Kumar (2012) state that brand resonance is the most important building block for brands in the modern competitive marketplace.

Literature has affirmed that consumer attitudes toward CRM contribute to a positive intent to buy and added value to the product offerings (Kropp et al., 1999). While previous literature has concentrated on short-term buying intention and purchase behavior, little research has investigated the long-term implications of CRM programs may develop between brands and consumers. Building on the premise of brand resonance by Keller (2012) that posits it has the highest of brand-consumer relationship, the current study posits;

H3: Consumers' attitudes toward CRM programs will has a positive impact on their Brand Resonance for the brand.



Research Design and Methodology

A multi-sectioned survey instrument was created for the purpose of testing each of the proposed hypotheses. All scales utilized in the survey were derived from pre-existing and well-established scales in the research field. All scale

items were measured using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree). The final section asked demographic information such as gender, age, marital status and highest level of education completed.

The current study will utilize a convenience sample of 300 undergraduate students enrolled in a mid-sized regional university in the Midwest United States. Data will be entered into IBM SPSS version 22.0 with an initial descriptive analysis being performed (e.g. frequency, means, and etc.). Reliability will be assessed on an individual factor using Cronbach's alpha. The descriptive analysis will investigate preliminary to ensure against self-generated data bias. The hypothesized relationships in the model will be tested using structural equation modeling technique via R (Byrne, 2013). Different fit indices will be employed to assess the overall model's fit (e.g. χ^2 , χ^2/df , RMSEA, NFI, CFI, and NNFI).

The survey was administered during a two week period in September of 2017 to students enrolled in a business course (e.g. marketing, management, human resources, or finance). These students were asked to voluntarily complete the survey. Key findings and discussion will be presented.

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Summary Brief

Why We Shop with Companies We Hate: An Exploration of Barriers to Ideological Shopping

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While supporting businesses with stances, opinions, and ideologies that are agreeable and avoiding purchasing from companies with disagreeable ideological stances seems intuitive, we are interested in consumers who support a business against their ideology. The goal of this research is to gain a better understanding of the antecedents and outcomes to consumers' purchases against their ideology which include supporting a business whose stance they disagree with as well as not purchasing from a business whose stance they do agree with. With this study, we hope to extend upon existing literature by exploring the variables that act as barriers to ideological shopping as well as identifying why shoppers continue to support businesses whose ideological stances they are opposed to. We seek to identify both the precursors and possible outcomes of shopping against one's ideology.

Introduction

Consumers are becoming increasingly interested in the way that companies comport themselves as members of communities and society at large. This is not limited to simply the presence or absence of traditional corporate social responsibility actions (such as corporate philanthropic donations), but can also extend into publicly known company policies, or opinions and ideologies of individuals within the firm. The ubiquity of information and of interpersonal exchange afforded to consumers in the Internet age also facilitates, now more than ever, the ability for individuals to learn about company – or a company's employees' – stances and ideologies and be in the position to act on such information should they so choose. One such course of action that we see is that consumers increasingly show a willingness to reward or punish firms (by purchasing or avoiding their products and services) based on the way that firms' stances align or conflict with their own.

The idea that consumers would buy from companies with stances, opinions, and ideologies that are agreeable to them and avoid purchasing from companies that they find disagreeable seems like a natural response. However, particularly interesting are those consumers who shop against ideology. That is, they are aware of a firm's stance and behave in a way that is opposite from the valence of their feelings about that stance. The purpose of this study is to explore barriers to ideological shopping. The goal of this research is to investigate this phenomenon with the specific aim of gaining a better understanding of the antecedents and outcomes to consumers shopping against ideology. What follows are a brief literature review, preliminary results from an explorative qualitative study, and a discussion of the future direction that we would like to take to continue the study.

Literature Review

Political consumerism is rapidly emerging as an avenue for creating social change (Crockett and Wallendorf 2004; Kozinets and Handelman 2004; Sandovici and Davis 2010). Actions such as boycotting a brand, or "boycotting", "the act of deliberately purchasing a product in order to support certain ethical, moral, or political concerns" are becoming popular in addition to acts such as direct donations as potential drivers of social change (Sandovici and Davis 2010, p 329). The goal of these movements is to change consumer culture itself by not only creating a better-informed consumer but also encouraging faith in the possibility that consumers' actions will have a substantial enough impact to cause change (Kozinets and Handelman 2004; Sandovici and Davis 2010). These movements are working in tandem with the increasingly prevalent social trend towards reverting to a simpler lifestyle in the interest of reducing environmental impact as well as achieving spiritual fulfilment, seemingly not achieved through usual consumption (Soper and Thomas 2008).

Brand preference as an expression of one's identity or social standing is well-recognized in Marketing literature. Similarly, brand avoidance is emerging as an instrument of identity expression (Charmely, Garry, and Ballantine 2013). Researchers are investigating why, in this climate of political consumerism, a large number of consumers are still not making purchases in congruence with their ideological stances (Gleim, Smith, Andrews, and Cronin 2013). With this study, we hope to extend upon existing literature by further exploring the variables that act as barriers to

ideological shopping as well as identifying why shoppers continue to support businesses whose ideological stances they are opposed to. We seek to identify both the precursors and possible outcomes of shopping against one's ideology.

Preliminary Qualitative Study

For the purposes of this study, we set out to understand how consumers may approach consumption situations that conflict with their personal ideological stance. We interviewed 25 respondents using a semi structured in-depth interview format. The respondents were predominantly from the Southeastern region of the United States. Fifteen of these respondents were female while the remaining ten were male with ages ranging from 20-70 years (average age 35.9).

We asked the respondents if the ideological stance taken by a business induced them to support or avoid a certain business. All interviewees responded in the affirmative. While it is intuitive to support agree with and support people and organizations whose views align with our own, for this research, we were interested in finding out why consumers often shop from businesses whose ideological stance they do not agree with, or, conversely, do not shop from businesses whose ideological stance they do agree with.

While some respondents told us that they did not shop from businesses they disagreed with, a majority of the respondents admitted that they did often shop from a business even when they disagreed with the ideological stance held by that business. Several reasons became apparent from the interviews, chief among these were the excellent quality of the product and service offered by the business, lack of alternative options in the locale, the positive aspects of the business outweighing the negative, low prices, convenience, and, in some case, carrying a product that could not be found elsewhere.

Looking at the other aspect of our research, not buying from a business whose ideology consumers support, the biggest reason mentioned was high prices, often combined with the respondents' low income. Other reasons included low quality product (for example ELF cosmetics), inconvenient locations and lack of clear information on the causes supported by the firm.

Future Direction

In order to further this study, we would like to take what we have learned from individual interviews and conduct focus groups, which may be more conducive to richer conversation. The qualitative study is anticipated to yield themes that can be explored with an empirical study. The goal is to identify specific variables that act as antecedents and outcomes of shopping against ideology.

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SESSION 1.8: CHALLENGES IN UPPER LEVEL MARKETING CLASSES

Chair:

Nese Nasif, University of Wisconsin – LaCrosse

Presentation

An Authentic Cross-Cultural Experience in the Consumer Behavior Classroom

Tará Burnthorne Lopez, Southeastern Louisiana University, USA

April Field Kemp, Southeastern Louisiana University and University of South Alabama, USA

Russell W. McKenzie, Southeastern Louisiana University, USA

This presentation describes an in-class activity to enhance students' cross-cultural awareness in an authentic way. It engages Consumer Behavior students with the university's ESL students as a way to discover differences in consumer behavior. The activity specifically focuses on online shopping behavior and can be easily adapted to other courses.

Introduction

Despite the importance of global awareness, according to a 2014 study, fewer than seven percent of U.S. university students have basic cultural intelligence (Lopes-Murphy 2014). Ideally, students would have the opportunity to experience diverse cultures first-hand through personal or academic travel opportunities. However, when compared with other regions such as Europe, U.S. university students face several difficulties to international travel including geography - diverse countries in Europe are more geographically accessible and require less time to visit; logistics - many European countries are connected by modern rail and water transportation systems; financial - international travel from the U.S. is very expensive; and cultural - there is not a strong culture of international travel. Given these difficulties, how can faculty address the challenge of developing students' global competencies in an authentic and realistic way while remaining in the U.S.?

This presentation will describe a classroom activity to help authentically build students' global awareness. The activity was designed and conducted in a Consumer Behavior course which is an ideal forum for learning about cultural differences among consumers. The activity is flexible and easy to adapt for any course.

During the activity, CB students conducted in-depth interviews to learn about international students' online shopping behaviors. Online shopping has been growing globally at a rapid pace for several years (Nielsen 2014). However, studies show that online shopping behaviors vary significantly between countries. The in-class activity described in this presentation will demonstrate that exploring these differences offers intriguing opportunities to introduce students to the complexities of culture and how businesses must consider these differences in their decision making. The following topics will be addressed in the presentation.

Activity Design

The goal for the activity was to help improve students' intercultural understanding while at the same time, exploring course concepts. Students enrolled in a Consumer Behavior class at a university in the Southeastern United States conducted in-depth interviews with students participating in one of the university's ESL (English as a Second Language) programs. The ESL students had been in the United States approximately five weeks. Of the Consumer Behavior (CB) students, fourteen were U.S. citizens and one was not.

An in-depth interview instrument was designed to tap into multiple factors that affect online shopping behaviors, including opinions of financial risks, convenience, and risk related to infrastructure, familiarity with computers, and types of goods the respondent typically purchased online. The instrument was reviewed by the ESL teachers to verify its clarity. Session participants will be provided with a copy of the interview instrument.

Results

The CB students discovered interesting insights about their international counterparts' online shopping behaviors and perceptions. In addition to offering session participants data on the ESL students' online shopping habits, the presentation will also discuss the CB students' reflections on the activity experience. CB students were assigned reflection questions to guide them toward thinking more deeply about the experience and help them connect the experience to the Consumer Behavior course content. These questions will also be provided to the participants.

Conclusions

The experience was extremely positive for both groups of students. In the debriefing after the exercise and in informal conversations with the CB students, they admitted that they would have been very reluctant to initiate a conversation with an international student outside of class. However, after completing this activity, the students really appreciated the opportunity to exchange ideas. The activity offered them an opportunity for an authentic interaction and broadened their understanding of consumer behavior, culture, and international marketing.

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Presentation

Susceptibility of Marketing Students to Stereotype Threats

Nese Nasif, University of Wisconsin – La Crosse, USA

Gwen Achenreiner, University of Wisconsin – La Crosse, USA

An individual who has succumbed to a stereotype threat has become aware of a particular stereotype of her/his group and, in turn, has performed in a way that reduces her/his performance as a result of consciously or subconsciously internalizing that stereotype. Although the stereotype threat notion has been applied to some non-educational contexts, the most pervasive application of the theory is in regard to the educational performance of women and African American students. This preliminary research investigates the proposition that the stereotype threat may have a diminished (or nonexistent) presence on the senior-level marketing students who, at that point in their educational achievement, are expected to be accustomed to working with demographic data such as the sex of consumer groups.

Introduction

Stereotypes are widely held perspectives on particular traits associated with groups of people. They tend to be oversimplified views that impact success negatively for the objects of the stereotypes. There is no shortage in the academic and popular press media of stereotypes being imposed on others (e.g., Beatty et al. 2015; Fiske and Lee 2008; Fournier et al. 2014; Gorn, Yuwei, and Juhar 2008). However, a relatively more newly observed phenomenon involves individuals internalizing stereotypes of groups to which they perceptibly belong. The stereotype threat is a “risk of confirming, as self-characteristic, a negative stereotype about one’s group” (Steele and Aronson 1995, 797). In other words, an individual who has succumbed to a stereotype threat has become aware of a particular stereotype of her/his group and, in turn, has performed in a way that reduces her/his performance as a result of consciously or subconsciously internalizing that stereotype. Although the stereotype threat notion has been applied to some non-educational contexts, such as purchase intentions (Lee, Kim, and Vohs 2011), illness symptoms (Li et al. 2017), and performance in the elderly (Swift, Abrams, and Marques 2012), the most pervasive application of the theory is in regard to the educational performance of women and African American students (e.g., Begley 2000; Froehlich et al. 2016; McIntyre et al. 2011; Steele and Aronson 1995; Van Loo et al. 2013).

The following early-stage research was motivated by a peripheral discussion between the authors regarding and assessment of learning activity. While evaluating the applied case study used for this activity, which had the context of promotional planning for a hotel, it was noted that a facet of the case contains statistics showing that a disproportionate number of “business travelers” are men and a disproportionate number of “spring break travelers” are women. With some professional and research experience in pedagogy and gender biases, the authors questioned whether this piece of data had the potential to impose a stereotype threat to the women students completing the case study. It was proposed that the stereotype threat may have a diminished (or nonexistent) presence on the senior-level marketing students who are the target audience for this exam, since at that point in their educational achievement, they are expected to be accustomed to working with demographic data such as the sex of consumer groups. Exploratory data investigates for a gender-based effect only.

Potential Implications

The potential of the susceptibility of advanced marketing students to stereotype threats merits exploration for at least two apparent reasons. The first is that one of the normative missions of modern universities is to provide substantive educational content that is accessible to all students as equitably as possible. Prior research has found that the wording and context of assessments may be the sole inhibitor of student performance. If the inclusion of data in certain achievement contexts, such as the professional achievement of becoming a “business traveler” adds to the stereotype threat of women marketing students, then the ethics of using such contexts should be explored further for its costs respective to its merits. The second merit of the current research is a corollary to the first in that marketing students who hope to become marketing professionals must gain familiarity with and the ability to analyze consumer data in various business contexts. Demographic and other identity based data, such as sex, ethnic origins, income, and religion, among many others, have potential to be significant predictors of consumer behavior in certain contexts.

Thus, discovering the existence (or moderation) of a stereotype threat as a result of exposure to such data on marketing students has implications for future marketing pedagogy towards overcoming the threat.

The preliminary results of this exploratory research have the potential to highlight ethical issues in marketing pedagogy using applied data, as well as inform marketing assessment design to be more accessible to different categories of students. Moreover, since marketing is only one of several disciplinary areas that relate demographic indicators to other concepts, this pilot research has potential implications for students of management, sociology, and psychology, among others. It is the hope of the authors that a presentation of the conceptual development, pilot data, and analytical methodology at the annual Society for Marketing Advances will facilitate the further conceptual and empirical development of this and future related research on the stereotype threat in marketing education. Indeed, it is fortunate for the authors and timely for the research context that this investigation coincides with this year's conference theme of ethical decision making.

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SESSION 1.9: MARKETING IN EMERGING MARKETS

Chair:

Bruce A. Huhmann, Virginia Commonwealth University

Summary Brief

Three Facets of Quan-He (Vietnam) and Guanxi (China) Define Relationship Marketing in Asian Markets

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Arturo Z. Vasquez-Parraga, University of Texas Rio Grande Valley, USA

Yuanqing Li, Dominican University, USA

This paper associates one Western and two Eastern business practices, Relationship Marketing (Western), Guanxi (China), and Quan He (Vietnam) in order to identify common traits and relationships. In particular, the study compares key dimensions of relationship marketing to the three facets of Guanxi and Quan He by reviewing critical literature on these concepts. The results of the review provide initial corroboration of the said associations and facets. The three facets of Quan He are The Dien, Co Qua Co Lai, and Tinh Cam, which are similar to the three dimensions of Guanxi: Mianzi, Renqing, and Ganqing. These three facets look like three characteristics of relationship marketing, empathy, reciprocity, and bonding. Recognizing these facets help better understand the business practice and relationships rendered in Vietnam and China.

Introduction

Quan He (Quen Biet, aka guanxi, relationship/networking), a traditional cultural custom, has been exercising in Vietnam society, particularly in the business context. It is crucial for business people, particular Western entrepreneurs that have been doing business in Vietnam, to understand this unique business practice. However, there is not yet a study that devotes a depth investigation on Quan He. Therefore, there is a need for a study on Quan He in order to understand this concept.

In order to explain the concept of Quan He, we compare it with two similar concepts from both Eastern and Western perspectives. One concept called Guanxi, is embedded in Confucian philosophy like Quan He. Guanxi is the Chinese word for personal relationships or connections (Zhang et al., 2017). It has been categorized by three Chinese relational constructs mianzi, ganqing, and renqing (Fan 2002). Quan He shares the same root and has similar basis to Guanxi. The other similar concept is Relationship Marketing (RM). RM consists of trust, bonding, communication, shared value, empathy, and reciprocity dimensions (Le and Ngo, 2012). By comparing the similar dimensions of those three concepts, we expect to answer the following questions: (1) How is The Dien (Ne Mat) facet of Quan He compatible with mianzi (Guanxi) and “communication” (RM), (2) How is Co Qua Co Lai/ No On facet of Quan He compatible with renqing (Guanxi) and “reciprocity” and “empathy” (RM), and (3) How is Tinh Cam facet of Quan He compatible with ganqing (Guanxi) and “bonding” (RM).

Literature Review and Discussion

Table 1 summarizes the key relationship components of RM (communication, reciprocity and bonding) and Guanxi (mianzi, renqing and ganqing) as reported in the literature. These three components reflect similar characteristics, the three identifiable relationship facets of Quan He (The Dien, Co Qua Co Lai and Tinh Cam). The last column qualifies each relationship characteristic.

Conclusion

The study provides some initial idea on Quan He, an important cultural business practice in Vietnam. Moreover, several consistencies of the three associations – Quan He, Guanxi, and RM are identified and analyzed. In addition, concept of Quan He is investigated via three facets, which are The Dien, Co Qua Co Lai and Tinh Cam; these three facets are compatible to three similar facets within Guanxi (Eastern) and RM (Western) concepts.

Table 1: Relationship Components of RM, Guanxi, and Quan He

Western (RM)	China (Guanxi)	Vietnam (Quan He)	Relationship Characteristic
Communication <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Honesty and openness • Is more appreciated in private settings in Eastern context • Direct and honest verbalization do not directly benefit Customer Satisfaction in Vietnam (Le & Ngo, 2012) 	<i>Mianzi</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • External face/giving face to others • Represents an individual's prestige in society • Losing face cause mutual disaffection (Fan, 2002) 	<i>The Dien (Ne Mat)</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Face-saving • One's family background and class play a role • Consequence of losing face: relationship with that person will be severely impacted 	One time interaction/ Superficial/ Short-term oriented
Empathy/reciprocity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Willingness to help • Put yourself in someone else's shoes • Empathy has no effect on CS in Vietnam (Le & Ngo, 2012) 	<i>Renqing</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sensibility/favor • "Obligation" to return • Non-repayment is immoral and will have a negative effect on relationship (Park & Luo, 2001) 	<i>Co Qua Co Lai/ No On</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exchanging favor • Feel in debt of returning the favor • Uncomfortable to turn down others when requested to return a favor 	Two way transaction/ Moderate/ Long-term oriented
Bonding <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deepest link among business associations • Plays a significant role in building an effective business relationship • Increase the competitive advantage of firms 	<i>Ganqing</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feelings • Created and accumulated through long-term social relations • Could lead to high level of trust 	<i>Tinh Cam</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affection • Strongest and the most intimacy practice • Leads people to unconditional devotion, giving, and mutual protection 	Intimacy interaction/ Close/ Long-term oriented

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Summary Brief

Emerging Male Gender Portrayals in Chinese Advertising

Jiani Jiang, New Mexico State University, USA

Bruce A. Huhmann, Virginia Commonwealth University, USA

Wenkai Zhou, University of Wisconsin-Green Bay, USA

Two studies investigate emerging male portrayals in Chinese advertising. Study 1 finds that males in Chinese advertising are portrayed with a more androgynous look than males in US advertising. Study 2 finds that the youthful androgynous “Little Fresh Meat” portrayal is emerging as a common male gender portrayal in social media advertising for luxury fashion brands targeting young Chinese consumers. Another emerging portrayal, “Old Grilled Meat,” in which middle-aged men sport sophisticated and distinctive looks, is also popular in social media advertising for luxury fashion brands targeting older Chinese consumers. These emerging male portrayals successfully elicit more extensive behavior responses related to reposts, comments, and likes among China’s luxury consumers than traditional Chinese male gender portrayals.

Introduction

Researchers have taken great interest in understanding gender portrayals in advertising. Gender portrayals have been given particular attention because of their impact on promoting and reinforcing stereotypes (Ford et al. 1998) and cultural differences in gender roles and portrayals (e.g., Matthes, Prielor and Adam 2016). Much research has examined female portrayals (e.g., Ford, LaTour and Lundstrom 1991) including ones in Chinese advertising (e.g., Hung and Li 2006). However, male portrayals, particularly in China have received less attention (Louie 2015).

Chinese consumers at home and travelling make half of all Asian and nearly one-third of European luxury purchases. Globally, Chinese consumers buy a quarter of personal luxury goods (Silverstein 2012).

Therefore, the current research aims to document male portrayals in Chinese advertising. Two studies investigate male portrayals in luxury fashion advertising on Chinese social media. Luxury fashion advertising research helps identify aspirational roles, whereas social media advertising identifies emerging trends that become mainstream as its younger audience matures (Roux, Tafani and Vigneron 2017; Stokburger-Sauer and Teichmann 2013). Such research is critical to advertisers as China grows in importance to the luxury industry.

Background

Traditional Chinese male gender roles express two concepts: Wen and Wu. Wen embodies the genteel, refined, and civilized ideal associated with literary, artistic, and cultural attainment. Wu embodies physical strength and military prowess, but also the wisdom to know when not to fight. Wu is also associated with athletes, martial arts, and acrobats (Louie and Edwards 1994). Although both were always considered manly, Wen dominated Wu in political and sexual power in traditional Chinese culture (Moskowitz 2013).

In the 1980s, Wu gained further ascendancy over Wen with awareness of Western male roles (e.g., muscular action stars including Sylvester Stallone), China’s desire to be a strong player in world affairs, and the popularity of martial arts films and literature as well as post-Cultural Revolution literature about weak men who yearn to be “manly men”, thus rejecting feminine-seeming aspects of the self (Louie 2015). By the 1990s, sexually adventurous men, successful businessmen, and athletes challenging Western stereotypes of China as weak and feminine became popular (Moskowitz 2013). Chinese literature’s most popular heroes became successful entrepreneurs writing about business success. The cultural emphasis on ethical, Confucian business management and wealthy businessmen’s ascendancy altered the traditional Wen antipathy toward business and money (Louie and Edwards 1994).

Summary of Studies 1 and 2

Study 1 compares the physical appearance of males in social media posts promoting fashion magazines in China with those in the US. Because fashion magazines portray current gender ideals, this study should identify any cross-cultural differences in male portrayals’ physical attributes. Coders content analyzed company-sponsored sites on visually-oriented social media platforms -- Instagram (US) or Weibo (China) -- for two men’s and two women’s

fashion magazines that publish both Chinese and US editions: Vogue, Cosmopolitan, GQ, Esquire, Vogue China (《Vogue 服饰与美容》), Cosmopolitan China (《时尚Cosmo》), GQ China (《智族GQ》), and Esquire China (《时尚先生》). All selected posts (N = 322) met the following criteria: (1) showed at least one male large enough to code physical appearance (i.e., not at a distance or in a crowd) and (2) published between January 1 to December 31, 2015.

Although Study 1 revealed cross-cultural differences between US and Chinese luxury fashion social media advertising, neither Wen- nor Wu-associated physical attributes dominated Chinese male portrayals. A thorough investigation of the academic literature could not explain the predominance of androgynous male portrayals. Therefore, the authors consulted contemporary Chinese popular culture. This revealed two potential male portrayals that the authors investigate in Study 2 -- “Little Fresh Meat” and “Old Grilled Meat.”

Study 2 compares LFM and OGM’s prevalence to that of traditional Chinese male portrayals -- Wen and Wu. This study also examines audience response to male portrayal types in Chinese social media posts for luxury fashion brands. In Study 2, coders content analyzed posts from China’s primary visually-oriented social media platform -- Weibo. All posts (N = 771) with at least one male character large enough to code from July 1, 2015 to June 30, 2016 were selected from brand-sponsored sites for the highest net worth global fashion luxury clothing brands based on data collected by Interbrand. Results show a predominance of LFM promoting brands targeted to young Chinese consumers and considerable use of OGM in posts for brands targeting older Chinese consumers.

Conclusion and Implications

Two studies uncover new emerging male portrayals, which have begun to influence male portrayals in Chinese social media posts promoting luxury fashion magazines and clothing brands. LFM is now the primary male portrayal in luxury fashion advertising on Chinese social media. These emerging portrayals have counterparts in other East Asian cultures, such as Japan and Korea.

International advertisers who standardize male portrayals may be missing opportunities to appeal to young Chinese consumers. Advertising practitioners should use emerging trends, such as those identified in the current studies, to prepare effective future advertising executions and campaigns.

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**SESSION 2.10: CENGAGE PRIDE-FERRELL INNOVATIONS IN
TEACHING II**

Chair:

Larry Neale, Queensland University of Technology

Judges:

D. Joel Whalen, DePaul University

Tracy Meyer, University of North Carolina Wilmington

Summary Brief

Experiential Learning and Creative Culture: Student Promotional Video Competition

Jodie L. Ferguson, Virginia Commonwealth University, USA
Mayoor Mohan, Virginia Commonwealth University, USA

A team of three undergraduate marketing students conceptualized, planned, and produced a 60-second promotional video for Virginia Commonwealth University's (VCU) Department of Marketing. The student team received the opportunity to work hand-in-hand with the university's in-house advertising agency on this project by winning a pitch competition that was open to all undergraduate marketing students. This experiential learning project originated from the following: 1) demand from students to participate in more real-world projects, 2) a need to better promote the Department of Marketing, and 3) an opportunity to align with the VCU School of Business' new strategic plan.

Introduction

The student promotional video competition provided marketing students a unique opportunity to work on a creative project for a real client (i.e., the Department of Marketing) with expert guidance and oversight (i.e., via the university's ad agency), outside the boundaries of a traditional course offering. The video project provided a chance for students to share narratives from their own experiences in a promotional delivery format that the department had not experimented with in the past. The project also opened avenues for the department to leverage more contemporary information sharing platforms such as YouTube, Twitter, and Facebook. The goal of the video was not to promote a specific product or service, but to give an overall sense of the culture of the department and highlight some of its competencies. The prospect of actively designing, filming, editing and producing a promotional video for a client, with the university's ad agency providing hands-on guidance, offered a rich and genuine experiential learning experience for the students. The intentionally muted direction given to the students, especially at the onset of the project, provided them with a great deal of creative freedom in bringing their vision to life.

Description of Innovation

The student video project consisted of two phases: a pitch proposal competition and 6-week video production phase. The pitch competition invited all students enrolled in a marketing class in the spring of 2017 to form teams of three to submit a proposal for the promotional video project. The creative brief provided to students outlined the general objectives (e.g., share student stories to help promote the Department of Marketing), the expected format of the deliverable (e.g., 60 second promotional video), the target audiences, and the potential distribution channels (e.g., website, YouTube). The department faculty narrowed down the submissions to three finalist teams. The finalists were contacted and told to prepare a formal, 10-minute pitch of their video idea to a panel of six judges. The pitches were evaluated for 1) creativity, 2) feasibility in execution, 3) best video theme, and 4) ability to capture students' perspective. A winner was selected and announced.

The second phase of the project involved the production of the video. The winning team (who were treated as interns at the university's ad agency), two department faculty, and a team from the university's ad agency met for a kick-off meeting to discuss the parameters of the project and the deliverables. The students worked closely with the ad agency to flesh out their conceptualization and storyboards, to film the shots of the video using the ad agency's equipment, to edit and splice the footage, and to provide music and custom graphics. The resulting video¹ was shared on the department's website and the school's YouTube, Facebook, and Twitter accounts. The project was also featured in a story on the university's website and in a local online business magazine.

¹ Video link: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HJgTeaBSznk>

Summary Brief

Real Business, Real World: The IMC Plan

Matthew Lunde, University of Wyoming, USA

IMC is a class about creating an integrated marketing “holistic” plan that incorporates many marketing plans, objectives, and strategies for a business. For this IMC class, I collaborated with the Small Business Development Center (SBDC) in my state. I divided the 50 students into eight groups of 6-7 students. Each group chose a small business from the SBDC. These businesses were in either the infancy stage (start-ups) or nearing maturity (and looking to diversify). Student groups had to 1) interview their business, 2) participate in weekly “board meeting” conferences, 3) write a 50- to 75-page IMC plan, 4) present this plan in a 25-minute presentation to their peers and to the business owner(s), and 5) peer review their peers to hold each accountable from their group.

Introduction

“Not another group project...what’s the point?...” “It’s so hard to work with lazy group members...” “None of this is relevant to what I want to do...” I typically hear these types of comments from students when assigning ‘another’ group project. These types of comments also appear on class evaluations. Therefore, the “aha!” moment came before teaching Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC). I decided to create an exciting, relevant, and innovative group project. Creating teaching classroom experiences for students that are ‘real-world’ endeavors is always a challenge for any university professor, instructor, and/or PhD student. I taught IMC to 50 university seniors. I had four objectives for the project: 1) I wanted to leave a lasting impression with a project the students would enjoy and have a personal interest, 2) that they would have to be active learners and listeners, 3) that they would gain real world experience, and 4) that they could use to position themselves while interviewing for jobs. Therefore, I created the project “Real Business, Real World: The IMC Plan.” This inaugural IMC project was completed in one semester. After introducing the project and assigning the businesses to the groups, students had four professional weekly “board meeting” conferences with me (their instructor). During this classroom time, the other groups had in-classroom time to work on their projects with their other group members. This project provided ample classroom time for group interaction, participatory active learning, and plan creation.

Findings, Feedback, and Suggestions

After completing this project, I found it to be very successful. It was the first time I assigned a project this way, devoting half the semester to the project, conducting group “board meeting” conferences, and using real businesses from the SBDC. Students were engaged, enjoyed the project immensely, and were excited to use their years of marketing knowledge and classwork in a real business setting. This project was 45% of their final class grade. Students had the drive and motivation to do well. They wanted to provide quality work not only for their own personal satisfaction and classroom grade but also for their business owner(s), university reputation, and home state.

Throughout the semester and through student feedback, I have a few comments to share. Students enjoyed the weekly “board meetings.” They were excited to conduct a weekly professional meeting. They also highly enjoyed working with small business owners, many from their home state. They felt that this project provided real world experience that they would be able to use as evidence while interviewing for jobs. Finally, they liked peer reviewing (“grading”) their group members, holding each accountable for completing quality work. However, I also have a few suggestions. I would provide a longer period for the project. As these students are seniors, many know the basics of IMC before even entering the class; therefore, instead of using eight weeks for lecture and six weeks for the project, I would devote more time to the project. In addition, if possible, I would create smaller groups (if possible). My class was 50 students; therefore, I created eight groups of 6-7 students. However, creating groups of 4-5 would be more manageable. Finally, instead of introducing the project and their businesses mid-semester, I will introduce the project at the beginning of semester. Therefore, the project (and their businesses) can be integrated into the daily lectures, exams, and talking points. Integration is paramount in providing a quality active learning environment. Overall, this project, “Real Business, Real World: The IMC Plan,” was very successful. I plan to use the project in future IMC classes and adapt it to other marketing classes as well.

**SESSION 2.1: INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE: ADVERTISING AND
SALES PROMOTION**

Chair:

Alexander Muk, Texas State University – San Marcos

Full Paper

A Look at the Ethical Predisposition of Future South African Business Leaders Regarding Potential Misbehaviour on Both Sides of the Buyer-Seller Dyad

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The current study assesses attitudes towards both business ethics and consumer ethics among students at two South African universities. The universities are in two separate states characterized by their own cultural identities. The research indicates that there are numerous similarities across the two subcultures, but that some meaningful differences are identified. It highlights one difficulty in making an assertion about the nature of a single country if the sample is not representative. This dilemma further underscores the problem surrounding the use of the terms cross-cultural and cross-national when engaged in multi-country research.

Introduction

Ethics has long been a topic of discussion among academicians, the media, politicians, consumers, consumer advocates, and leaders of business organizations alike. The early research focused on questionable actions on the part of business. Questions surrounding the appropriateness, or even the legality, of certain business initiatives have long been scrutinized. Then the issue of consumer ethics – or the dark side of consumer behaviour – began to be examined. Early research on consumer misbehaviour, as it is sometimes called, often focused on illegal consumer actions such as shoplifting and insurance fraud. More recently, it has begun to address legal, but questionable, actions such as showrooming and retail borrowing. Much of the early research in each stream focused on the United States with the examination of other countries leading to a plethora of studies comparing the results across two or more countries.

The current study looks at both sides of the buyer-seller dyad. As such, respondents are asked to provide their opinions regarding both business ethics and consumer ethics. It looks at a single country, South Africa, one that can be characterized as an emerging economy, yet one that is still beset by breaches of ethical (and legal) conduct on the part of many of its residents. While a snapshot of South Africa is meaningful, another meaningful contribution of this study is the examination of two subcultures within South Africa. These results lead to a brief discussion regarding the commonly used expressions of cross-cultural and cross-national within the realm of comparative studies that generally imply a crossing of national geographic borders.

Literature Review

This literature review will expressly cover four distinct areas. It begins with a look at how other researchers have justified the use of student samples in their efforts to produce research outcomes that are both meaningful and relevant. Second is a look at the body of research that has addressed business ethics in South Africa. This component of the literature review is followed by an overview of the recent research in the area of consumer ethics that has looked at the South African market. The review concludes with a brief perspective as to the ways in which terms such as cross-national and cross-cultural are applied when the researchers are engaged in research that crosses international borders.

Using Student Samples for Meaningful Research

A common criticism of the use of students in survey research is the question of the generalisability of the results (Hunt and Vitell 1986). In this regard, the criticism may well be justified. University students do not reflect the demographic profile, the psychographic makeup, or the purchase behaviours associated with any aggregate national market. Yet in many cases, student samples are deemed to be appropriate because they truly comprise the target market of interest in the research (Gordon, Slade and Schmitt 1987). Furthermore, early studies on “decision making” found that students and practicing managers do tend to exhibit “extremely similar patterns of judgment” (Remus 1986), especially when students have been active members of the workforce. Perhaps no subject matter is more appropriate for student sampling than ethical predisposition. So not only might university students represent an important target

market for products (consider Red Bull energy drink), but they also represent the next generation of business and community leaders (Albaum and Peterson 2006; Fullerton 1993).

Much of the early research on business ethics tended to focus on students; it has been reported that one-third of the studies published prior to 1990 utilised student samples (Randall and Gibson 1990). Research indicated that university students were relatively sensitive to concerns regarding perceived breaches of ethical conduct (Beltramini et al 1984), yet these students tended to accept violations of ethical standards more readily than did business executives (Arlow and Ulrich 1982; Hollon and Ulrich 1979; and Stevens 1984). This is a contradiction to the earlier assertion by Remus (1986). In an effort to clarify this ambiguity, Fullerton (1993, p. 193) concluded from his evaluation of 19 ethics-oriented scenarios that “today’s college students exhibit a relatively high degree of concern.” He also indicated the fact that they deemed each of the illegal activities included as part of his study to be unethical would seem to indicate that these future leaders are not likely to invoke the philosophy of *caveat emptor*.

With students confirmed as a viable set of respondents for ethics-based studies, the question now becomes one of understanding the nature of the variation among the various groups of students with these groups being defined on the basis of their place of residence. But for starters, one might question why differences should be expected. As such, the focus of the literature review is now shifted towards the delineation of specific issues germane to the study of business ethics within the country of South Africa.

Business Ethics in South Africa

As an emerging market, South Africa has been the focus of numerous studies regarding business ethics over the past few years. Most have been comparative in nature, but a more definitive look has occurred since the end of the Apartheid era.

As a prelude for this literature review, consider an early study of South African managers undertaken by Pitt and Abratt (1986). It delineated an all-too-common paradox, that while managers were quick to proclaim their disdain for myriad questionable actions on the part of business organisations, they concurrently admitted to knowing peers who had no qualms about engaging in such behaviour. Eight years later, the King Report on Corporate Governance in South Africa (1994) resulted in heightened scrutiny being placed on the business environment. It has more recently been stated that MNCs doing business in South Africa need to adopt a macroethical perspective as their actions impact more than just the buyer and the seller (Fourie 2012). As recently as 2012, it was stated that there is still a significant gap between these positive and normative approaches towards ethical behaviour. It was so positioned as a reality-gap (Woermann 2012). One recent article regarding small business organisations in South Africa posed a question succinctly: “Survival or Ethically Correct?” (Cant 2012). Troublesome was the finding that employees of these small marketing enterprises have negative attitudes towards the ethical responsibilities for these same enterprises. Survival trumps ethics (Cant 2012). In a follow-up study, the question of ethics within small business enterprises was positioned as a question of idealism versus relativism. The findings were that the majority of SME owners fell within the situationalists and absolutist category of Forsyth’s ethical taxonomy (Wild, Cant and van Niekerk 2014). Other conceptual assessments dominated that earlier era during which South Africans were placing intense scrutiny on themselves. Consistent with the aforementioned King Report, the Institute of Directors (IOD) proclaimed that there should be new “guidelines for ethical practice in business enterprises in South Africa” (IOD 1994, p. 43). Within that same timeframe, Rossouw’s (1994) seminal writings on South Africa offered the argument that the RSA, as a developing country where businesses were locked in a struggle for survival, could not afford morality. Therefore, there appeared to be a cultural mind-set that ethics might succumb to questionable actions if businesses are destined to survive in the long run (Fullerton, Bisschoff and Moore 2008).

Conditions and mind-sets such as those just discussed served as a catalyst for perhaps the most compelling passage that could be invoked to begin this discussion. It involves an oft-quoted statement made by former – and then – president of the Republic of South Africa, Nelson Mandela. In a 1995 address to the South African Parliament, Mr Mandela’s ominous statement captured both the past and the need to move forward – in a different direction – in the future. He stated that: “We are conscious of the reality that corruption in many forms has deeply infected the fibre of our society. Precisely because we face the challenge of dealing with systematic corruption, we need a dispassionate and systematic approach to this question” (Mandela 1995). This statement provides much of the impetus for research on the state of business practices within South Africa over the past 20 years. Along this same line of discourse, there was documentation that the early 1990s were defined by increases in the number of cases of fraud, forgery, conversions and embezzlements. This reality prompted the *Weekend Argus*, a newspaper in Cape Town, to make this declaration with a headline that read *Commercial Crime Soars as Ethics Falls*. The accompanying article made the assertion that the decline in ethical standards could be attributed to years of sanctions, the uncertainty of the political environment, and the rapid contraction of the economy that had resulted in a decline in the standard of living for South African

citizens in general (Cameron 1993). Rossouw (1997) further argued that the business community was tarnished as evidenced by the high levels of corruption and white-collar crime. Furthermore, others earlier asserted that ethical standards had eroded, in part, due to “deliberate and systematic colonial destruction” (Iya 1999, p. 9). Perhaps even more problematic was an earlier study that indicated that businesspeople believed that fraud was increasing; fully 62 percent of those responding to the survey expressed this opinion (Britz 1994). Based on a quantitative look at the population, Moore and Radloff (1996, p. 866) asserted that “business decisions involve a rational realism rather than moral philosophy.” Some disconcerting results emanated from their study. More specifically, there was general agreement among the respondents that “self-sacrifice is immoral.” This mind-set represents a very narrow and self-serving perspective. Furthermore, it is contrary to Hofstede’s (1980) assertion that the South African population possesses a collectivist personality.

Interestingly, many South Africans pointed to the ostracism by the international community emanating from the Apartheid policy. Because of the economic sanctions that were imposed, South African businesses were inclined to seek alternative methods for accessing these elusive global opportunities. Success was praised no matter how questionable the tactics were from a moral and ethical perspective. As such, a culture evolved such that unethical business practices were valued rather than repudiated. The inevitable result was a weakening of the moral standards held within the business community (Massie 1993). In an article assessing the state of business ethics in South Africa, Rossouw (1997) indicated that the lifting of sanctions had done nothing to reverse this trend and that the moral abyss of which President Mandela spoke was, in fact, growing even deeper. Clearly, the South Africa of the 1990s was undergoing a significant paradigm shift within the economic, social, and political spectrums. Such a dramatic upheaval presented and magnified a myriad of perceived inequities that might have, in fact, led to a more *laissez faire* attitude that focused more on individual gains rather than the theoretical collectivist mentality of which Hofstede (1980) spoke. As such, it is only logical that South Africa would have to endure a constant barrage of questionable actions – some illegal, others simply unethical in nature.

In one empirical study of South African marketing research practitioners, much of the aforementioned qualitative perspective was confirmed. The study’s authors concluded that turbulence of the magnitude being incurred by South Africans was associated with lower standards in terms of informal norms as well as a corresponding belief in the efficacy of formalised codes of conduct (Morris, Marks, Allen and Peery 1996). And while turbulent times were associated with a propensity to declare one’s claim to possess strong values and morals, the reality was that many individual managers were actually prone to abandon those beliefs when faced with actual ethical dilemmas. A number of additional studies prior to 2000 provide further support to Rossouw’s (1997) assertion that the image of the business community in South Africa was tarnished. In 1995, only nine of the Sunday Times Top 100 companies in South Africa had a formal code of ethics to serve as a guideline for their employees’ conduct. Perhaps even more disconcerting is the study’s finding that there was no discernible difference in the ethical attitudes when employees of firms with a code of ethics were compared to those employees who worked for companies that had not yet articulated any such formal code (Young 1995). Another study designed to measure attitudes towards an array of questionable marketing behaviours indicated that South Africans possess reasonable beliefs and expectations; however, the scores were systematically lower than those exhibited by a comparable sample from the United States – particularly on the items that measured general honesty and integrity (Klein 1999). An intriguing study used the Ethics Position Questionnaire (EPQ) developed by Forsyth (1980) to compare ethical predisposition in South Africa to that in America. Based on the premise that South Africans possess a lower level of individualism, the authors hypothesised that higher ethical standards would be exhibited by the South Africans. However, the South African managers were actually shown to be less ethical in their intentions to resolve the ethical dilemmas that comprised the EPQ instrument. Still, the authors posited that South African marketers of the late 1990s exhibited a willingness to change (Singhapakdi, Higgs-Kleyn and Rao 1999).

South Africa’s transition was slow but nonetheless progressing as we entered the 21st century. In recognising the country’s volatile past as a barrier to becoming an accepted participant in an increasingly integrated global economy, it was understood that the standards of conduct regarding corporate activities of the 1980s and 90s were in need of a substantial upgrade (Rossouw, Van der Watt and Malan 2002). Rossouw (2005, p. 104) subsequently stated that within South Africa, “business ethics are considered an integral and essential part of good governance. From the various codes of corporate governance that were analysed, it is clear that standards of good governance are intimately intertwined with high standards of business ethics.” Consequently, it is anticipated that the second generation of codes of corporate governance began to emerge at the turn of the century will result in positive changes that redirect the country towards a more ethical mind-set (Fullerton, Bisschoff and Moore 2008). The more recent empirical research offers cause for such optimism.

The aforementioned study by Fullerton, Bisschoff and Moore (2008) involved a comparison of attitudes held by South African students to those of Chinese business students. The authors stated that it could be argued that the South African students exhibited higher ethical standards than did their Chinese counterparts. In a study of five countries where English is the prominent language within the business education community, the ethical predisposition of South African students was compared to that of their peers in Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States. Based on a series of vignettes, the South African students ranked behind only the New Zealanders in terms of their disapproval of the 14 behaviours under scrutiny (Fullerton and Neale 2008a). Yet another five-country study involved a cross-cultural comparison on the basis of a measure known as the Corruption Perception Index (CPI). The results placed South Africa ahead of Turkey, but behind the United States, Israel and Australia. Furthermore, the score of 5.0 – which fell at exactly the midpoint of the eleven-point scale (0 to 10) – was deemed to be a cause for concern (Sims and Gegez 2004). A somewhat more positive outcome was in evidence in a study that focused on the calculation of a Corruption Index. Of the 163 countries under scrutiny, South Africa's adjusted score of 5.4 placed it 112th on the list (Bernardi, Witek and Melton 2009). By comparison, the adjusted rating of 2.7 placed the more ethically predisposed United States 143rd on that list. So while the South Africans were more critical of corruption than were most countries, they lagged behind the United States and 50 additional countries with an even stronger disdain for such practices. (Note: higher rankings and lower index numbers represent more positive outcomes in this assessment.) A similar metric, the Corruption Perception Index, placed South Africa as the 64th most ethical country of the 176 included in the study (Transparency International 2017). Another comparative study looked at Cyprus and South Africa and drew the conclusion that South Africa was more ethically inclined than were the Cypriot counterparts when the focus was on ethics in the workplace (Thomas, Krambia-Kapardis and Zopiatis 2008).

One study that focused solely on South Africa attempted to identify differences in the ethical predisposition among students in different fields of study. However, the conclusion by the authors was that all groups exhibited a relatively high level of ethical standards and that there was no inordinate cause for concern that they would possess a permissive mind-set (Bisschoff, Fullerton and Botha, 2008). Another study of South African students found no significant differences between the ethical predisposition of business students and their non-business counterparts (Lumsden and Fatoki, 2013). And although it is tenuous to draw conclusions about a population based on a single case study, one such study merits consideration as part of the body of relevant empirical literature. In a more recent look using a practitioner-based sample, these same authors found discernible differences in the ethical predisposition of managers at different levels in the organizational chart (Bisschoff, Fullerton and Botha 2014) despite the fact that more South African companies have sought to embed a code of ethics within their corporate policy and corporate culture (Mpinganjira, Roberts-Lombard, Wood and Svensson 2016). Yet the findings support the premise that high standards of conduct prevail among both mid-level and upper-level managers. In assessing the perception of the appropriateness of the conduct of a large South African multinational corporation (MNC), one noteworthy study surveyed two important groups: employees of the MNC's Buying Department and members of supplier firms with whom these buyers interacted. The basic conclusion was that the MNC demonstrated a relatively strong ethical inclination in its actions (Bendixen, Abratt and Jones 2007).

To conclude this section of the literature review, Rossouw (2016, 50) articulated his sentiment that "Ethics has become a permanent and prominent feature of corporate governance in South Africa." Referring back to the earlier King Report (1994), it was stated that there are three key responsibilities of Corporate South Africa in that directors should provide leadership based on an ethical foundation, ensure the company is a good corporate citizen, and ensure that the company integrates ethical standards within its mode of operation. Again, these results seem to provide anecdotal evidence that the South Africa of the early 21st century is not the same South Africa that existed in the latter part of the 20th century.

Consumer Ethics in South Africa

In contrast to the extensive body of literature that focuses on business ethics in South Africa, there is a comparative paucity of research when that focus shifts to consumer ethics. This is especially true for the period preceding and shortly after the Apartheid era. So the research addressing consumer ethics essentially started with the turn of the 21st century. But still, research on this component of ethics is comparatively sparse. An extensive search of two bibliographic databases identified only two studies that fall within this realm of investigation.

An early study that used the same 14 consumer ethics scenarios as those in the current study found that the South Africans exhibited a strong ethical inclination. The assessment of attitudes towards consumer indiscretions in five English-speaking countries concluded that the South African students were by far the most critical group under scrutiny in their assessments of the acceptability of the ethically questionable behaviours used to assess consumer ethics. The South African students were the most critical group for all fourteen of the actions (Fullerton and Neale

2008b). In a more recent and directed study, consumers in the North West Province were queried about a topic germane to consumer ethics, specifically the purchase of organic products. The authors document the opportunity, based on these consumers' mind-set, to implement green marketing initiatives that foster sustainability. It appears to be an ethical predisposition that opportunistic marketers can take advantage of in the South African market (Muposhi and Dhurup 2016).

Cross-Cultural versus Cross-National: A Researcher's Dilemma

This final element of the literature review will attempt to identify the researchers' dilemma in terms of the scope of their work. Multiple terms are found in regard to this issue. A review found the following terms used in some context as it related to comparative studies: cross-national, cross-cultural, multi-national, multi-cultural, and inter-cultural. Is there a point of distinction or are they essentially an array of expressions intended to mean the same thing?

An article seeking to provide guidance on this phenomenon may have simply exacerbated the problem. Within the article's abstract, the expression "cross-cultural/cross-national" was used to represent research utilizing "data from multiple countries" (Cadogan 2010). More recently, potentially adding confusion to the concept, an editorial in the *Journal of Global Marketing* that offered "exciting and new perspectives in cross-cultural and cross-national research" appeared to use the terms synonymously (Manrai 2016). But a thorough read of Professor Manrai's editorial does seem to imply that these are indeed different concepts even though no actual point of differentiation was expressed. So while the two terms appear to represent the same phenomenon to many, most authors opt to use only one of those two concepts, either focusing on national or culture, when they assign a title to their manuscript then expound upon their findings.

Closely tied to the primary focus of this paper was a cross national study of consumer ethics comparing respondents in Indonesia to their counterparts in Thailand (Arli, Tjiptono and Winit 2015). When looking at the United States and France, one article examined cross-national differences as the authors measured the impact that the scarcity of a product has on the consumers' purchase intention (Jung and Kellaris 2004). Other, more recent studies that employed the term cross-national to represent research of this ilk that were published focused on an assessment of marketing standardisation (Chung 2007), an examination of the airline passenger market in the three NAFTA countries (Bruning, Hu and Wei 2009), a look at perceptions of mobile coupons (Muk, 2012), and a study of consumers who are active on Twitter (Pentina, Basmanova, and Zhang 2016). A plethora of more recent publications documents the wide-spread use of the expression, cross-national, to denote comparative studies that cross two or more national borders. Among them are studies that explore consumer attitudes regarding global franchise chains such as McDonald's (Dant, Jin, Mumdziev, and Windsperger 2016), differences regarding charitable giving (Einolf 2017), and an assessment of measures of organizational performance (Kopelman and Prottas 2017). A prototypical example of research of this ilk was a study that reported on measures of brand experiences cross-nationally (Saari and Mäkinen 2017). The final three studies noted in this component of the literature review document the use of the term cross-national in research outside of the realm of consumer research. One focused on the burden of one's illness on others (Nordstroem, Balbo, Bernascoti, Berardo and Lalonde 2017); the second addressed how companies address sustainability (Ferri 2017); and the third involved a survey of foreign aid donor countries (Swedlund 2017). It is evident that the term cross-national is commonly used to denote international research that compares the results from two or more countries. As a side note, some articles used multinational when focusing on three or more countries; also some titles utilised a hyphenated cross-national designation while others did not. At least one treated it as two separate words – neither combined in a single word nor hyphenated.

When the focus shifts to the use of some variation of the term, cross-cultural, the results are noteworthy. There is a uniform application of the expression when the focus is of differences between or among two or more countries. They tend to address issues across countries, but the spelling of the expression is hyphenated. So even if the distinction between cross-cultural and cross-national is not well documented, the use of the term cross-cultural appears to be the prevailing standard. Consider the following recent examples as evidence to support this statement. But before doing so, consider this early quote from marketing historian Robert Bartels who stated that "contrasting cultures in different societies produce different expectations and become expressed in dissimilar ethical standards of those societies" (Bartels 1967). It appears that Bartels was using the term culture to reflect the term nation.

Early on, Ghosh, Fullerton and Taylor (1997) took a cross-cultural look at ethics and business communication. It essentially compared the results from New Zealand to those in the United States. Scott Vitell, one of the global stalwarts within the field of consumer ethics, along with two colleagues completed a cross-cultural investigation of the impact of war and civil unrest in Ireland and Lebanon. Two other well-known researchers in the field of consumer ethics used the term cross-cultural in their effort to compare the beliefs of Turkish and American consumers (Rawwas, Swaidan and Oyman 2005). Within that same timeframe, that same designation was used in another study of consumer

ethics comparing value systems in the United States to those in the Middle East (Ford, Nonis and Hudson 2005). A similar, but far more recent study, took a cross-cultural look at business students in the United States and Vietnam (Nguyen and Pham 2015). Four final examples from 2017 all illustrate the tendency to use cross-cultural to represent international studies that are comparative in nature. One looked at differences regarding corporate social responsibility (CSR) in developing countries (Karam and Jamali 2017) while another looked at perceptions of the effectiveness of advertising (Manrai, 2017). A study of German and Greek consumers sought to better understand differences regarding labeling information of packaged food products (Kehagia, Colmer and Chrysocholdis 2017). The final article addressed in this aspect of the current study measured expectations regarding impulse buying and conspicuous consumption, again comparing American students to Thai students (Boonchoo and Thoumrungrroje, 2017).

Based on the previous paragraphs, there appears to be a simple dichotomy. Authors choose one term or the other to reflect the nature of their comparative research. If only it were that simple. One study outside of the business domain spoke of multicultural research, yet there was a single country under scrutiny. However, the authors sought to delineate differences based on subcultural dynamics in Australia (Bailes, Minas and Klimidis 2006). Along those same lines, one study examined cross-cultural differences within a single nation with a goal of determining if there was convergence towards an overarching cultural makeup in the United States (de Mooij and Beniflah 2017). Two final examples took a different direction when assigning a title to their research. One study deviated from convention when the authors addressed inter-country differences regarding consumer ethics in four Arab countries (Al-Khatib, Vitell, Rexeisen, and Rawwas 2005). The final article in this review used the expression micro-culture to represent a focus on a particular segment of consumers within the United States (Swaidan, Rawwas and Al-Khatib 2004). Perhaps they should have used the term “intra-country” to designate the task at hand.

Clearly, there is no uniform standard regarding how we designate our comparative research. While this reality may not be particularly problematic, it is an issue when one term has multiple meanings. Also disconcerting is the application of new expressions to serve as surrogates for the terms with which we are most familiar. While this issue was not intended to be a focal point for the authors of the current study, the literature review brought this confusion to our attention.

Research Objectives

The objectives of this study are threefold – two primary and one secondary. The first of the primary objectives is that of developing a broad-based overview of the future business leaders in the South African market as it relates to business ethics. Next is the objective of assessing attitudes of that same target population as they relate to consumer ethics. The final focus which has been designated a secondary objective is that of identifying similarities and differences across two sub-cultures within that market as they relate to the same business ethics and consumer ethics issues. This objective also led to an effort to distinguish between two commonly used terms: cross-cultural and cross-national.

Methodology

The initial task for this study was the development of a scenario-based survey that examined both sides of the buyer-seller dyad. That is to say it addressed behaviours that focus on business ethics while concurrently addressing consumer ethics, a phenomenon that has come to be known as consumer misbehaviour, or even the dark side of consumer behaviour. The decision was made to use a survey first put forth by Ghosh, Fullerton and Taylor (1997) in their study of the American market and used again in a similar study of the South African market (Fullerton, Bisschoff, and Moore 2008). The survey consists of 14 scenarios that feature a questionable action on the part of a business entity, 14 scenarios that address a questionable act on the part of the consumer, and relevant demographics. The business scenarios were designed to provoke a range of attitudes as some actions were deemed by the original study’s authors to be relatively noncontroversial whereas others were considered highly charged; some were even illegal. No organizations were identified by name. For the consumer ethics scenarios, a third-party application was used. As with the business ethics scenarios, a broad range of actions designed to produce a broad spectrum of responses was employed. And like the business ethics scenarios, a small number of the actions were inherently illegal. But many argue that illegality does not always translate into unethicity. Respondents were asked to evaluate the appropriateness of someone else’s behaviour rather than their own. In each set of scenarios, a balanced six-point itemized rating scale with no neutral point was employed with “acceptable” and “unacceptable” used as the polar adjectives. All six points on the scale were verbally defined.

Since the target population for the study was defined as future South African business leaders, a sample comprising current MBA students in South African Universities was deemed appropriate, even if not ideal. In an effort to draw a sample that is more demographically representative of South Africa, two different universities were used. A

university in Durban provided a sample where the respondents were primarily black and of South African heritage. Conversely, the university in Potchefstroom produced a sample primarily comprised of white students with a European heritage. Essentially, it identified two key subcultures in the South African market. The data were collected in a classroom setting; however, it was voluntary and offered the students total anonymity.

In order to assess the ethical inclinations of the aggregate South African sample, simple descriptive statistics were used. The mean scores provided a broad measure of the acceptance of a given action while frequency distributions provided a different look at the same phenomenon by reducing the impact of outliers. The outliers are represented by those who universally think that caveat emptor and caveat venditor should apply. It is up to the other party to assess the situation and make an informed decision.

For the final objective, the sample was segmented on the basis of the location of the data collection. This segmentation provided the basis for identifying two subcultures within the aggregate population. Simple t-tests based on two samples were used to identify differences of opinion on the 28 behaviours – 14 for business and 14 for consumers. A probability of .05 was used as the critical level of significance which resulted in the rejection of the null hypothesis of equal means for the two segments.

Results

The final sample consisted of 189 respondents. By segment, it included 71 respondents from the KwaZulu-Natal Province and 118 from the North West Province.

Business Ethics

The delineation of the results begins with a look at the respondents' opinions regarding the acceptability of the 14 questionable business practices. In such cases, it is the consumer who represents the potential victim of a questionable action. As documented by the means in Table 1, the results are quite varied. Ethics has been characterized as situational in nature. These results reflect that premise as the means range from an unacceptable low of 2.13 to an acceptable high of 4.56. Of the 14 ethically questionable behaviours (EQBs) on the part of business entities, with means below the scale's midpoint of 3.50, nine were deemed to be unacceptable. The two most unacceptable EQBs were the act of sending unsafe products to overseas markets where the oversight regarding product safety is not as intense and the smuggling of an illegal pharmaceutical across international borders by a doctor with the intention of helping a patient. The frequency distributions provide credence for this assertion in that fully 80.5 percent of the respondents expressed some level of unacceptance with the practice of shipping unsafe products abroad, and 80.0 percent of the respondents indicated some degree of unacceptance for the practice of a doctor bringing an illegal drug back to their home country with the objective of helping a patient. Five of the 14 actions were deemed to be acceptable. The two most acceptable practices were the practice of shifting manufacturing to countries where reductions in labor costs could be achieved and the sometimes maligned use of celebrity endorsements for one's products. The mean regarding outsourcing was 4.56 while the mean for using celebrities such as athletes as product spokespersons was 4.50. Again, the frequency distributions support these findings as fully 77 percent indicated some level of acceptance for moving manufacturing to a cheaper offshore location while 77.4 percent gave their approval to the use of celebrity endorsements. The full results for all 14 scenarios addressing business behaviour are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Results Regarding Ethically Questionable Business Behaviours

Ethically Questionable Business Behaviour	Mean	% Deeming Unacceptable
Shipping Unsafe Products to Overseas Markets	2.13	80.5
Doctor Smuggling Drug across Border for Patient	2.30	80.0
Bait & Switch Advertising	2.33	74.2
Higher Prices in Urban Stores versus Suburban Stores	2.66	69.0
Raising Prices after Natural Disaster	2.73	65.8
Comparison Advertising Identifying Competitor by Name	2.77	65.2
Not Placing "SOLD" Sign on Sold House	2.93	61.1
Reducing Tax Liability by Tax Shifting	3.25	56.3
Up Price; Drop Prices; Advertise Sale Prices	3.26	56.1
Call to Santa Claus for a Fee	3.60	46.2
Using Tying Contract	3.74	44.9
Delay Intro of New Product to Exhaust Old Inventory	4.06	35.9
Using Celebrity Endorsers for One's Products	4.50	22.6
Outsource Production to Cheaper Foreign Country	4.56	23.0

Consumer Ethics

Objective two focuses on questionable behaviour on the part of consumers. What do these aspiring business professionals think about 14 questionable actions undertaken by consumers. In these cases, it is the business organization that is the victim of the consumers' misbehaviour. A cursory look at the means of the 14 actions provides an overview of the results. The item means fell within a range of 1.45 and 4.67. Of note is the fact that fully 12 of the 14 scenarios resulted in means below 3.5 thus reflecting the belief that the behaviour in question was unacceptable. Based on the mean value, the two most criticized consumer actions were the illegal act of inflating one's losses when filing an insurance claim and that of keeping extra change in a cash retail transaction. The means for these two actions were 1.46 and 1.48 respectively. Only two of the scenarios produced means on the acceptable side of the scale. Specifically, it was generally considered acceptable for a consumer to engage in showrooming (the act of seeking information about a product from a full service, higher priced retailer then purchasing it from a cheaper source such as an online retailer) and returning to a retailer on multiple occasions in order to purchase sale items where the quantity allowed in a single purchase is limited. The two means associated with these actions were 4.67 and 4.05 respectively. No other action was deemed acceptable. See Table 2.

Table 2: Results Regarding Ethically Questionable Consumer Behaviours

Ethically Questionable Consumer Behaviour	Mean	% Deeming Unacceptable
Artificially Inflating Values for Insurance Claim	1.46	93.6
Keeping Extra Change Given by Retail Clerk	1.48	93.1
Fibbing about Own Age to Secure Senior Citizen Discount	1.58	91.4
Retail Borrowing – Buy; Use then Return Item	1.69	88.9
Fibbing about Child's Age to Secure Children's Discount	1.70	89.8
Using Coupons for Products Consumer Did not Purchase	1.82	89.2
Using Frequent Flier Points in Way against Airline Rules	2.04	83.8
Knowingly Giving False Answer on Survey	2.09	82.9
Fib about Quality of Item at a Garage Sale	2.17	83.4
Return Item to Store Other than Where It Was Purchased	2.40	76.1
Knowingly Purchasing Product Mismarked at Lower Price	3.01	58.5
Fib about Competitor Price to Secure Lower Price at Store	3.42	46.5
Return to Store to Buy Sale-Items with Limited Quantity	4.05	37.2
Showrooming – Get Info from Source; Buy from Another	4.67	22.2

As was the case with the business behaviour scenarios, these results are further supported by the frequency distributions. A look at the array of unacceptable behaviours documents the fact that fully 93.6 percent assigned some level of unacceptability to the act of artificially inflating the value of items for an insurance claim while 93.1 percent likewise indicated some degree of unacceptance to the act of keeping excess change inadvertently given to the consumer by the cashier in a retail store. Those figures are compelling. For the two acceptable consumer actions, 77.8 percent of the respondents deemed showrooming to be acceptable while 62.8 percent indicated some degree of comfort with the act of returning to a store to take advantage of sales prices that limited the quantity that could be purchased in any single transaction. The overall results regarding questionable consumer behaviour is presented in Table 2.

Comparing the Results of the Two Subcultures in This Study

The third and final objective of the current study was to examine two distinct subcultures in South Africa. This objective was made plausible by virtue of the fact that data were intentionally collected from two important segments of the population. First was the primarily Caucasian respondent of European descent. These data were collected at North West University in the North West Province. The second segment is that of primarily black and/or colored consumers of South African heritage. These data were collected from MBA students at the University of KwaZulu-Natal in KwaZulu-Natal Province. While it is fair to assert that race represents a key point of differentiation between the two segments; it is presumed that their heritage has produced somewhat different mindsets on life in general. Does a university education narrow their differences, or does culture trump education? That is the focus of this final research objective.

To answer this question, we will first address differences of opinion regarding attitudes about questionable business practices. Addressing behaviour on the part of a business entity, a significant difference was documented for only one of the 14 scenarios. For the business initiative where prices were raised in the aftermath of a natural disaster such as a power outage following a windstorm, the segment comprising those of European descent were significantly more critical of the practice. Of note is that laws have been passed in many states and cities in the United States which prohibit what many outside observers deem to be price gouging. With the focus shifted to consumer misbehaviour, it

was found that only two scenarios produced statistically significant differences. The consumer acts of fibbing about a child's age in order to receive a discount on the price of a product and that of purchasing a product when the consumer is aware of the fact that the product was mistakenly mismarked at a price lower than that which should have been charged both differed across the two segments. And as was the case for the single consumer action where a significant difference was documented, the segment of respondents of European descent was more critical of the consumer's behaviour. However, it should be noted that for all three scenarios exhibiting significant differences, both segments expressed a belief that the action was unacceptable. These results appear in Table 3.

Table 3: Actions Exhibiting Significant Difference between the Two Segments

Ethically Questionable Behaviour	Means		Δ	sig.
	North West	KZN		
Raising Prices after Natural Disaster	2.55	3.01	0.46	.050
Fib about Age to Secure Child's Discount	1.51	2.00	0.49	.004
Knowingly Purchase Mispriced Item	2.83	3.31	0.48	.045

Discussion

Looking at the aggregate results, the South African respondents expressed a harsher mindset regarding consumer misbehaviour than they did for ethically questionable behaviour on the part of business entities. Of the 14 consumer behaviour scenarios, 12 produced results where the respondents deemed the behaviour under scrutiny to be unacceptable. The evidence provides compelling support for the premise that future South African business leaders have high expectations regarding the behaviour of their customers. Focusing on business ethics, eight of the 14 scenarios were deemed to constitute unacceptable behaviour on the part of the organization. This finding is not necessarily cause to send up a red flag, but it does support the commonly held belief that ethics is a situational phenomenon. Multinational corporations must recognize the reality that what is acceptable in one country may be disdained in another.

It has often been stated that legality and ethics may not coincide. In that regard, it has been stated that illegal behaviour may be tolerated if it produces a positive outcome. For example, a doctor's decision to smuggle an illegal drug back home in order to help a patient has the potential to produce a positive outcome. Despite this belief, this specific action was strongly opposed with only 20 percent of the respondents expressing their belief that the behaviour was acceptable. In fact, each of the illegal actions, whether by a consumer or a business entity, was found to be unacceptable. Thus, the research would support the premise that our future business leaders do tend to put legality and ethics hand-in-hand. In other words, if an action is illegal, then it is unethical.

This research concluded with a look at two subcultures in the Republic of South Africa. It sought to determine the extent to which citizens of a single country differ, not so much on the basis of demographics, rather on the basis of the subculture with which they are associated. Borrowing from consumer behaviour literature, one might reasonably argue that the focus is on affiliative reference groups. Consumers belong to a group that influences their opinions and their behaviour in the marketplace. Modest differences were identified. Compounding the problem even more is the reality that the South African population comprises a litany of subcultures – even languages. The two subcultures that were specifically targeted in this project did exhibit modest differences in regard to their ethical predispositions. As previously stated, however, the differences were modest in that significant differences between the two groups were documented for only three of the 28 ethical scenarios used in the survey. Thus there is a degree of homogeneity that appears to transcend culture. It could be that education, a common factor among the two respondent segments, trumps culture and moves the educated individuals into another segment of the population where culture yields to one's inclination to expect and to do the right thing. Yet, differences do still exist. Perhaps these differences can still be attributed to one's subcultural persona.

For a multitude of years, in journal after journal, academicians have engaged in research designed to determine similarities and differences in consumers who live in different countries. In today's global business environment, such research is of paramount importance as we seek to determine where and how to customize our marketing strategies so as to be more effective when our efforts cross international borders. The provocatively sexy strategy for fragrances that is successful in France would likely be condemned by consumers in Saudi Arabia. So there is little wonder as to why academicians and practitioners alike engage in research designed to isolate those differences. There is no dilemma in this regard. So where then is the researchers' dilemma?

It is a simple matter of semantics. A look at the titles of these comparative studies documents the reality that the terms cross-cultural and cross-national are often used to convey the idea that the primary thrust for the research is to compare some phenomenon in two or more countries. Similarly, the terms multi-national and multi-cultural are viewed

by some as synonyms for research that stretches across three or more targeted countries. Yet even within a single country, organizations often engage in multi-cultural marketing. Today's basic marketing textbooks almost all introduce students to the concepts of multi-cultural marketing while not referring to multi-national marketing to illustrate that concept. After all, social psychologists have long acknowledged the presence of subcultures – even countercultures – with in a single country. Some of the potential subcultures that marketers might tailor a marketing strategy to in the United States include Hispanic, Asian American, African American, and WASPs. In countries like the United States and South Africa where so many subcultures make up the aggregate population, segmentation is essential. And subculture is a logical variable to use in this segmentation task because of the noted differences on an array of issues, many of which are important as marketers seek to implement an effective marketing strategy.

The question of cross-cultural versus cross-national designations will remain. But the results emanating from this study, like many others, document one of the inherent problems germane to the creation of a single strategy designed to appeal to all customers in a given country. As such, it validates the decision to further segment a national market on the basis of appropriate cultural criteria. Only then will the marketer reach its fullest potential.

Conclusions

Ethics is indeed a situational phenomenon. Attitudes regarding questionable actions on both sides of the buyer-seller dyad tend to exhibit a bent towards rejecting questionable behaviours by both parties. A total of 12 of the 14 questionable consumer actions were deemed unacceptable by South Africa's future business leaders. In comparison, eight of the 14 questionable business actions produced means on the unacceptable side of the scale. So even though a meaningful ethical inclination has been documented, it appears that this population holds consumers to a higher set of standards than they do business organizations. As such it appears that they coalesce more with the business side of their persona than they do with their consumer side. From an in-group/out-group perspective, they more closely align themselves with their business peers.

The data were collected from two distinct South African subcultures. Though all are striving towards advanced degrees in business, they do not represent a homogeneous population. Yet it is important to note there was no significant difference between the group means for 25 of the 28 ethical scenarios. This could lead to the assertion that education will create certain ethical standards for today's students. Alternatively stated, education trumps culture. But at the same time, significant differences were documented for the other three scenarios. Thus it could be that culture does represent an overarching phenomenon that tends to remain somewhat static irrespective of external influences. In other words, education may not alter certain views regarding a concept as nebulous as ethics.

A question regarding the term, cross-cultural, was also called into question. Many authors, including the authors of this paper, have used that term to indicate research that compares populations across national borders. Yet this research documented a number of differences across two prominent South African subcultures. So while this research is not cross-national, it can be argued that it is – at least to some extent – cross-cultural. Perhaps we should seek some clarity as to when the two terms should be applied. Or if there is a standard, then we should do more to assure their proper use.

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Summary Brief

Green Advertising Effects and Purchase Intentions: A Study of American and Korean Millennials

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This study examines the influence of environmental concern, attitudes toward green advertising, ad believability, social influence, and public self-expression on Millennials' intentions to purchase green products in a cross-cultural context. The results reveal that environmental concern positively affects attitudes toward green products of which attitudes subsequently have positive effects on social influence and ad believability but a negative effect on public self-expression in both Korean and the U.S. respondents. Social influence is a significant predictor of intention to purchase green products in both samples. Ad believability also significantly influences U.S. respondents' purchase intention. However, public self-expression has a negative impact on purchase intention in both samples. The findings imply cultural effects might play a role in affecting millennials' intentions to purchase green products in both countries.

Introduction

Concerns about the environment and the increased awareness of environmental issues are prevalent among Millennials. Consequently, consumer-product companies have introduced environment-friendly products and used “green” marketing strategies to promote their green products. Millennials have positive attitudes toward green products and are willing to pay more for green services, products, or brands (Smith 2010). However, it is a challenge for advertisers to successfully communicate the green messages to these green consumers. Therefore, this study aims to examine the influence of Millennials' environmental concern, attitudes toward green advertising, social pressure, and public self-expression on their environmentally-oriented behavioral intentions to purchase green products in a cross-cultural context.

- RQ1** Do environmental concerns and attitudes toward green products affect American and Korean millennials' attitudes toward green advertising, their public reputational aspects of green consumption, and normative environmentally approved behaviors?
- RQ2** How do ad believability, public self-expression, and social pressures influence American and Korean millennials' intentions to buy green products?
- RQ3** Do cultures affect both American and Korean millennials' perceptions of green advertising and their purchase intentions of green products?

Analysis and Results

Data were collected in the U.S. and South Korea with 196 American and 212 Korean college students. The sample frame is appropriate since college students are concerned about the environment (Smith 2010) and have become a popular subject in green marketing research (Yang et. al 2015; Chang 2011). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was run for the overall validity of the measurement model. The CFA results indicate an acceptable fit with $\chi^2 = 883.35$, $df = 411$, $p\text{-value} < .000$, $CFI = .95$, $RMSEA = .05$, $NFI = .92$, and $TLI = .95$. All loading estimates are significant ($p < .000$) with the lowest being .65 and the highest being .93. The variance extracted estimates are .60, .67, .72, .67, .71, and .68 for environmental concern, attitudes toward green products, ad believability, public self-expression, social influence, and intention to buy, respectively. In addition, the construct reliability estimates are all adequate, ranging from .88 to .94. Discriminant validity is measured by comparing the variance-extracted percentage for any two constructs with the square of the correlation estimate between these two constructs. For more than one group, metric invariance between American and Korean samples needs to be examined. Overall, the “totally free” (TF) model fits well with $\chi^2 = 1373.48$, $df = 822$, $p = .000$; $CFI = .94$; $RMSEA = .04$; $PNFI = 0.77$. Constraining the measurement weights to be equal between groups, the model fit with $\chi^2 = 1452.62$, $df = 847$, $CFI = .94$; $RMSEA = .04$; $PNFI = 0.78$. By adding these constraints, $\Delta \chi^2 = 79.15$ with $df = 25$ ($p = .000$). This led partial invariance test based on two loading estimates for each construct be equal between groups. The model fit with $\chi^2 = 1389.02$, $df = 833$, $CFI = .94$; $RMSEA = .04$; $PNFI = 0.78$. The chi-square difference test results ($\Delta \chi^2 = 15.55$, $df = 11$, $p = .159$) satisfied the conditions for partial metric invariance allowing valid comparisons of relationships between the U.S. and Korean

samples. Finally, full scalar invariance was tested by constraining the CFA model. The model produced $\chi^2 = 1517.13$, $df = 868$, $p = .000$, $CFI = .93$; $RMSEA = .05$. $\Delta\chi^2 = 143.65$ with $df = 46$ was significant ($p < .000$). The results indicate that full scalar invariance was supported.

Then, structural equation modeling (SEM) examined the overall theoretical model specification. The one group model provides a satisfactory fit of data with $\chi^2 = 960.34$, $df = 416$, $p = .000$; $CFI = .95$; $RMSEA = .06$; $TLI = .94$. The structural invariance model is assessed by constraining all structural coefficients to be equal in both groups. Overall fit measures of the “totally free” model indicate that the model is consistent with the data ($\chi^2 = 1431.90$, $df = 832$, $p = .000$; $CFI = .94$; $RMSEA = .04$; $TLI = .93$). Next, constraining the measurement weights indicate $\chi^2 = 1446.80$, $df = 843$, $p = .000$; $CFI = .94$; $RMSEA = .04$; $TLI = .93$. Structural weights indicate $\chi^2 = 1533$, $df = 867$, $p = .000$; $CFI = .93$; $RMSEA = .04$; $TLI = .92$. The results indicate that the moderation model is significantly different from the total free model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 101.09$, $df = 35$, $p = .000$). Thus, it reveals the model is moderated by country.

The relationship between environmental concern and attitudes toward green products was significant for both samples (American, $\beta = .46$, $t = 5.99$; South Korean, $\beta = .38$, $t = 4.56$). The relationship between environmental concern and ad believability was significantly negative in the U.S. ($\beta = -.168$, $t = -2.05$). The relationship between attitudes toward green products and ad believability was significant for both countries (American, $\beta = .368$, $t = 4.38$; South Korean $\beta = .613$, $t = 7.49$). In the U.S. sample, attitudes toward green products was positively related to social influence ($\beta = .258$, $t = 3.08$) but had a negative relationship with public self-expression ($\beta = -.319$, $t = -3.79$). In the Korean sample, the relationship between attitudes toward green products and social influence was also positive ($\beta = .413$, $t = 4.84$) but attitudes toward green products was negatively related to public self-expression ($\beta = -.245$, $t = -3.02$). In the U.S. sample, intention to purchase was positively related to social influence ($\beta = .451$, $t = 6.08$) and ad believability ($\beta = .206$, $t = 3.2$) but had a negative relationship with public self-expression ($\beta = -.278$, $t = -4.08$). In the Korean sample, intention to purchase was positively related to social influence ($\beta = .599$, $t = 6.92$) but had a negative relationship with public self-expression ($\beta = -.150$, $t = -2.41$). No relationship was detected between ad believability and intention to purchase in the Korean sample.

Discussion and Conclusion

The results show cultural effects might play a role in millennials' intentions to purchase green products in both countries. In the U.S., individualism is the dominant culture, but collectivism would become more salient among Americans when a sense of belonging to in-groups and seeking peers' advice are perceived as ways of being related. In this instance, earning social approval from peers motivates U.S. millennials to consume green products as a way to feel related to others. The finding that social influence is the only significant predictor of Korean millennials' intentions to purchase green products is in line with cross-cultural research that Korean millennials are group-oriented and have a strong propensity to conform to the reference group's norms (Chan and Lau 2001). Lastly, enhancing one's self-interest would not be a desirable motive for American and Korean millennials to consume green products because consumers with a high level of public self-awareness tend to focus more on elements relevant to others than one's self-benefit (Yang et al. 2015).

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**SESSION 2.2: PANEL PRESENTATION: BEST PRACTICES IN
TEACHING INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS**

Chair:

Raj Srivastava, Middle Tennessee State University

Special Session

Best Practices in Teaching International Students

Raj Srivastava, Middle Tennessee State University, USA

Dawn Edmiston, College of William & Mary, USA

Aberdeen Leila Borders, Kennesaw State University, USA

Darlene Xiomara Rodriguez, Kennesaw State University, USA

Necall Wilson, Kennesaw State University, USA

Diversity and inclusion has been a major focus at many institutions recently. Thus, at the College of William & Mary, practices and support networks are being developed to further ensure the success of international students. Although faculty members often consider language to be the primary challenge for international students, the culture of the classroom is often a greater challenge for them. Therefore, during the first day of class it is critical to clearly articulate to all students the expected norms including attendance, timeliness and participation. In addition, a statement on diversity and inclusion should be shared with the class, and placed in the syllabus. This statement should also mention how to connect with campus resources such as the international student office and writing center.

Various tactics can be employed throughout the academic semester to ensure an inclusive classroom environment. For instance, if teaching a smaller class, take the time to learn student names and make an effort to greet them early and often. When developing the course curriculum, use international examples and encourage students to share their own examples during class discussions. Also, consider offering multiple assessment methods to include quizzes, papers, and presentations so students are not limited to a single method to demonstrate the application of knowledge.

The requirement of a team project is another valuable opportunity for international students to work with others. At the start of the project, have each team develop a work plan so that every member has a clear understanding of individual responsibilities and deadlines. Also, at the mid-point of the project, require each student to complete a peer review form so that you can intervene if needed to provide support. There should also be a peer review form at the end of the project that reinforces the importance of all students engaging in the project.

Although the demographic make-up of the United States and our institutions of higher learning are increasingly being represented by historically minority groups, immigrant populations, and first-generation college students, the training provided to new faculty and to international students is comparatively limited. The work of welcoming and inclusion for the minority, immigrant, and first-gen students is often siphoned off to the respective student affairs office and their personnel (Marr and Carey 2012). But the place where these students spend the majority of their time is in the virtual and physical walls of the formal classroom. Indeed, possibly even in a classroom with faculty or other staff who may not possess the cultural competence needed to aid these students through the recruitment, retention, progression, and graduation pipeline. It is for these reasons we are providing a primer on best practices for instructing international students.

Common Issues and Recommendations When Teaching International Students

A challenge many educators in today's college campuses are experiencing is harnessing the knowledge, skills, and abilities that students have in a meaningful way. This is all the more important when working with international students – students who have many strengths but are often viewed from a deficient lens. Although the issues confronted by international students vary as much as those for domestic students, having strategies on how to aid international students is crucial in devising an optimal learning environment.

It is imperative for faculty to avoid assumptions about what international students do and do not know about America or world history (Chue and Nie 2016). U.S. faculty tend to use cultural references and norms when teaching without realizing that international schools may not have the same frame of reference. Consequently, some forms of international knowledge may exceed U.S. standards, while other forms may be deficient. Similarly, “rules of engagement” and “socialization in the classroom” can also vary widely depending on the country of origin of the students, therefore there may be a need for colleges to socialize international students into the academy, similar to how there are international student academies to transition youth who enter into the U.S. educational system between K-12 grades. Recommendations for addressing these differences in educational background and orientation:

- Explicitly elicit the funds of knowledge international students have so that scaffolding learning is possible.
- When gaps in knowledge or understanding exist that may affect students' learning, short-term retention, and long-term application, faculty can: 1) expressly ask a question about their understanding in class; 2) allow students to write their questions for subsequent discussions; 3) host discussion boards on virtual platforms; or 4) host international student learning sessions throughout the term.
- Provide written guidelines for what "participation" looks like – so that international students have time to "warm up" to a teacher's expectations.
- In addition to written guidelines for participation, provide written and oral guidelines (and other rubrics) for assignments, tasks, and expectations for the course.

Special Issues and Recommendations When Teaching International Students

International students are often non-native English speakers (Kerdchoochuen 2011). This may require them to mentally and rapidly translate the learning environment from English to their native language and/or use the cultural cues from their traditional learning environments (Mantzourani, Courtier, Davies and Bean 2015). Consequently, faculty need to provide multiple ways to reiterate and reinforce lessons. To do so it is recommended that faculty:

- Design the lecture to coincide with the order of the textbook or reading materials reviewed by the students in advance of class.
- Provide an overview of the lecture and the learning objectives and at the conclusion of the lesson reiterate the learning objectives for the session.
- Provide a lesson outline that allow students to fill in the notes during the lecture.
- Incorporate as many of the five senses as possible to highlight key concepts.
- Either create study guides or have the students create a class study guide.
- Utilize a "one minute" paper – to help students identify what they understand about a concept.
- Incorporate "think-pair-share" activities to make it easier for students to build relationships and confidences with their peers.
- Be intentional toward inclusivity

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SESSION 2.3: WORKPLACE ISSUES: THE EMPLOYEES' IMPACT

Chair:

Katrina Savitskie, University of West Florida

Summary Brief

“America, Let’s Get Real” About Stigmatization of Obese Individuals—A Discourse Analysis of the Opening Sequence of The Biggest Loser

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Mark Mayer, Indiana University, USA

Since 2004, NBC’s popular reality TV show The Biggest Loser has argued that vigorous exercise and diet will result in weight loss in obese individuals; the show turned weight loss into a competition and spectacle with some winners dropping over 50 % of their original weight. A discourse analysis of season 17-- Biggest Loser: Temptation Nation’s opening sequence (essentially the advertisement for the content of the season) conveyed multiple ideas about obesity, obese individuals, and weight loss. Overall, the featured language and imagery suggested that obese contestants (and viewers) were morally and physically flawed while the fit host and fitness coaches were presented as positive heroes. Moreover, the show opener implied that obese individuals were compulsive, gluttonous, and lacking the willpower to change. From this stigmatizing framing of the contestants, it appeared the show prioritized the process of becoming a biggest loser over the actual contestants.

Introduction

Reality television series have dramatically increased in both prevalence and popularity on American television in recent years. Reality shows can be found depicting topics ranging from home improvement to showcasing celebrity lives to teenage pregnancy and motherhood—an aggregate collection of topics ranging from the light-hearted to the incredibly serious. Some of the series feature dramatic “life improvement” efforts—for instance, the efforts of loved ones to stage an intervention in order to save a drug abuser. One such show is NBC’s long-running show The Biggest Loser, which began in 2004. This show features obese individuals split into teams, each with weight-loss coach/trainers with an objective of maximizing weight loss in order to win a cash prize.

At surface view, a show such as The Biggest Loser would probably be viewed as a positive force for change—obesity is, after all, a worldwide health epidemic and individuals suffering from obesity would benefit from a healthier diet and increased exercise levels. However, through a different lens, The Biggest Loser (and many other reality shows) offer a similar “distorted mirror” to viewers as Richard Pollay posited that advertising does in his seminal 1986 Journal of Marketing article “The Distorted Mirror: Reflections on the Unintended Consequences of Advertising.” Pollay wrote that advertising models a view of life that seems, on its surface, to be rather positive, but that “the behaviors displayed often appear less than ideal judged from other perspectives” (26). We find a similar distorted mirror in place in some reality television—the so-called reality is perhaps more of a one-sided narrative versus a complex portrayal of a multi-sided phenomenon. Like much advertising, one side of The Biggest Loser is obvious: it’s using compelling imagery to “sell”—in this case, a healthier lifestyle. In this paper we use discourse analysis—a methodology which has many disparate definitions but which we offer as a close analyzing of text and imagery for underlying meaning—and apply it to The Biggest Loser. We focus solely on the opening credits of the most recent season (Season 17) of The Biggest Loser—the “advertisement” of the show which attempts to “sell” the show to viewers in order to compel them to watch.

Summary of Findings, Implications, and Conclusion

In general, because it showcased that obese people can relatively quickly become the “biggest loser,” the whole premise of the show reinforced the stereotype that people who are obese have not decided to change their obese ways—that weight loss can and will happen as long as the individual decides to make it happen. Domoff et al. (2012) found that when exposed to The Biggest Loser, with its dramatic weight transformations, individuals “more strongly believed that weight is controllable” (p. 993). Yet, scientists would argue that this type of “intervention . . . is unrealistic for most people” (Hall 2013).

Largely, by blaming obesity on individuals’ lack of willpower, the show opening presented a one-dimensional, fragmented view of obesity and discredited the intricate societal factors that may contribute to obesity. Relevant academic literature has revealed many of these factors, which include closeness to restaurants (e.g., Currie et al. 2010),

food prices (e.g., Cutler, Glaeser, and Shapiro 2003), corporate behavior (Brownell et al. 2010), and “counterproductive government policies” (Brownell et al. 2010). The Biggest Loser intro represented obesity as a disease weak-minded individuals get rather than as a disease caused by systemic issues.

The language of this season 17 introduction put obese individuals in a powerless position through the overall negative portrayal they were afforded and put the host in a powerful position for reasons previously mentioned (the intense lighting, his good eye contact, his well put-together outfit, his lean body) (DeGroot 2016). Additionally, Harper also claimed to understand the obese individuals’ struggle: “I get it. The real world is tough,” when being obese was not an experience he has lived with, at least not during the last seventeen years when the show has been running (DeGroot 2016). Many of his lines carried a confident but chastising tone that reflected his implication that he understands how to fix obesity: “America it’s time to get real.” Additionally, all of the information Harper told about himself was presented in a positive light (in contrast to the negative representation of the contestants): “And after 16 seasons of being their trainer, I’m not just training them. I’m also their host” (DeGroot 2016).

Overall, boiled down, the show intro indicated that being obese is bad and shame-worthy and that being in shape is good and normal. Roost (2016) rightly asserted that there is a movement to shame and judge “the overweight or obese as morally inferior” (174). This movement is indicated in the negative coverage of the contestants in the opening of season 17 of *The Biggest Loser*. Crandall and Schiffhauer (1998) suggested that America’s stigmatizing treatment of obesity occurs in part because of the beliefs on which our culture is built:

Prejudice and attributions were correlated with belief in a just world, belief that poor people are responsible for their poverty, and the Protestant Ethic beliefs of self-determination and self-denial, authoritarianism, and conservative politics. All of these beliefs are centered on the notion that each person is responsible for what they get in life. Their beliefs celebrate the assumption that fate is self-determined and represent traditional American values. (459)

Because of this extreme focus on individual responsibility, obesity comes to represent a personal moral failing within the individual, rather than a systemic problem.

Regardless, of the actual “realness” of this reality television show, it is important to remember that television viewing can still influence audience perceptions of different topics. Gerbner et al. (2002) showcased in their research that individuals who consumed more TV, were more likely provide “TV answers” to things, as their perceived social reality was largely shaped by things seen on television (47). Our society must work harder to advocate for an end to the stigmatizing of individuals with obesity -- an end to the “microaggressions” they live their daily lives with (Roost 2016, 174).

Pollay’s “distorted mirror” offered a compelling metaphor and perspective of advertising—it’s reflecting a distortion of reality in order to achieve its objective, the selling of product. We find *The Biggest Loser* to offer a similar mirror—the reality isn’t necessarily what’s being portrayed here, but rather a dramatized, controlled narrative much like an advertisement. Future research might seek to further investigate reality television through various methods in order to ascertain the nature of, and perhaps the reasons for, such distortions as we find in this paper.

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Summary Brief

Corporate Social Responsibility's Impact on the Employee's Perceived Job Satisfaction and Firm Performance: The Employee Perspective

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Feisal Murshed, Kutztown University of Pennsylvania, USA

This research examines Corporate Social Responsibility's (CSR) impact on firm performance from the employee's perspective. Specifically, we examined CSR from the employee's perspective regarding their employer's CSR actions (Philanthropic, Ethical, and Environmental) and the impact on Job Satisfaction and Perceived Firm Performance (as determined by the employees themselves). Our findings will be a unique contribution to the literature given that most existing research has evaluated the consumer's opinion of a firm's CSR efforts. We contend that only if the employee understands and values the CSR initiative will the firm truly see the biggest benefit through increased employee job satisfaction and improved firm performance. This study highlights the impact CSR can have on the firm but also indicates that more research is needed to truly offer guidance to managers seeking to use CSR to achieve a competitive advantage.

Summary Brief

Do Differences in Gender and Marital Status Impact Organizational commitment Among Boundary Spanners?

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Lucy M. Matthews, Middle Tennessee State University, USA

Cheryl B. Ward, Middle Tennessee State University, USA

Ryan L. Matthews, RLM Enterprises, USA

This study investigates the impact that both gender and marital status have on autonomy, perceived supervisory support, perceived organizational support, emotional exhaustion, and organizational commitment. Most prior research has focused on either gender or marital status without looking at them simultaneously (i.e. single male, single female, married male, and married female). Results indicate that there are eight relationships that are significantly different from one group compared to another, implying that differences in autonomy and support are needed based on gender and marital status. This means that an organization should customize its policies and procedures to accommodate the unique needs of its employees.

Introduction

For most individuals, work and family are the most important parts of life. Numerous studies have shown that individuals who experience an imbalance between work and non-work activities, such as family, are more likely to have potentially harmful health effects such as depression, stress, hypertension, and substance abuse (Amstad et al. 2011). The negative health effects individuals experience may consequently result in problems for organizations in the form of increased absenteeism, lower levels of organizational commitment, and turnover intentions (Duxbury & Higgins 2003). As a result of these issues, individuals may be less satisfied with both work and family life (Amstad et al. 2011). Following this reasoning, it could be beneficial for employers to try to reduce the conflict individuals experience between work and family issues (Greenhaus & Parasuraman 1999).

Further complicating this issue, research has shown that males and females often react differently when experiencing work-related stress (Kahn et al. 1964). According to gender role theory, men and women often respond based on stereotypes to the work and family roles they occupy (Eagly & Karau 1991). Role theory states that roles are embedded in expectations about appropriate behavior. When an individual is faced with numerous incompatible roles, conflict results. This conflict occurs when filling the expectations of one role reduces the individual's ability to adequately fulfill the expectations of the other role(s) (Kahn et al. 1964). Subsequently, with all individuals having limited resources, time and energy are exhausted, and individual stress is increased (Kahn et al. 1964). Gender role theory applies this concept to the social roles that men and women face in meeting cultural stereotypes at home, at work, and in society at large. In the workplace (based on gender social norms), extrinsic job attributes may be more highly valued by women (e.g., workplace friendships and helping others) as well as intrinsic factors (e.g., task variety and enjoyment), as women build on interpersonal relationships at work. As a result, women are more likely to work in occupations that correspond to female gender role stereotypes (e.g., caregiving, support, nurturing, administrative occupations). Conversely, salary, autonomy, responsibility, and opportunities for advancement and leadership are valued more highly by men (Konrad, Ritchie, Lieb, & Corrigan 2000), making it more likely that males will weigh different priorities when selecting an occupation. The presence of these social gender roles may contribute to males and females experiencing differing levels of conflict between their work and personal/family life.

Gender and Marital Status

Men and women appear to allow their social roles to be influenced by social conditioning. For women, family role identities tend to be at least as important as work related identities (Eagly 1987). As a result, women may prefer occupational positions that allow them more job flexibility to focus on non-work activities (Bender, Donohue, & Heywood 2005), and those where work roles do not interfere with family roles (Bender, Donohue & Heywood 2005). Men, however, typically consider their work role identity as more primary than their non-work roles. As

such, factors such as authority and salary are more important issues impacting work related attitudes for men (Akerlof & Kranton 2000). With women being responsible for over fifty percent of household chores, as well as the primary child and elderly caregivers, they tend to experience more family-related demands, resulting in increased levels of role conflict. Men may experience more work-related demands, due to job pressure and stress, as their social roles place them as the 'head of the household' or 'primary wage-earner' (Matlin 2004).

Discussion

In this study, the differences that gender and marital status produce on well-established organizational constructs were examined. Based on 648 boundary spanners, the proposed model was tested using four distinct groups (single female, single male, married female and married male). The results indicate 8 significant differences between those groups. This research offers the following theoretical, empirical and practical contributions.

This study found that for single boundary spanners, single males perceive increased levels of supervisor support with additional autonomy. However, for single females, while the impact of autonomy on supervisory support is positive and significant, the impact is not as strong as that of single males. This indicates that single females need more support at the supervisor level than their single male counterparts. This study also found that for married males autonomy can lead to emotional exhaustion. This was not the case for single males or married females where the impact was non-significant.

A major finding from this research shows that increased levels of emotional exhaustion does not lead to decreased levels of commitment to the organization for single females. For single males, married females and married males on the other hand, increased levels of emotional exhaustion significantly reduces commitment to the organization. It is possible that single females are accustomed to being required to perform at a higher level than their male counterparts to be considered equivalent in performing their workplace responsibilities.

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**SESSION 2.7: PANEL PRESENTATION: BEST PRACTICES IN SALES
EDUCATION**

Chair:
David Fleming, Indiana State University

Summary Brief

Best Practices in Sales Education Panel

Lee Allison, Eastern Kentucky University

Nawar Chaker, Elon University

David Fleming, Indiana State University

Rachel Smith, University of Mississippi

This panel will focus on some of the major challenges in sales education: (1) How to prepare students to become career ready; (2) The challenge to balance selecting activities that we can conduct in class and that provide realistic experiences and (3) How to design role play type activities using best practices. In the panel we will share not only what we have found to work in these areas but also challenges we face. Audience participation and suggestions are encouraged as this is a forum for sharing ideas on how to enhance student learning in the sales area.

**SESSION 2.8: GOOD AND BAD, HAPPY AND SAD: SELF-REGULATION
AND CONSUMER CHOICE**

Chair:

Ganga Urumutta Hewage, University of Central Florida

Presentation

Regulatory Fit and Product Choices: Can Positive and Negative Task Feedback Motivate Individuals to Choose High Effort Products?

Anirban Som, Indian Institute of Management Trichy, India

The current research suggests that task related feedback which is congruent with individuals' regulatory focus can motivate individuals to choose high effort products. Thus, a promotion-focused (prevention-focused) individual, after receiving a positive (negative) feedback on her task performance will purchase a high effort product to improve her task performance.

Introduction

The effects of feedback sign (positive or negative) on motivation and performance have received considerable theoretical and empirical attention in the context of regulatory focus theory (e.g. Van-Dijk and Kluger 2004). However, marketing applications of this well documented phenomenon are scarcely found in the literature. The findings of Van-Dijk and Kluger (2004) indicate that the effects of feedback sign (positive/negative) on motivation are moderated by regulatory focus (Higgins 1998). Specifically, over a series of experiments, they showed that positive (vs. negative) feedback is more effective in motivating individuals with promotion-focused orientation, whereas negative (vs. positive) feedback is more effective in motivating individuals with prevention-focused orientation. These effects have subsequently been replicated in articles such as Kluger and Van-Dijk (2010). The current research contends that a positive (negative) feedback during goal pursuit (e.g. losing weight, doing well in exams) will motivate promotion-(prevention-) focused consumers to work harder on their goal pursuit. Subsequently, promotion - focused and prevention - focused consumers will choose products which require them to engage in hard work in order to achieve success in their goal pursuit. Considering that regulatory focus has been widely applied in the marketing literature (e.g. Motyka et al. 2014), it is interesting that moderating effect of regulatory focus in the context of feedback sign and motivation has not drawn substantial attention in the marketing literature. The current article closes this gap and tests the joint effect of regulatory focus and feedback sign in the context of high effort products. Examples of high effort products can be an educational DVD, which helps one to ace a test only when she is willing to invest maximal effort in order to understand the contents of the DVD, a golf putter, which guarantees improvement in one's golfing standards only when one is willing to practice for long hours (Curtwright and Samper 2014) and so on.

Theory and Hypothesis

Studies on valence of task feedback and regulatory fit suggest that, a positive feedback will be effective in motivating promotion-focused individuals whereas a negative feedback will be effective in motivating prevention-focused individuals to work harder (Kluger and Van-Dijk 2010). For example, the results of Van-Dijk & Kluger (2004) indicate that a positive (vs. negative) feedback will be more effective in motivating promotion-focused (prevention-focused) employees in an organization to improve their job performance. The current research suggests that, promotion-focused and prevention-focused individuals will consider high effort products as effective tools for goal pursuit when they experience a high level of motivation for goal achievement. This theory is derived from articles such as Motyka et al. (2014), which discuss the phenomenon of regulatory fit. The theory of regulatory fit suggests that individuals show a higher level of affinity towards products, which are compatible with their regulatory orientations due to a higher scope of regulatory goal fulfilment (Motyka et al. 2014). The current research suggests that a high effort product will be more compatible for individuals who are motivated to work hard in order to get the desired outcome. Since, a positive (negative) feedback motivates promotion-focused (prevention-focused) individuals to work hard; the current research predicts that a high effort product should be considered as more compatible with the regulatory focus of promotion-focused individuals who have received a positive feedback on their tasks and by prevention-focused individuals who have received a negative feedback on their tasks.

Prevention-focused individuals, as compared to promotion-focused individuals, will show a higher level of preference for choosing high effort products while pursuing a goal when a past instance of their goal related failure is communicated to them – Hypothesis1, H1.

Promotion-focused individuals, as compared to prevention-focused individuals, will show a higher level of preference for choosing high effort products while pursuing a goal when a past instance of their goal related success is communicated to them – Hypothesis2, H2.

Overview of Study and Main Results

Eighty nine undergraduate engineering students (Male = 55, Female = 34) from a reputed engineering institute in India participated in the study. Average age of participants was 19.7 years. The study adopted a 2 (Regulatory Focus: Promotion vs. Prevention) * 2 (Valence of past goal related action: Positive vs. Negative) between subjects design. The likelihood of choosing a high effort product was the main dependent measure. Similar to Wang and Lee (2006), promotion-focus or prevention-focus were induced in participants by asking them to imagine about their hopes and aspirations or duties and obligations. In the valence of past goal related action condition, participants were asked to imagine preparing for the GRE exam for studying abroad and the steps they need to take in order to do well in the GRE exam. Subsequently, in the negative valence condition, they were asked to imagine a scenario in which they skipped their GRE tutorial classes and instead went on a weekend trip with friends. In the positive valence condition, they were asked to imagine a scenario in which they skipped a weekend trip with friends to attend GRE tutorials. Subsequently, participants were provided with a description of an instructional DVD for a GRE exam. The product was described as one, which required students to work hard to achieve the best results. The product description was adopted from Curtwright and Samper (2014), which had used similar content while manipulating level of product effortfulness in one of their studies. Participants were asked to rate their likelihood of choosing the product on a scale of 1 (= very unlikely) to 7 (= very likely). Analysis using two-way ANOVA showed a significant interaction between regulatory focus and valence of past goal related action on the likelihood of choosing the high effort product [$F(1,85) = 12.06, p < 0.01$]. None of the main effects were significant ($p > .05$). Contrast analysis showed that the likelihood of choosing the high effort product was significantly higher for prevention-focused individuals in the negative valence condition as compared to the positive valence condition ($M_{\text{negative}} = 4.36, N = 25$ vs. $M_{\text{positive}} = 3.00, N = 22, t(85) = 3.09, p < 0.01$), thus supporting H1. On the contrary, the likelihood for choosing the high effort product was marginally higher for promotion-focused individuals in the positive valence condition as compared to the negative valence condition ($M_{\text{positive}} = 4.19, N = 21$ vs. $M_{\text{negative}} = 3.33, N = 21, t(85) = 1.85, p = .06$), thus supporting H2.

Conclusion

The current article aims at contributing to the theory related to regulatory focus, task feedback and motivation (e.g. Van-Dijk & Kluger 2004 Kluger and Van-Dijk 2010). Whereas previous research on regulatory focus, task related feedback and motivation have considered variables such as task persistence to measure motivation after providing positive (negative) feedback to promotion-focused (prevention-focused) consumers, the current research considers the likelihood of choosing effortful products to measure motivation after providing positive (negative) feedback to promotion-focused (prevention-focused) consumers. While doing so, the current article also contributes to the regulatory fit theory (e.g. Motyka et al., 2014) by identifying effortful products as a means of achieving self-regulatory fit for promotion-focused and prevention-focused consumers.

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Summary Brief

The Role of Regulatory Focus in Experiential and Material Purchases

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This research investigates the role of regulatory focus in the preference for experiential and material purchases. We demonstrate that promotion focused individuals have stronger preference for experiential purchases than prevention focused individuals and this effect is mediated by processing fluency. Our findings not only expand our understanding of regulatory focus as an antecedent of experiential and material purchases, but also help companies design effective marketing strategies.

Theoretical Background

Consumers are frequently faced with tradeoffs. In this research, we examine how individuals with different regulatory focus make such tradeoffs between purchases of experiential and material products (Tully, Hershfield, and Meyvis 2015; Van Boven and Gilovich 2003). These two types of purchases tend to be mentally construed at different levels of abstraction (Trope and Liberman 2003; Van Boven and Gilovich 2003). Evidence suggests that experiential purchases tend to be associated with abstract thinking whereas the material purchases tend to be associated with concrete thinking (Caprariello and Reis 2013; Vallacher and Wegner 1987; Van Boven and Gilovich 2003).

Regulatory focus theory discusses two types of strategy for goal pursuit—promotion focus, in which one's behavior is regulated towards the positive outcome and prevention focus, in which one's behavior is regulated away from negative outcomes (Higgins 1998). Individuals with prevention focus tend to be more detail oriented (concrete mindset) as they move away from negative outcomes in search of safety and security (Lee, Keller, and Sternthal 2010; Liberman et al. 1999; Mogilner, Aaker, and Pennington 2008). Individuals with promotion focus tend to see the bigger picture (abstract mindset) as they move towards the positive outcomes in search of advancement and growth. We propose that promotion focused individuals would have a higher preference for experiential purchases than the prevention focused individuals. This is because the promotion focused individuals tend to process information through an abstract mindset (Lee et al. 2010; Mogilner et al. 2008) and having an abstract mindset makes it easier to process experiential purchases since which are often analyzed in abstract terms (Caprariello and Reis 2013; Van Boven and Gilovich 2003). Similarly, prevention focused individuals who have a concrete mindset may find it easier to process material purchases since which are often evaluated in concrete terms (Lee et al. 2010; Mogilner et al. 2008). This would result in a stronger preference for material purchases among prevention focused individuals. The above reasoning highlights the role of processing fluency (Lee et al. 2010), which drives the effect of regulatory focus on purchase choice.

Key Findings and Implications

We examined our main thesis in several studies. Results showed that, when regulatory focus shifted from prevention focus to promotion focus there was an increasing preference for experiential purchases rather than material purchases. We replicated this effect using different operationalizations of regulatory focus (manipulated and measured) and different choice sets. Moreover, we found that processing fluency mediated the relationship between the regulatory focus and the preference for experiential purchases. These results supported the role of processing fluency as the underlying mechanism, such that promotion focus increased the ease of experiential purchases compared to prevention focus.

Our research contributes to the literature on experiential and material purchases. These findings suggest that regulatory focus is an important antecedent and plays a critical role in consumer choice between experiential and material purchases. Through the mediating role of processing fluency (Lee et al. 2010), we also have a better understanding of the drivers behind such choices. Our findings could help firms design effective advertising strategies. A bicycle advertised as an experiential purchase (e.g., experience of riding the bicycle) could be more appealing to promotion focused individuals than to prevention focused individuals. On the other hand, advertising the bicycle as a material purchase (e.g., durability and design) could be effective for prevention focused individuals.

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Presentation

Vulnerability and Adoption of Risk Avoidance/Reduction Strategies: The Impact of Aspirational Distance and Counter-Norms

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The risks associated with teen sexual activity are not as universal as presented. Also, the future presented by teen advocacy programs may not represent a reality that the teens experience and feel unobtainable. The goal of this research is to understand how teens evaluate their vulnerability associated with teen sexual activity and teen pregnancy relative to desirable life outcomes. Focus groups were conducted with parenting and never-pregnant teens. These results contribute to our understanding of how disadvantaged teens assess risks and vulnerability.

Introduction

The teen sex rate has declined to the lowest level in over three decades, yet, teen pregnancy rates remain high relative to other industrialized countries (Storrs 2015). Few researchers and health practitioners dispute the negative effects of teen pregnancy (Kearney and Levine 2012), but do adolescents, particularly those most at risk, agree that teen pregnancy is debilitating? And if they do not agree, what are the consequences for public health?

Using qualitative data from a series of focus groups, this paper examines risk and vulnerability perceptions, as well as perceptions of promoted benefits. The goal is to understand how teens evaluate their vulnerability associated with teen sexual activity and teen pregnancy relative to desirable life outcomes.

Vulnerability and Risk

A necessary precursor to adopting the desired behavior in several models used to promote sexual responsibility (e.g. Protection Motivation) is that the vulnerable audience will reach the same perspective of risk as presented. Without recognition that the undesired outcome is personally highly probable and severe in negative consequences, the target is not likely to be motivated to learn how to adopt risk-reducing or risk-avoiding behaviors (Tanner et al. 1991). Many teen pregnancy prevention interventions are designed to reduce vulnerability by increasing one's ability to turn a situation towards healthier outcomes (Bennett and Asseffi 2005) but without teen adoption of the risk paradigm, motivation to use those skills is not heightened. In the instance of teen pregnancy, true probability of occurrence is a function of biology, sexual activity, and adoption of preventive methods but severity of consequences when pregnancy occurs is a function of many elements. Social services, family support, and other factors lead to variability in the actual severity of consequences most commonly cited (Wanchuan 2015).

Method

This qualitative study takes a grounded theory approach to the question of perspective and risk (Glaser and Strauss 1967). The data sources were fourteen focus group interviews with teens, as well as interviews with parents.

Pregnancy versus Sexually Transmitted Infection

A very common theme, no matter the race or ethnicity, can be summed by the phrase, "A baby is a blessing, and an STD is a curse." One quote pointed out the distinct perspective regarding pregnancy shared by many teen girls that getting pregnant should be celebrated and is not something to "freak out about". Further, there is recognition among some teens that the economic and social consequences of teen pregnancy can be mitigated with a strong support system. Thus, some teens perceive pregnancy as something to be celebrated and enjoyed, particularly if they believe the educational and economic consequences to be mitigated by a strong support system.

Perceptions of Vulnerability

Girls seem to be more willing to express vulnerability in making choices of partners. While this view that girls are more vulnerable to the effects of teen pregnancy is new, the more interesting aspects are how teens address their vulnerability. For example, staying with one person is one way some girls reduce their perceived vulnerability; in other cases, the same behavior is viewed as an example of vulnerability. Another method of reducing vulnerability is learning from positive or negative examples of older siblings and others.

In the second wave of groups, the moderator's guide was altered to explore how risk is mitigated, and how risk is influenced. One unexpected theme that emerged was a general perception of vulnerability. One father expressed this general vulnerability as: "I never thought I'd live to be twenty-one. What did anything matter? My son is going through the same thing." Such a theme might be more understandable if limited to those who live in dangerous settings, but a short life expectancy seemed to be common among African American males in this study.

Aspirational Distance

These findings led to the development of the concept of aspirational distance. Aspirational distance is the conceptual space between one's current state and the state being promoted. The promotion of benefits that are seemingly out of reach for reasons that have nothing to do with the central message can render the message moot.

Thus, in the final wave of focus groups, we explored the concept of aspirational distance. In this wave, two themes emerged regarding hopes for the future: aspirational clarity and influence of aspirational distance. Interesting differences, arose between teens at risk and those not at risk.

Research Implications

These results contribute to our understanding of how disadvantaged teens assess risks and vulnerability. More importantly, the study identifies the importance of two variables: aspirational distance and aspirational clarity. Without close and clear aspirations, teens seem less likely to recognize the risks associated with teen pregnancy.

Teen perceptions of risk and their recognition of vulnerability varies. If the desired response is birth control or abstinence, adoption may be less likely if the presented risks associated with pregnancy are not accepted.

The final wave suggests an additional component may be needed. First, clarifying aspirations may be required for subjects to accept risks. In other words, someone without goals and aspirations may not be able to view any risks to pregnancy; rather, there may be actual rewards in the form of increased attention or other resources.

Simply clarifying aspirations, though, is insufficient if those aspirations are still seen as distant. Involving people who personify aspirational achievement from the same starting point as the target population may contribute to reducing aspirational distance. Further, clarifying aspirations that are already closer by addressing needs perceived as more immediate, such as the ability to earn a comfortable living, may be more successful.

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Presentation

Will You Like Me More? The Effect of Anthropomorphism on Consumers Decisions

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This research examines the effect of facial cues, specifically level of asymmetry in facial features of an emoji on consumer evaluations. In a series of experiments, we found evidence that consumers evaluated the emoji with asymmetric facial features more favorably than the symmetric emoji. This effect worked through anthropomorphism and vicariously experienced emotions. The findings not only expand understanding of emoji as an important antecedent of product evaluations, but also help practitioners to adapt more effective product designs and advertising strategies.

Theoretical Background

Emojis are graphic symbols that are frequently used in social media and mobile communication to convey ideas and concepts (Novak et al. 2015). Although there is some research studying emoticons from the perspective of communication in cyberspace (Walther and D'Addario 2001; Derks, Fischer, and Bos 2007), very few studies have looked at how emojis can specifically influence human behaviors. In marketing, practitioners have gradually started to use emojis as a means to communicate with consumers. For example, Pepsi Co Inc used emojis in PepsiMoji campaign not only in advertising but also in packaging as a way to break cultural barriers and start conversations (Pepsi Co 2016). However, in marketing, a handful of studies have been conducted to understand about emojis and their implications. In this research, we are interested in whether consumers' evaluations can be influenced by the level of asymmetry in the facial features.

Facial asymmetry is defined as the condition that one-half of the face being dissimilar to the other half of the face (Medical Dictionary). It can affect both internal and external traits. Facial asymmetry is associated with attractiveness (Rhodes 1998), good genes (Scheib, Gangestad, and Thornhill 1999), good health and personality (Fink et al. 2006). Overall, the literature suggests that there is preference for symmetry over asymmetry for human faces. This is because the symmetrical faces are easy to process by our visual systems (Enquist and Arak 1994; Enquist and Johnstone 1997) and they are perceived to signify good genes (Scheib et al, 1999).

For emojis, we argue that emojis with asymmetric facial features will be preferred over the emojis with symmetric facial features. Moreover, we propose that the effect is driven by anthropomorphism and vicariously experienced emotions. An asymmetric emoji compared to a symmetric one tend to be more real and natural, leading to it to be perceived as more anthropomorphic (Mori 1970; Zaidel and Hessamian 2010). When facial expressions are more anthropomorphic they tend to convey more emotions (Epley et al. 2008) resulting the observer vicariously experiencing emotions and making favorable evaluations (Ray and Batra 1983). The favorable evaluations for asymmetric emojis can not only happen via anthropomorphism and vicarious experiencing of emotions, but also in a more direct manner in which the asymmetric emoji itself generating more vicariously experienced emotions (Ahn et al. 2013).

Findings and Implications

We found evidence for our thesis in a series of studies. We used different sets of emojis and found that asymmetric emojis are evaluated more favorably than the symmetric emojis. Participants found the asymmetric emojis to be more likable, pleasant and good. Moreover, the participants evaluated the asymmetric emoji to be more anthropomorphic and vicariously experienced more emotions than the symmetric one. Finally, the results showed that the effect of level of asymmetry of facial features on evaluation could happen in two ways — serially via anthropomorphism and vicariously experienced emotions or directly via vicariously experienced emotions.

Our findings expand the facial asymmetry literature, which has mainly focused on human faces by focusing on non-human faces. Moreover, the results have implications for anthropomorphism literature as we introduce facial feature asymmetry as a means of humanizing a non-human. We hope that our research will create interest in marketing

academia to understand emojis as important antecedents of consumer behavior. Moreover, our work will help the practitioners to develop effective advertising strategies and packaging designs.

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**SESSION 2.9: PANEL PRESENTATION: EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN
THE DIGITAL CLASSROOM: WORKING WITH CLIENTS TO GAIN
REAL WORLD EXPERIENCE**

Chair:

Holly A. Syrdal, The University of Southern Mississippi

Special Session

Experiential Learning in the Digital Classroom: Working with Clients to Gain Real World Experience

April Kemp, Southeastern Louisiana University and University of South Alabama, USA
Elizabeth McDougal, Southeastern Louisiana University, USA
Holly A. Syrdal, The University of Southern Mississippi, USA

This session will contribute to the greater understanding of the need to equip students with digital marketing skills. Through the interactive discussion format, session attendees will be able to share their own experiences and respective competencies. Through the resulting conversation, attendees will gain a deeper understanding of how educators can enhance student learning and provide students with digital and social media marketing proficiencies.

Introduction: Relevancy & Key Issues

The growing ubiquity of both social media and mobile technology over the past decade has not only affected the way that individuals relate to each other, but also how individuals engage with businesses. Globally, 2.789 billion people (37% of the world's population) are now actively using social media and 2.549 billion (34% of the world's population) are active mobile social users (Chaffey 2017). According to the 2017 Social Media Industry Report, 92% of marketers believe that social media is important to their business (Stelzner 2017). Working knowledge and real-world experience in professional social media practices and digital strategy are highly desired traits by businesses and are a competitive advantage for new marketing graduates entering the job market. The pervasiveness of digital media usage by both consumers and marketers is reflected in the key findings recently released in McKinley Marketing Partners' annual Marketing Hiring Trends Report. According to the report, more than half of marketing hires will be for digital this year and demand for marketing talent will far exceed supply in several key areas, including digital (McKinley 2017).

The job description of the typical marketer is being transformed to include a more expansive list of responsibilities and, in turn, this has resulted in changes in the skill sets employers seek. Employers are increasingly looking for candidates with the technical, creative, and business proficiencies needed to succeed in digital marketing (Libert 2015). Specifically, research suggests that effective digital marketers must possess a wide spectrum of key competencies ranging from technical skills (e.g., video editing, search engine optimization, website development) to more traditional business management skills (e.g., communicating effectively and fostering relationships with clients) (Royle and Laing 2014).

Employers are also clamoring for "career ready" new hires. According to the National Association of Colleges and Employers, career readiness is "the attainment and demonstration of requisite competencies that broadly prepare college graduates for a successful transition into the workplace" (NACE 2017). Included among the competencies are: critical thinking/problem solving, oral/written communications, teamwork/collaboration, and digital technology. Despite the explicit need for these skills, a study reported that 61% of 600 surveyed employers felt that it was difficult to find qualified hires (Desai 2016).

To ensure marketing students graduate with the skills and competencies needed to secure desirable jobs in the current environment, it is imperative that marketing educators strive to equip students with both technical knowledge and theory underlying digital marketing needed to be successful. Utilizing team projects with real-world clients in digital marketing courses can aid in accomplishing these objectives.

Structure

This special session will be a panel discussion comprised of faculty from two universities with expertise in teaching digital and social media marketing. This session will include a panel discussion regarding the use of client-based projects to enhance student learning in digital marketing classrooms. Although questions from the audience will determine exactly what topics are covered, initial discussion will focus on best practices for partnering with both for-profit and non-profit organizations to develop real-world projects for digital and/or social media marketing courses to create teaching and learning opportunities for students. Examples of topics we will discuss include training students on how to consult with clients and utilizing contracts to make sure all parties understand their respective roles in

partnering on digital marketing projects. Additionally, we will include an interactive element in the panel session by using polleverywhere.com or kahoot.com to engage the audience and provide hands-on learning examples for participants to use in their respective classrooms.

Client-based Projects with Local Organizations

Our session will include discussion of how partnering with small local businesses on digital marketing course projects can benefit both the business and the students. Drawing on our experience in collaborating with small local businesses on digital marketing course projects, we will present and discuss specific projects we have undertaken. Additionally, we will share hard copies of some of the materials we have developed and discuss how free web-based technologies can be utilized for these projects. Attendees will also be asked to participate in the discussion by sharing their own experiences and ideas.

The session will also include discussion of the utilization of service-learning in digital classrooms. Service-learning is a course-based educational experience in which students participate in an organized community service activity and then reflect on it to gain further understanding of course content and an enhanced sense of personal values and civic responsibility (Bringle, Hatcher, and McIntosh 2006). Service-learning projects provide a link from theory to the “real world” (Gale and Kreshel 2006) and correlate strongly with deep learning and personal development of students (Felten and Clayton 2011). In our session, we will discuss why service-learning is especially well-suited for use in teaching digital and social media marketing. Outlines of previous projects assigned and examples of materials will be provided.

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**SESSION 3.1: SPORTS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH “POSITIVE”
MARKETING**

Chair:

Samer Sarofim, California State University, Fresno

Summary Brief

Investigating Team Sponsored Cause Marketing: The Role of Team Identification and Success on Prosocial Behavioral Intentions Among College Sport Fans

Ronald Christian, Baker University, USA

Zach Wilkerson, University of Kansas, USA

Samer Sarofim, California State University – Fresno, USA

This research investigates the role of team identification and team success on prosocial behavior in the context of a non-profit charitable cause sponsored by a university athletics team. Results offer insight for strategically crafting cause-marketing initiatives involving brand alliances with non-profit and sport brands. Practical implications involve improving donor response rate, strengthening connections with consumers, and enhancing brand image.

Introduction

The culture of giving in the U.S. is further enhanced by partnership initiatives among businesses, sport organizations, and non-profit entities that prompt consumers to give back. Coupled with the fact that the North American sports market is expected to reach \$73.5 billion by 2019 (Heitner 2015), many organizations have recognized the value of utilizing sport brands with cause marketing initiatives to strengthen connections with consumers, increase brand awareness, and enhance brand image (Cornwell & Maignan 1998). However, few researchers have examined how cause-related marketing (CRM) featuring a non-profit brand and a sport brand might impact prosocial behavior. Drawing from previous scholarship on cause marketing, meaning and image transfer and team identification, this research investigated sport-related factors influencing prosocial behavior.

Research Methods

In an experiment, researchers compared consumer ratings for likelihood to donate, team identification, brand image as a function of perceived degree of success of the sports team that partners with a non-profit organization.

Summary of Findings

The positive role of Team Identification and Perceived Success on prosocial behavioral intentions was confirmed.

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Summary Brief

Sports Event Social Responsibility and Its Marketing Implications

Russell Lacey, Xavier University, USA

Despite continued migration from traditional advertising in favor of sponsorship, relatively little is known about the impact of social responsibility on event-sponsor effectiveness. This study demonstrates how social responsibility benefits sponsored events, corporate brand sponsors, and consumers who experience sponsored sporting events. The study's conceptual model is empirically tested in the context of a field study at a professional tennis tournament—the 2016 Western & Southern Open. The study provides strong evidence that consumers appreciate the title sponsor when it is viewed as a good community citizen. Based on the findings, consumer gratitude may be achieved when they believe in the title sponsor's authenticity.

Introduction

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is a central tenet for contemporary business practices. For CSR to be good for business, consumers must perceive that companies and their brands are authentically committed to supporting specific CSR initiatives, such as sponsoring an event that champions an important social cause. The juxtaposition of the widespread participation in CSR and brand sponsorships raise interesting questions for theoretically-based sports marketing study. Although brand sponsorship of a sports event is an autonomous marketing activity, perhaps brand sponsorship of sporting events can be made more effective when it is combined with CSR.

Conceptual Background

Community event sponsors, by nature of exchanging cash or in-kind for association with events, display community citizenship and civic support (Papu and Cornwell 2014). Drawing on attribution theory, sports fans may attribute an event as socially responsible. How fans attribute this social responsible image is a function of their perceptions of the event's underlying motivation as either self-serving or altruistic. Attribution theory explains how individuals make causal inferences regarding another's motivation for a given behavior (Folkes 1988). Fans may attribute CSR initiatives in relationship to the charitable motivations of a sports event. Consumers' attribute motives to an event's actions and these attributions affect their ensuing reaction to the event (Campbell and Kirmani 2000). Sports sponsorship is a popular platform for showcasing a brand's commitment to community engagement while also connecting with consumers around their individual hobbies and other interests (Close et al. 2006).

Research Method

The author tested the framework via a field study at a major sponsored sports event—the 2016 Western & Southern Open (W&S Open). We selected the W&S Open as a representative empirical context to test our model because both the event and title sponsor, Western & Southern Financial Group (W&SFG), have well-established track records of social responsibility and community impact. Intercept surveys were employed to capture various aspects of sports event sponsorship effectiveness. In total, 1,863 individuals completed the survey over the course of the nine-day tennis tournament. The sample skewed toward female, middle-aged, college educated individuals who generated low six-figure household incomes, and had a history of attending previous W&S Opens.

Key Findings and Discussion

The results of this study demonstrate how a brand sponsor's CSR image and their authentic commitment to social contributions influences consumers' gratitude toward the sponsor in a real-world setting. The impact of charitable image of the sports event is isolated from the brand sponsor in order to help clarify the relationship between a socially responsible image of a sponsor and a sponsored sports event itself. Fans attending a sports event are more directly exposed to charitable initiatives being backed by the event itself than by a sponsor brand's larger efforts to fulfill its social responsibilities, beyond its realm as a sponsor.

The findings demonstrate the value of sponsoring events featuring a prosocial component. Brands should select sports events to sponsor that give back to the communities in which it operates. Based on the tested context, an event does not need to be exclusively dedicated to advancing a social cause in order to benefit from event social responsibility. Brand sponsors stand to benefit when they attach their brands to authentic and compelling sports events.

The charitable attributes of a sports event may transfer to the brand sponsor. When evaluating sports sponsorship prospects, brand marketers should consider the sports event's social responsiveness as a key selection criterion.

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SESSION 3.2: SOCIAL MEDIA: PROMOTION IN MOTION

Chair:

Jie G. Fowler, Valdosta State University

Summary Brief

A Content Analysis of Brand-Related Implied Motion in Social Media

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An investigation of implied motion in advertising finds that attention-getting visual appeals should be brand-related or risk distracting consumers from the advertiser's message. This research establishes differences in the communication effectiveness of brand-related and non-brand-related implied motion in advertising under self-paced, self-directed natural ad readership conditions. The study analyzes behavioral responses (e.g., likes or shares) to social media posts for sports apparel brands to show that brand-related implied motion benefits behavioral responses more than non-brand-related implied motion in online advertising.

Introduction

In a world packed with new products and services, advertisers use a variety of tools to capture the attention of consumers and attempt to persuade them to buy their brands. For example, some advertisers try to create memorable and engaging ads by showing their product in use. Capturing this action often results in the image depicting products, people or other objects in the ad amid movement. Like a freeze frame, these still images imply motion that consumers can perceive and even continue in their imagination.

Dynamic information in static visuals can generate perceptions of movement and facilitate, as measured by eye-tracking software, a greater number of and longer gaze fixations (Cian, Krishna, and Elder, 2014). Dynamic imagery has been shown to improve attitudes toward the brand, consumer engagement and attention given to brand logos (Cian, Krishna, and Elder, 2014). Human behavioral responses may change depending on whether perceptions of dynamic imagery arise when viewing warning signs, including children crossing signs, wet floor signs and shopping cart crossing signs (Cian, Krishna, and Elder, 2015).

The purpose of the current research is to examine the communication effectiveness of both brand-related and non-brand-related implied motion in advertising under self-paced, self-directed natural ad readership conditions rather than forced processing in laboratory settings.

Background and Hypotheses

Dynamic Imagery

Dynamic imagery is the brain's cognitive ability to "generate representations of moving objects, facilitating the simulation of transformations, rotations and reorganizations of imagined information" (Cian, Krishna, and Elder, 2014, p. 185). This cognitive process enables perceptions of movement even in static stimuli without actual movement. Implied motion is one technique used to facilitate dynamic imagery.

Implied motion techniques are easily identified by visual cues in a static image. Implied motion techniques are present when an illustration or still photograph uses any of the following visual cues: 1.) evidence of force, (e.g., displaced water or earth, exhaust or smoke), 2.) motion lines (abstract or repetitive lines behind a moving subject indicating speed, force and direction of movement), 3.) blurring (indicating speed and direction of motion via blurring the subject or background), 4.) a succession of images, 5.) depictions of the stages of motion, 6.) displaying a subject in mid-air or at an unsupported angle, or 7.) a freeze frame of the subject in mid-action. Often, advertisements will combine multiple implied motion techniques to suggest movement.

Both cognitive and evolutionary approaches suggest implied motion in an advertisement should increase attention and elaboration. Marketing research on dynamic imagery has shown that increasing levels of dynamism enhance consumer engagement with brand logos (Cian et al., 2014). Additionally, dynamic imagery in food marketing campaigns enhances evaluations of how appealing and fresh the food is (Gvili et al., 2015). Research also suggests

that dynamic imagery in warning signs, such as children crossing and wet floor signs, leads viewers to act quicker because they perceive greater danger (Cian, Krishna, and Elder, 2015).

H1: Advertisements incorporating implied motion are better remembered than those without implied motion.

Non-Brand Related Advertising Executions Increase Distraction

Research into other attention-getting devices, such as sex appeals, background music and humor, suggests that the mere presence of implied motion is insufficient to benefit memory for brand messages in advertising. Tavassoli and Lee (2003), found that visual elements can be distracting and, thus, interfere with learning, persuasion, and brand message processing.

Thus, non-brand-related implied motion is predicted to detract from the receiver's ability to attend to brand information present in a given advertisement. Since the receiver's attention has been shifted to non-brand-related executions, the persuasive impact of the message is expected to diminish. The moderating effect of brand-relatedness recognizes that brand information processing and behaviors should be greater when implied motion is brand-related than when it is not. Therefore, it is predicted that:

H2: Brand-related implied motion should benefit (a) brand processing and (b) behavioral outcomes more than non-brand-related implied motion.

Method and Findings

A content analysis of corporate Facebook Brand Fan pages of athletic apparel companies examined the hypotheses under natural advertising processing conditions in online social media advertising. The companies selected all appeared on the top 20 Facebook Corporate Retail Fan Page List for the most fans as of February 23, 2016 (Fanpages.com). Extant literature focused on online consumer engagement and post popularity has often utilized the number of likes, comments and shares as behavioral measures of online engagement (de Vries, Gensler, and Leeflang, 2012; Cvijikj and Michahelles, 2013).

This study was designed to test whether brand-related implied motion benefits behavioral outcomes more than non-brand-related implied motion. Results support this hypothesis by suggesting that brand-related implied motion increases the number of Likes, Comments and Shares of brand fan page posts on social media.

Additionally, this study supports the belief that implied motion does not uniformly benefit advertising effectiveness. Unlike previous findings on dynamic imagery using forced-exposure on brand-related objects, this study lends further support to the importance of distinguishing between non-brand-related and brand-related implied motion. When brand-related implied motion is isolated from non-brand-related implied motion, implied motion influences consumers' behavioral reactions to social media posts' Likes, Comments, and Shares. Moreover, the simple presence or absence of implied motion in posts does not overall benefit behavioral reactions when the implied motion is located outside brand-related focal objects.

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Summary Brief

On the Same Wavelength: Leveraging Social Media Engagement to Improve Receptivity to Brand

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The widespread use of social media provides tremendous opportunities to marketing managers to implement impactful promotion strategy. However, effectively leveraging plethora of tools and applications require a focus on specific marketing objectives that can be successfully accomplished using social media. One of the key aspects of social media marketing is to develop approaches to let customers be a part of their promotion strategy. In this respect, this study provides empirical validity to the role of social network characteristics in accounting for the positive impact of social media engagement on receptivity to advertising.

Introduction

Social media represents relationships of firms with and among consumers, and such relationships enable firms in shortening sales cycles, speeding up the adoption of new products, lowering recruitment costs, and increasing efficiency (Paine 2011). The second decade of the 21st century is recognized as the ‘Attention Age’ (Hensel and Deis 2010), which refers to the current period of time that is characterized by the increasing commoditization of attention, marked by the ability of the individuals to create, consume, and share information instantly and freely through social media. Traditional advertising paradigms are failing in the new Attention Age (Hensel and Deis 2010). Thus, there is a need for seeking new and innovative ways to reach consumers in a hyper-social world (Moran and Gossieaux 2010). In essence, social media require organizations to measure not just volume of their sales, and profits, but also the quality and value delivered by the relationships they develop with consumers through social media (Paine 2011).

Background

Social media is a group of internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of World Wide Web, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010, p. 61). Social media can aid firms in gaining unmediated customer insights (P&G’s Beinggirl), instant feedback from disgruntled or gratified customers (e.g. Dell’s inflammable laptops), and positive word-of-mouth (e.g. Blandtec’s youtube clips). Firms can use social media to expedite their new product releases through engagement and collaboration with customers, create “buzz” or dialogue about the firm and its offerings (e.g. Stonyfield Farm), and develop a connection with the target customer segments. Social media offers opportunities for firms to address issues (e.g. Toyota), provide reliable and pertinent communication about the offerings, build trust, and ultimately build value for customers (Barwise and Meehan 2010; Dunn 2010). Online WOM communication comprises informal communication in social networks concerning the ownership, usage, or characteristics of certain products and services (Okazaki 2009; Hennig-Thurau and Walsh 2004; Riegner 2007). It is growing in popularity (Riegner 2007) as a speedy channel for sharing information and is seen as more credible than marketer-initiated communication (Allsop, Basset, and Hoskins 2007) prompting marketers to take advantage of social media to engage and generate buzz (Smith et al. 2007; Keller and Berry 2003; Barwise and Meehan 2010).

Key Findings

To investigate the hypotheses of this study, we use seemingly unrelated regression statistical technique as this technique generates efficient regression coefficients better than OLS approach (Pindyck and Rubinfeld 1998). Using confirmatory factor analysis and reliability analysis (Gerbing and Anderson 1988), the measurement model was found to fit well with the data ($\chi^2=99.12$, d.f. = 62; $p = .0019$; CFI = 0.97; NNFI = .96; RMSEA = .063). With statistical significant findings, the conceptual model generates support providing significant theoretical and practical implications.

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Summary Brief

The Victoria's Secret Fashion Show and Beauty as Sport

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The purpose of this paper is to introduce a new line of discussion, presenting a theory of the Victoria's Secret Fashion Show as a sporting event, a venue where women use their embodied skills and physicality in much the same way as men do on the football field, the baseball diamond, the golf course, or the basketball court. To that end, we engage in review of the literature on fashion, femininity, and feminine apparel followed by our working definition of sport.

Introduction

The portrayal of the feminine and of beauty ideals changed extensively over the 20th century, but the roles they embodied within advertising changed considerably over Victoria's Secret's history. For instance, females were portrayed primarily as sex objects in the 1970s and early 80s (Sin et al. 2001), but as the 80s steadily became the 1990s, they increasingly depicted as having more equal roles when compared to their male counterparts. These changes were born out within the pages of the Victoria's Secret catalog which first saw women portrayed as objects of the male gaze (Mulvey 1975), often literally with men depicted alongside women in many of the images. Since then, however, men were removed from its pages and the models began gazing back at the, a trend that continued well into the new century.

Solomon et al. (1992) recognized this diversification of women's feminine appeals through a study that delineated beauty appeals into six dimensions: the classical feminine that represented the perfect physical specimen, the exotic appeal that resided in non-Caucasian women who were hyper sexualized, the cute appeal that had an innocent look with childlike features, the trendy appeal which might today be considered "hipster", the sex-kitten appeal with her overt sensuality and youthful looks, and the girl next door who maintained an approachable beauty with simple attire and athletic. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to introduce a new line of discussion, presenting a theory of the Victoria's Secret Fashion Show as a sporting event, a venue where women use their embodied skills and physicality in much the same way as men do on the football field, the baseball diamond, the golf course, or the basketball court.

Method and Findings

In order to further provide insight into the phenomenon of the Victoria's Secret fashion show, we utilize ethnographic content analysis (ECA) which is essentially a reflexive analysis of documents (Altheide 1987; Plummer 1983).

Beauty as Sport and Athleticism

According to dictionary definitions, any definition of sport involves three distinct elements. The first is the athleticism of the individual which involves the embodied skills that they develop over time. Second, those skills are put on display in a competitive arena of some sort; and third, the sport is viewed by others for the purpose of their entertainment. Through our exploration of the Victoria's Secret Fashion Show, we determined that these elements appeared quite frequently in each of the shows and how they were read by the viewing audience. In the following, we outline each of these as it relates to the Victoria's Secret Fashion Show.

The athleticism is not just on display in the preparation for the fashion show, the actual show itself is physically demanding and demonstrates that fitness of these women. Some have compared the walk down the runway to a touch down run by a running back. However, unlike the running back, the women are perched on high heels as they strut down a 200 foot runway (not including the back stage areas) weaving their hips from side to side, some carrying props and/or wearing VS wings. During one show, Karolina Kurkova's shoe fell off at the start of her runway strut during the 2006 show, and she kept on walking on tip-toe without missing a beat. This required balance, poise, and strength in order to pretend like she's still wearing a heel.

Beauty as Competition

Though there is competition both on and off stage, the appearance of camaraderie is still presented to the audience. The women are often shown doing things together, such as working out, doing photo shoots, and even traveling together. One model states “It’s girl time. We’re chillin’ with our girls all day. We are a complete family and it feels good to be a part of that family.” The VS Angels, the premier models signed exclusively to the brand, also address this camaraderie, viewing themselves collectively as a team.

Beauty as Entertainment

Though the exhibition of beauty has seen a long history in American popular culture—ranging from a variety of regional, national, and international beauty pageants to the portrayal of beauty standards in music, television, movies, advertisements, and other media—the Victoria’s Secret fashion shows appear to take a different approach to the entertainment value of their televised programs. In the age of social media, the models have ceased to be nameless mannequins whose personality is denied in favor of blank stares and automaton-like struts down a runway. Instead, the women involved freely demonstrate their personalities both on and off the runway, and their audience has responded with a degree of “beauty-fandom” that bears much in common with “sport-fandom.”

The Change of Femininity.

Ultimately, the fashion show demonstrates a change in femininity and the presentation of beauty in a much more active sense. It takes beauty out of its formerly passive realm and presents it as an activity that can be pursued as athletic physicality, used as healthy competition, and provide entertainment value similar to that found on the football field. If the little girl that introduced this paper is any indication, then these women are pioneers who are providing girls with role-models for how to present themselves as strong and independent women in the future while still maintaining their own sense of femininity and allure. In so doing, they have potentially altered the meaning of the girl-next-door.

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Summary Brief

Information Search in Tourism Decision Making: An Analysis of Generational Differences

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Generation Y is becoming more important to marketers as its members continue to enter the workforce. Members of this generational cohort will be important to the tourism industry as they engage in planning vacations themselves. This study assessed the information search behavior of Generation Y and made comparisons to the previous generation, Generation X. A demographic profile including information sources was compiled and several key constructs that are part of the purchase decision process were analyzed. Conclusions from both a theoretical and a practical perspective were offered.

Introduction

The profile of the US travel market is characterized by multiple generations, known as The Silent Generation, Baby Boomers, Generation X (Gen X), and Generation Y (Gen Y) (Glover 2010). According to generational theory, each generation is distinctive in terms of its traits, values/beliefs, and interests/expectations (Strauss and Howe 1997). In essence, a generation can be identified with some core values, which provide cues for behavior patterns (Schewe and Meredith 2004).

Information search on vacation packages accompanies high involvement decision making. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to compare and contrast Generation X and Generation Y regarding the information search stage of the vacation decision making process. Another goal of this study is to investigate how Gen X and Gen Y use various communication channels to make travel decisions and suggest the effective method(s) to promote tourist destinations to them.

The study will generate a demographic profile as well as an information source profile for Gen X and Gen Y respondents. Hypotheses will be developed regarding the vacation decision making process, and several key constructs in the information search will be used to compare and contrast Gen X and Gen Y. The discussion/conclusion will offer theoretical and practical contributions. Future research directions will be suggested. It should be noted that the secondary data research revealed many gaps in the literature. There was a considerable dearth of the Generation X literature, and in several cases, a general review of the tourism literature was provided.

Hypotheses Development

Several hypotheses were developed based upon the variables information sources, risk aversion, source credibility, attitude toward the advertising (traditional and online), satisfaction, and self-image or self-concept:

- H1:** Generation Y consumers use more technology-based information sources than Generation X consumers for their vacation planning.
- H2:** Generation X consumers are more risk averse than Generation Y consumers.
- H3a:** Generation X consumers have a higher attitude toward traditional vacation advertising than Generation Y consumers.
- H3b:** Generation Y consumers have a higher attitude toward online vacation advertising than Generation X consumers.
- H4:** The generational cohort that utilizes more information sources is more satisfied with the vacation destination.
- H5:** The generational cohort with a higher self-image toward the vacation was also more satisfied with the vacation.

Methodology

The study sample was a regional sample. Interviewers administered questionnaires and were instructed to screen potential respondents with three qualifying questions on the cover page of the instrument: 1) an age range that categorized the respondent as a member of Generation X or Generation Y, 2) an acknowledgement that the respondent

had taken a vacation within the past year to allow retrieval of information from short-term memory, and 3) confirmation that the respondent had been employed full-time for a majority of the past year so the likelihood of the respondent planning the vacation would be greater. The questionnaires for Gen X and Gen Y were identical except for the age qualifying question on the cover page.

Two pretests were conducted to test the questionnaire. The first pretest ($n = 32$) was conducted with an undergraduate marketing class of traditional students (Generation Y). Some basic formatting issues were addressed as a result of the pretest. A second pretest ($n = 34$) was conducted with another undergraduate marketing class of traditional students (Generation Y). Modifications, including a frequency issue in one question, were made as a result of this second pretest.

The data for the main study were collected, coded, and entered into the SPSS program. A frequencies analysis was run to check for any outlier values. In the Generation X dataset, multiple respondents were removed who were outside of the 40-51 years of age range. Additionally, outlier values for five other variables were checked and corrected, and one questionnaire with a blank page was deleted, resulting in a final sample size of 219 for Generation X. In the Generation Y dataset, only age outlier values was an issue. These respondents were also deleted, resulting in a final sample size of 246 for Generation Y.

Analysis and Results

The demographic data revealed that nearly all Gen X and Gen Y consumers use the Internet and about 10% more Gen Y consumers than Gen X consumers use the Internet to purchase products and services. Both generational cohorts use the Internet daily and have used it for over five years, making purchases once every few months. In terms of vacation behavior, both generational cohorts spent about three days at the vacation destination, generally using a personal car for travel with two immediate family members in the party. Expectedly, Generation X spent more on the vacation (\$501-1,000) versus Generation Y (\$101-500). The majority in both cohorts were attracted to the destination because they had visited there previously. Please see Table 1 for the demographic profiles of both cohorts.

Independent-samples t-tests were used to test the hypotheses; the results are summarized in Table 3. Hypothesis 1, that Generation Y consumers use more technology-based information sources than Generation X consumers for their vacation planning, was supported ($p < 0.00$). Hypothesis 2, that Generation X consumers are more risk averse than Generation Y consumers, was also supported ($p < 0.00$). However, hypotheses 3a and 3b, that Generation X consumers have a higher attitude toward traditional vacation advertising than Generation Y consumers and Generation Y consumers have a higher attitude toward online vacation advertising than Generation X consumers, were not supported. Furthermore, hypothesis 4, that the generational cohort that utilizes more information sources is more satisfied with the vacation destination, was not supported. It was significant ($p < 0.05$) that Generation Y used more information sources than Generation X, however, the satisfaction with the vacation destination was not significantly greater. For hypothesis 5, that the generational cohort with a higher self-image toward the vacation was also more satisfied with the vacation, there were no significant differences between generational cohorts in terms of self-image.

Discussion

From a theoretical perspective, this research confirmed the notion that tourist profile and travel behavior variables are critical to investigate the decision making process (i.e., Ozdemir et al. 2012). As the findings indicated, Gen Y tends to use technology (nontraditional media) to search information for vacation planning. This finding is consistent with previous literature that Gen Y consumers place an emphasis on online social interaction (Nusair et al. 2013). Additionally, our study found that Gen X is more risk averse than Gen Y. The tendency may be due to technology exposure. As Zhu et al. (2012) posited, online community engagement or frequent technology usage leads individuals to make riskier decisions.

From a practical perspective, the findings help practitioners to develop a framework for segmentation, vacation package positioning, and promotional strategies that relate to tourist information search behavior. In order to target Gen Y, advertisers may put emphasis on online promotion with images and copies that attract this generation. For instance, online websites may show models below the age of 35 to draw more attention from this generation. The images may focus on more adventurous activities, such as surfing or sky diving, as Gen Y is more risk seeking than the previous generations. If the ads target Gen Y, marketers may place the ads in traditional media, such as TV or travel magazines, to increase ad exposure. However, marketers need to be aware that the exposure to various media/ads may not directly impact attitude toward the advertising. The attitude toward ads may be determined by other factors, such as brand equity or travelers' previous vacation experience. Marketers should further assess the content of the advertising and the media types, as well as other factors, such as services quality, and brand awareness.

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Table 1. Descriptive information of sample.

Items	Generation X		Generation Y	
	Percent 100	(n) (219)	Percent 100	(n) (247)
Gender				
Male	44	(96)	49	(122)
Female	56	(122)	50	(124)
Age				
(50, 22)	17	(38)	38	(93)
Income				
0-10k	3	(7)	35	(86)
10,001-30k	9	(19)	29	(72)
30,001-50k	18	(39)	15	(37)
50,001-70k	24	(52)	10	(24)
Above 70k	45	(98)	8	(19)
Marital				
Married	64	(140)	17	(41)
Single	17	(38)	69	(170)
Living with another	7	(16)	9	(23)
Widowed	1	(2)	<1	(1)
Separated	1	(2)	-0-	
Divorced	9	(19)	1	(2)
Rather not say	<1	(1)	3	(7)
Race				
White (Caucasian)	59	(129)	49	(122)
African-American	30	(65)	31	(77)
Hispanic American	3	(6)	2	(6)
Asian American	<1	(1)	2	(4)
Native American	3	(6)	1	(2)
Other	5	(11)	12	(29)
Education Completed				
GED	2	(5)	2	(4)
High School	23	(50)	36	(89)
Undergraduate	24	(53)	41	(102)
Graduate	31	(68)	13	(32)
Professional Degree	8	(4)	3	(7)
Technical	4	(8)	3	(8)
Other	3	(7)	1	(3)
Occupation				
Homemaker/Not Employed	3	(7)	5	(12)
Self-Employed	11	(25)	9	(23)
Educator	15	(32)	5	(12)
Professional	13	(29)	8	(20)
Work for a firm/business	49	(107)	57	(142)
Other	8	(17)	14	(34)
Internet Characteristics				
Use the Internet	99	(216)	99	(245)
Use the Internet for purchasing products/services	85	(185)	96	(237)
Use the Internet for browsing products/services	91	(200)	97	(240)
Frequency of Internet access				
Never	2	(4)	1	(2)
Daily	81	(178)	95	(234)
Weekly	14	(30)	4	(9)
Monthly	2	(4)	-0-	
Less than once a month	1	(3)	<1	(1)

Table 1. Descriptive information of sample (cont)

Items	Generation X		Generation Y	
	Percent 100	(n) (219)	Percent 100	(n) (247)
<i>Time using the Internet</i>				
Never	1	(3)	<1	(1)
Less than 6 months	<1	(1)	<1	(1)
6-11 months	1	(2)	1	(2)
12-23 months	-0-	-0-		
2-5 years	15	(33)	4	(11)
Over 5 years	82	(179)	93	(230)
<i>Frequency of Internet purchases</i>				
Never	13	(29)	2	(5)
Once a year	8	(18)	7	(18)
Once every few months	36	(78)	44	(108)
Once a month	30	(66)	34	(83)
Once a week	10	(21)	10	(25)
More than once a week	3	(7)	3	(7)
<i>Internet purchases in the past 12 months</i>				
Never	13	(29)	3	(8)
1-5 times	33	(73)	41	(101)
6-10 times	18	(40)	20	(50)
11-15 times	12	(26)	12	(29)
16-20 times	9	(20)	6	(16)
Over 20 times	14	(31)	17	(41)
<i>Vacation characteristics</i>				
<i>Vacation destination</i>				
Instate	8	(18)	10	(26)
Out-of-state	74	(162)	68	(167)
International	17	(38)	21	(52)
<i>Length of stay</i>				
One day	2	(4)	5	(12)
Two days	8	(18)	12	(29)
Three days	28	(62)	22	(54)
Four days	15	(33)	17	(42)
Five days	15	(34)	18	(45)
Six days	8	(18)	9	(22)
Seven days or more	23	(50)	17	(41)
<i>Travel time (days to and from destination)</i>				
One day	53	(117)	58	(143)
Two days	32	(70)	24	(59)
Three days	2	(4)	4	(11)
Four days	3	(6)	4	(10)
Five days	2	(5)	4	(9)
Six days	2	(5)	1	(3)
Seven days	5	(12)	4	(11)
<i>Principle means of travel</i>				
Personal car	61	(133)	63	(156)
Rental car	5	(12)	4	(11)
Plane	26	(57)	20	(50)
Train	-0-	2	(4)	
Bus	3	(6)	2	(4)
Other	5	(10)	8	(21)

Table 1. Descriptive information of sample (cont).

Items	Generation X		Generation Y	
	Percent 100	(n) (219)	Percent 100	(n) (247)
<i>Number in party (including self)</i>				
One	5	(10)	10	(25)
Two	28	(62)	27	(68)
Three	14	(30)	17	(42)
Four	24	(53)	19	(46)
Five	13	(28)	9	(22)
Six or more	16	(35)	17	(41)
<i>Accompanying party members</i>				
Immediate family	56	(123)	29	(71)
Relatives	12	(26)	8	(20)
Friends	17	(38)	47	(115)
Other	11	(25)	13	(31)
<i>Approximate <u>total</u> cost of vacation</i>				
\$0-100	3	(6)	8	(21)
101-500	15	(32)	36	(89)
501-1,000	32	(69)	27	(67)
1,001-2,000	26	(58)	11	(28)
Over 2,000	23	(51)	16	(40)
<i>Number of prior times visiting the destination</i>				
Never	24	(52)	39	(97)
One	13	(29)	15	(36)
Two	14	(31)	11	(28)
Three	12	(27)	7	(17)
Four	4	(9)	6	(14)
Five	6	(14)	6	(16)
Six	1	(3)	1	(1)
Seven or more	25	(54)	14	(35)
<i>Time spent planning the vacation</i>				
None, it was spontaneous	9	(19)	14	(35)
None, already traveled there	31	(67)	22	(55)
Less than one month	27	(60)	25	(62)
About one month	12	(27)	17	(42)
Over one month	21	(46)	21	(52)
<i>Who paid for the vacation expenses (circle all that apply)</i>				
Self	52	(114)	64	(158)
Self and spouse	39	(86)	17	(41)
Parents	3	(7)	24	(60)
Spouse's parents	2	(5)	2	(4)
Other	10	(21)	9	(22)
<i>Attraction to the vacation destination (circle all that apply)</i>				
Price	10	(23)	14	(34)
Exotic/Unique location	16	(35)	17	(41)
Popular destination	31	(69)	36	(90)
Have visited before	53	(117)	39	(97)
Recommended by friends/relatives	23	(50)	32	(78)
Privacy	9	(20)	6	(16)

Table 1. Descriptive information of sample (cont).

Items	Generation X		Generation Y	
	Percent 100	(n) (219)	Percent 100	(n) (247)
<i>Travel websites used for the vacation planning (circle all that apply)</i>				
Booking	6	(13)	4	(9)
TripAdvisor	18	(40)	14	(35)
Yahoo! Travel	3	(6)	3	(7)
Expedia	20	(43)	15	(37)
Priceline	8	(18)	10	(25)
Hotels	14	(30)	13	(33)
Travelocity	13	(28)	7	(18)
Kayak	5	(10)	6	(15)
Orbitz	4	(9)	4	(10)
Hotwire	3	(7)	4	(10)
Other	8	(18)	11	(27)
<i>Travel websites comparisons before making the decision</i>				
	41	(90)	36	(89)
<i>If booked through a travel website, travel website used</i>				
Booking	2	(5)	2	(4)
TripAdvisor	4	(8)	2	(4)
Yahoo! Travel	<1	(1)	-0-	
Expedia	8	(18)	7	(17)
Priceline	1	(3)	2	(6)
Hotels	4	(9)	3	(8)
Travelocity	3	(6)	2	(5)
Kayak	1	(2)	2	(5)
Orbitz	1	(3)	1	(2)
Hotwire	<1	(1)	1	(2)
Other	5	(11)	6	(16)

Table 2. Reliability coefficients.

Scale/Statements	Coefficient Alpha	
	Gen X	Gen Y
Risk Aversion	0.61	0.71
I would rather be safe than sorry.		
I want to be sure before I purchase anything.		
I avoid risky things.		
I like to take chances.*		
Attitude toward traditional advertising (semantic differential scale)	0.98	0.95
Good: : Bad		
Like: : Dislike		
Pleasant: : Unpleasant		
Enjoyable: : Not enjoyable		
Attitude toward online advertising (semantic differential scale)	0.97	0.95
Good: : Bad		
Like: : Dislike		
Pleasant: : Unpleasant		
Enjoyable: : Not enjoyable		
Satisfaction	0.96	0.97
My experience at my travel destination was good.		
I am happy that I decided to go to my travel destination.		
My travel destination worked out as well as I thought it would.		
I am sure it was the right thing to go to my travel destination.		
I am overall satisfied with my travel destination.		
Self-image	0.93	0.93
The image of this destination is consistent with how I see myself.		
This destination reflects who I am.		
People similar to me visit this vacation destination.		
The kind of person who visits this destination is very much like me.		
This destination is a mirror image of me.		
I am very much like the typical person who visits this destination.		

*reverse-scored item

Table 3. Differences between Generation X and Generation Y.

Variable	Gen X		Gen Y		t-value	Significance
	Mean	(SD)	Mean	(SD)		
Technology-based information sources	1.81	(0.83)	2.18	(1.17)	-2.86	0.00*
Risk aversion	5.18	(1.03)	4.72	(1.18)	4.43	0.00*
Attitude toward traditional vacation advertising	3.31	(1.65)	3.46	(1.61)	-0.78	0.44
Attitude toward online vacation advertising	2.61	(1.47)	2.66	(1.49)	-0.28	0.78
Use of information sources	2.28	(0.67)	2.51	(0.93)	-2.15	0.03**
Self-image	4.98	(1.36)	5.00	(1.56)	-0.11	0.91
Satisfaction	6.40	(0.99)	6.42	(1.13)	-0.14	0.89

*p < 0.00

**p < 0.05

**SESSION 3.3: RESUMES, PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONAL
MEMBERSHIP, AND JOBS**

Chair:
Elizabeth C. Alexander, Marshall University

Summary Brief

Join the Club: The Relationship Between Professional Organization Membership and Academic Performance Among Undergraduate Marketing Students

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Professional student organizations (PSOs) are touted as important to the student experience; many offering opportunities for networking, jump starting a career, and extended learning opportunities. However, little evidence exists to show this to be true. The current research uses social identity theory to investigate the potential effects of student membership in professional organizations. The authors investigate the relationship between social identity, self-efficacy, and academic performance. Theoretical background is provided followed by research propositions, proposed methods, and discussion.

Introduction

Professional student organizations (PSOs) are often regarded as valuable learning opportunities for students and a source of distinction when entering the job market. In addition to allowing students the opportunity to integrate classroom concepts (Hall 2012), active participation in PSOs has been shown to increase informal student-faculty interaction (Hall 2012), develop members' professional attitudes (Bent 1957), and aid in the acquisition and practice of leadership skills (Hall 2012). As noted by Munoz, Miller, and Poole (2016, p. 105), PSOs "implicitly promise to enhance the professional expertise that students will need during their careers."

Little research, however, can be found on the relationship between membership in a PSO and academic achievement. The current research helps fill the gap recognized by Munoz, Miller, and Poole (2016) who found that additional research on individual differences and personal characteristics is needed to better understand PSO participation and impact. The current research uses self-identity theory as a framework for explaining the relationship between PSO membership and academic success and career identity.

Research Propositions

PSOs allow students the opportunity to connect with those active in their field of study and allows them to dress the part of a professional (Munoz, Miller, and Poole 2016). These organizations often encourage members to engage in real-world activities outside of the classroom, attend conferences, hold leadership positions, and otherwise engage their profession. Allowing students to do so suggests that the individual will be able to better identify with the profession and take on the identity of someone actually working in the profession (Bent 1957). Furthermore, Peltier, Scovotti, and Pointer (2008) found that students active in PSOs tend to be more committed to their professional growth.

The relationship between group membership in a PSO and one's commitment to personal growth might likely be explained by social identity theory. Introduced by psychologist, Henri Tajfel, social identity theory examines the relationship between group membership and self-esteem (Swann Jr and Bosson 2010). The theory asserts that all individuals are motivated to achieve and maintain a positive self-concept which is derived in large part by social identity. Social identity theory suggests that individuals will assimilate to the profession through their involvement with PSOs. Thus, the following research proposition,

Proposition 1: Students who are active members of a PSO have high self-identity.

Several researchers have noted that students who are able to participate in professional activities have a better awareness of what is required to succeed in their chosen profession and with the more salient requirement are more likely to take the necessary steps to succeed in the field (Bent 1957). This is consistent with self-identity theory which suggests that as individuals assimilate into a group, they begin to conform to a choice dimension that is strongly associated with the group. Thus,

Proposition 2: Students with high self-identity perform better academically (as measured by GPA) than students with low self-identity.

A common goal among most PSOs is to prepare students for entry into a given profession—many claim to provide students with a competitive advantage upon graduation otherwise unavailable to nonmembers (Munoz, Miller, and Poole 2016). Likewise, the goal of many students is to enter the field. Psychologist Albert Bandura suggests that a person’s self-efficacy strongly influences how an individual approaches a task or goal. Furthermore, self-efficacy is a situation specific in the sense that if a person has a strong belief in their ability to complete a task or goal, they will be more than likely to persevere if they are not at first successful, and vice versa. Thus, the following proposition:

Proposition 3: Students who are active members of a PSO are high in self-efficacy.

Proposed Methods

The primary method of data analysis for this research will be analysis of variance (ANOVA). Data will be collected using surveys that measure PSO membership, self-identity, self-efficacy, and GPA. The sample will consist of undergraduate students at several U.S. universities.

Discussion

Professional student organizations are a significant part of the undergraduate experience for many students in the United States. These organizations are valued by students, educators, and employers as an indispensable part of the professional assimilation process (Munoz, Miller, and Poole 2016). However, as noted by several researchers, many local chapters of these organizations often struggle to attract and maintain active membership (Munoz, Miller, and Poole 2016; Yarbrough 2002), and greater understanding is needed in order to maximize the benefits of these organizations (Peltier, Scovotti, and Pointer 2008). The current research answers the call by Munoz, Miller, and Poole (2016) to explore individual differences among undergraduate students and PSO membership.

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Presentation

Preparing the Marketing PhD Graduate for the Academic Job Market: Insights from a Small Program

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While much attention has been given to the academic marketing job market for new doctoral graduates, the recruitment of these students and their motivation, and to the nature of the programs themselves, less work has been done on evaluating these programs from the students' perspective. How well did their program prepare them for the fundamental tasks of the marketing academic: research and publication, teaching, and service to their school and the broader academic community? This paper describes a small qualitative study of a group of recent graduates of a school regarding how well their program prepared them for research, teaching and service. The qualitative data was then used as input to two content analysis programs, which enables some quantitative insight to be gained from qualitative data. Managerial implications are outlined, the limitations acknowledged and avenues for future research identified.

Introduction

Doctoral education in marketing is expensive and resource-intensive. Schools expend considerable financial and human resources in training candidates, almost always at a net financial loss, and who will in most cases go on to work at other institutions, rather than directly benefit their alma maters. Doctoral students also endure significant years of financial hardship and really hard work in the pursuit of the terminal qualification, mostly in the hope of attaining a reasonably well-paid and challenging position at a suitable school. The success of both parties depends on how well the doctoral program prepares the student for the core components of the typical academic job: research and publication, teaching, and service to the employer institution and the broader academic community. It is therefore important for schools offering doctoral programs in marketing to regularly assess how well their programs prepare students for the academic job market, especially in terms of the core components of the positions they will undertake.

This paper presents the results of a study of the graduates of a small marketing doctoral program at a university business school in the Pacific Northwest. It is structured as follows: First, the literature on doctoral programs in marketing is briefly reviewed. Then a study using structured in-depth interviews with the graduates of the program is described. Next, the data analysis, using two different tools for content analysis, is explained and the results discussed. The paper concludes by acknowledging the limitations, noting the managerial implications, and identifying avenues for future research.

Doctoral Programs in Marketing: A Brief Review of the Literature

The marketing education literature has given attention to the issues surrounding the recruitment, training and placement of doctoral students. In general, the focus has been on five main areas. From the school perspective, the focus has been on finding and recruiting suitable students, motivating them, and the academic marketing job market. From the student's standpoint, the literature has considered how students choose and maximize the value of the programs they follow. From a joint school-student viewpoint, academic work has explored how programs and courses are evaluated.

Finding and recruiting suitable students for marketing doctoral programs was the focus of work by Davis and McCarthy (2005). Noting that while the production of new PhDs in business had declined by around 18% between 1995 and 2001, these authors also emphasized that the production of marketing doctorates had declined by almost double that – 32%. These numbers almost matched the low points attained in the mid-to-late 1980s, when demand for marketing PhDs outstripped supply by a factor of almost ten to one. The work emphasizes the need for schools not only to produce doctoral graduates in greater numbers, but just as importantly to improve their recruitment and selection practices.

A number of authors have explored how schools can best motivate doctoral students in marketing. As far back as the early 1980s Lusch (1982) argued that marketing doctoral students should motivate themselves. They shouldn't

rely on others, he contended, but should make things happen themselves, primarily in the area of research, although he also offers advice on teaching and service. Berry (1989) counseled students that they should not only know the literature and how to do research, but that they should also know how the discipline “works”. He even envisaged a taught course that would smooth the path from being a student to becoming a new professor. Taking the viewpoint that of the three key activities of teaching, service and research, the latter was by far the most important, Motes (1989) offered advice to soon-to-be and new doctoral graduates on how they could best position themselves to be effective researchers and publishers.

Far more recently, Obilo and Alford (2015) undertook an extensive study of doctoral students in marketing from the American Marketing Association's doctoral students' special interest group. Their findings recommend that if schools are to produce and identify doctoral students with the highest motivation to do good research, doctoral programs must focus on recruiting candidates who have a high level of self-efficacy, are older with life experience, and who engage in little or no emotional labor (surface acting), all of which contribute to increased intrinsic motivation to conduct academic research.

The academic job market has long been of interest to marketing education scholars. More than thirty years ago Fisher and Garrett (1984) surveyed faculty at schools offering doctoral programs in North America in order to ascertain their views on the shortage of marketing educators apparent at the time. They sought the views of faculty on the reasons for the shortage, possible pools for recruitment of suitable candidates, and their projections of what the job market would look like in the future. Johnston, Clark and Boles (1989) focused on the criteria that new marketing PhDs employed to select their first academic jobs. They concluded that job seekers could be classified according to three orientations, namely, career and work itself, location, and lifestyle, and that these three orientations were the most significant influences on position choice. The shortage of suitable graduates noted by Fisher and Garrett never really abated: by more than thirty years later, Basil and Basil (2008) noted that hiring suitable marketing faculty was still a major problem for business schools. This was mainly because of the shortage of candidates, but also marked by asymmetries between jobs and candidates. For example, schools might primarily be seeking teachers, while job candidates wished to focus on research. Their work also identified three types of job candidates, not that dissimilar to Johnston et al.'s (1984) classification – those seeking work environment, those desiring lifestyle, and those prizing research support.

With regard to the evaluation of doctoral programs in marketing, the research has ranged from the very specific to the very general. Some scholars have concentrated on appraising particular characteristics of programs. For example, Kurtz et al. (1997) conducted a study of the marketing theory course as taught on a number of doctoral programs in North America, focusing on a review of course content, the rationale for the curriculum and course emphasis, and the future paths the substance of the course might take. In similar vein, the comprehensive examination was the focus of research by Ponder, Beatty and Foxx (2004).

From a more general evaluative perspective, authors have studied the research productivity of doctoral programs internationally (Elbeck and Vander Schee 2014), as well as how advisors see the profiles of their most successful candidates (Smart and Conant 1990). Kurtz and his colleagues (Kurtz, Bui and Tangari, 2007) explored how doctoral student's experiences during their program impacted their satisfaction and perceived success. Their results indicated that the most important determinants of satisfaction and perceived success were the supervisor support they received, as well as the extent of socialization that they experienced.

Our intention in the study described here was to explore students' perceptions of how well a relatively small doctoral program in marketing prepared them for the three key components of the academic job, namely, research and publication, teaching, and service.

Study and Methodology

As the preliminary part of a larger study that would involve detailed, in-depth, personal interviews to be conducted by telephone or on Skype, all eight graduates of the PhD program in question were sent a short email questionnaire requiring them to answer the following three questions in writing: “Now that you are in a tenure track academic position, how well did your PhD program prepare you for:

1. Research and publication as part of your job?
2. Teaching as part of your job
3. Service to your school and to the broader academic community as part of your job?”

The reasons for this preliminary survey was to have graduates thinking consciously about their program before participating in the longer in-depth interviews, in order to have them avoid later making simple broad statements such as, “It was great”, or, “we learned very little about teaching”. The graduates were requested to complete the questionnaire on a Word document and to attach it to a return email to the researcher. After the cutoff date, reminders were emailed to the three graduates who had not yet complied, and these were then forthcoming within two days.

The responses were then stored in individual Word files, and these formed the basis for two kinds of content analysis, using DICTION content analysis software, and IBM’s Watson service.

DICTION Content Analysis Software

DICTION is a computer-aided text analysis program for determining the tone of a verbal message. It searches a passage for words that comply with the five dimensions of text according to Hart’s (1984a; 1984b; 2000; 2001) theory of word choice and verbal tone, as well as four calculated variables that describe the readability and complexity of a piece of text. Users can also create their own dictionaries and use these on DICTION if required. DICTION produces reports about the texts it processes and also writes the results to numeric files for later statistical analysis. Output options include raw totals, standardized scores, word counts and percentages, thereby providing the user with a variety of ways of understanding the text they have processed. In simple terms, to do this, DICTION checks each word in a piece of text by referring to the dictionary(ies) chosen by the user, and if the word is to be found there, it scores it against the particular dictionary dimension the user is interested in. Words that do not appear in the dictionary(ies) are simply ignored. However, they can and do form part of the computation of the “calculated variables” referred to above if the user desires this.

DICTION has been used as a research tool in a wide range of disciplines within the social sciences. In business and management research it has for example been used in finance (e.g. Ferris, Hao and Liao 2013); entrepreneurship (e.g. Parhanhangas and Ehrlich 2014); business ethics (e.g. Yuthas, Rogers and Dillard 2002); and, strategic management (e.g. Finkelstein 1997; Short and Palmer 2008). In marketing specifically, it was used by Aaker (1997) in her original work on brand personality. Furthermore, amongst others, it has also been used by Yadav, Prabhu and Chandy (2007) to study the contents of CEO letters to shareholders; and Zachary, McKenny, Short, Davis and Wu (2011) to explore the nature of franchise branding from an organizational identity perspective.

In this study DICTION was used to explore six specific sub-categories of the main dimensions of a piece of text that we deemed relevant to how a doctoral student would feel about their program, namely:

- Tenacity, defined as “the quality of being tenacious, or of holding fast; persistence”
- Praise, defined as “the expression of approval or admiration for someone or something”
- Satisfaction, defined as “the fulfilment of one’s wishes, expectations, or needs, or the pleasure derived from this”
- Inspiration, defined as “the process of being mentally stimulated to do or feel something, especially to do something creative”
- Hardship, defined as “a condition that is difficult to endure; suffering; deprivation; oppression”
- Accomplishment, defined as “something that is successful, or that is achieved after a lot of work or effort”.

IBM’s Watson

IBM describes its Watson technology as a platform that uses natural language processing and machine learning to reveal insights from large amounts of unstructured data (<http://www.ibm.com/watson/what-is-watson.html>). The IBM Watson AlchemyLanguage service is a collection of text analysis functions that derive semantic information from any document, including text, HTML code, or the URL of a website. It exploits sophisticated natural language processing techniques to rapidly obtain a high-level of comprehension of the content. One of its main features is the ability to understand the emotions expressed in the language used in the text, and also to gain an overall indication of the sentiment of the document. We used the Alchemy tool to detect the emotions implied in the text of each graduate’s responses and also to uncover the overall sentiment of each response. The tool scores emotions expressed in a piece of text based on the classification of emotions of the psychologist Paul Ekman (1992):

- *Anger*: a strong feeling of displeasure and belligerence aroused by a wrong.
- *Disgust*: a strong feeling of dislike for something that has a very unpleasant appearance, taste, smell, and so forth.

- *Fear*: a distressing emotion aroused by impending danger, evil, pain, etc.
- *Happiness* (an active or passive state of pleasure or pleasurable satisfaction) or Joy (the emotion evoked by well-being, success, or good fortune or by the prospect of possessing what one desires).
- *Sadness*: showing, expressing, or feeling sorrow or unhappiness.

The term “sentiment” is defined as “an attitude, thought, or judgment prompted by feeling” (Merriam-Webster). Sentiment analysis, also known as opinion mining, has developed as a tool to make quantitative sense out of what is essentially qualitative data. It aims to determine the “sentiment” of the speaker or author of a piece of text, and can range from negative to positive as scored on whatever scale the particular sentiment analysis software chooses to use. This is also referred to as the “polarity” of the document (e.g. Turney 2002).

Results

The results of the two content analysis procedures are reported in tables 1 and 2 below. Our intention was to gain preliminary insight into the perceptions that the graduates had had of their program, and especially with regard to how well the program had prepared them for the research, teaching and service completeness of their new academic positions. The names of the students as well as their supervisors have been disguised in the two tables.

As can be seen from table 1, the total number of words supplied by each graduate in their reviews varied from a low of only 55 words (for Joan) to 955 words (for Joseph), with a mean number of words per review of 330. Joan’s review only encompassed the dimensions of tenacity and praise, and she scored highest on both of these. Rae scored the highest on satisfaction, with a score of 9.61, while Joseph only scored 0.55. While Cuervo scored highest on hardship, he also expressed one of the highest levels of accomplishment along with Leslie and Rae. Elizabeth and Anton expressed the highest levels of inspiration.

Table 1: DICTION Analysis

Total Words Analyzed	Tenacity	Praise	Satisfaction	Inspiration	Hardship	Accomplishment	Student	Supervisor
955	30.66	8.51	0.55	2.96	1.05	9.25	Joseph	Fred
529	44.31	8.62	1	0.5	0.5	6.5	Sarah	Fred
168	23.81	2.98	5.95	0	0	15.73	Leslie	Fred
260	75	8.43	9.61	2.78	1.92	13.46	Rae	Fred
55	63.64	17.45	0	0	0	0	Joan	Jack
117	47.01	4.27	8.55	0	4.27	14.06	Cuervo	Kevin
241	29.05	3.2	2.08	5.07	0	6.22	Elizabeth	Fred
301	5.81	3.64	3.32	4.06	1.66	9.62	Anton	Fred
340	21.18	5.88	2.94	0	1.47	7.22	Del	Jack

To explore feelings and perceptions more deeply, the text from each review was also entered separately into Watson’s Alchemy tool, which allows the calculation of the strength of emotions expressed in the text as well as the overall sentiment of the text and the sentiment towards both the supervisor and the institution. The results of this procedure are shown in table 2.

Overall it can be seen in table 2 that the graduates’ sentiment toward their supervisors was mostly positive, and neutral in the cases of Joan and Cuervo. However, their sentiment toward the institution was mostly negative, and only neutral in the case of Cuervo, and positive in the case of Leslie. In the case of the emotion of Anger, most of the graduates express relatively low levels, with the exception of Anton and Del. Watson enables the researcher to return to the original document and identify the reasons, and the actual text, that account for a respondent’s high scores on a negative emotion such as anger. Anton was mainly frustrated by the fact that he felt the school had offered very little support in the preparation and writing of funding and grant applications. In Del’s case, he thought that he might have been accepted at a more prestigious school, and was frustrated by the lack of a better choice of courses. No respondents scored highly on the emotions of Disgust and Fear. On the emotion of Joy, there was a wider variation in degree of the emotion expressed. Leslie (0.61) expressed the highest level of Joy. Leslie was very happy that the “program was instrumental in my development as a researcher, with the key component being the time spent working on (and publishing) papers with my supervisor Fred”, and also because he had taken a teaching skills course: “The teaching

course I took within the university was very helpful (it should be required of all PhD students).” Rae was the only respondent to score relatively high on Sadness, and this seems to have been occasioned by her saying, “When I first started teaching it was like initiation by fire. I had done some training but still did not feel ready. However, this forced me to figure everything out quickly, which has helped me feel confident in my teaching.”

None of the respondents expressed overall negative sentiment in their reviews, with Joseph and Leslie expressing the highest sentiment. Joseph (0.72 overall sentiment) says: “With this training, I am in a very good position at my current academic job, with specific respect to two things: research momentum, and tenure portfolio. In this program, in addition to the functional skills of research and methods, I learned the value of both research productivity and the merits of having a diverse and collaborative research portfolio. Leslie (0.75) opines: “The program was good at developing me as a teacher. And I also learned a lot about teaching from my supervisor.”

As previously observed, the majority of participants expressed positive sentiment toward supervisors and negative toward the institution. With regard to supervisors for example, student Del said of supervisor Jack, “I was lucky to have such a good supervisor who always made me focus on where I wanted to publish, how to position the paper and so on.” Of his supervisor Fred, Leslie notes, “The program was instrumental in my development as a researcher, with the key component being the time spent working on (and publishing) papers with my supervisor Fred.” Comments regarding the institution include Joseph stating, “Realistically speaking, given the living costs of XXX City, the stipend is simply unlivable,” and Elizabeth observing, “It does not make sense to me why there was so much push-back regarding PhD student teaching, as teaching is clearly a skill we all need to hone. And in terms of service, again, I was well prepared in this aspect as well (at least academic community service)... But because of my supervisor, not because of the program in general.” Not all participants were negative toward the institution: Anton praises it by saying, “Furthermore, the university funded travel to international conferences where I presented my research and met many other well-known and early career researchers. These conferences were key to establishing my global research network and I still conduct research with many of them.”

Table 2: Watson Emotions and Sentiment Analysis

Anger	Disgust	Fear	Joy	Sadness	Sentiment	Supervisor	Sentiment to Supervisor	Sentiment to Institution	Student
0.11	0.09	0.08	0.55	0.17	0.72	Fred	+	-	Joseph
0.12	0.08	0.08	0.51	0.17	0.07	Fred	+	-	Sarah
0.11	0.07	0.08	0.61	0.12	0.75	Fred	+	+	Leslie
0.08	0.05	0.09	0.57	0.44	0.54	Fred	+	-	Rae
0.07	0.02	0.08	0.67	0.02	0.2	Jack	Neutral	-	Joan
0.07	0.05	0.06	0.5	0.15	0	Kevin	Neutral	Neutral	Cuervo
0.08	0.04	0.07	0.48	0.19	0.53	Fred	+	-	Elizabeth
0.48	0.09	0.07	0.55	0.16	0.29	Fred	+	-	Anton
0.47	0.09	0.08	0.59	0.18	0.41	Jack	+	-	Del

Discussion

This short paper has shown how qualitative insights gained from brief open-ended interviews can be turned into more quantitative information that can be used to shed light on and pinpoint the most critical issues that challenge business schools in preparing marketing doctoral students for the academic job market. The DICTION analysis of the reviews indicates that in general students are satisfied with their programs, even though these have required tenacity and some hardship. While the extent of inspiration they articulate varies, they nevertheless also express praise and a sense of accomplishment as well. The use of Watson to gauge emotions and overall sentiment sheds further light on the matter by showing that joy is the single strongest emotion expressed by the participants concerning their PhD program. The emotions of fear and disgust are largely absent in this context, and those of anger and sadness are only expressed in very few instances. In general, the overall sentiment expressed is positive. However, while the sentiment towards supervisors was positive in most cases, the sentiment toward the institution was generally negative.

Administrators and faculty who run doctoral programs in marketing might find it useful to employ similar techniques in assessing the perceptions of their graduates, particularly in regard to how well these programs prepared them for their roles as researchers, teachers and deliverers of service to their home and academic communities. Being able to transform qualitative data into quantitative insights allows managers to focus on key areas, and corrective action can be taken where necessary.

The small study described here obviously has limitations. First, the sample of students used was small (only 8), and results might differ in the case of a larger sample. Second, all the students were from one university, and different insights might be gained from the programs of other institutions, or where comparisons are sought across institutions.

Third, the interviews analyzed were relatively short (in the case of respondent Joan, very short), and it is obvious that more insights could be gained from both DICTION and Watson if longer interviews with more text were obtained. Finally, the data obtained is obviously only descriptive and no attempts were made to determine associations or differences from a statistical perspective.

A number of avenues for future research can be identified. First, the more detailed follow-up study envisioned, with longer interviews, mentioned in the introduction, should permit greater insight into both the DICTION dimensions and the emotions and sentiment that can be gauged by Watson. In addition, there is a strong theoretical background to DICTION, which comes from the developer, Roderick Hart's (1984a; 1984b; 2000; 2001) notion that five fundamental questions should be asked of a piece of text if it is to be well understood: These are:

1. To what extent is the text certain?
2. How optimistic (or pessimistic) is the piece of text?
3. To what extent does the piece of text exhibit activity?
4. How realistic is the piece of text?
5. To what extent does the text communicate communitarian concepts (in other words to what extent is there commonality?)

DICTION permits the calculation of scores for these fundamental dimensions and these may shed more light on the data than the more specific dimensions considered in this study. Furthermore, and as an additional avenue for future research, DICTION permits the computation of four calculated variables that can give insight into the frame of mind of the communicator of a piece of text, namely: (a) insistence, which has to do with the use of repeated words, and is a measure of the extent to which codes are restricted and semantic "contentedness" is achieved. The assumption here is that where key terms are repeated, a preference for a limited, ordered world is indicated; (b) variety, which divides the number of different words in a passage by the total number of words. Thus, a high score on variety would indicate that the speaker is avoiding overstatement and has a preference for precision; (c) embellishment is computed by dividing the number of adjectives by the number of verbs, where the notion is that a lot of modification in a document slows down the audience's ability to interpret, because the text deemphasizes human and material action; and, (d) complexity which is measured by dividing the average number of characters per word in a given input file by the total number of words; it is akin to well-known notions of readability in the communication literature

This brief study has shown the potential to move beyond structured questionnaires using scales on the one hand, and in-depth interviews on the other, to achieve a combination of methodologies that have the potential to combine the generalizability and numerical insights of surveys, with the context and richness that come with qualitative research. Hopefully other doctoral granting institutions might be engaged to employ similar approaches to the evaluation of their programs in the future.

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**SESSION 3.4: THE OVERALL EFFECT OF MARKETING IN TOURISM
AND SPORTS**

Chair:
Anthony Patino, University of San Francisco

Summary Brief

Athlete Endorsers: Consumer Preference for Super Bowl Quarterbacks

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This study compared two popular NFL quarterbacks. Respondents were asked to choose which quarterback they preferred. Likability, trustworthiness, attractiveness, and relatability significantly impacted that choice. Overall, the group saw Manning as more likable, trustworthy, relatable and familiar, but Newton was rated as more attractive. Likability was consistently associated with athlete preference. Trustworthiness and relatability were significant predictors only for choosing Manning while attractiveness was only a significant predictor for choosing Newton. This may indicate a halo effect where those who prefer a specific athlete overrate that athlete even on variables where they do not excel

Introduction

In the week leading up to the 2016 Super Bowl, the media was frenzied with a tale of two quarterbacks. The matchup featured the faces of two franchises--two league MVPs. On one side of the field was Manning, a football and endorsement icon at the twilight of his career. On the other side was the dynamic and charismatic Cam Newton at his prime. Peyton Manning and Cam Newton were two of the top earning NFL endorsers of the year (Newton 2015) leading to a showdown between two power teams, two power quarterbacks, and two power endorsers.

Celebrity endorsements are a popular marketing strategy. The research has focused largely on the source credibility framework (Ohanian, 1990) to understand endorsement effects. This framework posits that effectiveness is dependent on endorser expertise and trustworthiness (Ohanian 1991). Trustworthiness is the consumer's confidence in the source for providing information in an objective and honest manner. Expertise is the knowledge, experience, and skills of the endorser (Ohanian 1991). In addition, attractive celebrities can offer an advantage both from their status as celebrities and their physical appeal (Singer 1983). The current study focuses on two quarterbacks with a high level of expertise on the field, but have varied consumer perceptions off the field.

H1: Peyton Manning will be more likable than Cam Newton

H2: Peyton Manning will be more trustworthy than Cam Newton

H3: Cam Newton will be more attractive than Peyton Manning

H4: Peyton Manning will be more relatable than Cam Newton

H5: Preference for Peyton Manning will be positively influenced by a) likability b) trustworthiness c) attractiveness and d) relatability

H6: Preference for Cam Newton will be positively influenced by a) likability b) trustworthiness c) attractiveness and d) relatability

Method

Prior to the 2016 Super Bowl game, respondents recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (AMT) were directed to an online survey where they were asked to select which of the two athletes they preferred along with single item questions rating the likability, trustworthiness, attractiveness, familiarity, and relatability of each athlete. In addition, demographic information was collected. A total of 102 responses were collected, 69 male and 33 female.

Results

A paired-samples t-test compared likability, trustworthiness, attractiveness and relatability between Manning and Newton. There was a significant difference in the scores for likability of Manning ($M=5.85$, $SD= 1.48$) and Newton ($M = 5.02$ $SD = 1.57$); ($t 4.10= p <.01$). There was also a significant difference in the scores for trustworthiness of Manning ($M=5.50$, $SD=1.60$) and Newton ($M = 4.95$ $SD = 1.46$); ($t = 3.0$ $p <.01$), attractiveness of Manning ($M=4.15$, $SD= 1.64$) and Newton ($M = 4.66$ $SD = 1.45$); ($t = 2.70$ $p <.01$), and relatability of Manning ($M= 3.32$, $SD=1.20$) and Newton ($M = 2.73$ $SD = 1.01$); ($t = 4.38$ $p <.01$). These scores confirm H1-4 and indicate that consumers see Manning as more likable, trustworthy and relatable while Newton is more attractive. Although not

hypothesized, there was also a significant difference in familiarity between Manning ($M = 5.96$, $SD = 1.96$) and Newton ($M = 4.92$, $SD = 1.73$); ($t = 6.70$, $p < .01$).

To test H5-6, a MANOVA examined preferred athlete as the dv, while likability, attractiveness, trustworthiness and relatability were entered as iv's and familiarity and gender were used as controls. Multivariate tests were significant, (Pillais' Trace = $<.01$, $F = 11$, 8). Univariate tests indicate that likability of Manning ($F = 44.11$; $p < .01$) and Newton ($F = 9.95$; $p = .01$) had a statistically significant effect on athlete preference. Attractiveness of Manning ($F = 20.99$; $p < .01$) was significant while attractiveness of Newton ($F = 0.20$; $p = .65$) was not. Trustworthiness of Manning ($F = 43.67$; $p < .01$) was significant, but trustworthiness of Newton ($F = .03$; $p = .86$) was not. Similarly, relatability for Manning was significant ($F = 30.75$; $p < .01$) while relatability with Newton was not ($F = .26$; $p = .61$).

Discussion

This study contributes to the current research on endorsers by using a dichotomous choice situation where consumers were asked to choose one celebrity athlete over the other while rating the two on a variety of variables. This situation is not unlike a typical consumer purchase situation involving athlete endorsers--when a teen buys a pair of basketball shoes, he may be choosing between LeBron and Curry more so than Nike and Under Armour. This study confirms several previously studied variables have effects in this situation, but the different effects across athletes indicates that there are many other factors in play. The research confirms that likability, attractiveness, trustworthiness, and relatability are all variables that influence consumer preference for an athlete in different circumstances. Consistently, perceived likability of the athlete had a significant effect on athlete preference. Some of the other variables in the study did not offer such consistent relationships. Trustworthiness and relatability were only significant for Manning. Those who preferred Manning rated him as more trustworthy and relatable. Both groups found Newton equally attractive, but those who preferred Newton rated Manning as significantly less attractive than those who preferred Manning. Overall, the group that preferred Manning had inflated ratings on most of the variables, even when there was not an effect.

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Summary Brief

Consumer Motivations and Tourists' Souvenirs Purchases

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Shopping is a favorite activity among tourists, which encourages tourism researchers to continually investigate this phenomenon. Literature reveals that while tourists buy souvenirs, these products may not motivate their shopping behavior. Additionally, marketing research consistently identifies motivation as an influence on purchase decisions. Therefore, the objective of this study was to identify structural relationships between tourist travel motivations with their attitudes toward cultural souvenirs and travel intentions. Results show that travel motivations positively influence tourist attitudes towards their cultural souvenir buying, as well as travel intentions.

Introduction

Shopping is the most preferred activity for international tourists and second most preferred for domestic travelers. January 2017 statistics reveal tourists spend, on an average, \$672 daily for transportation, souvenirs, and other trip related expenses (Brophy, 2017). Souvenir sales are almost 30% of all gift sales or \$17 billion (U.S) annually. Tourists do not have purchasing souvenirs as primary motive as for shopping, rather souvenirs or small gifts are to their friends and family (Li & Cai, 2008). Motivations are one of the key concepts studied in tourism (Cohen, Prayag, & Moital, 2014) and explanatory of tourists' purchase behavior. Tourism research examines motivations because of their impact on marketing decisions in product development, positioning, segmentation, and advertising (Bieger & Laesser 2002).

Literature

Motivations

While several theories and models explain motivation (see Cohen et al., 2014), the push and pull framework is the one most widely adopted to explain travel motivations. Additionally, these two factors how tourists select their vacation destinations as follows (Crompton, 2003). Tourists' biogenic and emotional needs push tourists to travel and destination attributes pull the selection of a tourism location (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). The push and pull approach is a preferred method of market segmentation for profiling visitors.

Travel Intentions

Intentions is a means to predict a variety of behaviors including consumer and travel decision; whereby a researcher may simply inquire as to individuals' behavioral intends to do in order to understand how they will behave (Sheeran, 2002). Travel intention literally emphasizes one's intent to travel or commitment to travel. Travel intention is an outcome of a mental process that leads to an action and transforms motivation into behavior. That is, intention serves as an important mediator that connects motivation to future travel behavior (Jang, Bai, Hu, & Wu, 2009).

Attitudes toward Cultural Souvenirs

Travel and shopping are two activities that intertwine. Research reports shopping is a motive for travelling (see Som, Mohammad, & Ibrahim, 2010). While not all tourists' primary travel motive is shopping, they usually purchase some souvenirs or small gifts for friends and family (Li & Cai, 2008). Therefore, souvenirs not only serve as a mean for tourists to legitimize their trips and enhancing their social relationships (Wong & Chung, 2014), but they also serve as a way for tourists to remember their travel experience (Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005). Furthermore, in general, shopping attitudes are linked to shopping intentions and behaviors (Yu & Littrell, 2003).

Key Findings

Respondents reported that their preferred travel season is summer (n=678, 75.9%), followed by spring (n=358, 40.1%), winter (n=353, 39.5%), and fall (n=200, 22.4%). On average, respondents had completed 10 holiday trips in the past three years. They were mostly likely to purchase souvenirs on family trips (n=772, 86.5%). On average, their duration of the vacation trip when purchasing most recent souvenir is eight days. Respondents purchased souvenirs on their trips, but are most likely to buy souvenirs for themselves (n=696, 77.9%).

Study results reveal that travel motivations positively influence tourist attitudes towards cultural souvenirs, as well as travel intentions. One interesting finding is that physical, relaxation, and pleasure motives were strong predictors when explaining travel motivation concept. This result echoes previous studies that tourists seek an experience that is both physically and emotionally rewarding (Dann, 1981; Goossens, 2000). It suggests tourists are motivated by both “push factors” and “pull factors.” This study implies intrinsic drives, represented by “push factors,” appear to have a strong relationship with what vacationers’ drives to travel.

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Summary Brief

Disney's MyMagic+ and its Effects on Customer Satisfaction and Perceived Privacy

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When companies, specifically entertainment companies like Walt Disney World, utilize and innovate ceaselessly developing technology to bring new, exciting, and personalized offers and experiences to its consumers they must be careful to provide efficiency, convenience, and fun without crossing any privacy boundaries or risking a decrease in customer satisfaction. While customized experiences occur in part to entice the consumer while using voluntarily-provided information, the technology can quickly saturate the experience or appear invasive. Companies that use the wide array of data collected to understand consumer behavior and desires can benefit, but the present research demonstrates that various factors and technology can influence consumer response to satisfaction and perceived privacy. The processes via which these effects are also examined.

Introduction

“Creepy marketing,” or marketing that appears invasive, causes discomfort, or seemingly violates social norms (Moore et al. 2015), allows companies to personalize advertisements and experiences while simultaneously creating feelings of consumer distrust and wariness. “Annoying marketing,” or marketing that contains aggressive, repetitive, obnoxious, or unsolicited tactics and behavior (Moore et al. 2015), can lower customer satisfaction and create dissonance with the brand. In order to provide the customer with a tailored experience or product he can enjoy, marketing managers must determine the optimal amount of information that should be shared, analyzed, and utilized. It is also important for companies to keep in mind that while customized marketing that makes use of consumers’ personal information and stores data to use in the future can benefit both the consumer and the company, it cannot be done if consumers feel as though their individual privacy is potentially violated or that they will lose control over their own information without ever knowingly handing it over. The results from this research have indicated that personalization and technology can be perceived as excessive and overcomplicated, leading some consumers to admit they would rather go to a different theme park where less planning and personalization is required. The qualitative research also revealed that the way in which Walt Disney World’s My Disney Experience app and MyMagic+ system collects data to customize itineraries, make suggestions, and use for its own marketing makes some consumers uneasy. By examining these results and the way in which they manifest in consumer behavior and preferences, this research serves to identify any concerns that exist when a company incorporates innovative technology to an already-excelling formula, as well as illuminate the effects this technology can have on both the consumer and the company employing the devices and the growing importance of perceived privacy and the role it plays in direct marketing.

Background

Walt Disney World’s MyMagic+ allows the consumer to purchase tickets, make resort reservations, book FastPass selections for entertainment and attractions, make dining reservations, view PhotoPass photos taken in the park, view locations and maps, and purchase merchandise available in the parks. While this system clearly aids the guests in enhancing and tailoring their vacations, it also enables Disney to receive a wide array of its guests’ data, empowering the company to better understand guest behavior and desires. The basic research questions that guided this research were, “What are the primary concerns of Walt Disney World guests and how has MyMagic+ affected both customer satisfaction and perceptions of privacy?” Disney’s MyMagic+ works in tandem with a MagicBand, or the most utilized wearable technology in history (Pedicini 2016), enabled with RFID that encourages guests to redeem what they have set up in the app and to make various purchases. The results indicated that consumers, while preferring MyMagic+ to the former system void of this technology, dislike the limitations placed on the guest to access rides and entertainment without meticulous, previous planning. The concern of privacy was also revealed. These findings suggest that consumers want convenience and efficiency, and that privacy is a growing concern among consumers, particularly among theme park goers.

Key Findings

Most significantly, the results revealed that 6.67% of those surveyed agreed and 6.67% strongly agreed with the statement that MyMagic+ allows Walt Disney World to collect too much personal information on guests and is, ultimately, an invasion of their privacy as a consumer. If any consumers believe that a company is encroaching on their privacy or their personal information, these consumers can have a significant impact on the company and its bottom line. Privacy, while not currently an overwhelming concern, could be growing into one as technology develops, the system matures, and the Walt Disney Company begins to use the data it has collected to target its theme park guests. In addition, the qualitative data collected provides managerial implications for other entertainment companies by suggesting that customers do react when systems change, as exemplified with the transition from the MyMagic+ overhaul at Walt Disney World. Even more, it indicates that, if done correctly, consumers will aptly adjust and adapt. Customer satisfaction relies on how well these systems are carried out, and the data collected in this survey reveals that guests are primarily pleased with the ease and possibility the MyMagic+ system creates. However, the concern for consumer privacy suggests that there is a line between privacy and perceived privacy, and it is vastly important for companies to understand this. Without that line, consumers begin to balk at sharing so much information to companies that will utilize it for their own marketing gains. Therefore, maintaining the illusion of perceived privacy for consumers should be a priority. It is crucial to understand that systems like this, while created to add convenience and efficiency to the consumer experience, can often have an adverse or different effect, and companies must clarify the notion of perceived privacy now more than ever as technology develops further, thus opening the door to more personalized marketing.

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SESSION 3.5: STUDENT DECISION MAKING

Chair:

Gregory S. Black, Metropolitan State University of Denver

Presentation

Developing a Student Global Mindset by Conducting Comparative Analyses of Domestic and Foreign Business News Press Using a Key-Word-In-Context (KWIC) Search Tool

Michael Mayo, Kent State University, USA

William Howell, Kent State University, USA

Sara De Masi, University of Florence, Italy

In this presentation, an innovative means to conduct key word searches (key-word-in-context, KWIC) of print media is introduced as a means to identify how business practices of interest vary cross-culturally. The results of a demonstration project comparing and contrasting e-commerce practices in the US and Italy is reviewed and pedagogical challenges of using this technique to promote cultural understanding and a student global mindset are discussed.

Introduction

Recently, marketing educators have begun to question the utility of conventional models regarding the adaptation versus standardization of the marketing mix noting that they fail in large part to capture the complexity inherent in the competitive global landscape (Gomes, Sousa, and Vendrell-Herrero 2017). To capture and respond to this complexity, firms need to constantly assess environmental changes and their capacity to compete in order to succeed abroad (Vendrell-Herrero et al. 2017). This capacity to assess and adapt to environmental changes and developments has been dubbed international marketing agility (Gomes, Sousa, and Vendrell-Herrero 2017). Agility here is not simply how to cope with or address a given challenge or crises but rather is indicative of a firm's enduring, fundamental capacity to make strategic shifts as need be in order to remain competitive (Goldman et al. 1995; Volberda 1996).

Given the importance of firms to be increasingly agile, not only in international but increasingly competitive domestic markets as well, marketing educators need to begin to teach students about the concept and how it might be best operationalized on the job. This study responds to this call by demonstrating how educators can use a variant of key word searching (KWIC or Key-Word-in-Context) to explore in greater depth the conditions of complexity and uncertainty found in many international business environments that might signal it's time for an agile response by the firm.

To begin, the study reviews the challenges educators face in preparing students to work in diverse environments abroad. To offset these challenges, a classroom exercise employing the key-word-in-context (KWIC) search tool is introduced which permits students to examine how business activities of interest play out cross-culturally. A summary of the demonstration exercise is provided permitting educators the opportunity to examine how the KWIC teaching tool assists students to be more globally minded.

Educational Challenges and KWIC Exercise

Educators are being called upon to design curricula and programs that are integrative and interdisciplinary in nature (e.g., Aggarwal and Goodell 2011; Boyacigiller et al. 2004) in order to give students the cross-cultural skills needed to develop and maintain the "global mindset" required nowadays to work efficiently abroad (Kedia, Harveston and Bhagat 2001). Most programs, however, face time and resource constraints that restrict their ability to simply expand coursework to meet these ever increasing instructional demands (Taylor and Brodowsky 2012). As a result, educators often fail to provide students with the necessary skills to succeed abroad (Milhauser and Raschulte 2010). To counter this, Taylor and Brodowsky (2012) recommend that we find innovative ways to enrich current course offerings in order to prepare students to understand the complexity of the global marketplace. One means to do so is to teach students to use a key-word-in-context (KWIC) searching tool to identify how different national contexts may impact how a business activity or concept plays out cross-culturally. KWIC does so by presenting the text that occurs before and after (context) some key word of interest. In the present study, for example, students conducted KWIC searches of US and Italian trade press reports (using the Dow-Jones Factiva database) over a 6 month period

(December 2016 – May 2017) to assess how the practice of “e-commerce” was evolving now in both markets. Qualitative content analysis and comparisons of US and Italian KWIC results indicated practice similarities as well as differences. In both the US and Italian trade press, e-commerce benefits were commonly extolled. In the US, however, e-commerce has been more disruptive of the retail landscape as large traditional department stores falter. Many articles focused on how different retail sectors have strategically responded to find and exploit opportunities while shoring up defenses. In Italy, more emphasis is placed on finding how best to promote heritage products (e.g., cheeses, wines, fashion goods) as well as work collaboratively to form partnerships in order to share resources and offset the costs of going online. To the degree that these results capture breaking developments, students (and managers alike) have both the means to be more globally minded as well as make the firms they will or are working for more agile.

Conceptual and Pedagogical Issues

The study builds upon international marketing as well as cross cultural research traditions. Historically, researchers have grappled with how best to produce theories and conduct research that captured both specific cultural nuances (emic) and at the same time were applicable to other markets worldwide (etic). Both approaches were thought to be largely dichotomous. Recently, researchers have begun to reconcile this dichotomy through the development and use of “parallel-emic” models (Berry 1969, 1989; Niblo and Jackson 2004) to identify how to conceptually separate out what parts of a concept of interest are universal (etic) and what parts are market or nation specific (emic). The KWIC searching tool introduced in the present study operationalizes the parallel-emic model by comparing contexts between markets of interest to find what is common and unique.

On the pedagogical front, student surveys indicated that the KWIC exercise was easy to understand and implement though some had difficulty conducting qualitative analyses due to their limited instruction and experience with this type of research. It is speculated that the KWIC exercise can be scaled up to address other cross-cultural issues in business management and employed to analyze a wide range of searchable text databases. As educators do so they will find a number of sophisticated qualitative software programs available to conduct qualitative analyses and assist students to apply the KWIC tool with more efficiency (Sinkovics, Penz and Ghauri 2008).

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Full Paper

Narcissism, Exploitative Attitudes, and Academic Dishonesty: Marketing Versus Other Business Major

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Continued media interest in the effects of narcissism on human behaviors generated a closer examination of the phenomenon. Considering that business students self-select their academic majors, one might raise the question of whether there is a relationship between their chosen majors and narcissistic tendencies and related constructs. With this paper, the authors are beginning a long-term investigative journey to examine the relationships and the likely interaction with related variables including academic entitlement and exploitative attitudes. Results of the preliminary examination indicate a strong relationship between various dimensions of the constructs studied. It also pointed to the need for further study in order to discern the strength of the relationships in an academic context.

Introduction

A review of the articles reported in mass media (Ahmed 2017; McAdams 2016; Quenqua 2013; Peterson 2013, Taylor 2011) indicates an increase in narcissistic tendencies (Pinsky & Young, 2009; Buser and Cruz, eds, 2016; Ahmadian, Azarshahi and Paulhus 2017; Visser, Book and Volk 2017). In the 1980s the American Psychiatric Association in the 1980s identified narcissism as a personality disorder and a 2008 study in found that narcissism is a psychological disorder prevalent in approximately 6.2% of the population (Grant, et al. 2008). Other studies have indicated groups such as celebrities have high narcissistic tendencies (Gibson, et al. 2016). Studies have also suggested that America's celebrity-obsessed culture is impacting the behavior of high school and college age groups (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). Additionally studies of social networking behaviors have indicated some increase in narcissism (University of Georgia, 2008; Taylor 2016; Andreassen, et al. 2017). To the extent that there is increased usage of social media among college aged individuals (Anwar, Mahmood and Hanif 2016) one might expect narcissistic tendencies among college ages students too (Barnett and Powell 2016; Kemp 2016).

A review of the psychology literature on the phenomenon of narcissism links narcissism to other behaviors and attitudes, some of which are dysfunctional. These behaviors involve a sense of social and academic entitlement, Machiavellianism and exploitation, and dishonesty, including academic dishonesty. An analysis of data from 37,000 college students indicated that, from the 1980s to 2009, narcissistic personality traits rose just as fast as obesity, with the increase being more pronounced among women (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). This preliminary study examined whether a relationship exists between narcissism, academic entitlement, exploitative attitudes, and academic dishonesty among marketing majors and whether any such relationships are different from what might exist among other business majors. The study is an attempt to measure the relationships on a long-term basis.

Literature Review

The concept of narcissism evolved from the behavior of Narcissus. Researchers such and Sigmund Freud have incorporated the concept in their analysis of the human psyche. Studies indicate that narcissists have three distinguishing traits which seem to differentiate narcissists from individuals who possess high self-esteem.

- 1) First, narcissist tend to have a highly positive self-concept (Brummelman, Thomaes and Sedikides 2016; Barry et al 2017; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Rose, 2002). This high positive self-concept leads them to believe that they are better or more effective on various dimensions than they may really be (John & Robins, 1994). This attitude, and its associated/related ego involvement, seem to be evident in traits such as status, intelligence, importance, and attractiveness (Ye, et al. 2016; Liu, Ang and Lwin 2016; Campbell, Bosson, Goheen, Lakey, & Kernis, 2007; Campbell, Rudich, & Sedikides, 2002; Morf, Weir, & Davidov, 2000).
- 2) Second, narcissism is correlated with lower intensity for traits such as intimacy (Gewirtz-Meydan 2017; Lambert 2015; Carroll, 1987), an increased willingness to exploit others for personal gains (Blinkhorn, Lyons and Almond 2015; McNulty and Widman 2013; Campbell, Bush, Brunell, & Shelton, 2005), and to some extent to Machiavellianism (Maples-Keller and Miller 2016; Lau 2013).

- 3) Finally, narcissists tend to bolster their positive self-view by self-regulating behavior. Some of these behaviors are interpersonal in nature, such as trying to gain attention (Davenport et al 2014; Golbeck 2016; Buss & Chiodo, 1991) and to appear entertaining and colorful (Swami et al 2015; Cho and Cho 2015; Paulhus, 1998).

Although some prior research indicates that narcissists have negative views of themselves and thus have a constant drive for self-improvement, there is some evidence to suggest that they view themselves the same on the outside as on the inside (Association for Psychological Science, 2007). Narcissists were found to have positive views of themselves with regard to their status, dominance, and intelligence. Yet, other studies suggest narcissists' desire for power drive them to seek leadership positions and eventually emerge as leaders (Association for Psychological Science, 2008). The implication is that this trait may pose problems in other aspects of an individual's life, including in their academic experience. The results of a recent survey of 18–25-year-olds, when asked about their generation's most important goals, indicated certain narcissistic trends (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). Eighty-one percent of them selected "being rich" as their most important goal followed by "being famous" (51%). The group saw these two goals as far more important than others such as being charitable, helping the community or becoming spiritual. The focus on inflated self-esteem to some extent seems to be a recent phenomenon, at least among college students. For instance, a study by Twenge & Campbell (2009) found a more than 80% increase in the narcissism tendencies measure among recent college students when compared to the average among their cohorts in the 1960s. Narcissistic attitudes seemed to be pervasive, with about 25% responding with "yes" to a majority of items on the commonly used narcissism scale. According to Twenge and Campbell, about 10% of those in their twenties have experienced certain symptoms of the Narcissistic Personality Disorder.

Narcissism among the college students can manifest itself in many ways. In a study of Facebook users, in which personal pages were content analyzed, the number of friends and wall posts that individuals had on their profile pages tended to correlate with their level of narcissism (University of Georgia, 2008). The authors of the study concluded that those who are narcissistic use Facebook in a self-promoting way that can be readily identified by others including even to those who are untrained observers. Many university students use Facebook, but narcissistic students tend to have greater number of friends and narcissistic college students tend to upload more provocative pictures of themselves on social networking sites compared to students who are more humble (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). If the increase of narcissism is found only in social behaviors, perhaps it may not be an academic problem. However, there are indications that narcissistic attitudes pervade academic behaviors as well. Twenge and Campbell (2009) reported that 30% of college students agreed with the statement: if I show up to every class, I deserve at least a B. In another recent study, 52% of students considered themselves customers of the university and hence expected good customer service for the price paid by them (Schings, 2009). In another experiment, students were told that their essays were graded by other students with harsh comments by the graders. Those students who had higher narcissistic tendencies were more aggressive in their reaction to the grades and comments compared to those who were less narcissistic (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). The study reported that those high in both self-esteem and narcissism were the most aggressive—more than those high in narcissism but low in self-esteem, or those low in narcissism but high in self-esteem or those low in both.

The evidence does not all point in one direction. Other studies have found no evidence that modern-day young people have inflated impressions of themselves compared to the youth of previous generations (Association of Psychological Science, 2008). The investigators in the APA 2008 study found no evidence of increasing levels of narcissism between studies of college students from three periods: the late 1970s, the mid 1980s, and/or 1996–2007.

Academic Entitlement

Narcissism has often been linked to a sense of entitlement. In general, narcissists feel special and tend to believe that the world owes them something. These narcissistic notions translate to the drive to achieve success or material wealth at all costs without regard to social responsibilities to others. Schings (2009) suggested a relationship between students' attitudes and behaviors and their perceptions as university customers. Based on a survey of 1,025 undergraduates, Schings found that those who considered themselves as university customers were more likely to feel entitled and to complain. The idea of 'students as customers' seem to have evolved in 1980 (McKay and Totten 2012) but researchers had cautioned about the unintended consequences – grade inflation, misuse of student evaluation, etc. (Bay and Daniel 2001; Shrout 2009 as cited by McKay and Totten 2012). McKay and Totten (2012) provided a summary of these and other characterizations for students and their educational relationship with the professors. Greenberger, Lessard, Chuanshen, and Farruggia (2008) reported that academic entitlement is strongly related to an overall sense of entitlement and to narcissism among students.

Dishonest Behavior: The Everybody Cheats Syndrome

Cheating has become a rampant problem in schools and universities. In many cases, there is an association between negative academic attitudes and cheating. Whitley (1998) reported that cheating can be most observed among those who believe that it is the norm and acceptable.

In the academic world, cheating is most associated with exams, and assignments or project reports. It seems prevalent both in high schools and universities. Seventy-four percent of high school students admitted to cheating in 2002 compared to 61% in 1992 and 34% in 1969 (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). This reflects the win-at-all-costs belief that seems to prevail among some students. In 2007, 80% of Texas A&M students admitted to cheating (Twenge & Campbell). In recent years, there has been a wealth of anecdotal and reported evidence of the use of cell phones, PDAs, and the Internet as tools of the trade among cheaters. The success of websites such as Turnitin.com are a testament to the concern among educators about this problem. According to the site, over half a million instructors utilize their services (Turnitin, 2009). Cheaters often see nothing wrong about their actions and believe that it does not hurt anyone in the process. Whether it is survival strategy or one that is related to other traits, some believe that cheating is rampant in the academic world.

Study Development

The literature review indicates a few things germane to the present discussion. First, the review supports the opinion that there appear to be higher levels of narcissistic behavior and attitudes today than there have been in the past (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). Furthermore, entitlement and academic entitlement are also more prevalent today than in the past (Schings, 2009). The link to manipulation or Machiavellianism is less well proven, as is the conclusion that narcissistic tendencies encourage students to cheat (Lau, et. 2005; Whitley, 1998). In the present study, we examined the variables identified in earlier studies as indicators or potential effects of narcissism. In particular, we investigated the relationship between narcissism, academic entitlement, and exploitative attitudes (Machiavellianism).

Proposition Development

The literature review suggests that the current college-going generation exhibits higher levels of narcissistic behavior including a sense of entitlement. The entitlement claimed by the youth of today includes higher levels of academic entitlement. Therefore, the first proposition investigated was that narcissism is positively correlated with academic entitlement. The literature review also suggests that both narcissism and academic entitlement are related to a tendency to manipulate. In other words, higher levels of narcissism and academic entitlement result in a higher level of manipulation, especially in terms of an attitude toward manipulation. Therefore, the second research proposition was narcissism and academic entitlement are predictors of exploitative attitudes. Finally, in the college environment, higher levels of narcissism have coincided with higher levels of academic dishonesty. The dishonesty is both an attitude (everybody does it) and a behavior (I do it). We focused on the attitudinal component. Therefore, the final research proposition was narcissism, academic entitlement, and exploitative attitude are predictors of academically dishonest attitudes.

Current Study

This present exploratory study was designed to investigate relationships between subclinical narcissism, exploitative attitude, and academic entitlement among college students in public universities. Prior research suggests that these relationships exist. Although prior research suggests that, as a construct, both narcissism and Machiavellianism are significant predictors of academic entitlement, recent study suggests that a dimension of narcissism such as entitlement might be worth looking at as a stand-alone construct rather as a dimension of narcissism construct (Rose & Anastasio, 2014). Based on that notion, this present study aims at gaining more insight through exploring these relationships at dimensional level. Our overall proposition is that not all dimensions of both narcissism and Machiavellianism are necessarily significant predictors of academic entitlement. Specifically, we believe that dimensions such as exhibitionism (e.g., "I like to be the center of attention" and "I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out in public"), self-sufficient (e.g., "I always know what I'm doing" and "I rarely depend on anyone else to get things done"), vanity (e.g., "I like to look at my body" and "I like to show off my body"), and communication ethics (e.g., "There is no excuse for lying to someone else" and "All in all it is better to be humble and honest than important and dishonest"), might not be significant predictors of academic entitlement despite the constructs are as suggested by prior research.

Methodology

Instrument Development

The items included on the data collection instrument were adapted from three sources and are briefly discussed below:

- 1) First, the Narcissism Inventory formed the primary base for items targeted at the primary focal area; that is, narcissistic tendencies and attitudes (Raskin & Hall, 1979). The inventory itself is not constructed in a format that can easily be used in Likert-type scales (Raskin & Hall, 1979). Therefore, we used statements in the inventory that were consistent with the dimensions of narcissism, and used these statements in the survey instrument. This approach is consistent with other research projects (Daig, Klappe, & Fliege, 2009; Soyer, Rovenpor, & Kopelman, 2001). The statements were edited for clarity and effectiveness, with care taken to ensure that no meaning was changed.
- 2) Second, measures directed at the Exploitative Attitude (Machiavellian Index) variable were selected from the Machiavellian Index (Mach 4) and adapted to develop items focusing on manipulation and exploitation (Christie & Geis, 1970; Williams et al, 1975). The items in this index are constructed to be used in Likert-type scales (Christie & Geis, 1970; Williams et al. 1975). Therefore, the insertion of these items was straightforward. Once again, the items were edited for clarity, with care taken with respect to meaning.
- 3) Finally, items related to Academic Entitlement, and the Academically Dishonest Attitude were gleaned from other research from in the field (Holdren, 2004).

Academic entitlement. There is some research in the literatures concerning this variable. A recent effort indicates that academic entitlement is a separate and distinct variable; one that is moderately correlated with overall entitlement and moderately correlated with exploitative attitude (Greenberger et al., 2008). Based on this finding, the scales used in the area were included in this study in a similar manner to those mentioned previously.

Academically dishonest attitude. Prior work in the field of dishonest attitudes has come primarily from the fields of education (Sims, 1993), psychology (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003), and ethics (Kidwell, et al. 2003). The reported work in the field of business education is relatively limited. The reported work indicates academic dishonesty (distinct from general dishonesty) is as prevalent in business education as it is on others. Furthermore, the work on honor codes suggests that there is a more pervasive attitude toward accepting academic dishonesty than there is actual dishonest behavior (Kidwell et al. 2003). Items for the present study were gleaned from this prior literature. However, most studies used a dishonest behavior variable in the research rather than dishonest attitude. Therefore, the researchers used a small subset of items to measure this latent variable and the results indicated further examination with a different scale. Thus, this measure was not reported in this paper.

Survey Construction and Data Collection

The scales were edited and formatted into a two-page survey. The preamble informed the respondents that responses were in confidence and there was no method of tracking responses. This was reinforced by the use of a staff member, not the faculty member, to collect data in order to avoid participant discomfort related to the study subject. In addition to the content of the items, the responses were weighted to enable the researchers to determine whether specific items were considered important by those surveyed. The weighting was achieved by using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The weighting scale was positioned immediately to the right of the specific item to ensure that respondents were more easily able to track their responses. The instrument was administered to groups of students enrolled in an introductory marketing courses at medium-sized state universities in the southeastern United States (n = 842). TABLE 1 below presents the demographic information of the participants in this study.

Table 1: Demographic Information of Participants

Gender	N	Percent	Year in College	N	Percent
Female	455	54	Sophomore	36	4.3
Male	387	46	Junior	360	42.8
Total	842	100	Senior	446	53
			Total	842	100
Academic Major			Age		
Accounting	105	12.5	18 - 20	233	27.7
Finance	64	7.6	21 - 25	567	67.3
Management	205	24.3	26 - 30	13	1.5
Marketing	468	55.6	30 Up	29	3.4
Total	842	100	Total	842	100

Results

Initial Data Analysis

Cronbach's Alpha is used to assess the reliability of the measurements - dimensions. Unfortunately, due to the low Cronbach's Alpha (lower than 0.6), we decided to drop two dimension of the MACH IV: Disposition toward people and Moral behavior. We used all dimensions with Cronbach's Alpha higher greater than 0.6 as independent and dependent variables in hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Because prior research suggests that in general, males tend to score higher on both narcissism and Machiavellian index (Jonason and Webster, 2010), we decided to conduct a mean difference test to see whether gender should be included as a control variable based on our sample. The results presented in TABLE 2 are consistent with prior research. Except for authoritative, superiority, and self-sufficient, on the rest of the tested dimensions, male participants score higher than female participants. In addition to gender, we also decided to conduct mean difference tests based on the other three demographic items; year in college, age, and academic major we included in our questionnaire. Out of the three demographic items above, only the results based on academic major turned out to be significant. The ANOVA results show that the main effects of academic major were found for all dimensions except for exhibitionism. Accounting, Finance, Management, and Marketing students did not differ on exhibitionism score. Based on the results from these two mean difference tests, we decided to add gender and academic major as control variables in the hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Table 2: Independent *t*-Test: Gender

	Mean		SD		<i>t</i> -Test results	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i> <
Authoritative	3.56	3.61	0.63	0.64	-1.15	0.25
Entitlement	3.34	3.46	0.49	0.52	-3.40	0.00
Exhibitionism	2.40	2.72	0.91	0.84	-5.40	0.00
Exploitative	2.81	3.14	0.77	0.84	-5.99	0.00
Self-sufficient	3.51	3.56	0.52	0.47	-1.64	0.10
Superiority	3.56	3.62	0.74	0.79	-1.08	0.28
Vanity	2.55	2.83	0.87	0.79	-4.98	0.00
Communication ethics	3.74	3.62	0.61	0.62	2.76	0.01
Manipulative strategies and assumptions	2.56	2.84	0.60	0.63	-6.56	0.00

N = 455 Female; 387 Male.

TABLE 3 presents the results from hierarchical multiple regression analysis for this study. During the first step of hierarchical multiple regression analysis, the two control variables; gender and academic major were included. Results from step one indicated that only academic major, but not gender, was significant. The two predictor models were able to account for 0.9% of the variance in academic entitlement, with $F(2, 839) = 3.818, p < .022, R^2 = .009$.

During step two, authoritative, entitlement, exhibitionism, exploitative, self-sufficient, superiority, vanity, communication ethics, and manipulative strategies and assumption were added to the model. Results from step two indicated that gender, academic major, exploitative, superiority, entitlement, self-sufficient, communication ethics, and manipulative strategies and assumptions were significant and accounted for 22.1% of variance in academic entitlement, $F(11, 830) = 21.368, p < .000, R^2 = .221$. Since results from hierarchical multiple regression model indicated that self-sufficient and communication ethics were significant predictors of academic entitlement among college students, our proposition that exhibitionism, self-sufficient, vanity, and communication ethics would not be significant predictors of academic entitlement was partially supported.

Table 3: Hierarchical multiple regression on academic entitlement

Predictors	Academic Entitlement		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.009	-
Gender	.016		
Academic major	-.090*		
Step 2		.221	.212
Gender	-.098*		
Academic major	-.066*		
Authoritative	-.063		
Entitlement	.213**		
Exhibitionism	.430		
Exploitative	.106*		
Self-sufficient	-.154*		
Superiority	.083*		
Vanity	.019		
Communication ethics	.092*		
Manipulative strategies and assumptions	.355**		

** $p < .01$ / * $p < .05$

Discussion and Limitations

This preliminary study examines the relationship between narcissism, exploitative attitude or Machiavellianism, and academic entitlement among college students. Although the aforementioned relationships have been examined before, this present study aims at exploring these relationships from a different perspective. Specifically, we examine the relationships among these constructs at dimensional level. This is the first known investigation of linkages from a dimensional perspective. The insight gained from this study can lead to better understanding of this subject. Based on the results from hierarchical multiple regression analysis indicated partial support for the current proposition that not all dimensions of narcissism and Machiavellianism are significant predictors of academic relationship. As expected, the results indicated strong relationship between, entitlement, exploitative, and superiority dimensions with academic entitlements. The findings make clear as to why the results showed strong supports for these dimensions. The results also partially supported our proposition that exhibitionism and vanity are not significant predictors of academic entitlement among college students. A possible explanation could be because these two dimensions of narcissism construct mainly capture the self-absorption and self-admiration aspect of narcissistic personality trait. Anecdotal evidences suggest that in the age of social media, the sources of self-absorption and self-admiration, especially among Millennials, are more likely to be based on physical than intellectual. Therefore, compared with other dimensions of narcissism, such as entitlement, exploitative, and superiority, it is reasonable to see why exhibitionism and vanity showed extremely weak to no relationship with academic entitlement. However, authoritative dimension turned out to be insignificant despite the results from correlation table suggested significant positive relationship (Pearson's Correlation = .113, $p < .05$). Currently, there is no reasonable explanation for this unexpected result. Further investigation is needed to understand this point. Results did not support our proposition for self-sufficient and communication ethics. We did not expect that these two dimensions would be significant predictors of academic entitlement. However, the results suggested otherwise. However, it is interesting to note the relationship between self-sufficient and academic entitlement is a negative one ($\beta = -.154$, $p < .05$). This, in fact, turned out to be understandable. If a person knows what he or she is doing, or if a person rarely depends on someone else to get things done, then it is less likely that the person would end up with bad grades or put himself or herself in the situation where he or she must rely on others, i.e., professor, to get out of trouble. This could be one possible explanation. Another unsupported proposition is for communication ethics from MACH IV. The main idea behind this dimension is to always be honest with others. One possible explanation to explain this relationship is that people might feel entitled for something in return for being honest, simple norm or reciprocity. In this case, students might believe that they study really hard for exams, and if they are being honest in sharing this information with the professor, they might feel that they deserve the professor's sympathy in return.

Another interesting point we found during the study is that academic major turned out to be a significant predictor of academic entitlement. It is interesting to investigate further to find out how choosing a different major in college can influence the level of academic entitlement among college students. It should be noted that this exploratory study is still in its infancy. More work must be done in order to fully understand relationships among these dimensions from different angles. Every journey begins with a first step and this study is that step. The paper presented results of a preliminary attempt to explore these relationship in an academic context. On the bases of results from this study, the

authors will plan the way forward in the usage of the scales and data in order to establish a pattern for the long-term investigation of the phenomenon. Given that this is a preliminary investigation of student thought process and behaviors, the sample size might be small and mostly selected from couple of Southeastern AACSB accredited business schools. As such, the representation of the millennial student body is limited. This might have resulted in lack of significant and some of results obtained. The authors wish to continue with this line of exploration semester after semester with similar students in order to build a basis for longitudinal changes in attitudes and behaviors.

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Full Paper

The Efficacy of Student Use of RateMyProfessors.com for Decision Making

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Students are increasingly relying on sources such as RateMyProfessors.com to aid them in selecting classes, instructors, and even universities. Academic research on the efficacy of this student decision-making behavior has been scarce. Thus, this study compares data from RateMyProfessors.com to official student evaluations from two universities. Analyzing a total of 155 cases suggests that much of the data from RateMyProfessors.com is statistically comparable to the information produced by official student evaluations. These findings imply students are accessing valuable and accurate information to help them make important educational decisions. The findings may have important research implications.

Introduction

Many universities and colleges consider official student evaluations to be so important that faculty members may be rewarded (retained, tenured, promoted) or punished (denied retention, tenure or promotion) because of them. Further, students have no way of knowing whether students are benefited from their evaluation of a professor indirectly (professors being rewarded or punished in the long term). And because of the confidentiality of personnel evaluations, they have no direct impact on student decisions relative to selecting classes, professors or schools).

While many marketing educators, especially those in evaluative supervisory positions, realize there is value in student evaluations and that students are being benefited indirectly, the evaluations are not directly available to students, providing no short-term benefits to student decision making. There appears no way for students to use official evaluations as tools to help make choices in planning their higher education path. Thus, services like RateMyProfessors.com (RMP) are the tools to which an increasing proportion of students are turning for planning purposes.

RMP was founded in May 1999 by a software engineer in Silicon Valley. The site allows college and university students to assign ratings to professors and campuses in the U.S., Canada, and the U.K. It was later sold to MTV's College Channel and is now the largest online destination for professor ratings. Users who have or are currently taking a particular professor's course may post a rating and review of that professor if he or she is already on the site. Further, users may create a listing for any individual not already listed. Students may also rate their college or university. So well is this site managed that in 2008, it was recognized by Time Magazine as one of the 50 best websites of the year.

So important is this site becoming that Forbes has been using it to help establish its annual ranking of universities. On July 6, 2016, Forbes published its ninth annual ranking of the best colleges and universities in the United States (Howard 2016). Factors considered in determining this ranking are post-graduate success, student debt, graduation rate, academic success, and student satisfaction. Student satisfaction is given a weight of 25% in the rating. One of the key ingredients assessed for student satisfaction is the student evaluations from RMP. Forbes claims that the RMP ratings are snapshots of what students think about their classes and is similar to what agencies like Consumer Reports or J.D. Powers and Associates do when they provide information on various products.

Time Magazine also uses RMP to produce its annual list of the "Hottest College Professors in America" (Waxman 2014). A professor who receives a chili pepper on RMP is considered "hot." Chili peppers are awarded based on the sum of positive and negative ratings.

The internet enhances the ability of many to conduct research. Many consumers often consider other consumers' ratings of a product to be among the more useful information factors when making purchase decisions. One-third of American internet users rated something online in 2007 (Maney 2009) and the numbers of internet users as well as the proportions of these users performing online ratings has steadily grown since then.

The increased use of RMP is part of this ratings trend. RMP is becoming increasingly important to students in setting expectations for classes (DeJong 2008) as well as helping them make more informed decisions. Not only are the students paying attention to the quantitative ratings on RMP, but the findings of one study suggest that the qualitative comments in RMP serve as word-of-mouth social communication (Hartman and Hunt 2013).

Despite the increased use of RMP information by students and the recognition of the importance of this data by industry, is this information truly valuable and accurate? If the information the students are receiving is so important to them, does data comparison suggest accuracy and usefulness of this data? Also, if this data is comparable to official student evaluations, could this data be used in academic research where student evaluations are necessary, but normally difficult to obtain? Further, could the RMP data actually be used to replace official student evaluations, saving institutions of higher learning money and time used in collecting and analyzing student evaluations?

Literature Review and Hypothesis

Official Student Evaluations

The phenomenon of using official evaluations can be traced all the way back to seminal work that pioneered the use of rating scales for evaluating university-level instructors. Remmers (1927) developed the first student evaluation form and dominated research in the area through the 1950s.

Nowadays, official student evaluations are routinely required at most universities (Chen et al. 2004), and most of universities use these student evaluations as an important part of evaluating teaching performance of faculty members (e.g., Ahmadi et al. 2001; Hobson and Talbot 2001). In addition, these official evaluations are often used as a way to assess quality assurance (Kwan 1999). Concerns have arisen concerning the development of instruments (Marsh 1987), their validity and reliability (Cohen 1981; Feldman 1977; Marsh 1987), and the potential of bias (Chen et al. 2004; Tollefson et al. 1989). However, official student evaluations continue to be viewed as an important part of evaluating professors.

Perhaps the most popular belief about official student evaluations by faculty is that grades have a strong impact on these evaluations (Clayson 2004). However, after many years of attempting to make this link, there is still no clear answer as to whether student grades have any impact on student evaluations (e.g., Clayson 2004; Gotlieb 2009; Grant 2007; Grimes et al. 2004; McPherson and Todd 2007; Paswan and Young 2002). Professors may be reluctant to give low grades in fear of low evaluations, particularly before they achieve tenure (Benton 2006). Other research has suggested that grades do not have a direct impact, but may have an indirect impact because of attribution (Gotlieb 2009) or the principle of reciprocity (Clayson 2004).

Other research has focused on other factors impacting official student evaluations. For example, Candill (2002) examined class size and found that it did not have an impact on overall student evaluations. Lee (2011) found that students who feel they have some sort of control over at least a portion of the class and how it is run are more likely to rate the class more positively. Wheeler (2008) found evidence that student evaluations tend to be more positive in classes that include experiential learning. Other research has shown that quality professor-student interaction (Wheeler 2008), class length (Reardon et al. 2008), and class rigor (Clayson and Haley 1990) all impact official student evaluations.

One definitive literature review indicates several important findings about official student evaluations. First, official evaluations are reliable and stable. Second, they are primarily a function of the professor who teaches a course rather than the course being taught. Third, they are relatively unaffected by such factors as grading leniency, class size, workload in the class, and prior subject interest. Fourth, they are useful in improving instructional effectiveness when coupled with appropriate consultation. Finally, official student evaluations should adopt a broad approach rather than a narrow approach including only a small number of effectiveness variables (Marsh and Roche 1997; Theall and Franklin 2002).

Another set of studies has identified four dimensions of importance for evaluating teaching effectiveness. The first of these four dimensions is content expertise which includes formally recognized knowledge, skills and abilities a faculty member possesses in a chosen field by virtue of advanced training, education and/or experience. The second dimension is instructional design which determines how students interact with the content, and includes designing, sequencing, and presenting experiences intended to induce learning. The third dimension is instructional delivery and includes those human interactions that promote or facilitate learning, as well as various forms of instructional delivery mechanisms. The final dimension is instructional assessment that includes developing and using tools and procedures for assessing student learning, both to provide feedback and to assign grades (e.g., Arreola 2007; Berk 2006). This same body of research also suggests that only three of the four dimensions are appropriately assessed with official

student ratings. Students are not in an appropriate position to evaluate content expertise (e.g., Arreola 2007; Berk 2006).

RateMyProfessors.com Evaluations

Whether the parent company, MTV, lends credence to the site or not, it at least shows that it has a heavy hitter behind it (Marcus 2011). Students have contributed over 14 million ratings of more than 1.3 million professors and nearly 8,000 schools. It is estimated that more than 4 million college students use the site each month. According to the website, “The site does what students have been doing forever – checking in with each other – their friends, their brothers, their sisters, their classmates – to figure out who’s a great professor and who’s one you might want to avoid” (www.RateMyProfessors.com). One study confirms that students themselves consider RMP ratings to be important to them (Hayes and Prus 2014).

RMP uses a five-point scale similar to a semantic-differential format where the higher number indicates a more positive score for the professor being rated. Two major factors are assessed. These two factors are overall quality of the course and difficulty of the course. One last fun item is to allow the students to evaluate a professor’s hotness. What makes a professor hot is left to individual interpretation and is measured by responses to the simple question “Is your professor hot?”

One of the first studies designed to compare RMP data to official evaluations occurred in 2007 and found them to be significantly correlated (Coladarci and Kornfield 2007). Recent research indicates that RMP evaluations are useful and comparable to the official evaluations given by colleges and universities (Black and Murphy 2015; Clayton 2014). Even the verbal comments students make on RMP are similar to those made on official instruments (Silva et al. 2008). This is good news for students because they are relying on RMP (and similar sites) more and more (Field et al. 2008). One criticism of RMP is self-selection; in other words, only those students with extreme opinions, either negative or positive, go to the trouble of evaluating. Other critics claim there is too much of RMP that is for pure entertainment and students do not take it as seriously as they should (Davidson and Price 2009). Other research has claimed serious flaws with the validity of the information provided on RMP because of sampling errors (Otto et al. 2011), ratings biases (Otto et al. 2011), and results dissimilar from official student evaluations (Albrecht and Hoopes 2009). Another study indicates that professors themselves do not respect RMP ratings and even though many also despise official student evaluations, they claim the official ratings to be more accurate than the RMP ratings (Boswell 2016).

On the positive side, however, one study found that “difficulty” was actually considered by students to be of less importance when using RMP as a tool (Landry et al. 2010). Other research found evidence indicating students take the task of evaluation seriously and students with extreme opinions are not necessarily the only ones to use RMP to evaluate professors (Peterson et al. 2011). Though some research has been conducted to compare different types of official evaluations (student, peer, and self) (Webster 1990), only a few studies have shown that RMP ratings are positively correlated with official student evaluations (e.g., Brown et al. 2009; Sonntag et al. 2009; Timmerman 2008). None of this research quantitatively comparing official evaluations with RMP evaluations has been conducted in the field of marketing. Thus, the hypothesis for this study follows.

H1: For marketing classes, official student evaluations and RMP evaluations are statistically correlated.

In addition to the hypothesis above, initial assessments relating professor gender, type, and RMP hotness will be conducted. The analyses will also examine the relationship of course level, format, and requirement to evaluations.

Methodology

RMP evaluations are specific not only to a professor, but also to a specific class and semester. In the sample of 24 professors used in this study, each evaluation was considered a separate case. A total of 155 of these RMP cases for these 24 professors from two universities were used. These cases were from the Fall 2011 Semester through the Fall 2016 Semester. As with RMP evaluations, official evaluations are professor, course and semester specific, allowing the matching of both types of evaluations.

Table 1: Results of Correlation Analysis

Variables	RMP Faculty Hotness	RMP Overall Quality	RMP Difficulty	Student Grade	Off Overall Quality	Off Fac Contribution	RMP + Tag	RMP - Tag
Faculty Gender	.528**	.020	.049	.156	.046	.058	.001	.014
Faculty Degree	.163*	.074	.134	.093	.055	.056	.178*	.083
Faculty Type	.097	.161*	.234**	.071	.073	.056	.135	.073
Class Level	.065	.189*	.043	.183	.327**	.408**	.095	.285**
Class Required	.277**	.198*	.120	.188	.280**	.307**	.155	.231**
Class Format	.033	.215**	.246**	.081	.304**	.307**	.181*	.014
RMP Faculty Hotness		.020	.008	.051	.017	.100	.031	.031
RMP Overall Quality			.553**	.475**	.695**	.679**	.340**	.296**
RMP Difficulty				.380**	.387**	.363**	.117	.209**
Student Grade					.264	.199	.125	.148
Off Overall Quality						.927**	.329**	.161
Off Fac Contribution							.000	.038
RMP + Tag								.128

** Significant at the .01 level

* Significant at the .05 level

RMP ratings utilize a five-point scale and the official university ratings used in this study are completed using a six-point scale. Each of the two RMP factors (overall quality of the course and course difficulty) was compared individually to the two official student evaluation items (quality of class as a whole and faculty contribution to the class) for each faculty member for the same class and semester. All statistical comparisons were performed by simple correlation analysis.

Results

As indicated in Table 1, the main hypothesis that official student evaluations and RMP evaluations are statistically correlated for students enrolled in marketing classes, was supported. First, RMP overall quality is significantly correlated with both official overall course quality ($\rho = .695, p < .01$) and official faculty contribution to the course ($\rho = .679, p < .01$). In addition, RMP course difficulty is also significantly correlated with both official overall course quality ($\rho = .387, p < .01$) and official faculty contribution to the course ($\rho = .363, p < .01$).

Relationships between other factors were also examined through correlation analysis. Factors related to faculty teaching the various courses were examined. First, faculty gender was examined and was found to be related to the RMP faculty hotness factor ($\rho = .528, p < .01$), but none of the variables of this study's hypothesis.

Second, the impact of the highest degree a faculty has obtained to academically prepare him or her for teaching was examined. The four degree conditions included in the analyses are PhD in marketing, other doctorate in related field, masters in marketing or MBA, and other degrees. Faculty degree is found to be correlated with RMP faculty hotness ($\rho = .163, p < .05$), and whether students left positive word tags in RMP when rating a professor ($\rho = .178, p < .05$). However, no impact was detected on the variables of the main hypothesis of this study.

Third, five faculty types were examined: full professor, associate professor, assistant professor, non-tenure track instructor, and adjunct. Unlike other faculty characteristics, faculty type has some correlation with the variables contained in the main hypothesis. Faculty type is significantly correlated with both RMP overall course quality ($\rho = .189, p < .05$) and RMP course difficulty ($\rho = .234, p < .01$).

Correlations of class-related characteristics were also examined in this study. First, course level (lower-division or upper-division) is correlated with variables of the research hypothesis as follows: RMP overall class quality ($\rho = .189, p < .05$), official overall class quality ($\rho = .327, p < .01$), and official faculty contribution to the class ($\rho = .408, p < .01$). It also correlates to an additional variable – the number of negative RMP tag words ($\rho = .285, p < .01$).

Second, the correlation of level the class is required (required of all business majors, required of marketing majors only, or elective) is related to variables of the research hypothesis: RMP overall course quality ($\rho = .198, p < .05$), official overall course quality ($\rho = .280, p < .01$), and official faculty contribution to the course ($\rho = .307, p < .01$). Level of class requirement is also related to RMP faculty hotness ($\rho = .277, p < .01$) and number of negative RMP word tags ($\rho = .231, p < .01$).

Third, class format (in-class or online) is correlated with all variables of the main hypothesis: RMP overall course quality ($\rho = .215, p < .01$), RMP course difficulty ($\rho = .246, p < .01$), official course quality ($\rho = .304, p < .01$), and

official faculty contribution to the course ($\rho = .307, p < .01$). Class format is also correlated with the number of RMP positive word tags ($\rho = .181, p < .05$).

Finally, a few other variables have some impact on the variables of this study's hypothesis. First, the self-reported grade the student received for the class identified in RMP has an impact on both RMP overall course quality ($\rho = .475, p < .01$) and RMP course difficulty ($\rho = .380, p < .01$). Second, the number of RMP positive word tags is related to both RMP overall course quality ($\rho = .340, p < .01$) and official overall course quality ($\rho = .329, p < .01$). Third, the number of RMP negative word tags is related to both RMP overall course quality ($\rho = .296, p < .01$) and RMP course difficulty ($\rho = .209, p < .01$).

Discussion and Conclusion

Findings of this study suggest the common student practice of using RMP data for decision making has a legitimate basis. The RMP data of overall course quality and course difficulty are highly correlated with the data obtained from official student evaluations and has the advantage of being directly available to the students in a timely manner allows for informed decisions. Thus, RMP data may play an important role in student decision making.

RMP's importance is also being recognized beyond the student population. The evolution of the internet implies faculty may not escape their past. They should expect their ratings from RMP to inform search committees, promotion and tenure committees, blogs and so forth (Pannapacker 2007).

Gaining widespread access to official student evaluations is impossible, rendering a universal test of the relationship between official evaluations and internet-based sites an unfulfilled wish. However, research using student evaluation data can clearly be important and useful. The results of this study add to the literature that verifies utilizing publicly-available student evaluations, such as those provided by RMP, for research and human resource purposes could be comparably enlightening.

In addition to using the quantitative data provided on RMP, it may also be useful to examine the qualitative data found there. So far, there has been little research examining the written comments on RMP or comparing them with written comments found on official student evaluations. RMP itself began providing students an option to identify positive or negative words associated with their experience in the class, making use of the qualitative data more simple. Research is just beginning to be performed with the qualitative data and one author makes suggestions on how to interpret and use official written comments in evaluating faculty and helping faculty improve their teaching performance (Candill 2002); however, the recommendation does not appear to be data driven.

With verification of the near equality of RMP data to official student evaluation data, future research using this unofficial data could be performed in any area where student evaluation data analysis could be useful. One such area could be comparing departments across an individual university or across different universities. Another may be to examine the notion that lower performing instructors get a higher quantity of comments and these comments are more negative than higher performing instructors. Further analysis of the relationships between the additional variables examined in this study, such as faculty characteristics, course characteristics, etc., would be valuable as well.

If future research continues to verify the equality of unofficial student evaluations, universities may even consider eliminating official evaluations altogether and encouraging students to utilize RMP or similar sites. This measure would conserve resources of universities. In addition, encouraging unofficial evaluations would provide more data to students as they attempt to design educational programs to maximize individual academic experiences.

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**SESSION 3.6: PANEL PRESENTATION: BEST PRACTICES IN
TEACHING MARKETING RESEARCH**

Chair:
Mary Harrison, Birmingham-Southern College

Special Session

Best Practices in Teaching Marketing Research

James Blair, University of Rhode Island, USA

Doreen Sams, Georgia College & State University, USA

Philip Frank, Missouri Western State University, USA

Mary Harrison, Birmingham-Southern College, USA

Reginald Sheppard, the University of New Brunswick, Canada

Chi Zhang, University of Indianapolis, USA

This panel will discuss best practices in marketing research course pedagogy. Panelists will also discuss research methods, data collection, statistical techniques, and databases are covered in their classes as well as new trends in marketing research.

Challenges and Successes Teaching Marketing Research Courses

Some students are intimidated by numbers and statistics, which can result in students being “turned off” at the onset of the course. It is imperative to build confidence and introduce students to course material in a positive, encouraging environment by breaking down concepts into simple terms, giving practical examples in-class, and including value-added activities to reinforce students learning course material. With students preferring interactive lectures and team-projects, instructors can incorporate these learning methods into their marketing research courses (Sander et al. 2000).

Motivating Students

Marketing research and analytics positions are expected to increase offering enticing salary levels. Employers desire students with the ability interpret large datasets, make informed business decisions, and listen to the voice of the customer (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015). In addition to career opportunities, marketing research instructors can incorporate several strategies to motivate students to become more engaged in the course material. One such strategy is providing research topics and examples relevant to students, resulting in increased motivation levels for a course with a history of being unpopular (Bridges 1999).

Ownership of Content and Resource Sharing

When students have an opportunity to seek out material relevant to their interests, we can hope to improve their engagement levels. Providing students opportunities to seek out articles to read and videos to watch in industries and contexts they have a passion for relating to marketing research methods and statistical techniques, may offer students improved learning opportunities through practical examples (Berns and Erickson 2001). Students can seek out this information by searching the internet, which is a valuable skill and habit for students to find information online relevant to their career and profession (Siu and Chau 1998). Giving students an opportunity to share these resources with their peers through class discussions and online resource sharing platforms allow them to take the lead on particular concepts and aid other students in the learning process.

Practical Learning Experiences

In business courses, sometimes we offer students fictitious examples using products like “widgets.” Students may have difficulty relating to these examples and less likely to engage in these activities and assignments. Incorporating practical experiences through experiential learning opportunities may provide students opportunities to build confidence and increase motivation levels. There are several ways for instructors to implement these practical examples with their courses. One way to achieve this is by including guest speakers from industry discuss emerging trends in marketing research, how they got into their profession, and skills employers currently desire from job candidates. Students have been found to enjoy and benefit from guest speakers when providing practical, real-life learning to students (Metrejean, Pittman, and Zarzeski 2002). These sessions can be done in-person or through digital communication technologies, which can be effective in connecting students with professionals (Eveleth and Baker-Eveleth 2009).

Instructors can also provide experiential learning opportunities through cases, assignments, and community-based projects (Malhotra, Taschian, and Jam 1989). Community-based (C-B) projects are widely tested and have

demonstrated significant benefits as a high-impact practice (AACU 2017). C-B marketing research projects enhance classroom learning. The C-B projects are an opportunity for students to work with firms to investigate opportunities/problems a client does not have the time or resources to investigate. C-B projects allow students to work on meaningful topics, which have real-world applications. If students perceive this gap between their marketing research foundational knowledge and project objectives as achievable over the course of the term, this can increase student motivation levels (Burns and Gentry 1998). Students can go through the four phases consisting of 11 steps that define the research process beginning with the client's decision question and ending with preparation and presentation of the final report (Hair, Jr., et al. 2017). Enhancing the classroom experience is advantageous for both the clients (new knowledge) and students (applied knowledge practical business experience). As a result, students obtain consulting and researching skills potential employers highly desire (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2015).

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SESSION 3.8: BRANDING IN SOCIAL MEDIA, ONLINE AND OFFLINE ENVIRONMENT

Chair:
Trang P. Tran, East Carolina University

Summary Brief

Can Products Have Agency, Too?

Ashkan Fatehi, The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley, USA

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The authors call for recognition of product agency, and define it analogous to consumer agency using the lens of actor-network theory and object agency theory. First, the paper briefly explores subject-object relationships relative to agency by examining its history over time. Next, different types of product agency are discussed from intentional to causal, and how this framework may be useful for different topics in consumer research. Finally, the authors critically reflect on the perspectives of consumer-object relationships and the relationship between consumer-centric and association-centric orientations.

Introduction

Much of the marketing literature's inquiry on agency has focused on consumer agency (Eckhardt and Mahi, 2004). Marketing scholars investigating consumer agency depict the construct as a consumer's ability to make purchases in a diverse set of markets, actively learning about products, as well as consumers managing their consumption habits (Valtonen, 2013). In other words, consumer agency is central to describing consumers' buying power in market contexts (Valtonen, 2013). In the context of Consumer Culture Theory (CCT), consumer agency has been identified with orienting consumer agency to be more broadly viewed within consumer-oriented identity projects. Additionally, consumer research has also addressed that institutions can be imbued with agency.

However, current conceptualizations of consumer agency typically imply a dichotomy between subjects (i.e., human actors) and objects. For example, it can be argued that humans have a conscious mind and thus have agency, whereas objects do not possess consciousness and thus cannot have agency (Bloor, 1991). Building on actor network theory (Latour, 2005) and object agency theory (Forward, Steadman, & Ross 2010), our research seeks to provide a critical review of agency in consumption-oriented contexts and inquires to which extent agency can be assigned to products. We propose that a symmetrical (rather than asymmetrical) perspective on consumer-product relationships is useful to understand consumption-oriented phenomena (Latour, 2005).

Object Agency: Dissolving the Subject-Object Duality

The dichotomy of product vs. human agency has been hegemonic since the introduction of the Cartesian dualism in the 17th century, otherwise known as subject-object duality. This duality represents a distinction that categorizes the domains of body and mind (Baker & Morris, 1996), and whose concept is revisited in Hegel's *On the Phenomenology of Spirit* in the discussion of objectification. Reflected in some streams of the marketing literature, these modern dichotomies are challenged by a postmodernist critique of how the subject is viewed as superior in relation to its less superior counterpart (the object).

A convenient way to disentangle the conceptual tensions inherent to a discourse on product agency would be to distinguish between intentional and causal agency (Bloor, 1991). Intentional agency is characterized by an actor with a will or an agenda to influence its, his, or her environment. In a way, consumer agency can be a type of intentional agency such that consumers often make deliberate consumer decisions. Causal agency is assigned to objects having a limited or eclipsed quantity of agency, as proposed by Bloor on his contentions on symmetry (Bloor, 1991). Using this classification of agency branched as intentional and causal would potentially simplify the discourse on product agency, because one might argue that human beings possess intentional agency, whereas objects (including products) don't have intentions and thus carry causal agency.

Advancing Product Agency

Although object and product agency share many similarities, their meanings differ slightly since products have a commodification or exchange component and thus function within the boundaries of a market or other institutional settings, while objects do not necessarily possess a market value. To provide further evidence to differentiate the two terms in the product-object debate, it could also be said that objects are not imbued with human interaction.

To illustrate how product agency emerges, we build on Bardhi, Eckhardt, and Arnould (2012) who investigate how modern nomads (geographically and socially flexible consumers) adjust to the conditions of liquid modernity with a

highly mobile lifestyle and a reduced, equally liquid portfolio of personal belongings. Product agency is present in their work through the way personal belongings act on (and either facilitate or hinder) the life projects of their informants. For example, traditionally valued possessions such as cars or houses become very quickly a burden for modern nomads. Product agency is clearly visible in these accounts because from an ANT perspective, it is not the intention or consciousness of products that determines product agency, but the effects products have on consumers (Latour, 2005).

Discussion

ANT focuses on the effects rather than the intentions and consciousness of actors in the actor-network. Product agency emerges through the effects products have on consumers as equal actors. Consequentially, product agency, in the perspective of ANT, modifies and challenges important building blocks of traditional marketing theory which is based on a privilege of consumers over consumption objects. For example, consumer-product attachments, product love, and product necessitation all build on asymmetrical relationships between consumers and products. This would be a consumer-centric view (an asymmetrical perspective), rather an association-centric (symmetrical) perspective (Bajde 2013). Further, an acknowledgement of product agency through the lens of ANT invites marketing managers to express product attributes and benefits in drastically different ways. For example, products in advertising may be depicted as partners or enablers, rather than inanimate objects that require user interventions. This perspective may gain momentum in the future through the integration of artificial intelligence into products and the dynamic changes with robots and the Internet of Things. Concluding, our approach extends and modifies Belk's (1988) seminal article on how consumers' possessions as an extension of the self are imbued with consumers' identity. Building on this framework, we argue that human agency may extend to consumers' possessions to the degree that they affect consumers' feelings, motives, choices, and sense of self.

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Summary Brief

How to Enhance Brand Equity through Personalization, Brand Experience and Brand Attachment: A Study of Facebook

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A growing number of researchers have examined the effects of personalized advertising in traditional media, but little has been developed to examine the effects of a personalized ad of a brand on social media (i.e., Facebook). The primary objectives of this research are to develop and test a comprehensive model that underlines the role that perceived personalization of a brand ad plays on Facebook on customer perception about the brand.

Introduction

Studies show that Facebook, the world's largest social network, is an ideal platform for advertisement. Facebook has 1.39 billion active users visiting the website per month and 92 percent of social marketing companies have chosen Facebook as a marketing tool that helped Facebook reach revenue of 12.7 billion in 2014 (Rudolph 2015). Additionally, many companies or service providers, either small or large, choose to create online ads on Facebook because it is less expensive than other media. Although researchers have attempted to investigate the impact of personalized ads in traditional media, little has been done to examine the effects of a personalized ad of a brand on Facebook. The primary objectives of this research are: (1) develop a comprehensive model that examines the effects of perceived personalization on brand experience, brand attachment and brand equity on Facebook; and (2) test hypothesized relationships using data collected an online survey.

Hypotheses Development

Advances in technology have allowed websites to capture users' browsing histories and produce personalized recommendations that match each user's individual needs (Zanker et al. 2010). Through the process of personalization (Roberts and Zahay 2012; Vesanen 2007), companies identify a user, collect his or her navigation patterns, analyze known preferences of similar users, and estimate his or her specific preferences to tailor content for each user. Drawing on seminal literature on personalization, brand experience, brand attachment, and brand equity, we propose that there are positive relationships between perceived personalization and brand experience (H1), brand attachment (H2), between brand experience and attachment (H3), between brand experience and brand equity's components (H4, H5, H6), and between brand attachment and brand equity's components (H7, H8, H9).

Methodology

A pre-test was conducted to test whether or not participants perceived an online ad to be personalized. The results based on t-test confirm that that the manipulation check for perceived personalization worked. Data of the main study was collected from an online sample (275 respondents). Using SmartPLS, we tested both measurement and structural model and found all hypotheses were supported except H7 and H9. That means perceived personalization is significantly related to brand experience and brand attachment, and that brand experience positively enhances all brand equity components. But brand attachment only enhances brand loyalty, but does not change perceived quality and brand association/awareness.

Key Findings

The empirical findings illustrate that personalized ads on Facebook have changed dramatically the ways customers perceive about the ads. Specifically, perceived personalization significantly enhances brand experience and brand attachment. And enhanced brand experience plays a role in increasing perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand association/awareness of brands advertised on Facebook while brand attachment has significant impact on only one component of brand equity which is brand loyalty. The significant impact of brand experience on brand attachment and the other brand equity variables is in line with the hierarchy of effects model where the multisensory emotional and cognitive consumer response (brand experience) successfully creates an emotional bonding (brand attachment) and also has a direct influences on consumers forging long lasting relationship with the brand through enhanced

awareness and associations along with favorable brand quality perceptions and loyalty intentions. Interestingly brand attachment creates an affective impact only on consumer loyalty intentions. The lack of influence on brand awareness and quality evaluations by brand attachment could be attributed to absence of a cognitive route to evaluations which prevented a formation of an attitude towards the brand to facilitate overall positive quality evaluation and brand awareness/ association. Thus affective route can facilitate loyalty intentions but the longstanding nature of those intentions can be questioned due to an absence of a cognitive evaluation of the brand attributes.

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Summary Brief

Online Brand Engagement

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This study examines the ability of retail brands to translate an engaging in-store atmosphere to their webstore and attempts to answer the question: Can brand engagement translate to the online environment? The proposed study will use an experimental design to determine the effect of the inclusion of a video walk-through and branded playlist on immersion and brand connection. Prior brand experience will also be considered. Results will extend limited research in online atmospherics and provide guidance for retail brands that have webstores.

Introduction

Recently, brick and mortar retailers have been moving toward creating an immersive shopping experience through store design (Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle, 2006). These efforts strengthen brand associations, and result in positive consumer outcomes (Foster and McLelland, 2015). Many retail stores, however, do not align their in-store and online approaches. Retail stores such as Lush have used retail atmospherics and customer service to create an immersive experience in their stores, where consumers are encouraged to interact with the brand, try the products, and engage with the knowledgeable staff rather than just shop the merchandise. In contrast, the current Lush website focuses more on featuring products than creating an immersive shopping experience. This study aims to examine how retail brands like Lush can translate an engaging and immersive in-store atmosphere to their webstore.

Theoretical Background

The primary goal of brand communication today is to develop a connection (Malär et. al., 2011) and a long-term relationship with the consumer (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). In today's marketplace, a brand's website is an important piece of the overall branding effort, as many consumers gather market information online. Many popular methods of communications today reflect a shift in focus from traditional one-way communication (advertising, PR, etc.) to two-way communication methods (social media, email, etc.).

The retail space is an important means of communicating brand image and meaning (Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle, 2006). It can facilitate more interactions with consumers, which help create a more immersive brand experience that can result in repeat purchases (Kozinets et. al., 2002). Experiential retailing, in contrast to traditional marketing, focuses on producing a memorable and holistic customer shopping experience (Schmitt, 1999) where expectations are generated through repeated exposure to retail elements like service levels, product quality, and retail environment (Wakefield and Baker, 1998). Research suggests these manipulations of the retail environment are important to experiential retailing and found that designing the retail environment around a brand-dictated theme leads to higher perceptions of brand differentiation, interaction, immersion, shopping enjoyment, and positive attitudes toward the brand (Foster and McLelland, 2015). Therefore, the manipulation of retail environments is used to influence not only mood and shopping behaviors, but it also communicates brand values and personality.

With the introduction of mobile phones, online shopping has become more convenient and ubiquitous. Many sites are mobile-friendly and allow for instant purchasing, but a review of popular web stores indicates that these outlets struggle to create a truly immersive online shopping experience. Because of the lack of a physical space and human element in an online store, online atmospheres must rely on the manipulation of different qualities than a brick-and-mortar store (Wang, Minor & Wei, 2011). Website atmospherics have been found to aid in appropriately targeting market segments and can alter consumers' perceptions, moods and behaviors (Eroglu, Machleit, and Davis, 2001). Demangeot and Broderick (2010) have provided a framework that categorizes online atmospheric elements as either (1) Sense-making Potential (functionality, ease of use, coherence and legibility) or (2) Exploratory Potential (atmospheric cues, hedonic performance, experiential cues and enjoyment). These guidelines may aid in creating a basis for the path to more immersive online consumer experiences.

Proposed Study

The proposed study focuses on manipulating two exploratory potential elements: a video store walk through and a branded playlist. Bringing these elements of the experiential retail store environment to the webstore should lead to

a stronger connection with the brand and a more immersive shopping experience. This relationship is expected to be stronger for consumers who have spent time in the retail store previously. In addition, the use of both visual and audible cues should more closely resemble the multisensory experience in an immersive retail store. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: The inclusion of a video walk through of the retail store will lead to higher levels of (a) immersion and (b) brand connection

H2: The impact of the inclusion of a video walk through will be stronger for consumers with previous experience in the retail store.

H3: The use of a branded playlist will lead to higher levels of (a) immersion and (b) brand connection

H4: The impact of the branded playlist will be stronger for consumers with previous experience in store.

H5: The impact on the outcome variables is expected to be strongest when both are present.

To test the hypotheses, a 2 X 2 between subjects design will be used. The four conditions will be created by including a video walk-through and/or a branded playlist on a mock home page for Lush. An online survey will be administered via a Qualtrics panel (sample size goal = 120), where each respondent is exposed to one condition, and then answers questions regarding brand connection and immersion. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) will be used to test for differences between conditions. In addition, items measuring demographics and individual differences (online shopping frequency, primary shopping motivations, etc.) will be included.

Conclusion

A review of online web stores indicates that most use product-focused, rather than experience-focused, design. Research supports that creating an immersive shopping experience yields many positive outcomes, yet the translation of this relationship to the online environment has received little attention. This study aims to determine whether retail brands with successfully immersive brick-and-mortar shopping experiences can translate that success to the online environment. Results would help bridge the gap between brick-and-mortar and online atmospheric research and aid store managers in translating successful in-store immersion to their online web stores.

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Summary Brief

The Impact of Voluntary Nutrition Claims on New Product Performance: Consumer's Food-value Orientations and Category Assortment as Moderating Factors

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New product development is an essential element for firms to gain competitive advantage in the marketplace. In food industry, given the healthy food trends, nutrition claims (e.g. low fat, high fiber) are proved factors that influence consumers' food purchases in previous study. The purpose of this proposal is to propose a model that could evaluate the impact of voluntary nutrition claims on the performance of new developed products with category assortment and consumers' food-value orientations as moderators. After reviewing relevant literature and concepts, a conceptual model is proposed for future studies.

Introduction

Although launching a new product is expensive and costly, new product development is the very essential element for firms to gain competitive advantage in the marketplace. However, due to the high failure rate, it is important to predict the winner in a new product category. Unfortunately, the new product development tools and methods haven't changed significantly in the last few decades. Hence it is a huge challenge for firms to quickly develop new products to meet the changing consumer's needs. Previous studies found that new product performance could be affected by product quality, network externalities, switching costs, etc. (Molina-castillo, Munuera-alemán and Calantone 2011). But the drivers for successful new product development practice are still unclear for firms (Cooper, 1998).

Literature Review and Model Development

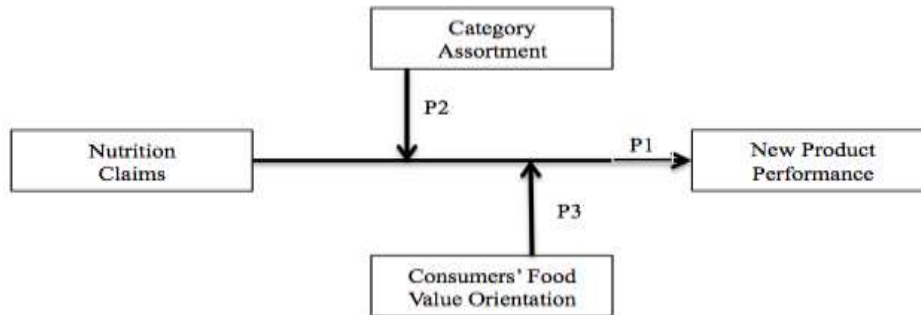
Nutrition Claims (e.g., low fat, high fiber) have great impact on consumer purchasing behavior (Cao and Yan, 2016). The presence of health and nutrient-content claims on food packages induces consumers to truncate information search, thereby influencing their grocery store choices (Roe, Levy, and Derby, 1999). Thus, nutrition claims are very informative for consumer to make healthier food choices. The different food-value orientations (tastiness, health and quantity) are the moderating factors on consumers' priority to select a food product (Kozup, Creyer, and Burton 2003). Hence, the findings from previous related studies about consumers' attitude toward voluntary nutrition claims were diverse. Since the previous studies heavily focused on consumer perceptions of the voluntary nutrition claims. The measurement of its influence on new product adoption in retailing environment has relatively been less studied. Cao and Yan (2016) find that new product performance with nutrition claims is strongly related to the firm sale and firm financial performance. In the retailing environment, retail category assortment could also affect consumer's store choice decisions.

Consumer's food-value orientations and category assortment will be treated as moderating factors. There are a few studies about how the shoppers adopt a new food product, which involves personal characteristics like age and income (Im, Bayus, Mason, 2003). Under the retailing environment, the category assortment has both positive and negative effect on the store. Also, nutrition claims could increase the purchase intents for healthy food (Kozup, Creyer and Burton 2003). Consumers weigh the information mentioned in claims more than the information available in the Nutrition Facts panel (Roe, Levy and Derby1999). However, consumers still prefer to search the nutrition information in short descriptors from the package and recall information to decide the purchase. At the firm level, nutrition claims could provide the differential advantage of food items compared to the ones without health claims (Ippolito and Mathios, 1991). Thus, a model is developed to reflect the connections of the following three propositions.

Proposition 1: Nutrition claims on the front of food package could positively increase the new developed food product performance in the marketplace.

Proposition 2: Assortment size moderates the relationship between Nutrition Claims and New Product Performance. When the assortment size is large, the impact of nutrition claim on the new product sale will be more significant. Assortment size could change the slope of the relationship.

Proposition 3: Consumer’s food value orientations moderate the relationship between Nutrition Claims and New Product Performance.



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**SESSION 3.9: BRAND EMOTION, PERCEPTION, AND CUSTOMER
BEHAVIOR**

Chair:
Deborah Goldring, Stetson University

Presentation

Win Your Customers Back or Protect Yourself? Apology vs. Apologia after a Brand Transgression

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To date, there have been relatively few investigations into transgressions displayed by brands towards their customers despite the fact that, much as with interpersonal relationships, transgressive behaviors can and are exhibited by brands towards individuals. When a brand transgresses and the transgression impacts its customers, it typically chooses to issue a response to its transgression. Most commonly, when a brand responds to a transgression, it will issue either an apology, in which it acknowledges guilt and expresses regret for its transgression, or an apologia, which is a broader response that encompasses any statements made by the brand in defense of its transgression. This research investigates the relative effectiveness of those two courses of action in terms of consumer response.

Introduction

One area of marketing research in which there does not appear to be a significant amount of investigation is in the area of negative interactions between brands and individuals. In psychology, a negative behavior on the part of one individual is described as a transgression and transgressions are defined as an action by one individual towards another which violates the implicit or explicit norms and rules that serve as guides for conduct within the context of a relationship (Metts, 1994). After an individual transgresses, they may act in a number of ways: For example, they may try to explain why they engaged in transgressive behavior by providing excuses or justifications or they may apologize (Guerrero, Andersen, and Afifi, 2007). In turn, the individual who was transgressed against can also react in a number of ways: For instance, they may choose to forgive the transgressor or they may choose to confront the behavior aggressively (McCullough, Worthington, Jr., and Rachal, 1997), with forgiveness much more likely to result from an apology than from any other behavior demonstrated by the transgressor (Takaku, 1999). Much as with interpersonal relationships, transgressive behaviors can be exhibited by brands towards individuals (Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel, 2004).

Transgressions and Attachment Style

To date, however, there has been little research investigating transgressive behavior that brands demonstrate towards consumers and how consumers can be expected to react to those transgressions (Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel 2004). With respect to transgressions demonstrated by one individual towards another, attachment theory is often used to explain expected reactions to interpersonal transgressions and its use to explain those reactions arose as a natural consequence of research conducted to refine and explore the theory: After Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) developed the four attachment styles model, finding that individuals may form attachments that can be described as secure, anxious-ambivalent or preoccupied, dismissing-avoidant, or fearful-avoidant and that attachment style, in turn, can be used to predict how individuals will react to specific situations, including transgressions. In short, research has shown that high levels of security were associated with stronger tendencies to react to apologies following transgressions constructively through forgiveness and lesser tendencies to react destructively. The remaining three attachment styles, in turn, display weaker tendencies to respond to apologies following transgressions constructively through forgiveness (Rusbult, Johnson, and Morrow, 1986).

Apology vs. Apologia

When a brand transgresses, it can and typically does choose to respond to that transgression (Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel, 2004). However, despite the above research, not every brand chooses to respond to a transgression through an apology. Instead, many brands choose instead to issue an apologia. While the term apology applies to situations where the brand acknowledges guilt and expresses regret for a transgression, apologia is a broader concept that encompasses any statements made by the brand in defense of an accusation (Hearit, 2005). Typically, apologia offer “a compelling counter description of organizational actions” without actually noting that a transgression occurred (Hearit, 2005, p. 115). To provide an example of both an apology and an apologia, if a product or service fails in a manner that causes injuries to a consumer, the brand may choose to respond with a statement taking responsibility for the failure and apologizing to the consumer for the injury they have suffered – an apology – or they may choose to

instead deny the accusation and respond with a statement explaining that the product or service is in fact safe and that the responsibility for the failure of the product or service, and hence, the injury, lies with the consumer, not with the brand – an apology. As noted above, because an individual’s attachment style has been demonstrated to influence their response to the actions of an interpersonal relationship partner after conflict has occurred – specifically with respect to their willingness to forgive, to be empathetic to explanations for the causes of the conflict, and to continue the relationship (Rusbult, Johnson, and Morrow, 1986) – it would be expected the brand’s best response to transgressing against a consumer is to issue an apology.

Managerial Implications

However, despite legal research indicating that an apology does not necessarily open up the brand that has transgressed to increased legal liability (Heimreich, 2012), many brands continue to believe that apologies do expose them to an increased level of liability and thus issue apologies instead of apologies to consumers when they transgress (Kador, 2009). Thus, research that demonstrates that an apology on behalf of the brand following a transgression has a significant impact on the response of all consumers – no matter their specific attachment style – and that apologies do not would be an important managerial implication. In summary, this research will examine the relationship of attachment style on individual reactions to a transgression on the part of the brand. Additionally, it will investigate the effectiveness of two methods available to handle consumer reactions to the transgressions of the brand, apologies and apology. This is an important area of research because, to date, no study has fully investigated the link between attachment style and reactions to brand transgressions as moderated by either the presence of an apology or an apology.

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Presentation

I Hate That Brand! Assessing the Structural Components of Brand Hate: A Proposed Research Agenda

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Consumer-brand relationships in the digital world are increasingly important to firms, who are able to communicate directly with million of customers in the online environment. However, those who strongly oppose a brand and what it stands for are also able to utilize the internet to spread negative and even harmful information about a brand. The authors propose a research agenda to explore the structural components of brand hate drawing on Sternberg's Triangular Theory of Hate that will lead to the development, testing, and validation of a brand hate scale. The authors are currently in the preliminary stages of a qualitative study to explore the structural components of brand hate.

Introduction

In today's digitally connected world, online brand engagement is essential for creating and maintaining consumer-brand relationships (Merz et al. 2009), communicating brand value (Hollebeek, et al. 2014) and fostering strong connections between the brand, consumer self-identity, and culture (Veloutsou and Moutinho 2009). However, the ubiquity and relative anonymity provided by the Internet has also given rise to a negative form of consumer-brand relationship – brand hate. Brand hate has been conceptualized in the literature as a desire for revenge and avoidance (Grégoire et al. 2009), as strong opposition to a brand (Johnson et al. 2011), as “true brand disgust” (Alba and Lutz 2013; p. 268), as extreme dislike for a brand (Romani et al. 2012), and as intense negative feelings towards a brand (Bryson et al. 2013). Brand hate, often driven by negative brand experiences, compels consumers to engage in behaviors ranging from complaining or spreading negative information about the brand to engaging in hostile activities intended to cause direct harm to the brand (Kähr, et al. 2016).

While the extant brand literature explores antecedents of brand hate and offers post hoc managerial guidance on how firms can manage the consequences brand hate (Sternberg 2005), there is a paucity of research that explores the structural components of the brand hate construct or specific remedies for managing brand hate and reconciling consumer-brand relationships. Thus, to explore this existing gap in the consumer-brand relationship literature, the proposed research agenda seeks to (1) explore the dimensions of brand hate using the critical incident technique; (2) develop a scale to measure the components of the brand hate construct; (3) empirically test this scale across a broad cross-section of brands and cultures; and (4) develop actionable managerial procedures to address the specific components of brand hate.

Literature Review

Duplex Theory of Hate

The duplex theory of hate (Sternberg, 2005) incorporates Steinberg's triangular theory of hate, which explains the structure of hate and its development, and his story-based theory, which explains how the structure arises. This theory has been used to examine the rise of terrorism, massacres, and genocides. The triangular theory of hate suggests that the hate construct has three key components: 1) the negation of intimacy: disgust, 2) passion: anger/fear, and 3) commitment: devaluation/diminution (Sternberg, 2005). According to the triangular theory, hate does not exist in the absence of these three components. Mild hate exists when one of the three components is present, moderate hate exists when two components are present, and severe hate exists when all three components are present (Sternberg, 2005). We theorize that brand hate possesses similar dimensions; thus a validated brand hate scale would be diagnostic for brand managers and provide a mechanism by which specific remedies could be enacted to address failures among the various components of brand hate.

Therefore, we propose the following research agenda to: (1) examine the phenomenon and dimensions of brand hate; (2) develop a scale designed to measure the structural components of brand hate; (3) empirically test the psychometric properties of the brand hate scale; and (4) offer prescriptive measures that managers can take to minimize the growth of brand hate based on specific outcomes of a brand hate scale assessment.

Using the critical incident technique (Bitner, et al. 1990), we will collect qualitative data on consumer brand-hate experiences to identify the structural components of brand hate. Analyses will be used to develop and adapt the triangular theory of hate as it applies to consumer-brand relationships. Second, the authors will utilize these data to develop a scale for testing the structural components of brand hate. Third, upon refinement of a brand hate scale, the authors propose empirically testing the scale across multiple brands, industries, and cultures to ascertain the scale's robustness. Finally, the authors propose developing specific managerial remedies that will allow firms to address the specific structural components of brand hate so that they may minimize the impact of brand hate on their firms.

The authors are currently proceeding with collecting the initial consumer responses on brands they hate and why.

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Summary Brief

The Intricate Way Fitness Branding Impacts Consumer's Purchase Intention

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Fitness branding has gained increasing attention from the practitioner and the researcher in recent years. However, existing research mainly focus on consumer's reactions to fitness branded food. The literature is lacking on explaining how fitness branding affects consumer's intentions to purchase fitness branded products. This paper aims to bridge this gap by delineating the process with a conceptual framework, which is built upon the theory of planned behavior and the goal-based model of product evaluation and choice. Eleven propositions are provided as a guideline for future empirical research.

Introduction

The idea of getting fit has often been a hot topic for consumers. Fitness is held in high regard because it is closely related to health concerns and aesthetic appreciations. It is estimated that approximately 64% of US consumers have the inclination to control their weight.

As a result, the enthusiasm for fitness creates business opportunities for many marketers. Companies introduce strategies that incorporate fitness cues in product presentations and marketing communications. For instance, there are brands named Live Fit Apparel and GoFit; many companies hire models with beautiful muscle and gorgeous body shape. These strategies pertain to fitness branding.

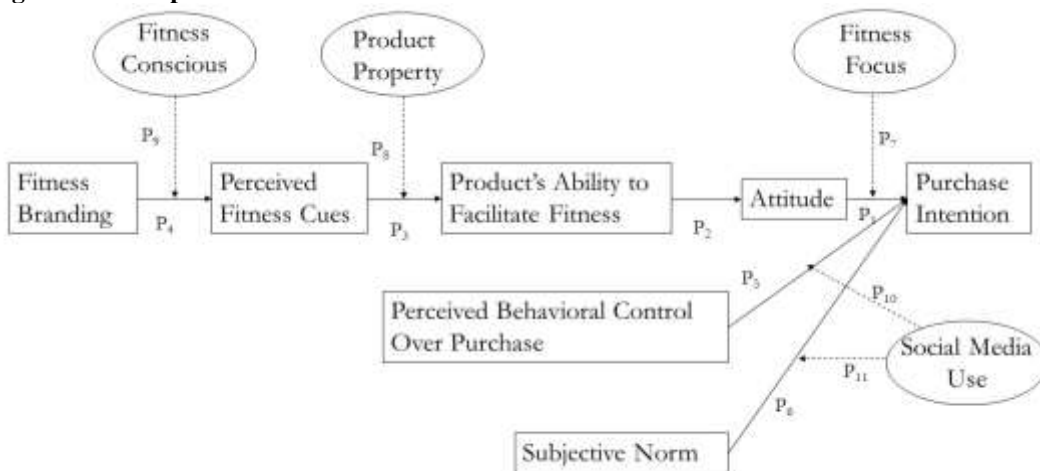
Fitness branding has also attracted researchers' attention. Research has found that fitness branding in food industry can increase consumer's food consumption (Koenigstorfer & Baumgartner, 2016) and food evaluation (Irmak et al., 2011) if the consumer is a restrained eater. However, none if any research has investigated the impacts of fitness branding on consumer's purchase intention. Previous research on fitness branding largely focuses on consumer's reactions to fitness branded food (Chrysochou & Grunert, 2014; Finkelstein & Fishbach, 2010; Geyskens et al., 2007; Irmak et al., 2011; Koenigstorfer & Baumgartner, 2016). The literature is lacking on an explanation that how fitness branding affects consumer's purchase intention of fitness branded products. This is the research gap this study aims to bridge.

Conceptual Development

Fitness branding is the practice in which marketing strategies are adopted to communicate the value of fitness. The conceptual development of this paper is built upon the theory of planned behavior and a goal-based model of product evaluation and choice. The theory of planned behavior incorporates the concept of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control in a clearly defined model, it enables a conclusive examination of individual's evaluative criteria and behaviors in specific contexts (Ajzen, 1991). The essence of the theory of planned behavior is the use of an individual's attitude towards a behavior and the ability of acting to predict the individual's behavioral achievement. This study extends the theory of planned behavior with antecedents of attitude to explain the mechanism that how fitness branding affects consumers' attitude and purchase intention.

The goal-based model of product evaluation and choice is used to understand how product works as a medium of consumers' goals and choices. It assumes that consumers' choices are driven by goals rather than the weights of beliefs. Evaluation of a product depends on the extent to which the product is expected to facilitate or hinder the fulfillment of a number of activated goals, and the choice probability of a product is a monotonic function of the ratio between a product's evaluation and the evaluation of other similar products (Van Osselaer & Janiszewski, 2012). Applying this model alone in purchase decision-making settings has at least two limitations. First, consumers' intention to purchase a product cannot be obtained by using this model, because it requires comparisons between a given product and other similar products. Second, the model doesn't take into account consumers' purchase ability. These limitations are addressed in the theory of planned behavior. Therefore, a combined model of the theory of planned behavior and the goal-based model of product evaluation and choice is ideal for this study. The conceptual framework of this study is demonstrated below.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework



Conclusion and Policy Implications

This is a conceptual paper that discusses the concept of fitness branding and the mechanism that how it impacts consumers' purchase intention. Fitness branding is defined here as the practice in which marketing strategies are adopted to communicate the value of fitness. Built upon the theory of planned behavior and the goal-based model of product evaluation and choice, this paper develops a conceptual framework that delineates the influence of fitness branding on consumer's purchase intention. Eleven propositions are provided. These propositions serve as a solid foundation for future empirical studies.

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Summary Brief

What's in the Family Name: Surname Branding Perceptions and Their Effects on Consumer Purchase Intentions

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The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of family surname on brand perceptions and purchase intention within a B2B buying context. An experimental design explores whether a family-branded name of an organization (i.e., domestic-sounding family surname, foreign-sounding family surname) makes a difference in the perceptions and intentions of respondents when compared to a non-family branded business. The experiment also varies the conditions by explicit mention of family-owned or non-family-owned. Preliminary results using partial least squares modeling indicate that there are differences in these groups, which suggests that perceived surname differences have an impact on purchase intentions. Implications of this study are further discussed.

Introduction

Organizations heavily invest in the strategic development of their brand identity. Branding focuses on a strong brand name and image (Anisimova 2007). However, while the branding literature has studied mostly large multinational brands (Berton, Ewing, and Napoli 2008), the process of enhancing and sustaining a distinct brand position also holds great value to smaller firms that are often family-owned. Thus, there is a critical need to study the unique ways in which family-owned organizations can leverage their brand differences. This research uses an experiment to address three research questions related to the corporate brand:

1. How does the use of a family name in the corporate brand name affect attitudes and intentions toward the firm?
2. How does the use of a foreign versus domestic (U.S.) sounding name affect the attitudes and intentions toward the firm?
3. Are there any differences in attitudes and perceptions of the firm if there is an explicit mention of family ownership in a description of firm capabilities?

Literature Review

There is limited research on explores the branding process in family businesses (Beck 2016; Blombäck and Botero 2013) and even fewer empirical studies on how customers evaluate and make decisions on an explicit family business brand.

Anecdotal and empirical evidence suggests consumers are likely to have positive attitudes towards family firms (Saeger, Mitter, and Feldbauer-Durstmüller 2016), and that these positive associations can result in better performance for the family firm (Binz et al. 2013). However, family businesses communicate their family connection in multiple ways, and each of these communication decisions might have different effects on perceptions (Botero et al. 2013). For example, family firms can use a name that includes their surname (i.e., S.C. Johnson), they can explicitly communicate that they are family owned (i.e., family owned since 1950), or they might use family images to promote a family connection.

For this study, we focused on two aspects of communicating family ownership as part of the corporate brand: using the surname as part of the organizational name, and explicitly telling consumers that an organization is family owned. Thus, we designed the current study to explore the effects of using a family name on perceptions and intentions towards a firm. Our conceptual model is illustrated in Figure 1.

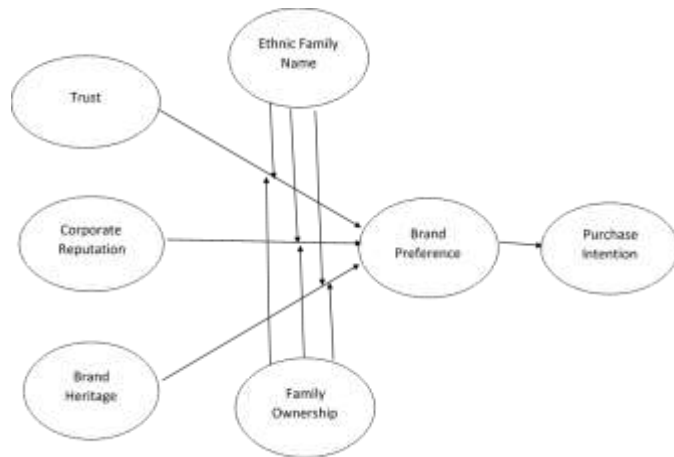


Figure 1: Conceptual Model

Methodology

A 3 (Use of Surname of the business: US Surname, Ethnic Surname, No surname) x 2 (explicit mention of the family ownership: Yes, No) between subjects experiment was used to test our hypotheses. Surname of the business was manipulated by varying the name between Smith, Ltd., Hernandez, Ltd., and Voyager, Ltd. Existing scales were used to measure our constructs including: trust in front-line employee, corporate reputation, brand heritage, brand preference, and purchase intention. There were induction checks for both company name and explicit mention of family ownership.

Conclusion

This research seeks to understand the impact that an explicit mention of family ownership and the use of the surname brand in the corporate name has on perceived differences in brand perceptions and purchase intention. This research may provide strong empirical evidence for managers to carefully and consciously select the right corporate brand name for a family-owned business. As well, this research may provide an additional justification to position the brand as family-owned to gain competitive advantage.

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**SESSION 4.1: STRATEGIC INSIGHTS: COMPETITION,
COLLABORATION, AND CONTROVERSY**

Chair:
Ravi Jilapalli, Texas State University

Summary Brief

A Firm's Propensity to Reshore: Dissecting the Reshoring Trend

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The trend to outsource and offshore has dominated the narrative in manufacturing, information technology, and marketing. But in recent years, there seems to be a fundamental shift in that narrative as several large firms are reshoring their manufacturing and services back to the US from abroad. Reshoring researchers have generally focused on the economic factors such as cost savings as the primary motivator that advances a firm's propensity to reshore. This research endeavors to develop a strategic framework to explore what motivates a firm's propensity to reshore beyond just economic factors.

Introduction

The onslaught of outsourcing and offshoring has not only permeated the manufacturing and IT sectors, but also the service sectors including healthcare, consulting, legal, banking, insurance, accounting, marketing, and human resources. Outsourcing in marketing has traditionally been limited to advertising and promotion campaigns. Citing a Forrester Research survey of 650 B2B marketing executives, the survey found that 53% have either offshored or outsourced more than half of their marketing activities (McGovern and Quelch, 2005). Outsourcing refers to hiring another company to perform a task that is currently performed internally. Typically, outsourced activities are deemed not central to the mission of a company or activities that outside vendors can perform more efficiently, with better response time and/or at better efficiency (Metters, King-Metters, Pullman and Walton, 2006). Offshoring refers to a firm's decision to relocate its service or manufacturing to another country. In either case, there is a significant loss of jobs to firms abroad. How many US jobs were offshored in the past few decades? According to the Congressional Research Services, the overall job loss to offshoring by 2015 was conservatively estimated to be approximately 3.4 million jobs (Levine, 2011).

Background

Since 2009, there seems to be a change in this offshoring narrative. Anecdotal evidence suggests that several manufacturing and service firms are reshoring to the US. Reshoring refers to a firm's decision to relocate its manufacturing and services operations back to the US from abroad. Large firms such as Apple, General Motors Corporation, General Electric, Whirlpool, Lenovo, Caterpillar, Ford Motor Corporation, Walmart, Caterpillar, NCR, and Boeing have moved some of their production to the US and have paved the way for numerous smaller firms to do the same (Cheng, 2015; Hagerty and Magnier, 2015; Foroohar, 2013; Plumer 2013). Regardless of politics, there seems to be an upward trend for reshoring since 2009 with 60,000 manufacturing jobs added in 2014 and a simultaneous decline in as many as 50,000 jobs that were offshored which is a significant net increase of 10,000 jobs (Cheng, 2015). Furthermore, according to reshorennow.org, the tide has turned in 2016 with a net increase of 27,000 reshoring jobs over offshoring jobs. However, the reshoring trend has not always been upward and positive. In 2015, there was a negative 6% dip in reshoring on comparison to the upward trend in 2014, indicating a temporary sputtering as the reshoring trend seems to gain steam (Sirkin, 2016).

The primary reasons cited by experts are the shrinking wage gap between China and the United States, rise in transportation costs, surge in cheap domestic energy due to shale gas drilling, delays in supply chain and customs, rise in the productivity of the American worker (Plumer, 2013; Hagerty and Magnier, 2015), and consumers' expectations of a quick turnaround of products (Sauter and Stebbins, 2016). It appears that economic factors such as cost savings are the primary drivers to reshore and little effort has been expended in examining the strategic factors driving the reshoring trend. The goal of this paper is to conceptualize the strategic factors other than cost savings that motivate a firm's propensity to reshore its productions. This leads to two important questions: Why do firms have a propensity to reshore? And (2) what motivates a firm's propensity to reshore?

The Explanatory Foundation of Firm Specific Strategic Reshoring Constructs

This research draws from the explanatory power of R-A theory (Hunt and Morgan 1997; Hunt 2002) and extends it to explain and predict the reshoring trend by (1) considering a firm's resources not just from a cost perspective, but also as both tangible and intangible. Intangible factors such as quality, expertise, efficiency, innovation, market-driven

learning, and reputation (competitive equity building) come into play when managers make reshoring decisions. Thus, by considering intangible factors, competent firms do simultaneously consider the intangible resources along with cost-savings, (2) Firms under intense competition tend to reshore to gain or maintain a competitive advantage over their competitors. Firms (US and non-US) in positions of competitive disadvantage tend to reshore some of their organizational activities to move from positions of disadvantage to positions of advantage. R-A Theory explains this phenomenon by recognizing that the market is dynamic and competition is disequilibrium provoking, (3) It is critical for a firm's management to recognize, understand, and modify strategies. One way that firms strategize to gain competitive advantage is to seek reshoring partners who can provide a market offering of competitive advantage, and (4) Firms are motivated to proactively develop competences in reshoring because firms anticipate potential market segments, envision market offerings, and foresee the need to acquire reshoring competences (Hunt 2002). Thus, the reshoring trend is driven by a firm's motive to capitalize on the perceived industry dynamism, to gain first mover advantage through competitive equity building, and a continuous inclination for market-driven learning. Additionally, firms understand that market-driven learning and competitive equity building play a prominent mediating role between perceived industry dynamism and a firm's propensity to reshore (Calantone and Schatzel, 2000). While extant research stresses the importance of economic factors, this research proposes the importance of strategic firm factors - market-driven learning, first-mover predisposition, and competence building equity - as motivators of a firm's propensity to reshore. The relationships among these constructs are pertinent and have strategic implications to marketing, information technology, and manufacturing.

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Presentation

Effect of Top Management Composition and Corporate Social Performance History on the Valuation Impact of Marketing Related Controversies

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Adding to previous research that has examined business controversies, this study looks at the role played by the chief marketing officer (CMO) presence in the top management team (TMT) and a firm's history of corporate social performance (CSP) on the stock market impact of marketing-related controversy news. The authors use signaling theory to argue that the presence of a CMO in the TMT and a history of strong corporate social performance provide an assurance to investors that the marketing-related controversy is an idiosyncratic firm event which is not likely to be repeated, and that the damage to firms' intangible market assets is likely to be lower.

Introduction

Of the various types of marketing-related controversies, those dealing with product recalls have been investigated the most. At the other end of the spectrum, research examining the impact of deceptive advertising and the three different types of infringement (i.e., copyright, trademark, and patent), is limited. Furthermore, no study to our knowledge, has grouped these issues into a single category of marketing-related controversies. Due to this gap in existing literature, several unanswered questions remain. Specifically, (1) What impact does a marketing-related controversy have on shareholder wealth? (2) Are firms facing a marketing-related controversy punished differently by the stock market based on if they have a chief marketing officer (CMO) present within the firm's top management team (TMT)? and (3) Are such firms punished differently by the stock market based on their history of corporate social performance (CSP)?

Theoretical Framework

First developed when examining labor markets, signaling theory (Spence, 1974) aims to deal with situations when there is asymmetric information. A prime example of this situation is when a company has more information about the quality of its product before the sale than the customer does. In this context, customers perceive the product's quality based on other factors, such as their previous experience with the product (Nelson, 1970). In a perfect world, the company and its stakeholders (i.e., the investors, employees, customers, etc.) have the same information, and the problem of asymmetry wouldn't arise. However, in the real world, this difference in information does exist, and factors that help stakeholders reduce the problem of asymmetric information have value.

Hypotheses

Previous research has indicated that product recall announcements (Rhee and Haunschild 2006), deceptive marketing tactics (Wiles et al. 2010), and patent infringement lawsuits (Bhagat, Bizjak, & Coles 1998) lead to a drop in stock price and as a result shareholder value.

H1: Marketing-related controversies will be associated with negative abnormal returns.

When such a controversy does occur, the role of marketing within a firm can help to reduce the asymmetry between the stakeholders and the firm. More specifically, building off of the signaling literature, and the greater customer orientation that a chief marketing officer (CMO) brings in firms, the presence of a CMO in the TMT can provide a signal to investors that the marketing-related controversy will be a one-time event that is likely to be managed appropriately.

H2: The abnormal return associated with news of marketing related controversies will be less negative for firms that have a chief marketing officer in their top management team.

CSR literature has shown that firms that engage in corporate philanthropy tend to be the beneficiaries of positive moral capital or goodwill (Godfrey, 2005). This positive moral capital or goodwill can lead to a positive reputation for the firm, which in turn can lead to long-term customer loyalty (Maignan and Ferrell 2004).

H3: The abnormal return associated with news of marketing-related controversies will be less negative for firms that have a history of superior corporate social performance.

Methodology

To develop our sample, we will use S&P Capital IQ database to identify publically traded firms that are listed on one of the three major U.S. stock exchanges (i.e., NYSE, AMEX, and NASDAQ). The years we are aiming to investigate are 2013 and 2014 (i.e., a 24-month span). Based on these criteria, we estimate a sample size of 150 to 200 marketing-related controversies. An event study methodology (Sorescu, Warren, and Ertekin 2017) will be used to calculate the abnormal returns for each firm surrounding the time of the marketing-related controversy. Abnormal returns will then be regressed against the focal independent variables (CMO presence and history of corporate social performance) and a number of firm and industry-specific controls.

Contributions

First, we extend marketing literature, by being the first study to our knowledge to group a set of negative events that are related to one of the four P's in marketing and examine the impact these events on shareholder wealth. Second, we highlight the benefit of having a high marketing influence in the upper echelons of a company to further demonstrate the positive benefit that marketing can have on shareholder wealth. Third, we extend existing research on corporate social performance (CSP) by highlighting the importance of CSP, and demonstrating that the influence of CSP extends beyond the overall impact on firm performance and that this impact is significant in the unique context of marketing-related controversies.

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Summary Brief

The Impact of SC Partners' Collaborative Feedback on Firms' Logistics Competencies

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Drawing on a knowledge-based view, and grounded in the knowledge process framework, our study emphasizes the importance of the relationship between inter-firm collaborative feedback and a firm's marketing orientation, as well as the impact on firms' forward and reverse logistics competencies. Further, we explore technological innovation as a potential moderator of the collaborative feedback-market orientation relationship.

Introduction

In order to establish a competitive advantage, firms rely on effective and efficient supply chain (SC) management processes (Hazen et al. 2015), which includes and depends on both its forward and reverse logistics competencies simultaneously. Forward logistics refers to the degree of efficiency, effectiveness, and differentiation associated with the movement of goods from a firm to a customer in a channel of distribution (Fugate et al. 2010). Alternately, reverse logistics competency refers to a firm's ability to master the processes and resources of the firm to effectively handle returns (Daugherty et al. 2001). Previous research has acknowledged the importance of both types of logistics competencies. However, studies have rarely explored both types of competencies simultaneously in their investigations. Drawing on a knowledge-based view (Grant 1996), and grounded in the knowledge process framework, our study emphasizes the importance of the relationship between inter-firm collaborative feedback and a firm's marketing orientation, as well as the impact on firms' forward and reverse logistics competencies. Further, we explore technological innovation as a potential moderator of the collaborative feedback-market orientation relationship.

Theoretical Lens

According to the KBV, knowledge, which can be conceptualized as the "fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information and expert insight that provide[s] a framework for evaluation and incorporating new experiences and information" (Davenport and Prusak 1997, p. 5), is believed to be the primary resource with which firms can establish a competitive advantage (Grant 1996). In addition, the knowledge management process framework asserts that processes such as the creation, retrieval, transfer, and application of knowledge contribute significantly to firms' success (Meier 2011). In the current context, knowledge creation is associated with access to and acquirement of external knowledge, knowledge transfer refers to the organizational transmission process whereby knowledge is transferred across firm units (e.g., via market orientation), and knowledge application describes how such knowledge is embedded and utilized, or exploited, to create value (e.g., logistics outcomes). Finally, technology acts as a knowledge process enabler, strengthening the knowledge creation-knowledge transfer relationship.

Hypotheses Development

Collaborative Feedback and Market Orientation

We conceptualize collaborative feedback (CF) as the extent to which organizations provide feedback to, receive feedback from, and engage in collaborative decision making with exchange partners (Joshi and Roh 2009). As firms serve different functions in the outbound and inbound logistics processes, CF between partners becomes critical as it enables inter-firm information dissemination and reception, essential elements in initiating knowledge creation.

Jaworski and Kohli (1993) point out that a firm's market orientation (MO) refers to "the organization-wide generation of market intelligence, dissemination of the intelligence across departments, and organization-wide responsiveness to it" (p. 53). By establishing an ongoing and reciprocal pattern of feedback systems with SC partners, firms can better understand expectations and internalize market knowledge in a timelier manner. Consistent with this argument, Kumar et al. (2011) suggest that firms' investment in collaborative activities, such as active information acquisition through multiple channels, allows firms to incorporate customers' voices into every aspect of firms' activities. This assists in the more rapid sharing and dissemination of knowledge acquired from firms' customers and competition. Taken together, we hypothesize (H1) a firm's CF activities are positively related with its MO.

Logistics Competencies

SC literature considers the application of market knowledge as a core driver of SC competitiveness (Hazen et al. 2015). Extant literature suggests that firms capable of knowledge transfer exhibit higher levels of productivity than do firms without this important skill. More specifically, research indicates that a market orientation (MO) “encourages a focus on continuously improving the firm’s process and systems” (Kumar et al. 2011, p. 17). Thus, a firm’s MO is crucial to improving the efficiency and effectiveness of both its forward and reverse logistics processes. Therefore, we propose (H2): A firm’s MO is positively associated with its (a) forward and (b) reverse logistics competencies.

Technology Innovation

Technological innovation is conceptualized in line with research from Parasuraman (2000) as a firm’s “tendency to be a technology pioneer and thought leader” (p. 311). Among SC partners, technology can be used to transfer and store CF and to facilitate collaborative decision making. Likewise, it can be used within firms for transmission, storage, purposes, and processing of information to be more responsive to customer needs. Thus, we propose that (H3) a firm’s level of IT innovation has a positive moderating influence on the relationship between its CF activities and MO.

Discussion

Our research makes several important contributions to the academy by emphasizing the importance of inter-organizational CF as a means of strengthening intra-organizational knowledge dissemination in an effort to better serve customers through increased forward and reverse logistics competencies. Specifically, this research: (1) assesses the overall logistics process instead of a one-way logistical flow, (2) expands our understanding of the KBV and associated knowledge management processes, (3) introduces the influence of technology innovation for the intra- and inter-firm knowledge management processes, and (4) emphasizes the necessity of optimizing shared information from SC partners, which provides a means to strengthen B2B marketing relationships and enhance logistics competencies.

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SESSION 4.2: LEGAL ISSUES IN PUBLIC POLICY

Chair:

Travis Simkins, Arkansas State University

Summary Brief

Marijuana Edibles: Exploring the Impact of Decriminalization and Legalization of Marijuana on Young Consumers' Consumption

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Merlyn A. Griffiths, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, USA

Marijuana continues to grow in popularity, use and consumption in the U.S., fueled by the legalization and decriminalization across multiple states. Many consumers have interpreted this change in policy as a signal of innocuity. Others believe that marijuana still poses significant risks and dangers, and should maintain legal and criminal constraint. While the debate ensues, and policies for regulation remain influx, marijuana edibles are being produced and marketed, appealing to young consumers. Employing a qualitative methodological approach, we explore consumer perception of the impact of legalization and decriminalization of marijuana on consumer consumption. More specifically, we examine the effect on adolescents and young consumers' consumption of marijuana edibles. Contrary to 1980's views of marijuana as a controlled substance, we find that consumer attitudes and beliefs have changed and, are more favorable toward the drug, further contributing to increasing consumption of edibles.

Introduction

Marijuana use is gaining popularity throughout the United States, as a growing number of states have made it legal for medicinal use, and in some states, recreational use. Legalization of medical marijuana raises concerns about increased accessibility and appeal of the drug to youth and young adults (Choo et al. 2014). This concern is exacerbated by scientific reports that indicate use of marijuana by adolescents (ages 12 to 18 years) results in negative effects on their still-developing brains. More specifically, “adolescence, and teens who engage in heavy marijuana use often show disadvantages in neurocognitive performance, macrostructural and microstructural brain development, and alterations in brain functioning” (Jacobus & Tapert 2014). Marijuana is one of the most commonly used illegal substances in the United States and the attitude of youth and young adult consumers toward marijuana consumption is dramatically changing. We argue that the decriminalization and legalization of marijuana will result in an even greater decrease of perceived harmfulness and an increase in adolescent use. Traditionally, marijuana is smoked and inhaled, which is the most common form of consuming the drug. However, the legal advances facilitating the accessibility of the drug has also resulted in an increase in the different methods of consumption. If consumers prefer not to smoke, they can consume it through food. A growing range of edible marijuana products have become available with variations in the potency of the main ingredient. This has served to further increase consumers' level of comfort and belief in the innocuity of the drug and its potential effects. Adopting a qualitative approach, this study explores consumer perceptions and attitudes toward edible marijuana, and beliefs about the impact on young consumers.

Background

Of the many concerns regarding the legalization of marijuana, one is the increase in acceptance and subsequent consumption. Opponents of the legislative move, argue that decriminalization signal to youth and young adults, that marijuana is not at all dangerous. This leads young consumers to believe that cannabis in any form does not pose an addictive threat, and therefore is without the typical dangers associated with illicit drugs. As such, marijuana is accepted as usable for fun and without consequences. Potential for consumption is even greater as procurement becomes easier and transportation and sale of marijuana do not have to be accomplished covertly anymore. Accessibility to marijuana has resulted in new ways of consumption, the most popular being marijuana “edibles.” MacCoun and Mello (2015) argues that new edibles raise public health concerns as edibles tend to resemble sugary snacks that are attractive to kids. Some states have experienced an increase in accidental consumption by children. Response to this issue is being left up to the states because marijuana products are not federally regulated. Furthermore,

social media, greatly used by teenagers, helps destigmatizing the use of marijuana by posting contents about it and encouraging its use.

Key Findings

This study shows that overall, consumers do not view marijuana negatively. When comparing edibles with smoking marijuana, most consumers saw edibles as a better option. In terms of adolescents, both smoking or consuming edibles, some participants believed it was inappropriate for their use. However, others believed it is less damaging, less potent and less likely to have addictive outcomes compared to what they called ‘hard drugs.’ Consumers are unaware, or unsure, of the risks that it poses to adolescent development. However, for many, the potential risks are moot if the adolescent user is suffering from an ailment that can be treated with marijuana. Consumer perceptions about legalization and decriminalization appear to fall on either side of the argument that they will either increase/decrease use or not affect adolescents at all because curiosity trumps the legality of use. For consumers, education is more important than is advertising or marketing. Based on the perceptions of our participants, a more deliberate effort should be made in educating the population rather than selling to them. Many consumers tend to make assumptions concerning the risks, benefits, and effects of marijuana in any form. While they are mostly for the legalization of marijuana and its related products, they stress that education is key for everyone to make clear and informed decisions. With respect to policy makers, this study highlight the fact that packaging and design features are insufficient in minimizing the potential for accidental consumption by adolescents. Medical personnel, policy makers and others in favor of legalizing and decriminalizing marijuana must understand consumers’ general perception about the drug. Our findings demonstrate that marijuana is perceived as a holistic alternative for various medications. Some consumers believe the danger of prescription drugs is far greater than marijuana, and further, depending on man-made drugs for illnesses has a greater likelihood of resulting in addiction.

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Presentation

Marketing When Policies Conflict: Lessons from Marijuana

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Stephanie Gieger-Oneto, University of Wyoming, USA

Passage of state laws legalizing the sale of marijuana have made salient the issue of marketing in an environment of conflicting laws, given that federal prohibition of its sale has not changed. An examination of the marijuana industry brings to light several effects of this conflict in the legal environment for marketers and for consumers, leading to consideration of how public policy changes might mitigate at least some of these effects. In addition, examining this one industry with conflicting laws prompts interest in others where marketers face inconsistent legal environments, a perspective that may be increasingly useful if policies now resolved at the federal level are increasingly resolved at lower levels of government. Examples of affected marketing domains might range from plastic shopping bags to emissions-limiting vehicles and equipment to controversial women's health services.

Introduction

As of 2017, the use of marijuana for medical purposes is legal in 29 states and the District of Columbia, and recreational marijuana is legal in 8 states and the District of Columbia (procon.org, 2017, Robinson 2017). North American marijuana sales grew by an unprecedented 30% in 2016 to \$6.7 billion, and are projected to top \$20.2 billion by 2021 (Borchardt 2017). To put this in perspective, this industry growth is larger and faster than what was experienced during the dot-com era. Moreover, according to one analysis, more than half of the U.S. population now resides in states where sellers and buyers are actively engaging in activities that, while legal in their respective states, are in direct violation of federal law (Huddleston Jr. 2016).

Essentially, States are engaged in the regulation and taxation of an industry and product where all conduct remains illegal at the Federal level. This condition encapsulates the term “dual legality” of marijuana. This conflict of laws at the state and federal levels invites an examination of how public policies might be revised in this domain. While this work focuses primarily on the marketing of marijuana, mismatches in the legal environment for marketing have broader public policy implications as well. Quite possibly such mismatches will face marketers in additional product categories as states are encouraged to chart their own course in controversial areas, from emissions-limiting vehicles and equipment to such women's health services as contraception and abortion.

Effects of the Dual Legality of Marijuana

While at present, directives from the Federal Governments indicate that participants in this industry will not be prosecuted if they follow set rules, an examination of the marijuana marketplace reveals a number of other significant issues that are raised by the dual legality of marijuana. These include the: (1) effects on neighboring states; (2) lack of federal product quality regulation; (3) inability to protect brand names; and (4) the financial complexities associated with “illegal” businesses.

Policy Alternatives

Although the U.S. Drug Enforcement Agency (DEA) recently denied a petition to reschedule marijuana (Wallace 2016), rescheduling is just one approach to conflicting legalities. Other alternative include: (1) enforce prohibition; (2) maintain the status quo; (3) deschedule marijuana; and (4) other “hybrid” types of options.

Beyond Marijuana: Inconsistent Legal Environments for Marketing

The realities of public policy concerning marijuana and its marketing suggest lessons for other product categories. In these categories, the conflicting laws may be between states rather than between states and the federal government, or between a set of cities and the rest of the United States. As noted previously, not all states treat emissions requirements the same, just as one example, and it is plausible to imagine conflicting laws concerning marketing of contraception and abortion services. Six U.S. cities, including Los Angeles and Chicago, ban the use of plastic shopping bags, and that number certainly may increase (NCSL.org, 2016). Many counties and also cities as large as Denver, CO, and Miami, FL, ban pit bulls. It is therefore reasonable to assess lessons learned in categories beyond -- but including -- marijuana.

For example, if states have contradictory laws, they likely also have contradictory social norms and enforcement priorities. If most Oklahoma voters, for example, had wanted marijuana to be legally available, they would presumably have followed the lead of Colorado and voted it in. Considering how states differ in educational priorities, support for gun ownership, and response to immigrants, it seems naïve to expect that their marketing priorities coincide. Allowing states to opt out of federal laws, whether those laws prohibit marijuana sales or require insurance coverage of contraceptives, recognizes cultural differences. Marketers despair of inconsistent rules to follow, but as voters begin to understand the downsides of setting rules and then ignoring them, they may reason that inconsistency is the marketers' problem, not theirs. States have long been seen as laboratories for the development of policies that need to be tested, and California's stricter pollution control of vehicles and equipment.

Additionally, as long as travel between states remains universally legal, consumers whose norms differ from those of their state can travel to purchase what they want -- if they can afford such travel. As with many categories of purchases, money solves problems. Therefore the best argument for federal laws making universally available what may otherwise be forbidden by states -- or even cities -- is consideration of what resource-poor consumers cannot obtain. Many observers would put medical marijuana and controversial women's health services into that category, but would leave recreational marijuana to state norms.

Finally, the likely Canadian approach -- an extremely regulated market, with consistent and enforced policy all at the national level -- should be watched with interest. It gives marketers the uniformity of regulation they presumably favor, at the cost of regulation that appears not much more extreme than what takes place currently in marijuana-legal states. And happily, it does eliminate the need to deal with money laundering laws -- or those that require putting cash in the dryer with Febreze.

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SESSION 4.3: THE FUTURE: SERVICES AND SERVING THE INDUSTRY

Chair:

Rachel K. Smith, The University of Mississippi

Presentation

The Roles Gender and Service Experience Play in Tipping Behavior Among Millennials

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Mark Mayer, Indiana University, USA

The purpose of this study is to contribute to services marketing literature exploring tipping behavior and specifically that of Millennial-aged consumers. Millennials represent the largest generation in the United States, but few studies on tipping behavior and attitudes toward tipping by consumers have considered this population. We conducted an online experiment with attached survey in order to explore this services marketing dynamic. Experimental results as well as subjects' survey responses revealed statistically significant differences in both attitudinal and behavioral intent of tip amounts in service situations of differing quality. These differences were driven by participant gender, the presence of service employment experience, and the interaction of those two independent variables. We also briefly discuss limitations of the current project as well as suggestions for additional research further exploring this marketing context.

In the context of business transactions, a tip can be described as an optional reward, gift, or money given by a customer to a service worker (e.g., waiter/waitress) to express appreciation for good service. Leaving 15 to 20 percent tips for good service at restaurants is a social norm and over the last three decades, several scientific studies have been conducted to examine the reasons why and how people give tips, what waiters and waitresses can do to increase their tips, and individual demographic differences in tipping behavior.

Despite the fact that Millennials (i.e., individuals born between 1980 and the mid-2000s) are the largest generation in the U.S.), very few of the tipping studies have examined the behavior and attitudes of this group towards tipping. Given that service providers, especially waiters and waitresses, depend on tips as a vital source of their income, it would be beneficial for managers in the service industry to understand the reasons why Millennials give tips, how those with prior service experience react to tipping, how gender influences tipping, and what they can do to encourage them to be generous. In this project, we take the first steps in examining these service marketing dynamics.

In this study, 254 participants were tasked with answering a 32 question, approximately 20 minute, survey. Our survey was created in Qualtrics, and fielded online through Survey Sampling International (SSI) with millennial-aged consumers from its consumer research panel (subjects were entered into a drawing to win prizes per their contract with SSI). We asked participants a scenario-based question first to explore behavioral intents towards tipping, and then a series of questions exploring attitudes toward tipping. Finally, demographic information (including whether subjects had service experience) was captured.

In the opening scenario, we described a restaurant visit as follows: Imagine you have just eaten at a local restaurant. You enjoyed the meal, and the service was very good. The server was friendly and conscientious, and your order came out quickly and correctly prepared. The rest of the meal also went very well. The final bill for your meal came to \$20. How much would you tip based on that bill? (Please enter the amount in the text box below). Of the 254 responses, we deemed 216 (85.4%) useable, as participants gave appropriate (a numerical response) answer to this question and did not have a standardized value (z-score) over 3, as those who did were likely outliers that could have had an improperly strong individual influence on the overall test.

The average tip left by male millennials was higher at \$6.97, whereas for females it was \$5.84 ($F(1, 206) = 9.16$, $p < .05$). However, further examination revealed this was driven by a significant sex * service experience interaction ($p < .05$), with males Millennials with service experience leaving an average of \$8.59 (vs. without experience of \$5.35), whereas female Millennials with service experience left \$5.39 on average (vs. \$4.98 without experience). Interestingly, all of these amounts were above the “rule-of-thumb” 20% tip amount (which would have yielded a \$4 tip), suggesting that in this scenario-based setting, Millennials as a whole were (at least hypothetically) strong tipppers.

Through a series of 5-pt. semantic scale survey questions exploring attitudes toward tips (e.g., “Tipping is a good way to reward waiters or waitresses for excellent service”), reasons for why tips were given (“I give tips because it makes me feel good to do so”), and types of industries tipping was appropriate for (“I usually tip pizza delivery

drivers”) we attempted to explore general attitudes towards tips and some of the motivation (e.g., intrinsic vs. extrinsic) for doing so. Perhaps the most interesting findings here were that despite the scenario-based results, female Millennials overall seemed to have more positive attitudes toward tipping, whereas male Millennials—while still generally favorable toward tipping—were lower, especially those of male Millennials with service experience (e.g., for the question “I do not like to give tips to waiters or waitresses” Males with service experience level of agreement on a 5-pt. scale was 2.5, versus 2.1 with no experience, and versus 1.5 and 1.7 for females with and without experience, respectively). Another gestalt takeaway of the survey questions was that male tipping habits tended to correlate more to a play-for-performance perspective while the tipping habits of female Millennials were more in line with a tip-because-of-empathy for their server/service provider type perspective. Also, we found some evidence that males’ reasons for tipping were different than females’, with variables like “I give tips to impress my friends” and “to impress servers” being statistically higher for males Millennials than females whereas females’ tipping attitudes are more about being a reward for the server.

With this project (and the data collected) there were a few limitations. First, we had a relatively low proportion of respondents with service experience than those without, so additional subjects would be beneficial. Subjects saw only a generic positive service experience on which to base the tip, and further research could treat this with various experimental conditions to see how a suboptimal, superior, etc. service experience would be rewarded, and could also consider the service level versus manipulated expectations of service. Finally, this was simply an initial survey (with a small scenario) exploring this topic, and we did not obtain open-ended responses allowing respondents to more fully express opinions and allowing us to perhaps better understand the underlying causality behind consumers’ tip amounts.

SESSION 4.4: IDENTIFICATION AND BRANDING IN SALES

Chair:
Eri Gillespie, Elon University

Summary Brief

Firm Level Drivers of Salesperson Brand Identification

Lee Allison, Eastern Kentucky University, USA

Brand identification has been shown to strengthen positive brand behaviors (e.g. WOM, brand engagement, brand effort), but research to investigate the antecedents of salesperson brand identification is limited. Using a relationship-marketing lens, this research seeks to address that gap, and examines firm level brand relationship investments and leader brand identification as potential antecedents. We conclude with findings with theoretical and managerial implications.

Introduction

Research indicates brand identification influences positive salesperson and organizational (performance) outcomes. However, extant research provides no insight in terms of how the organization can activate these outcomes. Adopting a relationship marketing theory perspective, this research considers the influence that the company's internal marketing programs may have on salesperson brand identification. Consistent with prior research, we also test brand engagement and sales performance as consequents of salesperson brand identification. See Figure 1.

Conceptual Background and Hypothesis Development

Relationship marketing (RM) research links success with the customer to the firm's performance (Grönroos 1981; Berry 1980, 1981), and views internal marketing (IM) as a mechanism for coordinating RM activities aimed at employees (Berry 1981). IM strategy directly influences employee experience, attitudes and behavior impacting internal and external market outcomes. Relational investments are IM strategy components known to influence the firm's external relationships with customers. Such relational investments also influence the firm's relationships with its internal customers. This research investigates whether the influence of IM relationship investments has the capability to (1) foster internal customer brand identification, and (2) motivate salespeople's brand specific behavior. Investments vary, but include those made in people, assets, processes and procedures. Beneficial accruals from investments (e.g. training, communication, support, incentives) are robust (Blau 1964). Investments increase reciprocity behaviors (Smith and Barclay, 1997) and influence consumer relationship quality (De Wulf, Odekerken-Schroder, and Iacobucci, 2001). Brand relationship investment is expected to build a salesperson's identification with the brand. The firm's brand relationship investments evidence the firm's interest in the salesperson (internal customer) and should engender reciprocity driven behaviors that directly improve performance (e.g. engagement). Thus, brand identification and engagement are expected to mediate the influence of investments on performance. This research draws upon role theory to explain salesperson brand identification behavior is modeled after the manager behaviors. We hypothesize:

- H1a:** Brand relationship investments increase salesperson brand identification.
- H1b:** Brand relationship investments increase salesperson brand performance.
- H2:** Leader brand identification increases salesperson brand identification.
- H3:** Salesperson brand identification increases brand engagement.
- H4:** Salesperson brand identification increases brand performance.
- H5:** Salesperson brand engagement increases brand performance.

Table 1: Correlations

	BRI	LBID	SBID	ENG	PERF
LBID	1.00				
SBID	0.67*	1.00			
ENGA	0.65*	0.77*	1.00		
BRI	0.58*	0.76*	0.81*	1.00	
PERF	0.67*	0.84*	0.80*	0.78*	1.00

Method and Results

Dyadic manager-salesperson panel data were collected from generally homogeneous firms in the US beer industry. Of seventy managers contacted, sixty (86%) participated in the study. Each manager worked for a different company preventing nesting of organization / managers in the dataset. Managers invited their salespeople to respond resulting in 301 salesperson participants. Most constructs were measured using multi-item scales associated with high reliabilities in the literature. Correlations are shown in Table 1. Convergent and discriminant validity were supported (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Descriptive statistics and construct assessments are provided in Table 2. The design effect was less than two, suggesting the nested effect of data can be ignored. The final model, CFA and goodness of fit statistics are provided in Appendices 1 2, and 3, respectively.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics and Scale Tests for Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	AVE	LSV	CR	α
<i>Between</i>						
1. Leader Brand Identification	4.97	1.45	0.91	0.00	0.99	0.97
2. Salesperson Brand Identification	4.60	1.44	0.90	0.00	0.82	0.96
<i>Within</i>						
3. Salesperson Brand Identification	4.60	1.44	0.87	0.65	0.99	0.96
4. Salesperson Brand Engagement	3.49	0.75	0.62	0.69	1.00	0.97
5. Brand Relationship Investments	4.86	1.20	0.68	0.06	0.99	0.97
6. Salesperson Brand Performance	5.60	1.75	0.90	0.46	0.99	0.96

Note: N=301

We tested several models without / with mediation per the literature. Log-likelihood difference test suggests that the mediation model provides the best fit to our data. The final two-level path model provided acceptable fit to the data: $X^2(19) = 50.060$, $p < .0000$; value for within standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) = 0.019, value for between standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) = 0.174, the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) = .074. CFI = 0.961 and TLI=0.931. The good fit of the measurement model supports the fundamental assumption of unidimensionality (Gerbing and Anderson 1988). Results of our hypothesis testing follow.

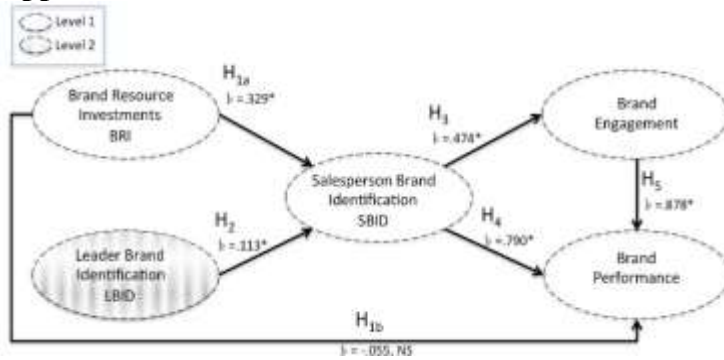
- H1a:** Brand Relationship Investments influences salesperson brand identification; supported ($\beta = 0.329$, $p < 0.000$).
- H1b:** Brand Relationship Investments influences salesperson performance; not supported ($\beta = -0.055$, NS).
- H2:** Leader brand identification influences salesperson brand identification; supported ($\beta = 0.113$, .006).
- H3:** Salesperson brand identification influences brand engagement; supported ($\beta = 0.474$, $p < 0.000$).
- H4:** Salesperson brand identification influences brand performance; supported ($\beta = 0.790$, $p < 0.000$).
- H5:** Salesperson brand engagement influences brand performance; supported ($\beta = 0.878$, $p < 0.000$).

Contribution and Limitations

The study identified levers a firm might use to build identification among internal customers (salespeople) for its portfolio of brands. The work contributes to theory and practice by identifying two antecedents of brand identification residing under the purview of the firm, overcoming foci on antecedents outside the firm's influence attending prior studies. The work provides a results-driven rationale for adopting the strategy, given the positive impact on critical outcomes inarguably important to sales teams.

Limitations of this study relate to the panel and cross sectional nature of the data, respondents in a single industry, and subjective performance reports.

Appendix 1: Multilevel Path Model Results



Appendix 2: Fit Statistics - Two-Level Path Model

Model Fit Information	Model
Number of Free Parameters	13
Loglikelihood	
H0 Value	-1092.813
H1 Value	-1089.394
MLR	
Information Criteria	
Akaike (AIC)	2211.626
Bayesian (BIC)	2255.818
Sample-Size Adjusted BIC	2218.590
(n* = (n+2) / 24)	
Chi-Square Test of Model Fit	
Value	6.837
Degrees of Freedom	1
P-value	0.0089
RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation)	
Estimate	0.139
CFI/TLI	
CFI	0.989
TLI	0.925
Chi-Square Test of Model Fit for Baseline Model	
Value	550.890
Degrees of Freedom	7
P-Value	0.0000
SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual)	
Value for Within	0.030
Value for Between	0.050

Appendix 3: Standardized Estimates Standard Errors Multilevel Path Model

		Est. (SE)
Model		
SBID	← BRI	0.329*(0.066)
ENG	← SBID	0.474*(0.026)
PERF	← SBID	0.790*(0.070)
	← ENG	0.878*(0.133)
	← BRI	-0.055*(0.052)
LBID	← SBID	0.113*(0.042)

Note: N=301; Cluster=60

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**SESSION 4.6: QUESTIONABLE CONSUMER CHOICES: LEGAL AND
ILLEGAL**

Chair:

Diane R. Edmondson, Middle Tennessee State University

Summary Brief

Explaining Consumer Purchase or Adoption of Illicit Products: Motivations and Ethical Orientation

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With advances in technology and transportation, the opportunities to purchase or adopt illicit products have increased. An illicit product can be legal in one country and illegal in another. There is more trade of illicit products such as drugs, sex services, and products from endangered species. The purpose of this study is to answer why some individuals purchase or adopt illicit products and what is their ethical orientation, if this orientation also helps understand their motives. Applying the Theory of Planned Behavior, findings suggest that attitudes and subjective norms influence consumers' intentions to purchase an illicit product. Furthermore, applying the Hunt-Vitell Theory of Marketing Ethics, this research finds that deontological evaluations of illicit purchases have a predominant role in forming consumers' ethical judgement, but only compete in importance with consequential considerations when making decisions regarding the purchase or acquisition of illicit products.

Introduction

Consider the following scenario at a local sporting goods store: Jim, a 25 year old graduate student, is buying a pair of name-brand sneakers. For weeks, he's read in the newspaper and viewed on television that a company that makes his favorite named brand of shoes uses child labor in an underdeveloped nation that does not enforce child labor laws. Despite the fact that Jim knows that child labor is wrong, he proceeds to purchase the shoes.

As described in the opening scenario, Jim continued to buy the sneakers despite knowing it is wrong. Although the sneakers are not illegal, they are illicit. Consumption of legal products of dubious origin is not only limited to sneakers. Other illicit products are increasingly being consumed throughout the world. Indeed, this problem has grown to such proportions that the Economist (2013) suggested that this is a global, multibillion dollar industry: Drug Trafficking (\$320 billion); Counterfeit and Pirated Goods (\$250 billion); Human Trafficking (\$32 billion); Wildlife Tracking (\$19 billion); Oil Trade (\$0.6 billion); (Daily Chart Illegal markets, 2013). In some cases, such as recreational drugs, these illegal products mentioned above are becoming illegal. Other figures suggest that the entire illicit products market totals \$650 billion USD and illicit financial flows total \$1.3 trillion USD (World Economic Forum, 2012). For the purpose of this study, an illicit product is a product that may be legal to purchase or acquire in one entity but illegal in another. Probably one of the most obvious examples of an illicit product is marijuana. It is legal to consume or purchase marijuana in certain countries and states (within the United States), but illegal in others.

Conceptual Development

To approach consumer motivations to purchase or acquire illicit goods, the Theory of Planned Behavior is used. The Theory of Planned behavior suggests that an individual's behavior is influenced by his or her intentions. Intention is comprised of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Attitude is when an individual feels either favorably or unfavorably about performing a specific behavior. Subjective norms is when an individual perceives social pressure towards engaging in a specific behavior. Perceived Behavioral Control takes into consideration the extent of control in performing a specific behavior, in other words, an individual's perception of the ease to execute the behavior (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen, 1991, p. 181).

To approach consumer ethical orientation, a widely established theory of business ethics is used. The Hunt-Vitell General Theory of Marketing Ethics (HV Theory) is an accepted theory that provides a framework for understanding principal-agent interactions (Hunt-Vitell, 1986; 1992; 2006). The HV Theory provides a general theory of ethical decision making that draws on both deontological and teleological ethical evaluations from moral philosophy. The theory explains how an individual might approach an ethical problem and the different alternatives that an individual might take in order to resolve the problem. The HV Theory provides an illustration how ethical decisions are made.

Conclusion, Managerial and Policy Implications

The buying and selling of illicit products is a world-wide problem. This phenomenon invites researchers to evaluate consumer motivations to purchase or adopt illicit products as well as their ethical orientation. The results of

this study suggest that subjective norms and perceived behavioral control are highly contingent on the favorability or unaffordability of the act of purchasing or acquiring an illicit product. Furthermore, teleological evaluations and ethical judgements significantly impact consumers' intentions.

As the trade of illicit goods increase, such as pirated goods, the stigma of buying these products decreases. The buying and selling of these goods puts enormous economic pressure on firms that seek to legitimately market and sell their products in formal retailing channels. This is what the relationship between subjective norms and consumer intentions to purchase an illicit product suggests.

There are managerial and policy implications. First, managers need to strive to verify if the products they offer are licit for consumption. When managers are selling illicit products, they are contributing to the corruption of the entire market. As the results of this study have shown, subjective norms play a key role in consumer intention to consume illicit products. When everyone is consuming illicit products, consumers have less motivations to restrain unethical behavior. As pointed out in the Economist, the trade of counterfeit products has exploded since the economic collapse of 2008. Indeed, the buying and selling of pirated products now accounts for 1.8% of global trade. Companies and other associated business lose billions of dollars a year in potential sales, putting their economic livelihoods at risk (Counterfeiting and piracy: Stamping it out, 2016).

As a consequence, when managers and consumers are provided with the opportunity to buy and sell illicit products, motivations, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control can all influence a consumer to purchase a product that has negative consequences for the entire market. Policy makers are faced with mitigating the externalities of these consequences so that no one group or stakeholder is faced with the entire problem.

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Summary Brief

Marijuana Use Judged: Attitudes and Ethical Orientation

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With advances in technology and transportation, and the increase in the legalization of marijuana use, the opportunities to purchase and adopt marijuana products have become trendy. The purpose of this study is to examine why some consumers purchase and adopt marijuana products and to also know the ethical orientation of consumers judging marijuana consumption. Using the theory of reasoned action, our findings suggest that motivations and subjective norms influence consumer's intention to purchase or adopt these types of products. Using the Hunt-Vitell theory of marketing ethics, this research finds that both teleological and deontological orientations influence consumer's ethical judgement and decision making in purchasing marijuana products. Theoretical and methodological conclusions are derived. In addition, taking into account the rapid legalization of marijuana products, some policy implications are considered.

Introduction

Several states have legalized marijuana sales in the United States. Colorado is probably one of the most notable cases. Decriminalization of marijuana has created some interesting scenarios within the United States. Colorado borders three states that have cannabis prohibition: Utah, Wyoming, and Nebraska (Ferner, 2014). People travelling from other places to Colorado to consume legalized pot are fueling "Marijuana Tourism" in the state (Weed, 2015). Indeed, the problem has grown to such proportions that certain state law enforcement agencies where marijuana is still illegal, no longer go out of their way to arrest consumers returning home with their purchase. As attitudes towards marijuana change, the "fault lines" of this debate have also formed along state boundaries (Fisher, 2014). Celebrities such as Bill Maher have challenged the conflicting messages that the state and federal governments have been sending (Bradley, 2016). In many cases, medical marijuana is the first to become legalized. Subsequently, the legalization of recreational marijuana follows. Increasingly, it is legal to consume or purchase marijuana products in certain countries and states (within the United States), but remains illegal in others.

In order to uncover consumer motivations that proceed consumption behavior must be uncovered. Consumer motivation also relates to the ethical orientation of consumers and how these consumers form ethical judgements that make ethical decisions when purchasing or adopting marijuana products. Moreover, the way consumers form ethical judgements and make ethical decisions when acquiring marijuana products needs to be uncovered. This research attempts to fill the gap in the consumer behavior literature by examining the motivations behind the purchase or adoption of marijuana products. Furthermore, we attempt to uncover how ethical orientations influence consumer judgements and decision making when confronted with the opportunity to purchase or adopt marijuana products. This is important because many countries, states, and cities in the United States and around the world, are increasingly legalizing marijuana products for both medical and recreational purposes.

Conceptual Development

To uncover consumer motivations and ethical orientation of the consumption of marijuana, the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) and the Hunt-Vitell General Theory of Marketing Ethics (Hunt and Vitell, 1986; 1992; 2006) will be used.

The Theory of Reasoned Action suggests that an individual's behavior is influenced by his or her intentions. Intention is comprised of attitude and subjective norm. Attitude is when an individual feels either favorable or unfavorable about performing a specific behavior. Subjective norms is when an individual perceives social pressure towards engaging in a specific behavior. This direct relationship between intention and behavior is based on the assumption that the stronger the intention to act on a behavior, the stronger the likelihood that an individual will perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991, p. 181).

The Hunt-Vitell General Theory of Marketing Ethics is an accepted theory that provides a framework for understanding principal agent interactions. It also provides a general theory of ethical decision making that draws on

both deontological and teleological ethical evaluations from moral philosophy. The theory explains how an individual might approach an ethical problem and the different alternatives that individual might take to resolve an ethical problem (Hunt and Vitell, 1986; 1992; 2006).

Conclusion and Policy Implications

There are several policy implications that result from this study. There are two primary motivations to purchase or adopt marijuana: medical and recreational. In most cases, it appears that the legalization of recreational marijuana follows the legalization of medical marijuana. These motivations, in turn, have created two new groups of consumers for marijuana. Marketers, entrepreneurs, consumers and policy makers need to work close together when legalizing cannabis. The legalization of marijuana is opening new business opportunities for its production, distribution, and sale. Businesses that support the marijuana trade such as banking, tourism, hotel, and insurance not only should take into consideration the legal ramifications of supporting entrepreneurs that produce and market illicit products, but also the ethical ramifications. Although it appears that law enforcement of marijuana laws appear to be weak, marijuana entrepreneurs should understand that their customers could face serious fines or even jail time if they are caught returning home with their purchase. With lower inhibitions and stigma surrounding marijuana, both for medical and recreational use, marketers, entrepreneurs, consumers, and policy makers should understand the positive and negative consequences of marijuana use.

As pointed out by the Economist (2016), the legalization of marijuana has spared many individuals from jail time, criminal records, and ruined lives. The legalization of marijuana has also removed the criminal element surrounding the trade of cannabis. Governments have also been able to raise funds through taxation and save resources for local police departments through marijuana legalization. On the other hand, marketers, entrepreneurs, consumers, and policy makers need to be aware if marijuana could lead to addiction, other drugs, and other public health hazards. These groups should also evaluate how marijuana should be marketed and sold and how to protect children, teenagers, pregnant women, and other vulnerable groups from aggressive marketing campaigns and perhaps other long-term health concerns. As the legalization and decriminalization of marijuana continues, opportunities to purchase or acquire it will increase. Consumers will face pressure from peers and celebrities to consume marijuana. As a result, consumers will face ethical dilemmas that will require them to make ethical judgements that could influence their intention to purchase or acquire marijuana.

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**SESSION 4.7: PANEL PRESENTATION: INCORPORATING
EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING IN MARKETING EDUCATION**

Chair:

Jeff W. Totten, McNeese State University

Special Session

Incorporating Experiential Learning in Marketing Education

Brian Buckler, Avila University, USA

John Drea, Illinois College, USA

Chip Heath, Northern Kentucky University, USA

Samer Sarofim, California State University, Fresno, USA

Jeff Totten (Chair), McNeese State University, USA

Five professors representing institutions from small, private schools to large state universities will discuss and field questions focused on incorporating experiential learning in the marketing classroom, particularly strategic marketing and marketing research. Focus areas will include client selection, managing client contact and expectations, presentation, as well as follow up.

Introduction

We incorporate experiential learning exercises and assignments in a variety of our undergraduate and MBA Marketing classes, including Internet/Digital Marketing, IMC, Marketing Research, and Marketing Management. We will discuss the processes we use according to the following topics: client selection, contact management, managing client expectations, preparing students for presentations to clients, and follow-up activities with the clients.

Client Selection

Dr. Sarofim's students form consulting groups and work with actual local business to solve a real marketing problem. They pitch their service to a variety of local businesses, conduct interviews, and select clients with relevant and challenging problems. Sometimes local businesses and/or nonprofits contact Dr. Totten about possible project topics. Often he suggests the students contact their family businesses, businesses they work for, nonprofits they volunteer at, and their local places of worship.

Managing the Contact

Dr. Heath secures 1 or 2 clients. They visit class in person and present about their business followed by a 1 on 1 interviewing session for each group alone. We then meet as a class and develop a common digital strategy before each group takes off on their own creating incredible content and campaign ideas.

Managing Client Expectations

In the spring term, Totten's Research students undertake full-blown research projects for outside clients. They develop the purpose, methodology, and questionnaire, and collect the data. They learn how to use SPSS to analyze their data. Written reports and in-class oral presentations wrap up their projects.

Presenting to the Client

Students are responsible for developing a "one sheet" proposal of the work to be done, deliverables, and data requirements, and then present their findings twice at the end of the semester – once to Dr. Drea in private, and then once any errors have been fixed, a second time to the client. Presentations are either done one site (Pacers, Brewers), through technology (Skyline), or with the client coming to campus (Fastenal). Students, in Dr. Sarofim's classes, present their consulting suggestions to clients and go further to help with implementation, to the extent that campaigns designed by students went live on local TV channels.

Client Follow-up

Ideally, both undergraduate and MBA students take these courses back-to-back so that they can 1) do a marketing research survey for a client and then 2) follow up strategically with a marketing plan. This affords the students the opportunity to see their work come to fruition. Several years ago, several students' promotional plans and actual billboard ads were used by the Calcasieu Parish Police Jury to promote a state-funded "don't drive and drive" and "retailers, don't sell to minors" campaigns.

SESSION 4.8: THE SERVICE EXPERIENCE

Chair:

Athinodoros Chronis, California State University

Summary Brief

Commercial Doubling: Dramaturgy of Contested Servicescapes

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Anchored on performance theory and the commercial staging of servicescapes, our inquiry looks into the way service providers' knowledge of potential controversies affect the performances they stage. We are concerned, in short, with the strategic articulation of commercial performances in consumption sites that are contested. We contribute to the domains of services marketing by introducing the concept of "commercial doubling" as the performative effort to obviate potential contestations of the way the servicescape is presented to the audience. Furthermore, we advance four clusters of marketing strategies for staging contentious commercial places.

Introduction

Although prior research on dramaturgical aspects of a servicescape has conceptualized commercial performances as interactive processes between performers and their audience (Grove and Fiske 1992; Grove, Fiske, and Bitner 1992), relatively little attention has been paid to the impact of various consumer audiences on commercial agents' performative strategies and their effort to stage a servicescape as a certain kind of place. This theoretical lacuna is especially striking in those consumption sites that are contested, like ethnic leisure spaces, festivals, religious establishments, and heritage site among others.

Paying attention to the controversial interpretation of a servicescape raises some of interesting questions: How does managers' anticipation of potential controversies affect the performances they stage? How do service providers manage contested storyscapes in practice? These questions foreground the strategic necessity to address these challenges in everyday marketing practice. Anchored on performance theory, we focus our endeavor on the way that service providers stage, perform, and communicate contested storyscapes.

Theoretical Background

Services scholars employing the theatrical metaphor pointed out that servicescape performances intent "to create and sustain desirable impressions before an audience" (Grove and Fisk 1992, p. 456). Clearly, there is a certain intention when marketers stage a performance before an audience. The strategic intent of performers to influence their audience is theorized by Schechner (2006) as "restored behavior" that includes performed acts that are prepared and rehearsed. Similarly, Carlson (2004) refers to performance as "patterned behavior." There seems to be, therefore, a certain "sense of doubleness" (Carlson 2004, p. 80) in all theatrical performances, a repetition of some pattern of action, having a specific purpose in mind.

Notwithstanding its strategic intent, commercial staging is not divorced from the audience that oftentimes is expected to conform to theatrical conventions, participate, and tolerate imperfections (Grove et al. 1992). At other times though, this interaction will entail disagreements about the implied meanings of the performance (Grove and Fiske 1992). The reception of any performance, then, is not fully controlled by the performers. The existence of a variegated audience and the concomitant possibilities for inappropriate or controversial behaviors necessitates proper commercial strategies that will accommodate such discrepancies. Drawing from the theatrical metaphor in service literature, performance studies, and commercial staging of consumption places, the present research seeks to investigate the ways in which the strategic staging of contested commercial places reflects managerial efforts to deflect conflict and to explore the strategic performances enacted by service providers in everyday consumption practice.

Methods

Market-oriented ethnography (Arnould 1998; Arnould and Wallendorf 1994) was conducted at Gettysburg, a small town in south-central Pennsylvania that attracts the highest number of visitors among civil war battlefields in the United States. Gettysburg exemplifies a storyscape, a commercial space that is founded on and perpetuated through stories (Chronis 2015). Narrative plots are told on a physical setting and, as already established in literature, tourist settings can be seen as theatrical stages where tourist performances take place (Edensor 2001). Many tourist attractions are staged as theaters, employ actors dressed in appropriate costumes, and engage visitors in role-playing. As a site of

tourism consumption, therefore, Gettysburg provides a fitting context to study theoretical relationships pertaining to the theatrical metaphor.

Participation in numerous guided tours provided opportunities for observations of consumption behaviors, spots of attraction, interactions between consumers and service providers, and spatial movements through the storyscape. For the purpose of this paper, we focus our ethnographic attention to licensed guides: what they said during depth interviews, the stories they told during battlefield tours, the spatial itineraries they followed, and the way they conducted themselves during interactions with tourists.

Findings

Analysis of the service performances by tour guides identifies four clusters of strategies used by these frontline employees in order to stage Gettysburg as a site of patriotism and unification.

Strategies of Reading (How to interpret the site): Heroizing (How to read the built environment); Sanctifying (How the ground was consecrated); Narrative sedimentation (How to read material traces of history); Moralizing (Idealizing and moralizing history).

Strategies of Authentication (Demonstrating historical originality): Freezing (Presenting the site as fixed in time and unchanged); Reversing commercialism (Deflecting managerial intervention).

Strategies of Editing (Bending and adapting narrative interpretation): Narrative composition (Making up stories); Simplification (Reducing the complexity and/or extent of historical events); Narrative adjustment (Adapting the interpretative account to consumers' background); Intertextual anchoring (Making links with other texts); Connecting (Making links between consumers and history); Narrative collaboration (Engaging consumers in co-constructing the story).

Strategies of Spatiality (Regulating consumption in space): Regulation of movement (Controlling the bodily movement within the historicized space); Emplacement (Placing consumers within the unfolding narrative space); Embodiment (Inciting multi-sensory experiences; creating bodily engagement with space).

Conclusion

In this ethnographic study we contribute to the theatrical metaphor in marketing by looking into the staging and performance of storyscapes, especially those that are subject to alternative interpretations. First, we introduce the concept of "commercial doubling" as the marketing strategy of dramatic staging according to which service provider's performance is acted out having in mind the social ambiguity of a hegemonic narrative and intending to obviate potential consumer contestations. Furthermore, we advance four clusters of marketing strategies for staging contentious commercial places: strategies of reading, strategies of authentication, strategies of editing, and strategies of spatiality. We promote these strategies as managerial tools whose full potential is in their practice; that is, in their use in consumption settings.

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Presentation

Increasing Customer Compliance in Services: The Interplay of Goal Type and Responsibilization

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How can service firms increase customer compliance? One firm-initiated strategy to gain customer compliance is to responsabilize consumers for their own personal and even societal well-being. This research proposes that service providers can responsabilize customers through exposing customers to a certain view of responsibility, retrospective vs. prospective responsibility, depending on their goal, attainment vs. maintenance goal. This research contributes to the customer compliance literature by exploring a largely overlooked factor, attainment vs. maintenance goal. More importantly, this research affirms the application of consumer responsabilization in the customer compliance area.

Introduction

The extant literature on customer participation is dominated by investigations of customer participatory role during face-to-face service encounters (White, Taylor, and Dellande 2011). Yet, for certain long-term services (e.g., financial management services), customers are required to adhere to their customer roles as active participants beyond the face-to-face interaction by complying with instructions and prescribed behaviors when away from the service provider (Dellande and Taylor 2004). Although previous research has provided important insights into the antecedents and consequences of customer compliance, it has largely assumed that a customer's who uses the same service must have the same goal in mind. To the contrary, service firms typically use different types of goals to attract customers to a certain service. For example, HSBC offers the "Premier Investor Savings" account that requires maintaining a \$25,000 minimum balance (i.e., a maintenance goal), while offering higher interest rates with higher balances (i.e., an attainment goal) (Stamatogiannakis, Yang, and Chattopadhyay 2011). Given that compliance is a motivation-driven behavior, it is important to acknowledge and investigate the impact of different consumer goals on compliance. This research attempts to deepen our understanding of customer compliance by focusing on two common types of goals customers hold – attainment and maintenance goals. Face-to-face service encounters present opportunities for service providers to encourage customers to comply beyond the face-to-face interaction. One of such firm-initiated approach documented in recent literature is to responsabilize consumers for their own personal and even societal well-being (Anderson et al. 2016). This research examines how goal types and responsabilization interact to create more customer buy-in and compliance.

Theoretical Background and Propositions

Customer compliance is a goal-directed behavior. Customers have attainment goals when their actual state is negatively discrepant from their desired state, whereas customers have maintenance goals when their actual state is matching or better than their desired state (Yang, Stamatogiannakis, and Chattopadhyay 2015). Given that the two goal types are qualitatively different, it can be expected that customers pursuing these two goals will likely be motivated differently by the same firm-initiated stimulus for compliance.

One firm-initiated strategy to gain customer compliance is to treat consumers as responsible, competent, and autonomous market players (Anderson et al. 2016). Creating responsible consumers involves shifting some responsibility for the solution of a particular personal as well as societal problem (e.g., financial instability or debt) from the providers' and producers' to individual consumers. Against this backdrop, this research suggests that service providers can responsabilize customers through exposing customers to a certain view of responsibility depending on their goal (attainment vs. maintenance). A sense of responsibility can be induced by looking back over past behavior (retrospective or assigned responsibility) or anticipating future behavior (prospective or assumed responsibility) (Fuller, Marler, and Hester 2006).

This research proposes that customers with an attainment goal will have higher buy-in and compliance when adopting a retrospective responsibility view, whereas customers with a maintenance goal will have higher buy-in and compliance when adopting a prospective responsibility view. There are two main reasons. First, encouraging customers who experience fast progress (have a maintenance goal) to focus on what still needs to be done (a future

orientation) is more effective than focusing on what has been achieved so far (a past orientation). Conversely, a past orientation that highlights achievement is more motivating for customers who experience slow progress (have an attainment goal) (Koo and Fishbach 2008). Second, when asked to generate strategies for future actions toward the goal, customers with a maintenance goal struggle and generate considerably fewer strategies than customers with an attainment goal (Stamatogiannakis et al 2011). That is, customers with maintenance goals have stronger experiences with past success, but struggle with anticipating or imagining future success, whereas customers with attainment goals have weaker experiences with past success, but can easily anticipate or imagine future success. Thus, to entice customers with different goals, service providers can encourage customers with maintenance goals to focus on their responsibility toward future actions and what remains to be done. Service providers can equally encourage customers with attainment goals to focus on their responsibility toward past actions, particularly failed actions, to alleviate possible naïve beliefs. This is expected to lead to more customer buy-in and customer compliance.

Conclusion

The goal of this research is to begin a dialogue concerning ways companies can increase customer compliance and buy-in for certain long-term services. By proposing goals and responsibility conditions upon which compliance occurs, our research adds a different, but significant dimension that broadens managers' understanding of the utilities or weaknesses of various compliance based strategies.

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Summary Brief

Consumer Switching Intentions to Buy Groceries Online

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Introduction

At a steady pace, online retailing, i.e., Internet, mobile and other forms of electronic transactions, continues to account for a growing share of total retailing. In the past ten years online retail as a percentage of total retail sales grew from 4.2% to 8.5% (Census, 2017). Although online retailing demonstrates considerable growth year-over-year, the online grocery retail sales growth rate has lagged. Currently, online sales account for about 1% of the \$1.5 trillion grocery market (Giammona, 2017). However, nearly 23% of American households purchase some groceries online (Nielsen, 2017). Over the next decade, those that currently buy some groceries online will spend about 25% of their grocery bill online (Nielsen, 2017). Understanding the shift from brick-and-mortar to online grocery shopping is important for both types of retailers. Additionally, developing insight into brick-and-mortar grocery shopping loyalists will help both types of retailers.

Brick-and-mortar retailers are afforded more opportunities to build and strengthen relationships with customers (Bansal, McDougall, Dikolli, Sedatole, 2004) compared to their online counterparts where relationships are transaction-oriented. Furthermore, switching online retailers is fairly, easy thus requiring online retailers to incorporate switching barriers (Varadarajan, Yadav, Shankar, 2008). Switching behavior related to online channels and consumers has received some attention in the marketing literature [Goode and Harris, 2007; Zhang, Cheung, Lee, 2012, Chou, Shen, Chiu, Chou, 2015]. Yet, Mutum, Ghazali, Nguyen, and Arnott (2014) summarize studies and develop propositions related to switching and consumer loyalty.

In this study, we examine the factors related to grocery shopping switching behavior between brick-and-mortar retailers and online retailers. We empirically test the model with current grocery store customers. As mentioned earlier, online grocery shopping is expected to continue to grow and eventually account for a larger share of consumers' grocery budgets. As such, understanding the factors that may impede or encourage switching to online grocery shopping is important to both brick-and-mortar and online retailers.

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

This research is a first step in understanding consumers intentions to switch to online grocery shopping given the anticipation of more shoppers going online for groceries in the next decade. This study focuses on understanding consumers' switching behavior from brick-and-mortar grocery retailers to online grocery retailers. A premise of the study is that online grocery has its own set of factors that differ from general retail. Furthermore, this study is theoretically based on marketing studies that have considered consumer switching behavior in brick-and-mortar and online markets. The theoretical framework guiding this switching behavior study is the push, pull, and moor paradigm as adapted for consumer switching behavior (Bansal, Taylor, and St. James, 2005).

The push-pull-moor (PPM) paradigm tested by Bansal et. al (2005) provides a unifying model for understanding switching behaviors. The paradigm considers mooring variables, in addition to push and pull variables, that drive switching behavior. Bansal et. al (2005) state that the push-pull-moor paradigm may help understand implications for both the "switched-from and switched-to providers." Thus, the brick-and-mortar and online retailers in the grocery market may gain a better understanding of consumer switching specific to their market and conditions. The model was adjusted for this study to examine switching intentions from a relational perspective (i.e., if this, then that) included push factors (negative factors that drive people away from their current retailer), pull factors (positive factors that attract people to a new retailer) and moorings (intervening factors).

Push Factors

H1a: Satisfaction is negatively related to intention to switch to an online grocery retailer.

H1b: Attitude is negatively related to intention to switch to an online grocery retailer.

Pull Factor

H2: Attractiveness is positively related to intention to switch to an online grocery retailer.

Mooring Factors

H3a: The higher the sunk costs, the lower the intention to switch to an online grocery retailer.

H3b: The more learning required to switch, the lower the intention to switch to an online grocery retailer.

H3c: The greater the uncertainty, the lower the intention to switch to an online grocery retailer.

Methods

The PPM model was tested using a survey of grocery shoppers that identify a brick-and-mortar grocery store as their primary source for groceries. A total of 489 surveys were completed while 18 were returned incomplete. The data was analyzed using structural equation modeling to test the push, pull and mooring independent variables on intentions to switch to an online grocery retailer.

The path coefficients for the satisfaction and attitude on intention to switch were significant and in the hypothesized direction. Thus, satisfaction with the current brick-and-mortar grocery retailer was negatively related to intentions to switch. Thus, the more satisfied the lower the intention to switch. Likewise, a positive attitude toward the current brick-and-mortar grocery retailer the lower the intention to switch to an online grocery retailer. Both push factors, satisfaction and attitude, were supported. The coefficient for the pull factor, attractiveness, was also supported with a path coefficient of -0.178 ($p < 0.01$). Therefore, the higher the attractiveness of online grocery retailers the higher the intention to switch from the current brick-and-mortar grocery retailer to an online grocery retailer. The mooring factors, sunk costs, learning, and uncertainty led to mixed results. Neither sunk costs nor learning resulted in significant results although the direction was as hypothesized. On the other hand, uncertainty was significant and in the hypothesized direction. Thus, the greater the uncertainty associated with online grocery retailer the lower the intentions to switch.

Discussion

The research used the push-pull-moor framework to assess consumer switching behavior to online grocery retailers from brick-and-mortar grocery retailers. The findings indicate that satisfaction, attitude, attractiveness of online alternative, and uncertainty demonstrate consumer switching intentions to online grocery retailing. Most online retail studies that focus on retailing in general or other retail industries such as banking, blog service. This study recognized that online grocery retailing offers its own set of characteristics that distinguish it from general retailing. In fact, the popular press has highlighted the factors unique to grocery shopping that have impeded the move to online channels. Thus, it is important to recognize that all retail is not created equal and that consumer behavior with respect to online grocery shopping is different from online shopping in other categories.

Of the relationships examined, sunk costs and learning were not supported. These findings may indicate that consumers already understand the online grocery retail market and learning would not be a prerequisite to shopping for groceries online. Additionally, sunk costs for grocery shopping may be minimal. For example, the sunk costs associated with blog service providers in Zhang et al. (2012) are more entrenched than those associated with shopping at a particular brick-and-mortar grocer. Future studies that investigate migration to online grocery shopping should include other behavioral variables that may contribute to the push-pull-moor framework. Alternatively, other models of switching behavior may be adopted to identify different independent variables.

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Summary Brief

Your Doctor is Skilled, but My Doctor is Nice: Investigating the Effects of Doctor Warmth and Clinical Competence on Patient Satisfaction and Loyalty

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Laquanda Leaven, North Carolina Agricultural & Technical State University, USA

Primary care physicians often operate as independently-owned businesses. As such, customer satisfaction and long-term loyalty are key to maintaining a successful practice. This research tests the relative impact of a doctor's clinical competence and warmth on patient satisfaction, patient loyalty, and the reputation of the practice. The findings indicate that while the physician's reputation relies exclusively on competence, customer satisfaction and patient loyalty are more strongly predicted by the physician's warmth.

Introduction

All physicians, by oath, strive to deliver the best medical care to their patients. A longstanding question is, what does high quality medical care involve? If primary care physicians (PCPs) are service providers, which service attributes are most critical to satisfy their customers (patients), and in turn, generate enduring loyalty?

Most researchers and professionals agree that two overarching parts of high quality medical care, and contributors to patient satisfaction, are technical competence and empathic care. There is less agreement on how they should be weighted. For example, Mead and Bower (2000) highlighted disagreements regarding which attributes are essential to high quality medical care, and a movement towards the idea of patient-centered care. The relatively recent attention to the issue of humaneness and warmth in medical care as a topic of research, suggests that achieving both high clinical care and empathic care, is an ongoing service delivery challenge (Smajdor, Stöckl, and Salter 2011). Both are clearly important to patient satisfaction, but less is known about how these interact or contribute to loyalty and commitment to getting annual checkups.

The goal of this paper is to challenge the paradigm that views individuals who visit doctors as “patients”, rather than “customers”. Adopting a more customer-oriented view of their patients, may encourage more patient loyalty and willingness to visit the office sooner and perhaps, more routinely. In summary, this paper has two research questions: 1) What is the relative importance of clinical competence versus warmth on satisfaction, loyalty, and reputation, and 2) Is there a complementary effect or substitutive effect between technical competence and warmth on patient attitudes and behaviors? The implication of this research is that a better understanding of how service attributes affect patient satisfaction and loyalty will allow physicians to make better managerial and marketing decisions.

Warmth and Competence Effects

While the medical education literature has contemplated the need for more balance between warmth and competence in doctors, there have also been calls for broader investigation of this for service marketing literature (Aaker, Garbinsky, and Vohs 2012; Aaker, Vohs, and Mogilner 2010). Indeed, there is a stream of research that finds that people are faster at judging warmth than competence, and warmth has a stronger effect on attitudes (see Cuddy, Glick, and Beninger 2011 for a review). Accordingly, we predict that customer satisfaction and loyalty will depend more on warmth than competence, but reputation for medical care will depend more on his/her competence.

Interactive Effects

Conceptually, loyalty and reputation are unbounded constructs – factors can generally add to one's intent to be loyal or add to the reputation of a service provider. Therefore, competence and warmth should be additive for loyalty and reputation. On the other hand, satisfaction – typically defined as the degree to which expectations are met – is maximally bounded. Consumers often enter a service scenario with some level of expectations which in some cases, may be exceeded, but often form a baseline to judge for disconfirmation (Cadotte, Woodruff, and Jenkins 1987;

Churchill and Surprenant 1982; Oliver 1993; Oliver, Rust, and Varki 1997). Therefore, we predict that consumers would tradeoff competence and warmth when it comes to judging satisfaction to the constraint of service expectations.

Method

Sample

The authors recruited two hundred and fifty respondents using Mechanical Turk. The sample was predominantly from the U.S. (92.8%). In terms of age, 9.6% were between 18-24 years old, 47.6% were between 25-34 years old, and 22.4% were between 35-44 years old, 10.8% were between 45-54 years old, and the remaining 9.6% were over 54 years old. The mean number of visits to the doctor per year was 3.36, and 47.9% of the respondents were female.

Survey

Respondents were asked to indicate their level of loyalty to their current doctor. Then, they read attribute descriptions adapted from SERVQUAL (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1988) and rated their current doctor on items related to those attributes on a 7-point Likert scale (1= terrible to 7 = excellent)

Summary of Results

In this paper, we addressed two marketing goals that all Primary Care Physicians (PCPs) strive to fulfill: 1) to deliver high service quality that will lead to high patient satisfaction and loyalty, and 2) to enhance the reputation of their practices. The results indicated that warmth was the stronger predictor of satisfaction and loyalty, but did not affect reputation. Warmth maintained a positive indirect effect on commitment to annual checkups via loyalty. Unlike warmth, competence strongly predicted doctor reputation.

In summary, this research contributes to understanding the effects of service attributes on patient attitudes, such as satisfaction and reputation; and behavioral outcomes, such as loyalty and annual checkup commitment. Both are essential to patients, but doctors who neglect the empathic element of care, and overemphasize clinical competence, may have superior reputations, but have dissatisfied patients who are less loyal, and less inclined to have routine annual checkups. On the other hand, doctors who display high warmth, and relatively low clinical competence, will have lower reputations, but could have more satisfied and loyal patients.

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**SESSION 5.10: AXCESS CAPON DISTINGUISHED TEACHING
COMPETITION**

Chair:

Barbara Wooldridge, The University of Texas at Tyler

Distinguished Teacher Comment

The Marketing Mindset

Dawn Edmiston, College of William & Mary, USA

Introduction

Since 2001, I have taught in a broad range of higher education environments -- from research universities, to liberal arts colleges, to online learning institutions. However, no matter where I have taught, my teaching philosophy has focused on engaging students and communicating the relevance of course content to their personal and professional lives. At the start of each course, I commit to knowing my students as individuals by not only learning their names but also their aspirations. I believe college is an educational experience not to be constrained to textbooks and I am constantly seeking opportunities to understand the needs of students and integrate their interests into my marketing courses.

Over the course of my teaching career, I have entirely changed how I teach the first day of class to focus on what I refer to as “the marketing mindset.” I emphasize to students the importance of having the right mindset to succeed - a mindset that understands the value of diversity and inclusion, as well as positive psychology. One of my favorite exercises is to share the TED Talk from former Harvard professor Shawn Achor on the happy secret to better work and challenge the class to consider that it is not success that leads to happiness, but rather happiness that leads to success. It is my hope that by having such discussions during the first day of class, students not only understand the importance of having a marketing mindset, but also appreciate the value of taking risks and thinking creatively.

From Inspiration to Innovation

As a testament to my teaching philosophy, one of my most popular teaching concepts was the direct result of a classroom discussion. During a lecture in 2010, I shared a video titled the “Social Media Revolution,” which was filled with statistics on how social media was changing our daily lives. When the video ended, I excitedly requested feedback. A student in the back row raised his hand and then slowly said, “Dr. Edmiston, I think that was the most depressing video I have ever seen.” Stunned, I asked, “Why?” And he looked at me and said, “How will I ever compete in that world?” I did not know how to immediately respond; however, this heartfelt question inspired me to think about how I could develop innovative methods that would empower students to not only survive but also thrive in a competitive marketplace.

Thus, my initial teaching innovation was titled, “Developing POP! (a Professional Online Presence).” This ten-step process includes building an online identity, establishing branded social media accounts, developing and promoting creative content, building a professional network, engaging audiences and monitoring success. I introduce this concept by challenging my students to place themselves in the mindset of a prospective employer. I ask them, “Who would you prefer to hire – an individual who has established a positive online brand image or an individual who seems to have no online presence, or worse, a negative online presence?” Students quickly learn that online information implicitly brands people, whether we explicitly choose to develop a personal brand or not.

Once students began to appreciate the value of Developing POP! I started to receive questions on how to create more compelling content (which is Step 3 in the Developing POP! process). As a result, I designed a teaching exercise on the “Perfect Pitch.” The foundation for this concept was Kimberly Elsbach’s Harvard Business Review article titled, “How to Pitch a Brilliant Idea” (2003). Building upon insights from this article, students are asked to create a 60-second video that highlights their individuality and their unique value proposition to potential employers.

Prior to producing the perfect pitch videos, students are challenged to develop a personal brand promise and complementary brand points that serve as the foundation for the message of the video. The brand promise reflects what prospective employers should expect from the student’s services. The brand points are specific characteristics and experiences that contribute to the student’s personal brand. By identifying and articulating brand points that have value to prospective employers, students are able to develop a compelling narrative in a video format that is more engaging than a traditional resume.

As part of this exercise, we discuss the power of storytelling and review student scripts during class. Students are then given the flexibility to select their own video format but are expected to publish the final video on YouTube. Students are encouraged to use best practices of social media marketing and include descriptive text and keyword tags

for the YouTube video and embed the video on their LinkedIn profile. Since YouTube is considered the world's second largest search engine, the perfect pitch video becomes a positive contribution to the student's professional online presence as well.

Ultimately, I believe the most valuable teaching innovations are the ones that demand student engagement in the learning process. Although students can read about the potential of social media channels, they will not comprehend the power of these digital tools until they actually leverage them.

Resources

I have received feedback from dozens of students who have shared that developing a professional online presence led them to new career opportunities. As a personal testament, this concept contributed to me finding my current role at William & Mary, which I wrote about in a LinkedIn post (that has garnered nearly 4,000 views) at: <http://bit.ly/wmdreamjob>.

The perfect pitch videos have proven to be powerful networking tools as well, with more than 10,000 views on YouTube during the past year. These videos have also contributed to the marketing of our undergraduate programs; several of them have been featured on the school home page and all of the videos have been tagged with keywords "Raymond A. Mason School of Business, College of William & Mary" so they are easily found when seeking information about the school.

The "Developing POP!" and "Perfect Pitch" innovations were recognized as the winning concepts in the Marketing Management Association AxxessCapon Teaching Innovation Competition (2011) and the Society of Marketing Advances Cengage Pride/Ferrell Innovations in Teaching Competition (2014), respectively. Articles on these concepts have been published in Marketing Education Review. Presentation slides for "Developing POP!" can be accessed on my LinkedIn profile. Examples of the perfect pitch videos can be accessed at: <http://bit.ly/WMStudentVideos>. I am always available at dawn.edmiston@mason.wm.edu to provide support regarding these exercises and I welcome feedback on these and other innovative teaching practices.

Distinguished Teacher Comment

Preparing Marketing & Sales Students for The Future of Marketing & Sales: A Personal Journey in Higher Ed on Three Continents

Joël Le Bon, University of Houston, USA

Teaching Philosophy

Pleased so much by the flow of lecturing,

Revealing the beauty of thinking, and reasoning,

Offering the knowledge, enlightening the concepts,

Fencing skepticism, and overcome the bequests,

Empowering the mind by drawing new sights,

Stimulating questions, and the light in their eyes,

Sensing the practice with resonating theories,

Inferring from debates valuable synthesis,

Orchestrating the process of thinking tangibly,

Nurturing the value of team work harmony.

Promoting the doing to enhance the learning,

Rewarding the efforts, making them outstanding,

Opening the classroom, perfecting foundations,

Facilitating learning with responsible obligations,

Extracting the very best of their inspired ambitions,

Strengthening their skills with enjoyable lessons,

Searching far beyond the class graduation,

Owing so much to the students behind this door,

Recognizing the chance to be a Professor.

- Joël Le Bon

Embracing A Personal Journey in Marketing and Sales Education

The first time I had to write my teaching philosophy, it came to me as a poem. I like poems, they are like little treasures you can carry with you. As such, they also resonate with who you are and what you believe in. I'm a professor, and that is my profession.

I was born in Mauritius, a small island in the Indian Ocean, received my education in France, and began my career as a Strategic Account Manager for Xerox France. I quickly started to teach while working for Xerox, and instantly loved it. The day after I was promoted International Account Manager, I tendered my resignation from Xerox and entered a doctoral program to become a marketing professor. That was my calling! The global experience I wanted to live was in serving students, executives, and companies as a professor.

Teaching business in a globalized economy is a journey I wanted to have in different parts of the world. Indeed, teaching in different countries is a great way to understand business practices and education from different perspective.

I also view business education as an opportunity to innovate to better engage students, executives, and companies. In fact, education is also about helping people see the world differently, preparing them for their future, so they can change for the better. However, foreseeing the future, and teaching and innovating in business education in different parts of the world is a challenging journey. It forced the professor in me to challenge the student in me.

I was fortunate to live my calling on three different continents and to initiate some innovations which received great responses in the classroom and from the business community in Europe (France), Asia (Singapore), and United States (Houston).

Preparing the Future through Teaching Innovations

The first innovation happened in 2002 in France and Singapore while I was a marketing faculty at ESSEC Business School, a leading European business school which also has a campus in Asia. This initiative called “The Power of Marketing at Work!” pertains to a mandatory quantitative marketing class I created for all the business school’s students (i.e., about 550 students per year), so they all receive exposure to analytical marketing methodologies, an interesting perspective at that time on the future of marketing with today’s growing importance marketing analytics and Big Data. The second innovation occurred in 2013 in United States as a marketing faculty at the University of Houston Bauer College of Business. This initiative called “The Power of Luck in Sales!” concerns a real life selling class for the Steven Stagner Sales Excellence Institute Program for Excellence in Selling’s students (i.e., 150 students per year) to whom I teach how to become luckier at selling, especially by networking using modern sales technologies and social media platforms, so they are not afraid about prospecting, and selling. The third innovation also happened at University of Houston Bauer College of Business in 2010 and is called “The Power of Knowledge for UFC Fight Night!” Because sales students need to learn how to conduct persuasive conversations with modern, well informed, and tough buyers, I incorporate in my sales class special sessions of UFC Fight Night which give students an Ultimate Fighting Chance to win additional bonus points on their test if they can build rationale for other possible answers than the official ones, so they know they can always overcome adversity with knowledge.

These teaching innovations serve not only marketing and sales students, but also marketing and sales educators and researchers. Over the years, these innovations have allowed me to engage and empower thousands of marketing and sales students with marketing and sales knowledge and technologies while also fulfilling my joy of serving both the marketing and sales fields as a Professor.

**SESSION 5.1: UNDERSTANDING CREDIBILITY AND MARKETING IN
THE FOOD AND WINE INDUSTRIES**

Chair:
Dennis Pitta, University of Baltimore

Presentation

Investigating Construal Level of Expert 3rd Party Reviews in Domestic and French Wine Markets

Christian Bushardt, Louisiana Tech University, USA

Consumers have difficulty evaluating complex experiential products before purchase. To reduce information asymmetry, wine critics provide ratings and reviews of wine products which are available online and post by many retailers on shelf space. Information contained within a wine review is can contain too technical of language for the average consumer to process. This paper classifies wine critic reviews based on high or low construal and tests if they have significant differences in price and rating.

Introduction

Construal level theory can be stated as “CLT states that people’s mental representations of stimuli that are psychologically near are low level and concrete while stimuli that are psychologically distant are high level and abstract.”(Dhar and Kim 2007). Consumers in the wine industry face large information asymmetry due to the experiential nature of wine and difficulty at which its subjective and objective quality can be evaluated. Expert wine reviews have been shows to have a positive correlation with quality and price and are argued as an effective quality cue (Horowitz and Lockshin, 2002). However, there exist idiosyncrasies among expert wine raters which are reflected in their wine rating scores (Oczkowski, 2017). Country of origin effects have also been shows to exist when average consumers evaluate wine (Spielman and Babin, 2011). Expert 3rd party wine reviews provide stimuli in different levels of abstractness for consumers to use when making a purchase decision. The level of abstractness is not necessarily intentional, but exists as a necessary trait of textual reviews. The focus of this paper is on exploring the association between the construal level of a review and several important variables including: price, new and old world, and rating.

Study and Results

Utilizing 232 wine reviews from Wine Advocate, with 131 domestic wines, and 101 old world (French) wines, independent sample t-tests were carried out with the ordinal variable “construal” as a grouping variable. Including words giving a specificity, or concreteness, to the review meant the review was classified as low construal. High construal reviews contained words and phrases such as “endearing”, “I love what these guys do”, “Never really comes together”. Low construal reviews contained words and phrases such as “Stainless Steel”, “14.9% alcohol”, “Limestone soil”. Wine ratings were significantly higher for wines with a high construal review ($M=90.47$, $SD=2.78$) than those with a low construal review ($M=89.69$, $SD=2.63$), $t(230)=-2.15$, $p=.033$. There was no significant difference in the release price of wines with reviews written in high and low construal. There was no significant difference in the current market price of wines with reviews written in high and low construal. Wines from France with a high construal review ($M=91.46$, $SD=2.61$) have significantly higher ratings than those not from France or with a low construal review ($M=89.67$, $SD=2.63$), $t(230)=-1.79$, $p=.000$. Wines from France with a high construal review ($M=87.92$, $SD=88.21$) have a significantly greater current market price than domestic or low construal review wines ($M=44.23$, $SD=45.57$), $t(68)=-3.61$, $p=.001$. A crosstab was calculated with the different reviewers and the high and low construal variable.

Discussion

While a significant difference exist between ratings with a high construal and low construal, the practical difference is also significant. The Wine Advocate describes an 89 wine rating as “barely above average” and a 90 wine rating as “Outstanding”. The discriptions associated with a wine rating mean moving from the 89 class to the 90 class of wine ratings is a significant improvement in what a store owner is able to place on a tag next to the wine. No wine merchant would say “there is no difference between a wine said to be ‘barely above average’ and a wine said to be ‘exceptional’”. Construal level theory appears to offer some potential for explanatory power within the text reviews of wine critics. Future studies will need to more accurately and completely model the complex effects of the wine market as major explanatory variables have been omitted in this exploratory study.

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Summary Brief

Message Strategies for Establishing Credibility during Farmers' Market Sales

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Credibility is an age old concept that communication scholars have long studied (McCroskey & Young, 1981; Self, 1996). Marketing scholars have also studied credibility, but there seems to be a minimal amount of collaboration between the two disciplines, at least in the case of farmers' markets. This case study examined the way farmers present persuasive messages at farmers' markets. This research specifically focuses on the persuasive strategies and rules farmers invoke as they sell their products to customers at a local farmers' market. This includes invocations of personal credibility and other forms of evidence.

Farmers' markets have been popular among consumers recently for a variety of reasons. These reasons include issues surrounding environmental and sustainability (Alkon, 2008a; Garner, 2014), community building and interpersonal richness (Feagan & Morris, 2009; Hunt, 2007; Robinson & Hartenfeld, 2007), to buy fresh and healthy produce (A. Brown, 2002; Trobe, 2001), to support the community of farmers and local economy (Feagan & Morris, 2009; Lyson et al., 1995). Interestingly, marketing scholars have typically taken a survey-based approach to farmers' markets, and there are almost no discussions from a communication studies perspective analyzing persuasion, even though persuasion is of central importance to communication. In this way, this research is interdisciplinary between marketing and communication studies.

This piece is a part of a larger ethnographic project on the Lawrence Farmers' Market in Lawrence, Kansas, USA. This project involved 100 hours of participant observation at a farmers' market, as well as in-depth interviews with consumers and farmers. For this project, I specifically focused on observations with farmers that related to their selling style. I analyzed fieldnote data thematically (Ryan and Bernard, 2003) to determine the types of arguments, claims, and evidence farmers were using. This work expands our understanding of how issues like sustainability and local food grow through the messages that farmers proliferate during routine sales.

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SESSION 5.2: SELECTED TOPICS IN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Chair:

Jeandri Robertson, Lueå University of Technology

Summary Brief

Being Your Own Boss: Examining the Effects of Entrepreneurship Commitment, Work-Family Conflict, and Emotional Exhaustion on Job Satisfaction

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This research explores job satisfaction among entrepreneurs to investigate two paths from entrepreneurial commitment to job satisfaction: a direct path and a family path, which includes work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion. An empirical study of small and micro firm business owners are used to examine the hypotheses seeking to understand which path to job satisfaction has the greatest influence. The results indicate that although being committed to your business increases job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion takes a greater toll. We conclude that negative aspects of entrepreneurship exert an important influence on entrepreneurs' satisfaction with their job. These findings offer important theoretical and practical implications.

Introduction

Being an entrepreneur typically involves long hours and dedication in order to make one's dream a reality, but along with that hard work comes the satisfaction (Hsee & Abelson 1991) of doing what one loves and being in control. At least that's what one would think. However, little research has been conducted looking into the job satisfaction of entrepreneurs (Bianchi 2012). Does one's commitment to being an entrepreneur actually lead to higher levels of job satisfaction? What about the toll that being the owner of a business takes on one's life outside of work? Is it possible that the long hours and stresses of the job carry over into one's family life, leading to lower levels of job satisfaction?

The purpose of this research is to incorporate theories and concepts common in sales literature to investigate two alternative paths from entrepreneurial commitment to job satisfaction: a) the direct route, and b) the alternative route that includes work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion. Similar to a sales person, the entrepreneur is responsible for "selling" (Morris, Kuratko, Schindehutte, & Spivack 2012) their business to a variety of stakeholders including customers, employees, and investors. An empirical study of entrepreneurs is conducted to test hypotheses related to these contrasting paths leading from entrepreneurial commitment to job satisfaction. Data is collected using an online panel and analysis is conducted using partial least squares structural equations modeling.

Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti 2007) proposes job stresses can be classified into two categories across occupations and work conditions: job demands and job resources. Job demands are the physical, psychological, social and organizational facets of the job that require persistent physical, cognitive and emotional effort on behalf of the employee and are therefore associated with physiological tolls (Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann 2011). Examples of job demands include role ambiguity, emotional demands, and high work pressure. Alternatively, job resources refer to physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job that arouse growth, learning, and personal development, or are effective in work goal achievement, or minimize demands and the associated physiological or psychological costs (Schaufeli & Bakker 2004). Examples of job resources include autonomy, social support and performance feedback.

Since empowerment can buffer job demand stresses for employees, entrepreneurs are also likely to experience the benefits from controlling their own destiny. Additionally, similar to engagement, one's physical, cognitive or emotional energy in work (Kahn 1990), entrepreneurs with high levels of commitment are also expected to have increased levels of job satisfaction because of the opportunities for their personal growth and the accomplishments they achieve for their business.

Besides the stresses facing entrepreneurs in their business, other demands on their time include family and social obligations. Although the family demands are not necessarily negative, they can turn into work-family stress when there is a disparity between work and family demands (Nguyen & Sawang 2016). This is a result of having a limited amount of time and attention to give to both these demands. When these roles are not managed properly, individual's physical and psychological resources are quickly drained (Boyar & Mosley 2007), such that work roles reduce resources available for family roles and resulting in role conflict (Boyar & Mosley 2007). Similarly, Work-Family Border Theory explains that individuals manage work and family and the borders between them to achieve work-family balance (Clark 2000). Additionally, work-family conflict is common as role pressure from work and family domains are commonly opposing in some respect (Greenhaus & Beutell 1985). This is often a consequence from the idea that increased demands in one role (such as work) leads to preoccupation with that role and result in struggles with engaging in another role, such as family (Boyar & Mosley 2007). Conflicting demands include time, personal resources such as energy, and in-role behavior (Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King 2002).

Conclusion

The two sided coin of business ownership involving entrepreneurial commitment and job satisfaction on one side versus entrepreneurial commitment, work-family conflict, emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction on the other, lands tails up. The negative underbelly involving work-family conflict and emotional exhaustion has a greater impact on job satisfaction than entrepreneurial commitment directly. Based on JD-R, additional resources are needed to overcome these adverse consequences. Therefore, empowerment as an owner and commitment as an entrepreneur are not enough to offset the detrimental impact in order to increase job satisfaction. From a practical standpoint, this suggests that entrepreneurs must utilize additional resources to counter the impact that can arise from work-family conflict. This may involve hiring additional employees to free up time and shorten work hours, leaving the entrepreneur with both time and energy that can be spent with family.

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Summary Brief

Look Before You Leap: An Analysis of Factors Driving the Transition from Hybrid to Full-Time Entrepreneurship

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Hybrid entrepreneurship refers to retaining salaried employment while simultaneously engaging in entrepreneurial activities. It is typically associated with the early stages of venture development, where less-confident entrepreneurs may opt for hybrid entrepreneurship to limit their commitment, or to evaluate their entrepreneurial potential. Hybrid entrepreneurship may act as an attractive bridge and a precursor to full-time entrepreneurship, especially in developed economies, where decreasing self-employment rates are of concern to policy makers, due to its potentially damaging effects on the economy. Existing literature examining the motives behind both hybrid and full-time entrepreneurship exists, yet there is a lack of literature examining the state of transition. This paper seeks to identify factors that drive the transition from hybrid to full-time entrepreneurship, as well as scope these factors' individual and collective contribution to transition. The transition is viewed through the lens of Learning Theory, which emphasizes the importance of the learning that takes place during the hybrid entrepreneurship phase.

Introduction

A hybrid approach to entrepreneurship allows the entrepreneur to reduce uncertainties regarding the viability of their venture or their entrepreneurial competencies (Raffiee and Feng, 2014). Hybrid entrepreneurship permits an entrepreneur to exploit an opportunity, while having the flexibility to mitigate risks and reduce uncertainties, facilitating a perceived reduction in the liability of newness associated with new entrepreneurial ventures (Markman, Balkin and Baron, 2002). With the experience gained through hybrid entrepreneurship, the transition to full-time entrepreneurship is likely smoother (Solesvik, 2017). However, at the proverbial tipping point of transition, once competencies have been developed and the viability of the business venture has been determined, some may choose to remain hybrid entrepreneurs while others opt to transition to full-time entrepreneurship (Block and Landgraf, 2016). Our paper proposes that the decision to transition to full-time entrepreneurship, or to remain in the hybrid state, can be understood in line with eight distinct driving factors.

Factors Driving the Transition from Hybrid to Full-time Entrepreneurship

Eight factors have been identified in the extant literature as drivers of the change from hybrid to full-time entrepreneurship. These factors are a fear of failure (Morgan and Sisak, 2016), entrepreneurial competency development (Morris, Webb, Fu and Singhal, 2013), perceived risk (Block and Landgraf, 2016), social capital (Van den Born and Van Witteloostuijn, 2013), financial reserves (Folta, Delmar and Wennberg, 2010), self-efficacy (Barakat, Boddington and Vyakarnam, 2014), the relative importance of independence (Block and Landgraf, 2016), and social recognition (Block and Landgraf, 2016). While these factors have independently been acknowledged in the literature, their role in driving the transition from hybrid to full-time entrepreneurship has not been determined. Similarly, the factors may independently have a bearing on transitioning, but they may in reality also influence one another.

Controlling for other factors, eight propositions are developed for further expansion and empirical testing. The propositions are, (1) as the entrepreneur's fear of failure decreases (2) and entrepreneurial competencies are better developed, owing to the learning that takes places during the hybrid phase, the likelihood of a transition to full-time entrepreneurship increases; (3) as the perception of risk is reduced based on learning through hybrid entrepreneurship, the likelihood of transitioning to full-time entrepreneurship increases; (4) as a hybrid entrepreneur accumulates social capital and (5) financial reserves, the likelihood of transitioning to full-time entrepreneurship increases; (6) an increased belief in self-efficacy resulting from hybrid entrepreneurship efforts, increases the likelihood of transitioning

to full-time entrepreneurship; (7) heightened desire for independence is positively associated with the transition from hybrid to full-time entrepreneurship; (8) the relative importance of social recognition may influence the likelihood of transitioning to full-time entrepreneurship.

Conclusion

The main focus of this paper is the tipping point at which hybrid entrepreneurs make the decision to become full-time entrepreneurs. The act of transitioning from hybrid to full-time entrepreneurship has been rooted in Learning Theory, with many of the identified drivers relating to learning through experience during the hybrid phase. Given that changes are impacting the workforce in many markets, increasing job uncertainty, research could investigate hybrid entrepreneurship as a continuous career choice and assess its potential as an independent state. Empirical testing of the proposed propositions could also yield additional drivers for transition. Echoing a previous call by Thorgren, Nordström and Wincent (2014), the development of measures specifically purposed for hybrid entrepreneurship may facilitate a more comprehensive assessment of its role in the field of entrepreneurship. Research probing individual motivations to pursue hybrid entrepreneurship could also provide deeper insight into both hybrid behaviors as well as social, economic or institutional motivations to maintain hybrid status or transition into full-time entrepreneurship.

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Full Paper

Select Product Mix Decisions and Personality: An Exploratory Study of Situations Faced in an Entrepreneurial Marketing Simulation

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There has been a long-standing interest in understanding the factors that lead individuals to becoming entrepreneurs. One aspect in particular, personality, has been identified as something likely related and worth exploring, with specific personality traits and types serving to identify individuals who are likely to succeed as entrepreneurs (Zhao, Seibert, & Lumpkin, 2010).

In the current study the authors conducted a computer-based simulation as part of a graduate business course on Small Business Entrepreneurship at a small liberal arts university in Kentucky. A total of 32 students completed the simulation which involved a myriad of decisions related to the formation and operation of a café in a downtown area. Among other decisions, student teams made during the simulation were ones related to specific incidents targeting their thinking on management, human resources and marketing.

Given that this is an exploratory study and the focused nature of the conference to which the paper is being submitted, this exploratory study presents the simulation results on select marketing-related decisions in conjunction with individual personality continuums determined for each student based on the Keirsey II Temperament Sorter (KTSII). It is hypothesized that individuals who exhibit entrepreneurial temperaments, related to introversion, extroversion, sensing, intuition, feeling, thinking, perception, and judgement will react in different ways to stimuli from specific incidents in the simulation.

Introduction

The business landscape is littered with the dead carcasses of entrepreneurs who believed their invention, innovation, or concept was the next big thing. In reality, a substantial number of entrepreneurs are serial failures, only achieving success after numerous ventures. A number of very well-known innovations were failures in their initial incarnation (Mullins and Komisar, 2009).

There has long been an interest in understanding the factors that contribute to becoming an entrepreneur. In particular, entrepreneurship and personality are often seen as being related, with specific personality traits and types serving to identify individuals who are likely to succeed as entrepreneurs (Zhao et al., 2010).

Over a two-year period, the authors conducted computerized simulations as part of a MBA elective course on small business entrepreneurship at a small liberal arts university in Kentucky. In addition to the simulation students were exposed to readings and case studies, discussions, and interactions with a panel of entrepreneurs. During this time, 32 students completed the simulation which involved starting and running a coffee shop. During the simulation, the students make decisions about specific incidents, which include management, human resources and marketing related issues.

This exploratory study evaluates the simulation results in conjunction with individual personality continuums determined for each student based on the Keirsey II Temperament Sorter (KTSII).

Literature Review

In some of the early years of entrepreneurship research, personality was seen as a major factor in explaining how and why some people succeeded in starting businesses while others did not (Rauch & Frese, 2012). There was also a discussion about whether entrepreneurs could be trained or if they were born with the innate skills and talents needed (Matthews, Stowe, & Jenkins, 2011). As the discussion moved toward being able to educate people on how to become entrepreneurs, research on personality began to decline. This decline was also precipitated by the highly variable results obtained on research into personality as a factor in predicting entrepreneurship.

Within the last ten years however, personality has appeared in the entrepreneurship literature with more frequency. This is due in large measure to changes in how researchers look at personality factors. In particular, it was proposed that personality, while failing to predict specific acts, could be used to make predictions if both personality and situation are assessed together (Rauch & Frese, 2012). Entrepreneurship also appears to be related to personality through competencies, which are the specific capabilities of individual actors within their technical domain or industry (Baum, Locke, & Smith, 2001). Thus, competencies provide needed skill sets to improve and increase successful entrepreneurial practice. Competencies also figure strongly in the capabilities of teams and groups working together in entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial activities to increase the ability of their group to succeed (Bradley & Hebert, 1997). The use of meta-analytics has also brought new life to the use of personality types and other dimensions of personality as factors in entrepreneurship (Zhao et al., 2010).

Keirsey Temperament Sorter II

The KTSII is similar to the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) instrument however it contains fewer items and is available to take online. With both instruments, individuals are sorted or characterized based on several spectrum ranging from introversion to extroversion (I – E), sensing to intuition (S – N), thinking to feeling (T – F) and judging to perceiving (J – P), each of which represent a dichotomy between the two extreme points. These four scales are defined based on the characteristics in table 1 (Myers, 1993).

Table 1: Personality Type Scale Items

Item	Characteristics	Item	Characteristics
Introversion	Drawn to inner worlds Prefer to communicate by writing Learn best by reflection/mental practice Depth of interest Tend to reflect before acting/speaking Private and contained Focus readily	Extroversion	Attuned to external environment Prefer to communicate by talking Learn best through doing/discussing Breadth of interests Tend to speak first, reflect later Sociable and expressive Take initiative in work and relationships
Sensing	Focus on real and actual Value practical applications Factual and concrete, notice details Observe and remember sequentially Present oriented Want information step-by-step Trust experience	Intuition	Focus on big picture possibilities Value imaginative insight Abstract and theoretical See patterns and meaning in facts Future-oriented Jump around, leap in anywhere Trust inspiration
Thinking	Analytical Logical problem solvers Use cause and effect reasoning Tough minded Strive for impersonal/objective truth Reasonable Fair	Feeling	Sympathetic Assess impact on people Guided by personal values Tender hearted Strive for harmony and individual validation Compassionate Accepting
Judging	Scheduled Organized Systematic Methodical Plan Like closure to have things decided Avoid last minute stresses	Perceiving	Spontaneous Open ended Casual Flexible Adapt Like things loose and open to change Feel energized by last minute pressures

While extroversion-introversion is a major dimension according to Jung and the MBTI (Keirsey, 1998), the KTSII considers it to be less indicative of temperament than the other indicators. However, the KTSII departs from the MBTI in terms of how it is designed and on the theoretical structure on which it is based. The MBTI assumes that the sixteen groups are unchanging after adulthood, something that is not assumed by the KTSII. The MBTI is about how people express their preferences in thinking, while the KTSII is about how people behave (Keirsey, 1998).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1943) posits that people are motivated by several different constructs and as these needs are substantially fulfilled people move upward through other motivators until they reach self-actualization. This has been disputed by some researchers for some time since not everyone is motivated to seek self-actualization (Keirsey, 1998). Further, as Keirsey points out, "I base my type definitions on what people do well, their

skilled actions – what I call their ‘intelligent roles’ – which are observable, and which thus can be defined objectively” (Keirsey, 1998: pg 30). Thus, the KTSII includes the idea of competencies in the temperaments of the individuals.

Myers and Briggs considered introversion to be relatively reserved and insulated, while extroverts were viewed as relatively gregarious and animated (Keirsey, 1998). Extroverts are typically outgoing and expressive, but tend to not listen to others, while introverts are more likely to listen and take in the thoughts of others. According to Myers, the various scales can be used in groups of personality preferences to aid in understanding how people will react to various stimuli.

Keirsey (1998) states that certain groupings of temperaments, particularly NF, NT, SP and SJ have other characteristics such that NFs and NTs are more aligned with abstract and conceptual issues while SPs and SJs are drawn to more concrete and practical issues. Keirsey divides his groups into four major temperaments called Artisans (SP), Guardians (SJ), Rationals (NT), and Idealists (NF). The temperaments include the other items so that in all there are sixteen different types. These temperaments focus on the behaviors of the individuals and on their areas of competency.

According to Keirsey, Artisans are clever at a tactical level in getting what they want and remaining ahead of others. He points out that they should excel in politics, mechanical, industrial arts and especially in the ‘art of the deal’. They also tend to be bold and to be risk takers but tend to be lacking in diplomacy. Because of their adaptability, they tend to respond quickly to crises and deal well with fluid conditions. Artisans also tend to be effective in negotiations since they are always looking for a tactical advantage, hence they tend to gravitate toward roles that involve troubleshooting.

Guardians tend toward preserving and serving institutions through their capabilities in managing the flow of goods to keep institutions running. They lean toward being conservative to focus on diligence and preservation of resources. They also favor being ethical and moral and focus on making sure that people do what they are supposed to do (Keirsey, 1998). They are very business-oriented and are drawn toward the practice of commerce and an emphasis on practicality.

Rationals lean toward being logical, avoiding errors in reasoning while trying to get things correct. They are in general disconnected from most things and tend to be less social than other people. Keirsey implies that, they gravitate towards inquiring about how things work and are always in the process of investigating and analyzing the nature of what is going on and what might happen. In general, rationals are problem solvers, employ deductive logic and lean toward strategy.

Idealists are more abstract in thought, they bend words and use them in different ways to express how they see the world. This passion about words often leads them to be very diplomatic in their thinking and in how they interact with people socially. They move toward conciliation and facilitating the involvement of others to get things done. They often serve as advocates or mentors to others within organizations helping them to develop their skills in dealing with people.

It is our contention that the temperaments of individuals will guide their selection during the simulation, causing them to react to specific situations that align with how they behave as individuals. Thus, Artisans will make decisions that will lean toward providing advantage in a situation, Guardians will tend toward protecting resources, Rationals will look for concrete solutions and Idealists will try to make decisions that are mutually agreeable to others.

Sample

The sample for this exploratory study consists of 32 graduate business students enrolled in a cohort-based Masters of Business Administration (MBA) program at a southern private liberal arts University. The students in the sample were enrolled in a class on Small Business Entrepreneurship which includes the use of a simulation to test the student’s abilities to start and manage an urban, downtown café, including making business decisions with limited data. The simulation included fifteen separate management incidents that require students to make decisions about operations, human resources, or marketing. The current study focuses on the marketing decisions of how to obtain feedback from customers, the type of renovations for the store, the type of advertising campaign to employ, coffee quality, and whether to use live entertainment.

The sample consists of 8 females and 24 males ranging in age from 23 to 47 (Mean = 31.47, S = 6.324 years). The approximate breakdown of personality types by temperaments and gender is shown in Table 2. The average estimated frequency of each type and temperament was estimated based on data from the Center for Applications of Psychological Type (CAPT, 2017).

Table 2: Temperaments and personality breakdown of study participants

Temperament	Male	Female	Average Estimated Frequency (US)	Temperament	Male	Female	Average Estimated Frequency (US)
Sensing	19	8	70%	SP	16	8	43%
Judging	20	8	57%	NF	2	0	30%
Feeling	6	4	55%	NT	2	0	15%
Introvert	9	3	51%	SJ	3	0	12%
Extrovert	15	5	49%				
Thinking	18	4	45%				
Perceiving	4	0	43%				
Intuition	5	0	30%				

Based on the above information, the combined number of individuals in the sample having an SJ temperament is over-represented (Chi-square 8.53, df 1, 0.0035) and the number of individuals having an SP temperament is under-represented (Chi-square 9.85, df 1, 0.017). Concerning individual personality types, I-E, S-N, and F were represented at the expected frequencies, T and J were over-represented (Chi-Square 8.75, df 1, 0.031 and 10.21, df1, 0.014, respectively) and P was under-represented (Chi-square 10.65, df 1, 0.011) in the sample.

Due to the relatively small sample size and the over- and under-representation of temperaments, further analysis was limited to descriptive methods as opposed to hypothesis testing or logistic regression. The various decision scenarios were assessed using odds ratios to determine the likelihood that different temperaments were associated with different decisions.

Method

Within the constraints of the simulation, in different periods students were presented with various options representing incidents. Given the choices, they needed to decide on the best course of action for their small business. The various decisions in the simulation were sorted to identify the business field they represented. The decisions in this paper were all related to marketing as opposed to operations or human resources. The data collected were analyzed for each of four decisions as outlined below, presented along with student options in Table 3:

Analysis

The collected data was analyzed using an Odds Ratios (OR) approach which provide a likelihood of one outcome over another outcome. This type of analysis is normally used in medical testing to evaluate the probability of a treatment working or not working or some other type of dichotomous result. OR is a measure of association that relates outcomes from 2x2 contingency tables. In the medical field, this measure is often used to compare treatment efficacy between different medications in exposed and unexposed individuals or between treatments and placebos. The measures can be subject to a Chi-square test with one degree of freedom. OR is most often used to evaluate practical significance as opposed to statistical significance, giving an indication of the likelihood of success to failure for one treatment as opposed to another. The tables below provide the results of the OR and indicate the likelihood of individuals with specific personality identifiers and/or temperament groups choosing one action over another. In some instances, the OR calculation resulted in division by zero in the conditional probabilities. This is denoted by the letters ND (Not Determined). In reading the OR values, a value of 1 is indicative of no difference between the groups (a probability of 50%), while a result greater than 1 indicates that the favored outcome is stronger than the un-favored outcome, and a result less than 1 indicates that the favored outcome is less effective than the un-favored outcome.

Table 3: Incident decisions and options

Incident	Option	Cost
Customer Satisfaction	Do Nothing	\$0
	Install Suggestion Box	\$0
	Comment Card at Each Table	\$50
	Conduct Customer Survey	\$500
Advertising Campaign	Do Nothing	\$0
	Fair-Trade Coffee Campaign	\$0
Store Renovation	Used Furniture	\$2,000
	Green Furniture	\$4,000
	Modern Furniture	\$4,000
	Country Furniture	\$4,000
Live Entertainment	Do Nothing	\$0
	High School Jazz Group	\$0
	Poetry Reading	\$35
	Karaoke	\$50
	Live Radio Interview	\$250

Table 4: Customer Survey Incident

Item	Do Nothing: Box	Box: Card	Card: Survey	Do Nothing: Card	Do Nothing: Survey	Box: Survey
E	0.1	2.0	1.3	0.2	0.3	2.5
I	0	4.5	2.0	0	0	9.0
N	0.5	ND	0	ND	0.5	1.0
S	0	2.4	2.3	0	0	5.7
F	0.25	1.3	1.5	0.3	0.5	2.0
T	0	3.8	1.3	0	0	5.0
J	0	2.8	1.2	0	0	3.4
P	0.5	2.0	ND	1	ND	ND
Not NF	0	2.7	1.8	0	0	4.8
NF Idealists	ND	ND	0	ND	1	0
Not NT	0.1	2.4	1.8	0.1	0.3	4.3
NT Rationals	0	ND	0	ND	0	2.0
Not SJ	0.3	4.0	0.5	1.0	0.5	2.0
SJ Guardians	0	2.5	2.0	0	0	5.0
Not SP	0.1	3.0	1.2	0.2	0.2	3.6
SP Artisans	0	1.0	ND	0	ND	ND

Table 5: Change to Fair Trade Campaign

Personality Factor	Don't Change: Change	Temperament	Don't Change: Change
E	2.3	Not NF	1.7
I	1.0	NF Idealists	1.0
N	1.5	Not NT	1.6
S	1.7	NT Rationals	2.0
F	1.5	Not SJ	8.0
T	1.8	SJ Guardians	1.3
J	1.5	Not SP	1.5
P	3.0	SP Artisan	ND

Table 6: Live Entertainment Incident

Item	D/N: Jazz	Jazz: Poetry	Poetry: Karaoke	Karaoke: Radio	D/N: Poetry	D/N: Karaoke	D/N: Radio	Poetry: Radio
E	0.0	1.0	0.8	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3
I	0.5	ND	0.0	0.2	ND	2.0	0.4	0.0
N	0.3	3.0	0.4	0.4	1.0	0.4	0.2	0.2
S	0.3	2.3	0.6	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.1	0.2
F	0.0	1.0	1.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
T	0.3	3.0	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.5	0.3	0.3
J	0.3	2.0	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.3
P	0.0	ND	ND	0.0	ND	ND	0.0	0.0
Not NF	0.3	1.4	2.5	0.1	0.4	1.0	0.1	0.4
NF Idealists	ND	ND	0.0	1.0	ND	0.0	0.0	0.0
Not NT	0.3	2.0	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.2
NT Rationals	0.0	ND	ND	0.0	ND	ND	0.0	0.0
Not SJ	0.0	2.0	ND	0.0	0.0	ND	0.0	0.2
SJ Guardians	0.4	2.5	0.4	0.5	1.0	0.4	0.2	0.2
Not SP	0.3	2.0	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.1	0.2
SP Artisans	0.0	ND	ND	0.0	ND	ND	0.0	0.0

D/N = Do Nothing

Table 7: Renovation Incident

Item	Country: Elegant	Elegant: Green	Green: Modern	Modern: Used	Country: Green	Country: Modern	Country: Used	Elegant: Modern	Elegant: Used	Green: Used
E	ND	0.0	3.0	1.3	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.0	4.0
I	0.0	0.1	2.3	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.1	7.0
N	ND	0.0	4.0	ND	0.0	0.0	ND	0.0	ND	ND
S	1.0	0.1	2.5	1.5	ND	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	3.8
F	ND	0.0	9.0	ND	0.0	0.0	ND	0.0	ND	ND
T	1.0	0.1	1.7	1.5	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	2.5
J	1.0	0.1	2.1	1.8	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	3.8
P	ND	0.0	ND	ND	0.0	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Not NF	1.0	0.1	2.4	1.8	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	4.3
NF	ND	0.0	ND	ND	0.0	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Not NT	1.0	0.1	2.8	1.5	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	4.3
NT	ND	0.0	2.0	ND	0.0	0.0	ND	0.0	ND	ND
Not SJ	ND	0.0	6.0	ND	0.2	1.0	ND	0.0	ND	ND
SJ	0.0	0.1	2.2	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	3.3
Not SP	1.0	0.1	2.4	1.8	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	4.3
SP	ND	0.0	ND	ND	0.0	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND

Discussion

In looking at the resulting data, the authors anticipated that different personality traits and temperament types would choose differently. The prior tables indicate the likelihood that individuals who vary from one end of the continuum to the other for personality traits do have different preferences for choices in the simulation.

Customer Survey Incident

The OR calculations indicate that Introverts are 9 times more likely to choose using a survey over a suggestion box than extroverts (2.5 times as likely). This may in part be because introverts are more reflective and inward turning (Lawrence, 1995) while extroverts are more spontaneous. Reflection typically indicates more study and attempts to look beyond simple suggestions. In the same decision, individuals who were thinking and sensing are also more likely to prefer to use surveys (5 and 5.7 times, respectively).

Individuals of all temperaments were more likely to select a suggestion box as opposed to a table card. This may be because a suggestion box allows for a larger group of issues to be covered than would be found on a card. Guardians (SJ) were 5 times more likely to recommend using a survey than non-guardians. Guardians tend toward a logistical awareness, focusing on administering and supporting what an organization does (Keirse, 1998), this along with their reflective nature and need for information may have driven the use of a survey even though this is the most expensive alternative.

Fair Trade Campaign

In the fair-trade campaign, extroverts and perceives were more likely to select change in the advertising campaign than individuals with other personality traits. In this decision, individuals who were not guardians were 8 times more likely to change the advertising campaign than were guardians (1.3 times). Guardians are also relatively slow to make changes, this shows up in the decision dealing with changing the existing advertising campaign to a fair-trade campaign.

Live Entertainment

There was little interest in many of the live entertainment options, the one that was most often chosen based on personality traits was the decision to have live jazz instead of poetry readings at the shop was supported slightly more by intuitives (3.0 times) than sensing (2.3 times); by thinking (3.0 times) than feeling (1 times); and by judgementals (2.0 times) as opposed to perceives (ND). In looking at the temperaments, guardians had a slightly stronger preference for jazz over poetry than those who were not guardians (2.5 times to 2.0 times).

Interior Décor

In terms of personality traits, the two favored décors were green and used furniture. In comparing Modern furniture against green furniture, the individuals who had traits of extroversion, intuition, feeling, and judgmental preferred green furniture by 3, 4, 9 and 2.1 times respectively over modern furniture. Individuals who had traits of introversion, sensing, thinking and perception preferred green furniture by 2.3, 2.5, 1.7 and ND times over modern furniture. When looking at used furniture, individuals with personality traits of E, N, F and J preferred used furniture by 4, ND, ND, and 3.8 times over green furniture. Individuals with traits of I, S, T and P preferred used furniture by 7, 3.8, 2.5 and ND times over green furniture. Guardians were 3.3 times more likely to select used furniture (seeking a cost savings) as opposed to individuals who were not guardians and favored green furniture (6 times more likely).

Conclusion

Ultimately, given the nature of an exploratory study – is to answer the questions of whether there is a sufficient outcome to warrant additional investigation. In the case of the current paper, the answer is yes. The results appear to indicate a relationship. With a larger and perhaps more representatively matched sample additional and more sophisticated analysis could be performed. From that it could be determined what the true extent is between personality characteristics, at least as can be measured with current instruments, and decision-making style or preferences.

Overall, the data indicates that personality types and temperaments may prove useful in evaluating potential marketing and entrepreneurial decisions. While there is insufficient data to provide more definitive test results, the odds ratio method does show promise in providing an indicator of practical significance as opposed to statistical significance. Further data may provide a better indicator of both personality type and temperament as quick indicators of personal decision making. These items provide an insight into how individuals might approach a series of problems when there is only limited information available with which to make an informed decision. This supports the theory of bounded rationality developed by Herbert Simon (Simon, 1979) which indicates that individuals do not have the computational capacity to evaluate complex decisions and therefore limit their inquiry into the consequences of the decision. The decisions also indicate that the individuals were willing to make decisions, which may indicate a strong sense of self-efficacy in their own ability to make decisions with a lack of information.

Further research is warranted in evaluating the use of personality constructs from both the MBTI and the KTSII possibly in-conjunction with a brief survey that includes other decision related factors such as self-efficacy.

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SESSION 5.3: WHO AM I? STUDIES ON CONSUMER IDENTITY

Chair:
Jacob Hiler, Ohio University

Presentation

Comparing Consumer Identities between Carnists and Vegans: The Importance of Distinguishing Motivations for Going Vegan

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Richard O. Flamm, Florida Fish and Wildlife Research Agency, USA

R. Brian Buckler, Avila University, USA

As the number of consumers who are vegan and the amount spent on vegan food products increase around the world, consumer research focusing on veganism has become more prevalent. Considering, however, the widespread confusion displayed by many concerning the definition of veganism, this study demonstrates the importance of focusing on only ethical vegans when studying how consumer identities differ between carnists and vegans. Here, ethical vegans are defined as individuals who believe in the concept of animal rights, whereas carnists are defined as individuals who think that eating certain animals is ethical and appropriate. The data analysis shows that individuals can follow a plant-based diet for a number of reasons, and that lumping all subjects who follow such a diet into one single group called “vegan” can lead to research outcomes that are invalid and/or misleading as they disguise real differences between carnists and ethical vegans.

Introduction

The number of consumers who are vegetarian or vegan is increasing around the world, as is the number of products that cater to these consumer groups. In some markets, vegan food products have experienced an increase of 1500% during 2016 (VeganFood&Living.com 2016) and researchers at prominent institutions such as Oxford University and the British Heart Foundation Centre have been investigating the positive impact of veganism on the environment as well as human health and the economy (Springmann, Godfray, Rayner, and Scarborough 2016).

Consumer research, however, has also shown that there seems to be confusion concerning the definition of the construct vegan, and that this confusion might lead to conflicting research outcomes. For example, research that is directed at a general cross-section of the population and uses objective measures of vegetarianism and veganism has shown that the number of vegetarian adults in the U.S. has increased from 1.0% in 1997 to 3.4% in 2015, with about one half of the vegetarians appearing to be vegan (Vegetarian Resource Group 2015), a growth rate of 240% in 18 years. Research that uses self-classification into dietary groups shows an even steeper increase. That is, a recent report by GlobalData (2017) shows that the number of self-identified vegans has increased from 1% of the US population in 2014 to 6% in 2017, a growth rate of 500% in three years.

It appears that this steady increase in the number of individuals who prefer a meatless diet has led to new conflicts in our society. A Google search for omnivores against vegans displays 1.62 million hits and the search terms carnists against vegans show 557,000 hits (August 28, 2017). Many of these websites feature discussion groups or blogs that deal with reactions of carnists to vegetarians and vegans. And Carol J. Adams (2001) in her book *Living Among Meat-Eaters* identifies a dynamic between meat eaters and vegetarians that—though invisible—has a tendency to lead to “social interactions that can be painful and upsetting: conversations that become arguments; interactions that become confrontations; meals that exclude vegetarians; friends who sabotage them; nonvegetarian lovers who alienate them.”

Considering the animosity that is often displayed in carnist-vegan interactions, an increasing number of research studies have investigated individual difference factors between carnists and vegetarians/vegans, often with mixed results (Allen et al. 2000). Our research proposes that the problem leading to these results is twofold. First, most studies use self-identification instead of objective measures when assessing veganism, which seems to lead to inflated numbers because it likely includes individuals who misclassify. Second, most studies lump all plant-based individuals into the category vegan, regardless of their motivation for choosing this diet. Accordingly, our empirical work employed objective measures of dietary choices as well as assessed subjects’ reasons for eating a plant-based diet.

Data Collection

For the first step of data collection, participants in this study were provided through the Harris Panel, including members of its third party panel providers. Since this effort yielded mostly non-vegan subjects, the remainder of the data was collected with the help of animal rights and vegan organizations in the U.S. (e.g., Mercy for Animals and Vegetarian Resource Group). The data collection effort yielded a total of 2,133 valid responses.

Data Analyses

Of the 2,133 subjects, 864 (40.5%) reported the consumption of red meat and are therefore considered to be carnists, whereas 1,135 (53.2%) stated that they do not eat any type of meat or any animal byproducts and are thus considered to be vegan (classifications are derived from Curtis and Comer 2006).

Vegan subjects were asked to provide the main reason for going vegan. Here subjects were provided with a list of 11 reasons (identified through a thorough literature review). Of the usable 1,110 responses, animal rights was the most prevalent motivation (n=710; 64.0%), followed by health (n=207; 18.6%), and the environment (n=46; 4.1%).

To test whether these different categories of vegans differ concerning an attitude that is deemed of essential importance to ethical vegans, speciecism, defined as “a prejudice or attitude of bias in favor of the interests of members of one’s own species and against those of members of other species” (Singer 2002, p. 6), was used as the dependent variable. Here, Dhont et al.’s speciecism scale (2014) was used. This scale consists of eight 7-point scales (measured from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Sample items include the production of inexpensive meat, eggs, and dairy products justifies maintaining animals under crowded conditions and there is nothing wrong with killing animals for their fur to make clothes (fur coats) ($\alpha = .896$). Ethical vegans show the lowest scores on this measure as they disagree with the concept of speciecism. The statistical analysis using ANOVA shows that the model is significant ($F = 38.168$; $p < .000$). Post-hoc analysis based on Scheffe’s method of multiple comparison shows statistically significant differences among ethical vegans and a number of other types of vegans.

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Summary Brief

An Investigation of the Antecedent Relationships of Religiosity on Self-Control and Moral Identity

Franklin Tillman, The University of Mississippi, USA

The ethics literature has identified moral identity as an influence when making ethical decisions. Religiosity is investigated as an antecedent to individual moral identity and self-control. An individual's view of religion from an intrinsic or extrinsic dimension is investigated for effects on moral identity.

Introduction

Research in consumer ethics has increased in the last few years as businesses and academics have begun to understand the impact on consumer decisions. Previous studies have also indicated a link between religion and business (Vitell, 2009). Hunt and Vitell (1993) included religion in the revised general theory of ethics, stating that the strength of religiousness resulted in different individual decision making processes when facing various ethical decisions. Moral Identity has also been shown to be an important construct with the potential to predict ethical judgements, behavioral intentions, and possibly moral actions when involving ethical issues (Trevino et al., 2006). Moral identity is defined as an individual's self-concept that is organized around a set of moral traits such as honesty, fairness, compassion, and fairness. The role of moral identity in ethical decision making has not yet been fully explored, nor been tied to religiosity in existing literature (Vitell, 2009). The focus of this research is to examine religiosity as an antecedent of moral identity in individuals, and to examine the relationship between religiosity and self-control as an influence on moral identity.

Moral Identity

Previous research has identified two sources of moral motivation. Moral identity reflects the extent to which the components most essential to a person's identity, such as values, goals, and virtues, are part of morality (Vitell, 2009). Thus, when moral these moral values are important to one's self-identity the motivation to behave in accordance with one's sense of morality is increased. Within this perspective, moral identity and self-regulation are integrated, as these elements play a central role in an individual's ability to regulate moral behavior. Advocates of the moral identity theory posit that individuals will form self-identity by making commitments that are essential to a self-definition and consistent with self-perceptions. An implication of moral identity is that individuals may have similar moral beliefs, but have conflicting views in how morality impacts self-identity. Other researchers have proposed that moral self-definition is constructed in relation to the traits that the individual utilizes to organize personal traits (Vitell, 2009). These moral self-definitions will be more easily activated for individuals that are high in moral identity. Consistent with these self-definitions, various sub-conscious or conscious factors, such as religiosity or self-control, have the potential to activate mental faculties to represent the moral self or identity.

Hunt and Vitell's general theory of ethics considers religion to be an important factor in influencing ethical judgements (Hunt and Vitell, 1993). Religious beliefs will guide and influence individual ethical decision making processes. Religiosity has been defined as a belief in God and the commitment to follow the rules and principles that have been defined by God (McDaniel and Burnett, 1990). Religion has also been defined as a belief, and as a behavioral and attitudinal commitment to the teaching of religion. One of the earlier definitions of religiosity is the extent to which a person lives out his or her religious beliefs (Allport and Ross, 1967). Allport and Ross (1967) also distinguished between intrinsic and extrinsic religiosity, in which "The extrinsically motivated person uses his religion whereas the intrinsically motivated person lives his religion." Intrinsic religiosity indicates a person having a religious commitment and involvement for more inherent, spiritual objectives. The extrinsic dimension of religiosity refers to a more utilitarian motivation that may underlie religious behaviors, where the intrinsic dimension is focused on the inherent goals of the religion itself (Vitell, 2009). Extrinsic religiosity can potentially motivate an individual use religion for the purpose of achieving social or business oriented goals such as access to social networks or promotion of one's professional career, where intrinsic religiosity would guide an individual to religion for its more spiritual objectives, such as service to the religion or community. One area of focus for this study is to examine the relationships between extrinsic and intrinsic religious orientations with moral identity. The nature of these religious dimension leads to the prediction that individuals high in intrinsic religiosity will lead to higher levels of moral identification. Specifically,

H1a: Individuals higher in intrinsic religiosity will be higher in their levels of moral identity.

H1b: Individuals higher in extrinsic religiosity will be lower in their levels of moral identity.

Religiosity and Self-Control

Religiosity is likely another antecedent of self-control. Religion facilitates self-control by providing a set of guidelines or particular standards that must be abided by in questionable situations. Religious beliefs can supply an individual with the motivation, hope, and comfort that will allow them to maintain virtuous behaviors (Geyer and Baumeister, 2005). The same study, found that religion can also reinforce the feeling of guilt in order to promote prosocial behavior, because religion provides one with clear moral standards that enable an individual to evaluate how they compare to those standards. Religion has been shown to impact self-control in a variety of ways. Welch (2006) found that individuals higher in religiosity also tend to have higher self-control, and that the effects of religiosity may be especially intense among those with high self-control. The current study will examine the relationship of religiosity with self-control by determining whether or not the separate dimensions of religiosity, extrinsic and intrinsic, have a differential relationship with self-control. Baumeister and Vohs (2007) conducted a study that linked self-control with personal motivation and emphasize that the desire for social acceptance is a strong motivating force for people to confront. Therefore, people learn that restraint or self-control may be needed in order to gain social acceptance, and thus be more likely to engage in self-control in social situations.

H2a: Individuals higher in intrinsic religiosity will be higher in self-control.

H2b: Individuals higher in extrinsic religiosity will be lower in self-control

Previous research has shown that both religiosity and self-control have independent and separate influences over individual behaviors. Individuals higher in religiosity are less likely to engage in questionable or unethical behavior, similar to individuals who are higher in self-control. Therefore it can be expected that that both religiosity and self-control will have an independent influence on moral identity, but that some of the influence on moral identity may be mediated by self-control.

H3: The relationship between religiosity and moral identity will be partially mediated by self-control.

Discussion

The purpose of this research was to examine the dimensions of religiosity as an antecedent to moral identity and to examine the mediating role of self-control in this relationship. This research contributes to the understanding of moral motivation as part of moral reasoning and adds to the understanding of the characteristics of moral identity as a component of moral motivations. With the increasing emergence of marketing ethics as a research focus, this research presents a basis for future research in order to better comprehend potential antecedents that lead to a consumers decision to act in a particular moral or immoral manner, and the relationships between an individual's religiosity orientation and moral identity.

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SESSION 5.4: THE PROTECTION OF PLANET EARTH

Chair

Naz Onel, Stockton University

Presentation

A Duality of Ethical Sustainable Action and Lifestyles in Sustainable Buildings

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The sustainable building industry has grown exponentially with the United States Green Building Council's (USGBC) certification program, Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED). However, in the building industry, it is just 'assumed' that designing and constructing a sustainable building will lead consumers to ethical sustainable actions and lifestyles. This preliminary qualitative research study investigates the question: How do living and working in sustainable buildings change consumers' sustainable actions and lifestyles, and how do consumers' actions change the sustainability of buildings? Using Giddens' structuration theory as a theoretical framework, this study uses depth interviews to understand the interplay between sustainable buildings changing consumers' sustainable actions and lifestyles, and consumers changing the sustainability of buildings. This preliminary research study illustrates how sustainable buildings can dually structure and change consumer ethical sustainable action. Further research will produce a conceptual framework to present the findings.

Introduction

As of January 2017, in the United States, over 17 billion square feet of space has been LEED-certified as a "sustainable building" by the United States Green Building Council (USGBC.org 2016). As more buildings are built to be sustainable, understanding not only how living, working, and occupying these buildings affects consumers' sustainable actions and lifestyles, but how consumers' actions impact the sustainability of the building are essential to the research streams of sustainable consumer behavior, consumer ethics, and public policy. The intention of a sustainable building is to be less environmentally damaging to the environment, create a healthy environment for its consumers, and to provide a safe structure for its users and stakeholders (Yudelson 2008). To fulfill that intention, it is an assumption that the building's consumers will be ethically sustainable (Ucci 2010). These consumer decisions are ethical decisions not only for the consumers of the building but also for stakeholders as well (Ferrell and Ferrell 2008). This study asks two questions: How do living and working in sustainable buildings change people's ethical sustainable actions and lifestyles, and how do people change the sustainability of sustainable buildings?

The purpose of this study is to understand the interplay between sustainable buildings and its consumers' ethical actions and lifestyles, and the consumers' actions on sustainable buildings. Findings will help close the "gap" between sustainable intentions leading to sustainable actions (Kollmuss and Agyeman 2010). Through Anthony Giddens' (1984) structuration theory as a theoretical framework, this research examines the impact sustainable buildings have on consumers' ethical decisions and lifestyles and the impact consumers have on sustainable buildings.

Background and Theoretical Foundation

Sustainability (sustainable development) is the ability to "meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED 1987, p. 27). Sustainability, rooted in the "triple bottom line," has environmental impacts, business/economic impacts, and societal impacts (Yudelson 2008). Buildings have substantial impact on consumers' ethical sustainable actions and lifestyles (Scott 2009; Ucci 2010). However, without its consumers behaving sustainably as well, a sustainable building may fail. A sustainable building "is one that considers and reduces its impacts on the environment and human health...[it] is designed to use less energy and water and consider the life cycle of the materials used (Yudelson 2008, p. 3). The consumers of a sustainable building should act in an ethically sustainable way (Ucci 2010). In 1992, the USGBC started a third-party sustainable building certification program called Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED). LEED certifies buildings as sustainable or not sustainable.

In attempt to better understand how a sustainable space, such as a building can impact its consumers' actions and lifestyles (Scott 2009), and how consumers can impact the sustainability of a building, this study uses Giddens' (1984) structuration theory as a framework to guide this research. Anthony Giddens coined 'structuration theory' as a micro- and macro-level sociological theory to illustrate how individual actions can reshape larger social structures (i.e. sustainable buildings and policies) and norms, (i.e. sustainable actions), while at the same time showing how social structures and norms can reshape individual actions (Turner 2014). Giddens (1984) emphasized that actors (i.e.

consumers) use rules and resources to sustain and reproduce structures. Humpheys (2014) emphasized in Giddens theory that “human social activities...are recursive...they are not brought into being by social actors but continually repeated by social actors...[these] social actions have structural properties, patterns of routine action, and yet they can also be changed by human action...” (p. 267), known as the ‘duality of action.’

Methodology

This study uses a qualitative method of semi-structured, depth interviews (Crewell 2013). Through drawing themes from the coded interviews, themes (will) illustrate how sustainable buildings change its consumers’ ethical sustainable actions and lifestyles as well as how the consumers change the intended sustainability of the buildings. The participants of this study are 18 individuals who currently live and/or work in LEED-certified sustainable buildings. The participants were recruited from a small Midwestern sustainable US city. The sample is composed of 8 men and 10 women, with an age ranging from 33 to 76 years old and an average age of 50.4 years.

Findings and Discussion

This study is in the initial stages, with data analysis continuing. Preliminary findings show four themes. 1) Sustainability duality is more easily achieved from non-mandated policies and initiatives: Based on preliminary interview analysis, interviewees stated that if the policies and initiatives were mandated, it would have hurt the sustainability of the building and their sustainable actions. 2) Education is paramount to all sustainable decision-making actions and ethical lifestyle choices. Being educated about how to “use” the sustainable building not only impacts the sustainability of the building, but it also impacts the sustainable lifestyles of its consumers in other parts of their lives: at home, in other businesses, among others. 3) “Grassroots” approaches are more appropriate. Creating a “grassroots” feel to the sustainability of the building creates consumers who are more involved, leading to more sustainable ethical actions and lifestyle choices. A few participants concluded that they felt that a top-down approach would drive people away from being sustainable because building consumers would “feel like” they needed to be sustainable out of obligation to the sustainability policy. 4) “Keeping up with the Jones’.” This finding stems from the idea that building consumers need to keep up with the building’s other occupants. Many of the participants stated that they did not want to be known as the person who did not recycle, or who had the highest electric bill. Therefore, “Keeping up with the Jones’” led to the duality of action. The building influences the consumers’ ethical sustainable actions and lifestyles as well as their actions influence the sustainable building.

In conclusion, as the world’s limited resources become scarcer, ethical sustainable action and lifestyle choices (Scott 2009) will emerge as a larger goal for many (Humphreys 2014). As illustrated in this preliminary study, structuration theory helps clarify how sustainable buildings can dually structure individual action and how sustainability can be changed by human action (Giddens 1984). Through drawing themes from 18 interviews, further insights will develop implications for researchers, policymakers, and practitioners. Not only do (un)ethical sustainability decisions in buildings affect the environment, but they affect society, businesses, and the consumers as well (Yudelson 2008). When there is a duality of ethical sustainable action, sustainable buildings and their consumers will simultaneously influence each other and work together.

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Summary Brief

Effects of Green Color and Environmental Claims on Consumer Trust and Purchase Intention

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The importance of product packaging design as a vehicle for communication is growing in markets for sustainable (or green) products. Based on the Persuasion Knowledge Model, this study examines consumer responses to environmental verbal statements and green visual components of product packages. The research utilizes a 2 (Claim: Eco-friendly or More effective) x 2 (Color/Image: Green or Yellow) within-subjects experiment to understand how the color of the product itself and the promotional claim on packaging can affect buying decisions of consumers by varying product packaging on a bottle of dishwashing detergent. The findings support the necessity of congruity between color green and verbal claims of products when it comes to being perceived as honest. The results show that the verbal eco-claim is susceptible to persuasion knowledge processing if there is an ambiguity of the cue as a result of contradicting visual claims. When the detergent was green, subjects had higher purchase intentions when it claimed to be eco-friendly instead of being more efficient. However, when detergent was yellow, there were no significant differences of purchase intentions between the two claims. The results have important implications for product designers and marketers.

Introduction

Today, increasing concerns about the environment are causing consumers to change their shopping criteria and purchasing patterns greatly. In response to this growing consumer trend, which is considered to be one of the top ten global trends, firms are increasingly introducing environmentally friendly (also called “green” or “sustainable”) products (Olsen, Slotegraaf, and Chandukala, 2014). Although green products may be popular with some consumers, many do not make the ultimate purchase decisions until they are actually in the store. Despite the great importance of in-store stimuli, prior literature largely fails to consider how green packaging claims might affect the success of products. In this context, there is a need to understand the functioning of consumer decision process when it comes to products’ green assertions. The overall purpose of this study is to analyze the impact of different green claims on product packages as visual elements on consumer information processing.

Environmental claims on product packages can take variety of forms, such as words, brand names, symbols, emblems, logos, graphics, and colors. Highly inspirational, vigilantly prepared and well-executed package designs of the green products can influence consumer perceptions of substantial and insubstantial product attributes which will lead to a positive shopper response. The intent of this study is to make the first step to understand consumer attitudes towards green claims on packages by using a low involvement product, dishwashing liquid, and determine how the different product claims affect their decision making process. Specifically, this study investigates the role of two types of green claim elements commonly used in product packaging, environmental verbal statements and green visual components (i.e., color/imagery), on participants’ perceptions of the product advertisement credibility (honesty), their behavioral purchasing intent, and willingness to recommend to others.

Theoretical Background

In the current study, we draw on the Persuasion Knowledge Model (PKM) as a theoretical foundation to develop hypotheses regarding consumer response to environmental verbal statements and green visual components (i.e., color/imagery). The PKM suggests that consumers hold intuitive approaches which are active “in virtually all interactions with marketers,” persuasion knowledge allows consumers to “recognize, analyze, interpret [and] evaluate...persuasion attempts” and to form attitudes on that basis (Friestad and Wright 1994, p. 3). The PKM can be considered as an appropriate theoretical framework because it is based on the assumption that consumer beliefs about marketers’ strategic tactics form consumer persuasion which also accounts for the role of consumer skepticism (e.g., skepticism about environmental claims and cues). If consumers cannot have the ability to verify the statement with other supporting visual elements of the product (e.g., color, statement, picture), their perceived distrust (or skepticism) towards that product can upsurge significantly.

The literature review suggests that congruency between green (non-green) visual claims (color/image) and green (non-green) verbal claims will have a positive influence on consumers' responses with green (non-green) messages featured on product packaging. Based on the literature, four hypotheses were established and examined.

Research Method

A 2 (Claim: Eco-friendly or More effective) x 2 (Color/Image: Green or Yellow) within-subjects experiment was conducted by varying the color of the dishwashing detergent itself and promotional claim on the packaging on a bottle. Participants obtained through a networking procedure. All participants (n=85 & 59% female) in a within-subjects factorial design experiment were assigned to all of the experimental conditions: two types of product claims (eco-friendly and more effective) and two kinds of product packaging color/design (green-yellow and nature-effectiveness).

In the study model, two independent variables are considered to be product packages' image/color and claim. The dependent variables are considered to be consumers' (i) purchase intention, (ii) word-of-mouth (willingness to recommend), and (iii) trust. The variables measured by using 5-point Likert scale type questions. The relevant product attributes such as price, brand, convenience of use and quality are considered constant. To avoid the confounding effect of product familiarity, brand names were covered to minimize the effects of past knowledge.

Results

A repeated measures ANOVA demonstrated significant differences among the four product options evaluated for honesty ($F(3,252) = 37.51, p < .0001$, $M(\text{GreenEco})=3.67$, $M(\text{GreenEff})=2.41$, $M(\text{YellowEco})= 2.40$, $M(\text{YellowEff}) = 3.14$). Further pairwise t-tests showed that when the detergent was green, subjects found it to be more honest when it claimed to be eco-friendly instead of being more efficient ($t(84)=7.99, p < .0001$). However, when detergent was yellow, honesty perceptions were significantly higher for the more efficiency claim than eco-friendly one ($t(84)=-5.13, p < .0001$). When we compare the stimuli based on the claims, eco-friendly claim produced significantly higher honesty perceptions when detergent was green vs. yellow ($t(84)=8.04, p < .0001$) and more efficiency claim had higher honesty perceptions when the product was yellow instead of green ($t(84)=-4.81, p < .0001$). Thus, our findings support the relationship between color and the green claims of products when it comes to being perceived as honest.

Furthermore, when we run a repeated-measured ANOVA for purchase intentions, our results show that subjects had significantly higher purchase intentions for the green eco-friendly detergent ($F(3,252) = 23.56, p < .0001$, $M(\text{GreenEco})=3.63$, $M(\text{GreenEff})=2.90$, $M(\text{YellowEco})= 2.61$, $M(\text{YellowEff}) = 2.72$). Further pairwise t-tests showed that when the detergent was green, subjects had higher purchase intentions when it claimed to be eco-friendly instead of being more efficient ($t(84)=5.20, p < .0001$). However, when detergent was yellow, there were no significant differences of purchase intentions between eco-friendly and more efficient claims ($t(84)=-.91, p > .3$). When we compare the stimuli based on the claims, eco-friendly claim produced significantly higher purchase intentions when detergent was green vs. yellow ($t(84)=7.11, p < .0001$). Different from the honesty results, subjects had higher purchase intentions for the green detergent than the yellow one even when both had the more effective claim ($t(84)=2.08, p < .05$). It seems like purchase intentions for eco-color has a superior impact on purchase intentions than the claim of the product.

Discussion and Implications

The results of the study showed that consumer trust and purchase intention change based on the evaluation of green attributes of the product packaging. Our findings support the necessity of congruity or relevancy between eco-color and verbal claims of products when it comes to being perceived as honest. The results show that the verbal eco-claim is susceptible to persuasion knowledge processing if there is an ambiguity of the cue as a result of contradicting visual claims. Thus, when the product packaging was green color with verbal claim of "more effective" it was approached with skepticism and perceived as lacking honesty. A similar result was also reported for the honesty perception when the product packaging was yellow color with a verbal eco-claim. The results suggest a limited necessity for strong environmental claims on product packaging since the analyses showed the weak role they play in consumer perception of the brand's honesty as well as the consumer purchase intentions. As a result, companies may find it equally effective to use green imagery and color that can serve as environmental cues in their products. These findings can be directly used by product designers and marketers in developing attractive product packaging designs, advertisements and other marketing communication tools.

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Summary Brief

Keep it on the Down Low: Identity-Based Barriers to Environmental Action

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Although social observability (the potential for others to view one's behaviors) generally promotes socially desirable behaviors, we propose that social identity-based barriers to pro-environmental consumption may be heightened by social observability. In three studies, we demonstrate that social observability negatively impacts pro-environmental willingness for consumers low in environmental self-identity (those who do not see themselves as environmentalists) due to the social identity threat concerns of being associated with an undesirable identity. We find that social observability also produces deleterious downstream consequences, such that individuals low in environmental self-identity are less likely to engage in future sustainable behaviors as well. In contrast, high environmental self-identifiers' environmental willingness is not dependent on the social observability of the behavior. Thus, to encourage more pro-environmental action in the public sphere, it may be better not to frame behaviors as explicitly pro-environmental.

Introduction

The threat of climate change is a major social problem that requires immediate action across the world (Brown 1996). To reduce the probability of catastrophic climate change, global greenhouse gas emissions must be reduced by approximately fifty percent by the year 2050 (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change 2014). Further exacerbating the problem was the recent decision of the United States to withdraw from the Paris Climate Agreement, leading many world leaders to fret about the world's ability and commitment to adequately mitigate climate change. Therefore, it is becoming increasingly clear that it is not enough to rely on only the most adamant environmentalists or the most industrialized countries to address the issue. Instead, it requires large-scale efforts by the masses both within and between nations (Milinski et al. 2008). As such, it is crucial for consumer research to identify factors that promote and inhibit climate action, not just among environmentalists, but also among those members of the population who may seek to avoid such a label.

Research has shown that various forms of prosocial behavior, including environmental behavior, substantially increase when an individual's effort can be viewed in public (vs. private) (e.g., Ariely, Bracha, and Meier 2009; Ashraf, Bandiera, and Jack 2014; Griskevicius, Tybur, and Van den Bergh 2010). This heightened prosociality occurs, in part, because developing a prosocial reputation yields social status. This may lead us to conclude that publicizing pro-environmental behaviors for all to see may be an effective strategy to encourage climate-friendly behavior among consumers. However, research has yet to investigate how one's social identities influence this phenomenon. Specifically, if a public behavior is generally viewed as prosocial, but associated with a social identity that is incongruent or undesirable to a given person, is social observability of the behavior likely to encourage or discourage action? Given the role environmental self-identity plays in influencing a wide-range of environmental behaviors (Whitmarsh and O'Neill 2010), it is useful to examine the extent to which public versus private behaviors are influenced by self-identity. In the current work, we ask whether social observability will increase pro-environmental intentions and behaviors for consumers who do and do not view themselves as environmentalists, and in turn what effect performing public environmental behavior has on future willingness to engage in climate-friendly behavior.

We investigate how environmental self-identity (i.e., the extent to which one views oneself as the type of person whose behaviors are environmentally-friendly; Van der Werff, Steg, and Keizer 2013) moderates the effect of the social observability (public vs. private) of an environmental behavior on willingness to engage in that behavior. We conducted three experiments and found that social observability of actions (vs. private or a not-specified control) decreased environmental willingness for a given behavior for consumers with a low (vs. high) environmental self-identity. Social identity threat concerns of being associated with an undesirable identity mediated this effect. Moreover, social observability reduced future pro-environmental intentions and behaviors for individuals with low environmental self-identity, providing evidence for negative-spillover.

Theoretical Background

Applying a social identity-based perspective, there are reasons to believe that social observability may differentially impact the environmental behavior of consumers who report low (vs. high) levels of environmental self-identity. Previous consumer research has elucidated that many choices and behaviors are driven by the desire to avoid unwanted identities (e.g., Berger and Heath 2008; Reed, Forehand, Puntoni, and Warlop 2012; White and Dahl 2007). For example, Berger and Heath (2008) found that university students stopped wearing a popular wristband when it became associated with an undesirable group on campus (a “nerdy” organization). Additionally, White and Dahl (2007) demonstrated that when consumers’ social identity was salient, they expressed more negativity towards and less purchase intentions of products associated with out-groups. Notably, it can be argued that this avoidance of being associated with undesirable social identities helps protect against the possibility of a categorization threat (i.e., being categorized against one’s will), a type of social identity threat (Branscombe, Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje 1999). That is, it is psychologically threatening for people to be misperceived by others, such as if a senior college student was believed to be a freshman by his peers. As such, people’s behaviors in front of others are often influenced by their motivation to not only project their preferred social image, but also avoid the possibility of being categorized in an undesirable social group.

Building on the above reasoning, we reason that for some (consumers with low environmental self-identity), pro-environmental behaviors may be associated with undesired or incongruent identities, with negative outcomes concerning willingness to act on environmental issues like climate change in certain contexts (when one’s behavior is socially observable). Specifically, an environmental self-identity may be undesired if it is associated with negatively evaluated or incongruent identities, such as politically liberal for conservatives or radical for moderates. To the extent that a given behavior is linked with such a social identity, this may discourage engaging in the behavior, particularly when the behavior is socially observable (Leary and Kowalski 1990). If our behavior can be seen and judged by others, then we are more motivated to dissociate from undesired social identities because others may categorize us in a self-perceived incongruent social group if not. Thus, in relation to the current research, we predict that social observability will reduce the pro-environmental intentions of consumers with low environmental self-identity, as they are likely concerned with being associated with an incongruent social identity (i.e., an environmentalist). On the other hand, social observability should have no negative effect on the pro-environmental intentions of people with high environmental self-identity as they do not view the focal identity as undesirable and, therefore, should not have any social identity threat concerns associated with acting pro-environmentally.

Findings

We conducted three experimental studies in the current research. Amongst a sample of undergraduate students in the lab, Study 1 found that a pro-environmental behavior being socially observable (versus performed privately) significantly decreased intentions to engage in the behavior for people with low environmental self-identity. In addition, the opportunity to engage in a socially observable environmental behavior also produced negative spillover for low environmental self-identity individuals, whereby they exhibited less willingness to engage in future pro-environmental action. In contrast, the social observability of the initial behavior had no effects on intentions to perform that given behavior or on future environmental behavior for people with high environmental self-identity. Study 2 sampled the general population in an online survey and replicated these findings, and provided crucial support for the socially observable (vs. private or control) condition being the driver of the observed effects. Finally, Study 3 showed that social identity threat concerns served as the psychological process underlying the observed effects. Across Studies 2 and 3, we also controlled for other important individual-difference variables such as political orientation to better isolate the moderating effect of environmental self-identity on social identity threat concerns and pro-environmental consumption intentions. Taken together, these findings suggest that it is a mistake to urge non-environmentalists to behave sustainably in a public manner for the world to see, as identity-based barriers may be a significant obstacle to engaging in public pro-environmental consumption and behavior.

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Summary Brief

Unethical Consumer: An exploration of Amazon's incentivized reviewers' community through a netnography.

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This study focused on an online community of consumers who receive products in return for their review on Amazon. Relying on a netnography and thematic analysis this study uncovered consumers' unethical behavior driven by consumption immorality. This study not only confirmed the presence of inflated reviews but also highlighted immorality and unethical behaviors in entire reviewing communities. It appears that potential for benefits associated with receipt of free or discounted product are heavier weighted than the importance of morality and ethical behavior. Findings suggest a need to further study consumer ethical behavior and morality.

Introduction

Shopping online gives customers the option to make purchase decision from anywhere they want at their convenience. It literally allows for shopping right at their fingertips. However, online shopping comes at a disadvantage because customers seldom have the chance to touch, feel or sample the product before they purchase it. This creates a level of uncertainty. The goal of a marketer is to reduce consumers' uncertainty associated with an online purchase to ensure consumers' positive purchasing journey and, ultimately, an actual purchase. An important question for businesses is how to efficiently present product information to customers. In addition to business generated marketing messages, many organizations have added a platform for customer reviews. Amazon.com, a large U.S. based online retailer has been the leader in consumer generated online reviews since allowing it in 1995. While initially many competitors considered allowing consumers to offer product-related feedback risky on Amazon's part, it turned out to be highly beneficial to the online retailer (Ante 2009). Further, it established Amazon as trustworthy and a "go-to" place for many of the online purchases. This is likely because online reviews play a major role in consumer decision making during consumers' online purchasing process (Bounie et al. 2005). Consumers consult these reviews during the research phase of their buying decision process to reduce purchase uncertainty.

Body

Word of mouth has always been known to have an impact on consumer behavior. With emergence of the internet and online shopping, e-word-of-mouth as generated by consumers in online review forums became of great importance to consumers and sellers. In terms of consumers, online reviews, especially those with high quality reviews and higher ratings have a positive impact on consumer online purchases (Chen, Dhanasobhon and Smith 2001). Positive reviews also positively affect product sales. Although different, it must be noted, product characteristics, consumer characteristics and other, additional characteristics such as competition affects the degree of consumer reliance on online reviews (Zhu and Zhang, 2010), online reviews greatly affect consumer purchasing decision in an online environment. It is often assumed that those reviews are unbiased (Hu, Liu and Sambamurthy 2010). In fact, a quick look at reviews on Amazon gives insights into how unbiased the reviews really are.

This study revealed that incentivized reviewers, in most cases, violated Amazon's terms of service and attempted to deceive, intentionally or not, other consumers by manipulating the reviewing system in several ways. First, the requirements of high reviews contributed to unusually high number of 5-star reviews affect the "at first glance" perception of potential product quality to those consumers who were only checking the star rating prior to purchase. Second, reviewers were discouraged from leaving unfavorable reviews regardless of their true experience which further magnifies immorality of the group. With time, it appeared that this behavior bothered fewer and fewer consumers thus, possibly suggesting immorality being normalized in the group culture. All these behaviors took place under prevalent fear of being caught by Amazon and having reviewing or account privileges removed.

As Amazon banned the incentivized reviews from its website, not only a return to morality was noted but turn toward immorality, more unethical and even illegal behaviors emerged. With greater pressures from Amazon, part of the community became even more strategic in its unethical actions all in order to receive free or discounted product.

Findings in the study, therefore, question consumer morality and uncover numerous unethical behaviors in those consumers who should actually show a level of moral responsibility toward consumer who made decisions based on reviewer's word of mouth. Consumers who were part of the reviewing community were willing to behave unethically and, often, against retailer's rules in form of terms of service. The unethical behavior was seemingly driven by a desire to receive free or discounted product. Those individuals who felt uneasy about leaving undeservedly high rating for a sub-quality product were either pressured to leave a good review under threat of being banned or they had to go through a lengthy process that would release them from writing a particular review if the review was to be negative. Many of those reviewers chose to leave a good review after all because it was easier than having had to submit all forms and explain themselves to often rude group administrator.

Overall, consumers who were active members of the reviewing communities under investigation engaged in immoral behavior driven by desire to receive free products. That immoral behavior exhibited by posting dishonest reviews has likely affected numerous consumers who made their purchases based on dishonest reviews. Because moral standard would suggest that this type of behavior is dishonest and unethical but, yet, it was widely accepted in reviewing communities, it appears that those communities, like many sub-cultures, developed their own set of moral standards. Those moral standards not only permitted but encouraged inflated reviews. The only major division between the members of communities occurred in the third era. Members split into those who followed Amazon terms of service and those who clearly violated them not only passively but actively by accepting gift cards and PayPal payments.

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**SESSION 5.5: PANEL PRESENTATION: PSYCHODYNAMIC
LIMITATIONS OF ETHICAL CHOICE RECOGNITION IN
ORGANIZATIONS**

Chair:
Mary F Mobley, Augusta University

Special Session

Psychodynamic Limitations of Ethical Choice Recognition in Organizations

Mary F. Mobley, Augusta University, USA

Michael C. Mobley, Medical College of Georgia, USA

Richard Easley, Baylor University, USA

The purpose of this panel is to discuss psychodynamic limitations associated with personality disorders and negative personality traits in the context of ethical choice recognition within organizations. Because of the toxic organizational environments that can be created by negative personality traits and personality disorders, a breakdown of an ethical culture could result. The session will include discussions of the stifling effects of personality disorders and negative personality traits that can impede the very recognition and discussion of ethics within an organization. Leadership success could be weakened if such negative behaviors go unaddressed. Educational implications will be discussed and active audience participation will be welcomed.

Introduction

At times there may be tendencies to assume that if people just would critically think through ethical issues, they could simply enumerate the ethical choices that lay before them, even if the choices are emotionally and politically difficult. Given certain psychological profiles, however, ethical concerns may not be a major or even minor part of an individual's consideration set in decision-making. For example, given certain psychological predispositions, some individuals may introduce an extreme straw man argument as an acknowledgement of ethical concerns. Such an idea is mentioned only as a duplicitous strategic detraction and is never intended to be part of major considerations in decision-making. Of course, such tactics can place persons with rational ethical concerns on the defensive, leaving them frustrated as such discussions lead to cleaning up intended exaggerations and over-interpretations of the meaning of sincerely ethically-motivated options.

To advance the study of ethical choice recognition, there is merit in studying different types of dysfunctional leaders. McIntosh and Rima (1997) identified five types of "dark" leaders. These leaders include (1) the narcissistic leader, (2) the compulsive leader, (3) the paranoid leader, (4) the codependent leader, and (5) the passive-aggressive leader. Weaver and Yancey (2010) wrote an overview that discusses the impact of these five dysfunctional categories, provide empirical insights, and gave options to consider when addressing these issues. Although the panel discussion will be limited to the five categories above, there are other negative personality traits and personality disorders that also have much potential in also exacerbating organizational disruptions.

Below, a brief overview of the five types of dark leaders is set forth as described by McIntosh and Rima (1997) and Weaver and Yancey (2010). These works provide the major framework for discussing unhealthy personality traits and disorders. The panelists will discuss each type of the dysfunctional leadership styles and will present rationales for the potential of employee suppression of ethical choice recognition given dark leadership styles. Also, the panelists will discuss the effects of dark leadership on the overall organizational climate.

Narcissistic Personality Disorder

According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th Edition (DSM-5), "The essential feature of narcissistic personality disorder is a pervasive pattern of grandiosity, need for admiration, and lack of empathy that begins by early adulthood and is present in a variety of contexts" (American Psychiatric Association, 213, p. 670). Many times a narcissist is on a quest for admiration, which can manifest itself through extreme boasting and a sense of entitlement. Narcissists can employ tactics that are ultimately self-defeating because they focus on their goals at the expense of others, they undermine interpersonal relationships, they are derogatory toward others (Morf & Rhodewalt 2001) and they are hypervigilant toward perceived threats (Weaver and Yancey 2010). As it is characteristic of narcissists to lack empathy (Brown and Bosson 2001), this negative trait has particular meaning when considering how a governing philosophy of decision-making is crafted.

Because empathy is not part of the core reasoning process of the narcissist, ethical choice recognition may not be of concern to such a leader. For example, Soyer, Ravenpor, and Koplman (1999) found that narcissists were more at

ease with ethically questionable sales behavior. In other words, those with extreme narcissistic traits may be virtually unable to empathize with victims of unethical behavior because it is not part of their core belief system. Decisions tend to be made around promotion of self. Doty and Fenlason (2013, p. 55) stated that in the extreme such toxic leaders can devastate "esprit de corps, discipline, initiative, drive, and willing service of subordinates and the units they comprise." Latham (2008) lamented the fact that effective ways of dealing with narcissist personality disorder in the workplace has been particularly elusive.

Obsessive-Compulsive Personality Disorder (OCPD)

According to the DSM-5, "The essential feature of obsessive-compulsive personality disorder is a preoccupation with orderliness, perfectionism, and mental and interpersonal control, at the expense of flexibility, openness, and efficiency (American Psychiatric Association 2013, p. 679). This hyper-need for control can extend to all areas of life including the workplace. Individuals with this personality disorder tend to micro-manage and this can often lead them down the path of becoming a workaholic. For example, they fail to delegate and install highly bureaucratic policies and structures necessary for the efficient running of the organization (De Vies 1994); obsessions with details and perfection can lead to missed deadlines. They can be severely judgmental of themselves and others. They are also known to be morally inflexible and they want to maintain tight controls over power.

Inflexibility and rigidity can lead to lack of recognition of ethical options in decision-making. Because individuals with OCPD have a need for excessive control, their perceived need for input from others are limited. They could easily fail to see the ethical options open to them in organizational decision-making due to the fact they have a need to micromanage and are not open to the input of others.

Paranoid Personality Disorder

According to the DSM-5, "The essential feature of paranoid personality disorder is a pattern of pervasive distrust and suspiciousness of others such that their motives are interpreted as malevolent" (American Psychiatric Association 2013, p. 649). Those with traits of paranoid personality disorder can interpret compliments as criticisms. They can also hold grudges to perceived insults with such psychological energy that they are quick to counterattack. According to Lipman-Blumen (2006), paranoid leaders are hostile toward many people as their interpretation of events entails a hostile bias when, in fact, the events may be perfectly benign

Individuals with paranoid traits can involve themselves in surveillance of employees and require extra reporting and additional meetings in an attempt to control. The paranoid leader can be so hostile that it creates a culture of fear and anxiety. As time passes, the subordinates of paranoid leaders can become self-protective and keep their opinions of ethical issues to themselves. The panelists suggest that the paranoid leader will tend to squash any open discussions of ethic recognition as the leader may take any suggestions or insights as a personal insult of their abilities to lead. Employees may quickly learn that if they speak they may well be inviting hostile retaliation.

Codependency

According to the DSM-5, codependency is not listed as a personality disorder (American Psychiatric Association, 2013) but negative personality traits are associated with it. Codependency is an attempt to control personal feelings through external control techniques, such as controlling people, things and events. The issue of control can become central to every aspect of life which can overwhelm the codependent and cause interpersonal difficulties between the targeted individuals and the overly-involved codependent. For example, codependents can become enmeshed in the lives of others and simply cannot acknowledge normal boundaries between themselves and others. They can also allow people to intrude indiscriminately into their lives and accept the intrusion without protest (Cook & Goff 2002). Codependents are concerned with excessive people-pleasing and they can seek constant approval. They may exhibit a very high empathy level which can lead to burnout at work (Germain 2015). Whitfield (1992, p.816) framed codependency in the strongest of terms stating that "co-dependency is not only the most common addiction, it is the base addiction out of which all our addictions and compulsions emerge."

When codependents describe their personal feelings, one often learns of devastating disappointments, rumination of personal insults, and the tendency to over-personalize actions of others. Schaef and Fassel (1998) stated that it should not be of surprise that codependent leaders can bring their self-defeating behaviors to the workplace. Perhaps their greatest workplace weakness, according to Schaef and Fassel (1998), is the codependent's inability to manage conflict. As conflict resolution is an essential part of successful leadership, codependents may be unable to handle ethical concerns in a forthright and timely manner. Because the codependent can be hypersensitive and experience high anxiety levels, employees may come to understand that serious turmoil may result from honest recognition and discussion of ethical issues. Given their dysfunctional traits, codependents may well interpret legitimate ethical recognition by employees as personal insults about their competency to manage well. It may come to be that

subordinates feel they are walking on eggshells when voicing concerns of any type, including those of an ethical nature. The behaviors of a codependent, therefore, may lead to workplace suppression of normal discussions of ethical recognition.

Passive Aggressive Personality Disorder

Although there is insufficient information to warrant the inclusion of passive aggressive personality disorder as an official category, it has been under consideration for inclusion as a possible category but was not included in DSM-5 (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Persons with the traits of passive aggressive personality disorder are characterized by the following behaviors: (1) passively resist fulfilling routine social and occupational tasks; (2) complain of being misunderstood and unappreciated by others; (3) are sullen and argumentative; (4) unreasonably criticize and scorn authority; (5) express envy and resentment toward those apparently more fortunate; (6) convey exaggerated and persistent complaints of personal misfortune; and (6) vacillate between hostile defiance and contrition (American Psychiatric Association, 1994, pp.734-735). Ashworth and Lee (1990) identified persons who convey aggressive feelings though passive means present with behaviors that include verbal indirectness, verbal passivity, indirect and physically passive behaviors, action avoidance, blame avoidance, change avoidance, resistance, "passing the buck," playing dumb, over-conforming, depersonalizing, smoothing and stretching, stalling, playing safe, justifying, scapegoating, misrepresenting, escalating commitment, resisting change, and protecting turf. Wetzler and Morey (1999) added obstructionism and passive deceit to the list, and Milton (1993) added negativism.

Behaviors that characterize persons with passive aggressive personality disorder can have a chilling effect on organizations. Johnson and Klee (2007) stated that one person's decline into passive-aggressive behavior can initiate a ripple of negative behaviors that are toxic to workplace interfaces. When employees face such behaviors as passive hostility, unreasonable resistance, inordinate slowness in response from leaders, then it is rational to suspect that employees know that the hostile environment will only get worse if they persist in their suggestions of ethical recognition and action. There are often initial phrases that can be used that capture passive aggressive language, such as "We will take that under consideration" (with no time line), "Let's table that for now" (with no time line), "My hands are tied" (without any explanation); or "I looked into that already" (without explanation). Organizational toxicity of the passive aggressive leadership can stifle meaningful ethical recognitions in organizations.

Implications

The discussion lead by the panel will highlight psychodynamic limitations associated with personality disorders and will link dark leader's destructive behaviors relative to of ethics-recognition suppression. Note that there are a number of similarities among the different types of dark leadership and there is often comorbidity relative to these personality dysfunctions. Such traits related to personality abnormalities of leaders can lead to a deficiency in of harnessing thoughtful input from employees. Because of the toxic organizational environments created by negative personality traits and personality disorders, a breakdown of an ethical culture could result. The panelists suggest that by identifying the negative consequences of dark leadership, organizations may be less willing to tolerate dark leaders' destructive behaviors and to consider human resource systems for hiring and appraising those for leadership roles. Also, executive leadership programs could be constructed to include psychodynamic issues for the aim of reducing the negative human and organizational toll of serious personality disorders. The effects of such behavior on an ethical decision-making can be significant, while in addition, these dysfunctional behaviors may have serious consequences on other well-known organizational aspects such as employee turnover, workplace morale, and other quality-of-workplace factors.

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**SESSION 5.6: STRATEGIC IMPLEMENTATION: MANAGING THE
MARKETING FUNCTION UNDER IMPERFECT INFORMATION**

Chair:

Harriette Bettis-Outland, University of West Florida

Summary Brief

A Review of Organizational Learning: What role does Organizational Learning have in Firm Performance?

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A review of the organizational learning literature has been conducted and a conceptual model is proposed. While research surrounding organizational learning literature has touched upon many issues and themes, there is still work to be done on this phenomenon, especially surrounding the effects of national culture, industry dynamism, leadership style, and organizational culture. Additionally, the continued study on organizational learning should embrace a multi-disciplinary stance as this one topic cannot be owned by simply one discipline.

Introduction

To understand organizational learning, one must understand what constitutes an organization. Is an organization an amalgamation of people and resources, or is the whole greater than the sum of its parts? According to Cyert and March (1963) firms are adaptive entities and are more than just bundles of resources. Organizations share information and create organizational memory with shared beliefs, assumptions, and norms (Arygris and Schon, 1978). Additionally, organizational learning is important for firms as it has been shown to lead to positive outcomes. Firms develop capabilities through organizational learning, which results in competitive advantage (Hurley and Hult 1998). The below framework at Figure 1 (e.g., Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Learning Types) visually represents the role of organizational learning, as found and outlined by the current state of the organizational literature.



Figure 1

Evolution of Organizational Learning

It could be said that the study of organizational learning all began with Cyert and March's (1963) book on the behavioral theory of the firm, which stated that firms were more than just a bundle of resources or a group of people. Instead, firms are adaptive systems and individuals have bounded rationality. Organizations as collectives learn through interaction with their environment. A great deal of research has been done on firm orientations such as market orientations (Slater and Narver, 1995; Desphande and Farley, 2004), customer orientations (Desphande and Farley, 2004), learning orientations (Sinkula et al., 1997) and their effect on organizational learning. Additionally, innovation (Hurley and Hult, 1998), information technology (Tippins and Sohi, 2003), and knowledge management (Laio and Wu, 2010) can also influence organizational learning. Leadership and management styles (Schein, 1993) have also been shown to influence organizational performance through organization learning and organization innovation (Garcia-Morales et al., 2011). An interesting stream of research also looked at organizational culture (Weerawardena et al. 2006), organizational learning mechanisms (Popper and Lipshitz, 2000), and organizational climate (Desphande

et al., 1993) on organizational learning and firm performance. It was found that an appropriate learning climate is necessary for organizational learning (Slater and Narver, 1995). Organizational climate focuses on decision making process of an organization and is different from organizational culture (Desphande et al., 1993).

Conclusion

From Cyert and March (1963) to Hurley and Hult (1998) to Deshpande and Farley (2004), the literature surrounding organizational learning has evolved from acknowledging that firms are adaptive entities to relating market orientation, organizational culture, and innovation to organizational learning outcomes. In order to gain sustainable competitive advantage, firms must embrace organizational learning. The research has proven that this is an important construct. Currently, with the state of the literature and research where it is, there still needs to be further testing, especially within the contexts of leadership, organization culture, national culture, industry dynamism, and firm innovation. Dodgson (1993) stressed the importance of a multi-disciplinary approach to organizational learning research. Additionally, this framework can highlight that there are different leadership styles, organizational cultures, learning types, innovation types, and external factors that influence organization learning and firm outcomes. It is possible that different amalgamations of these constructs can produce different results for a firm. Understanding and fostering an organizational learning orientation, culture, and climate can best set a firm up for sustainable competitive advantage.

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Summary Brief

How Does Information Overload and Information Distortion Affect Customer Information Quality and the Development of a Successful CRM Implementation?

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R. Dale Wilson, Michigan State University, USA

This model examines how two information characteristics (information overload and information distortion) affect customer information quality. Specific aspects of customer information quality (timeliness, accuracy, adequacy, completeness and credibility) are examined to determine which components of information quality will most likely result in a successful CRM implementation.

Introduction

Customer information forms the foundation of any Customer Relationship Management (CRM) system. Customer information is captured in numerous ways including sales interactions, customer service calls, trade shows, logistics and customer training sessions. Customer information is fed into various CRM technology systems, analyzed, then used by management to align with CRM strategy (Croteau and Li 2003; Lee 2000).

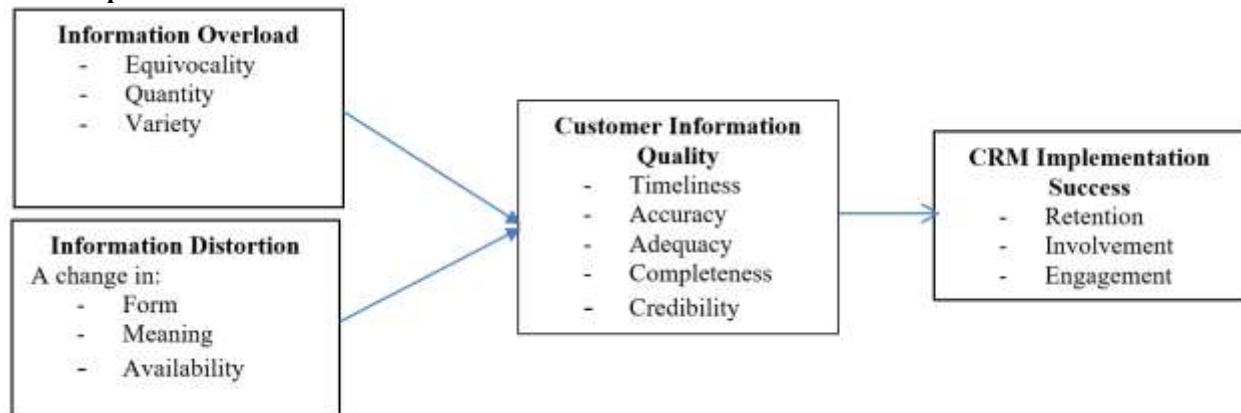
Surprisingly however, only a few recent studies address issues associated with the quality of customer information that is integrated into CRM systems. A database search of academic publications resulted in 120 articles that include the terms “information quality” and “CRM” either in the title or abstract. However, only eight of these writings were published during the five year period from 2012-2017. Examples of these writings include Chuang and Lin, 2013; Giannakis-Bompolis and Boutsouki, 2014; Peltier, Zahay, and Lehmann 2013.

Some researchers define CRM as simply the implementation of one or more technological tools such as sales force automation, customer contact management, or electronic data interchange (Lee 2000). Others view CRM as the integration of these technological tools along with a strategic vision that emphasizes understanding customer value and developing customer loyalty (Lee 2000; Srivastava, Shervani, and Fahey 1999). Recent CRM studies examine how customer information can be incorporated into CRM systems to increase customer retention, involvement and engagement (Brodie, Ilic, Juric, and Hollebeek 2013; Giannakis-Bompolis and Boutsouki, 2014).

Quality of customer information is at the core of a successful CRM strategy. However, under certain conditions there is a reluctance of some parties to share customer information with others. For instance, reluctance to share information could be a direct result of office politics, where pertinent customer information is intentionally withheld from other relevant parties; exaggerated far beyond its original meaning; or otherwise distorted. In other cases, reluctance or inability to effectively share customer information occurs indirectly, as when information overload renders it almost impossible to distinguish between important and unimportant customer information. Consequently, information overload can result in omission and error (Vickery and Vickery 1987). Perceived customer information quality, measured by the timeliness, accuracy, adequacy, completeness and credibility of customer information, will suffer regardless of whether the reluctance or inability to share information is direct or indirect (Mohr and Sohi 1995).

CRM success relies heavily on quality customer information. Consequently, this paper addresses the following research questions: (1) What is the effect of information overload in the development of quality customer information? (2) What is the effect of information distortion in the development of quality customer information? (3) What aspects of customer information quality are most critical to ensure a successful CRM implementation?

Figure 1: Impact of Information Overload and Information Distortion on Customer Information Quality and CRM Implementation Success



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Presentation

The Impact of Resource Scarcity on Managing Market Agility

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In this presentation, it is argued that the practice of marketing agility may produce a sense of temporal scarcity causing managers to make suboptimal choices when developing and implementing strategic choices to respond to changes in the competitive environment. The conditions under which temporal scarcity is prevalent are discussed along with future research recommendations.

Introduction

Given the recent volatility in the global economy, researchers have begun to question the utility of conventional models and business concepts to capture the rate and complexity of these changes and provide strategic options to firms on how best to compete (e.g., Chen et al. 2010; Harrigan 2017; Kraaijenbrink et al. 2010). In response, there have been recent calls for more time and context-sensitive strategies that give firms the capacity to respond quickly to ongoing global market disruptions and developments. Gomes, Sousa and Vendrell-Herrero (2017), in a recent call for papers for the International Marketing Review, challenged researchers to examine how best to conceptualize and measure this in what they have dubbed “international marketing agility.”

In doing so, academics will have a number of allied literatures on flexibility and agility from the strategic management, economics, organizational theory and marketing disciplines from which to draw upon (Roberts and Stockport 2014) as well as the growing awareness and support from practitioners who see marketing agility as extremely important in their efforts to outperform in their markets (Rooney 2014). As such, there will be no shortage of issues to consider as the field begins to flush out what marketing agility means either domestically or in an international domain. While experts have yet to agree upon a precise definition of market agility (Peterson 2012) most see it as involving firms developing the capacity to remain flexible, take frequent, customer-centric actions in response to market developments that result in profitability and corporate competitiveness (Barkema et al. 2002; Grewal and Thansuhaj 2001; Levine 1988; Poolton et al. 2006). In spite of the lack of a precise working definition, the present study pushes ahead to examine conditions under which the practice of marketing agility as presently called for in the trade press may actually deter corporate performance and thus serves as a cautionary note to both practitioners and researchers alike.

This study begins by reviewing a recently proposed comprehensive analytical model of strategic flexibility in order to provide a conceptual foundation to explore the conditions and process underlying the practices of market agility. Of special interest, is how the pressure to assess and respond quickly to changing environmental conditions (a central feature in the practice of market agility) may produce a sense of temporal scarcity among decision makers and impede strategic flexibility and worsen corporate performance. How temporal scarcity is triggered, amplified and negated is discussed.

Analytical Model – Strategic Flexibility

In a recent meta-review, Brozovic (2016) proposed a new conceptual framework to identify and link triggers, enablers, barriers, process and outcomes of strategic flexibility (see figure 1). In this model, marketing orientation and agility are seen as one of a number of enablers (along with other factors such as leadership, organizational processes and structure; see upper left in figure 1) that allow a firm to be more strategically flexible and as a result realize a number of favorable outcomes such as sustaining a competitive advantage, superior fiscal performance, reduced risk and uncertainty and improved internal efficiencies. How marketing agility contributes to a firm’s overall strategic flexibility relative to other factors and conditions, however, is unknown at this time. Progress on this front is expected soon as the recent call to explore international marketing agility (Gomes, Sousa and Vendrell-Herrero 2017) prompts academics to examine a wide range of topics including how different contexts (e.g., intra-firm, inert-firm network) and levels of analysis (e.g., firm, business, unit levels) impact the relationship between agility and performance.

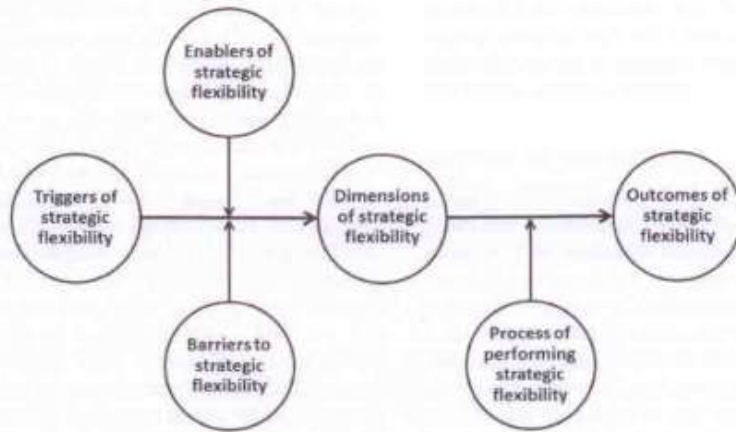


Figure1: Analytical Model of Strategic Flexibility (Brozovic 2016)

One area that has received scant attention in the research literature, however, is barriers to strategic flexibility (Brozovic 2016; see bottom left in figure 1) which has largely been operationalized only in terms of how core rigidities (Leonard-Barton 1992) and business models (Chesborough et al. 2006) place limits on the strategic options a firm might consider. This oversight is of particular concern in part to how the practice of marketing agility is currently being reported in the business literature. Rooney (2004) notes that “In today’s fast-paced multichannel world, marketers no longer have the luxury to spend months crafting large projects; they must innovate and produce on the fly and respond immediately to market disruptions. ...There is no time to waste nowadays.” Of concern here, is pace of work and the little time available to conduct rapid prototyping, small-scale experimentation and testing and program implementation which is at the heart of a firm’s market agility efforts (Dejosse 2012). “Agile marketers” working under such conditions would be expected to experience tight schedules and a sense of temporal scarcity. Scarcity has been shown to consume “mental bandwidth” and impose ongoing cognitive deficits leading to poor decision making (Novotney 2014). Scarcity can interrupt thinking, create an intense focus on any unmet needs, exhaust the mind, and create a myopic view of the world (Monahan, Cotteleer and Fisher 2016). It also induces arousal which can give rise to judgment polarization which may truncate consideration of other possible alternatives or solutions (Zhu and Ratner 2015). As such, “scarcity is a common and often-overlooked organizational barrier to achieving optimal performance” (Monahan et al. 2016, pg. 3). With regards to marketing agility, this oversight is likely given the heavy emphasis and almost exclusive focus being put on upgrading data collection technology and promoting close collaboration between IT/marketing in order to track and respond quickly to market opportunities (Heller and Robinson 2017).

Temporal Scarcity

Temporal scarcity is a sense that one lacks sufficient time to accomplish or complete some task of interest which can have either a positive or negative impact on the quality of decision making (Novotney 2014). On a positive note, temporal scarcity can be a motivator to help sharpen one’s focus, set priorities and streamline the decision process. Conversely, it can make one less objective relying more on intuition and heuristics which may negatively impact decision making quality (Boundless 2016). It is this latter condition that is of concern here.

Temporal scarcity is not inherently a product of marketing agility. Rather, we propose that there are conditions under which it is likely to occur. Following along the lines of Brozovic’s framework (2016) we propose that there are triggers, barriers, and enablers that moderate temporal scarcity effects.

The research literature states that strategic flexibility is activated or triggered when circumstances in the environment change prompting firms to adapt one of a number of archetypal maneuvers that may be either preemptive, exploitive, protective or corrective in nature (Evans 1991). It is likely that sudden and unexpected changes requiring swift protective and corrective maneuvers may catch management off guard and create a sense of temporal scarcity. It is speculated that a sense of temporal scarcity may be exacerbated to the degree that a host of other barriers such as unfamiliar market conditions, complex products, and/or diverse and sophisticated customers, require information and analysis beyond the time management has available to collect and analyze new information in order to decide how best to respond strategically. Firms, however, may be able to mitigate these influences and reduce the incidence and impact of temporal scarcity by enabling decision makers by having “sufficient data, analytics, and the right kind of marketing-technology infrastructure in place” (Edelman, Heller and Spittaels 2016, p. 2).

In sum, with the growing complexity and uncertainty underlying business conditions worldwide, more and more firms are striving to be marketing agile in order to stay up with the competition (Rooney 2014). The present report notes that market agility in addition to its promise may pose a threat to the firm as well if its practice exceeds management's decision making capacity and required resources. It is suggested that future research examine the market agility process in greater detail to identify where bottlenecks may occur and as such give rise to temporal scarcity. Such efforts coincide well with a growing sense that time is a finite resource requiring organizations to be proactive to establish and manage temporal budgets (Bevins and De Smet 2013).

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SESSION 5.7: SOCIAL MEDIA TECHNOLOGY

Chair:

Kevin Chase, University of Kentucky

Presentation

App Design: Driver of App Loyalty

Prachi Gala, University of Mississippi, USA

Vahid Ghomi, University of Mississippi, USA

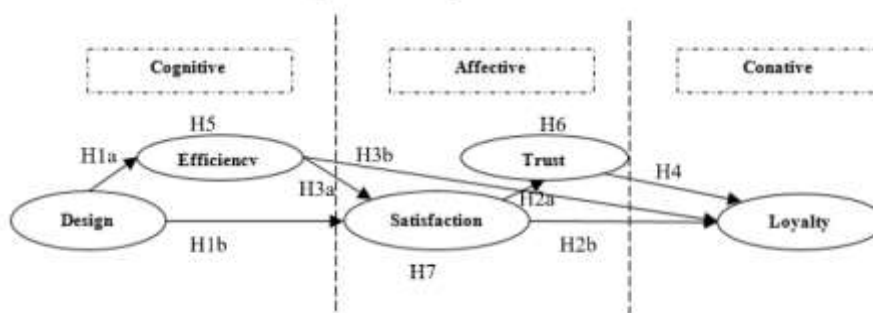
Kathy Wachter, University of Mississippi, USA

Applications, more commonly referred to as 'apps' are major communication tools for everyday life. This study uses attitude theory (cognitive, affective, and conative components) to investigate how an app's design and layout influence their trust, satisfaction and loyalty to an app. Results indicate overall support for the proposed model with partial (and negative) support for the relationship between efficiency and satisfaction.

Introduction

Apps provide shortcut tools for users to access content and complete tasks, make payments/ purchases, or entertain themselves so as to create valued exchanges that can contribute to the app user's future choice set consideration and long term loyalty. The structural framework for this study is based on the theory of the cognitive, affective, and conative dimensions of attitude. Attitudes and the formation of an attitude can be used to explain behaviors in everyday life as well as infer future behaviors. Attitudes are predispositions to respond positively or negatively to a given object/situation (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Attitudes can reflect past behaviors and actions toward present behaviors whether in physical or mobile contexts (Lehrer et al. 2011). App design should reflect perceptions based on user needs whether in functional, hedonic, or social contexts. The affective component of attitude influences the user's satisfaction and trust with the app allowing them to complete tasks in a timely manner. App user's satisfaction should build trust in their relationship with the app. App satisfaction (affective component) whether positive or negative is based on is based on users' favorable or unfavorable assessments while using the app (Wilkie 1994). An app's conative component is the user's tendency to act or intention to perform a behavior. User loyalty toward an app is driven by the likelihood of performing an action/behavior. This behavior should reflect app user thoughts, behaviors and feelings associated with the app. Using this framework we propose the following model (see Figure 1). This cognitive dimension of app design (layout and content) and efficiency (timely and on task) lead to the affective components of satisfaction and satisfaction with the app should create greater trust. Trust in the relationship should drive the app user's conative component of loyalty. Satisfaction in these relationships should build loyalty toward the app. On this conceptual and theoretical framework, we propose the following hypotheses:

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework



H1: App design is positively related to a) efficiency, and b) satisfaction

H2: Satisfaction is positively related to a) trust, and b) loyalty

H3: Efficiency is positively related to a) satisfaction, and b) loyalty

H4: Trust is positively related to loyalty

H5: The relationship between app design and satisfaction is mediated by efficiency

H6: The relationship between satisfaction and loyalty is mediated by trust

H7: The relationship between efficiency and loyalty is mediated by satisfaction

Methodology

The sample (N=159; 35.2% M) were students from a southern university enrolled in marketing courses. Participants could receive extra credit for voluntarily participating in a SONA Qualtrics Likert scale (SD/SA, 7 pt) survey. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to establish the measurement items, dimensions, and structure between items and constructs (Rogers et al. 2011). Multiple iterations of the CFA using maximum likelihood estimation were used to minimize a specified fit function between the initial variance-covariance matrix and the implied variance-covariance matrix (Gligor et al. 2015). Prior to ML estimation, multiple multivariate assumptions including normality, multicollinearity, independence of errors and homoscedasticity were done to check and control any violation of initial assumptions. Reliability, convergent, and discriminant validity were assessed for the scale items. Discriminant validity was assessed based on criterion developed by Fornell and Larcker (1981) comparing the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) with correlations between the constructs. Convergent validity for each construct showed all factor loadings greater than 0.7 and Cronbach's alpha greater than 0.70 for all constructs (Rojo et al. 2016). Mediation analyses employed bootstrapping to investigate the mediation effect on satisfaction, trust, and efficiency; efficiency and loyalty; satisfaction and loyalty, and design and satisfaction respectively. As a nonparametric resampling procedure, bootstrapping uses the available data to generate an empirical approximation of the sampling distribution. All mediation analyses are based on Little et al. (2007).

Results

We find design of app exhibits a significant positive relationship with efficiency ($\beta = 0.309$; $p = 0.038$) and satisfaction toward the app ($\beta = 0.834$; $p = 0.021$) supporting H1. Satisfaction has positive relationships with trust ($\beta = 0.368$; $p = 0.008$) and loyalty ($\beta = 0.466$ $p = 0.007$) supporting H2. Efficiency has a negative but significant relationship with satisfaction ($\beta = -0.159$; $p = 0.014$) and a positive relationship with loyalty ($\beta = 0.151$; $p = 0.052 < 0.10$), partially supporting H3. Trust has a positive relationship with loyalty ($\beta = 0.247$; $p = 0.010$) supporting H4. Mediation analyses show design and satisfaction are partially mediated by efficiency, H5 (CI [-0.163, -0.0003]), Satisfaction and loyalty are partially mediated by mediate trust (CI [0.034, 0.192]) supporting H6. Finally, Satisfaction fully mediates the relationship between efficiency and loyalty, (CI [-0.139, -0.014]), supporting H7.

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Summary Brief

Device Attachment Increases Advertising Effectiveness

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In the present research, we provide evidence that device attachment significantly affects consumers' purchase intentions and willingness to pay. We show that as device attachment increases, the positive affect that is elicited from the attached device will transfer to advertisements viewed on the device via a contagion effect to reduce advertisement skepticism, which will impact consumers purchase intentions and willingness to pay for the advertised products. Furthermore, we provide evidence that this effect is weakened as consumer emotional intelligence increases.

Introduction

It should be no surprise that consumers are attached to their devices. Despite the many ways personal electronic devices have fundamentally reshaped the advertising industry, and placed a world of commerce at consumers' finger tips, many basic questions remain regarding how consumers' attachment to their personal electronic devices many impact their perceptions and behaviors. Building on attachment theory (Bowlby 1980) we contend that device attachment reduces advertising skepticism, which impacts willingness to pay and purchase intentions.

Device Attachment, Affect, and Advertisement Skepticism

Attachment theory (Bowlby 1980) examines how individuals form attachments to people, places, and things. As attachment increases, consumers develop greater feelings of affection, passion, connection, interdependence, and trust toward the attached object (Thomson, MacInnis, and Park 2005). We expect that as device attachment increases, the positive affect that is elicited from the attached device will transfer to advertisements viewed on the device via a contagion effect (Hasford, Hardesty, and Kidwell 2015) to reduce advertisement skepticism, which will impact consumers purchase intentions and willingness to pay for the advertised products. Furthermore, we expect consumers with higher levels of emotional intelligence (Kidwell, Hardesty, and Childers 2008) should be better positioned to skillfully arrest the contagion of positive affect from their attached devices to their assessment of advertised products viewed on their device. Specifically, as emotional intelligence increases the link between device attachment and advertisement skepticism should weaken.

Study 1

Study 1 investigates the relationship between device type (e.g., smartphone versus computer) and consumers' willingness to pay for the advertised product. We expect consumers to report significantly higher willingness to pay for an advertised product when the advertisement is delivered to their smartphone relative to their computer.

Method

Ninety-six undergraduate students were randomly assigned to one of two experimental conditions (advertisement delivery: smartphone vs. computer). All students had to own a personal smartphone and computer (laptop or desktop). All participants were instructed to begin the survey on their personal computer. After a brief welcome, participants are asked to view an advertisement for a fictional gourmet coffee brand using either their smartphone or computer, based on their randomly assigned condition. Their willingness to pay for the advertised product was capture via an open-ended question after the advertisement.

Results

The results of an independent sample t-test analysis indicate that participants in the smartphone advertisement delivery reported a significantly greater willingness to pay for the gourmet coffee beans compared to participants in the computer advertisement delivery condition, $t(94) = -2.34, p < .05$; $M_{\text{smartphone}} = \$13.62, SD = \$14.56$ vs. $M_{\text{computer}} = \$8.56, SD = \6.64 .

Study 2

In study 2 we investigate the moderating effect of consumer emotional intelligence on the link between device attachment and advertisement skepticism. We expect that consumers with higher levels of emotional intelligence

should possess a greater ability to de-couple their perceptions of advisement skepticism from their felt attachment to their personal devices. We expect the influence of device attachment on advertisement skepticism will sustain among consumers with lower levels of consumer emotional intelligence.

Method

One hundred seventy-four Mturk participants (mean age = 34.20, 62.3% female) from the United States completed an online survey for a small honorarium. This study employs a similar design to study 1, with several key differences. First, we adopt device attachment (Park et al. 2010), as our focal IV. Second, we collected a measure of advertisement skepticism adopted from Obermiller and Spangenberg (1998) to serve as our mediator. After our primary study, we measured consumer emotional intelligence to serve as our moderator (Kidwell, Hardesty, and Childers 2008). Fourth, purchase intentions was adopted as our focal DV to extend the generalizability of our results.

Results

We performed a regression analysis where device attachment ($\alpha = .97$) was used to predict participants' purchase intentions ($\alpha = .97$) (7-item 7-point semantic differential scale, e.g. probably not buy it/probably but it, and very unlikely/very likely). The results revealed a significant main effect on purchase intentions ($\beta = .23$, $t(172) = 3.12$, $p < .01$). Additional regression analyses revealed that device attachment also significantly predicted advertisement skepticism ($\alpha = .96$) ($\beta = .22$, $t(172) = 2.91$, $p < .01$), and advertisement skepticism significantly predicted participants' purchase intentions ($\beta = .54$, $t(172) = 8.42$, $p < .01$). We used the Process macro (Hayes, 2013) to run a moderated mediation analysis (model 7). Overall, the 95% confidence interval of moderated mediation excluded zero (-.06 to -.015), indicating that consumer emotional intelligence (split-half .66) significantly moderated the effect of device attachment on advertisement skepticism ($\beta = -3.54$, $t(170) = -3.85$, $p < .01$), which in turn influenced participants' purchase intentions ($\beta = .51$, $t(171) = 7.88$, $p < .01$). Consumer emotional intelligence ($\beta = 3.79$, $t(170) = 4.11$, $p < .01$) also exerted a significant main effect on advertisement skepticism. The 95% confidence interval of the direct effect included zero (-.0046 to .14), indicating full mediation.

Discussion

These studies provide evidence that device attachment can influence consumers' evaluation of advertised products. Furthermore, advertisement skepticism is identified as the mechanism underlying the effect, and consumer emotional intelligence attenuates the effect. Consumers and marketers may benefit from an awareness of this effect.

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Summary Brief

Internet Search Trend Data at a Product-Feature Level

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By using data derived from surveys to track trends in consumer preferences, businesses may be paying too much and the data collected may not reflect current sentiment by the time a representative survey can be performed. This study explores the suitability of the new home construction industry for testing the predictive ability of internet search trends at a product-feature level. Internet search trend data is currently available at no cost and in near real time. Search trend data has also been used as a data source for making predictions by many researchers in recent years. Application of the four-factor framework to the new home construction industry revealed that the new home construction industry is a good fit to test the predictive power of internet search data at the product-feature level.

Introduction

By using data derived from surveys to track trends in consumer preferences, businesses may be paying too much and the data collected may not reflect current sentiment by the time a representative survey can be performed (Du, Hu, & Damangir, 2015). Internet search trend data is currently available at no cost and in near real time (Google Trends, 2017). Search trend data has also been used as a data source for making predictions by many researchers in recent years. Internet use has also grown steadily in the United States. As of 2016 only 13% of Americans were not using the internet (Anderson & Perrin 2016). If search trends are correlated to trends in consumer sentiment then search trend data could be used as a substitute for survey data, which is more expensive and takes longer to gather.

Du, Hu and Damangir (2015) studied the predictive ability of internet search trends at the product-feature level. Other research on the subject has predominantly focused on the number of searches for product brand names. Trends in search terms for specific automobile features were positively correlated to trends in sales of vehicles which contained those features. Du, Hu and Damangir (2015) called for additional research to test the predictive power of internet search trends at a product-feature level. This research explores the suitability of the new home construction industry for testing the predictive ability of internet search trends at a product-feature level.

Research Purpose

If internet search trends are found to be correlated to sales on a product-feature level in the new home construction industry, that finding could benefit both academicians and practitioners. Academically, a correlation between sales and search trends at a product feature level in the new home construction industry would contribute to the call for additional research made by Du, Hu, and Damangir (2015). Research in even more industries would still be justified academically, but showing that search trends can be predictive at a product feature level in a second industry would be academically valuable.

The value to practitioners comes in the many potential applications for using search trend data instead of survey data. Because search trend data is available at no cost and in near real time, practitioners could potentially save time and money each time internet search trend data was used as a suitable substitute for survey data. Cost savings in not paying for the administration of multiple surveys would be easily quantifiable. Savings related to the faster turn-around time of making predictions using search trend data instead of survey data are harder to quantify, but could be even more valuable to a company.

Research Questions

This research addresses the business problem of the high cost and slow speed of survey data. It attempts to show that feature specific search trend data can replace survey data when tracking customer preferences in the new home construction industry. The specific purpose of this research is to determine non-empirically if the new home construction industry is a good fit for that type of substitution. Further, the goal is to find evidence that the new home construction industry will produce similar correlation results to those found in the United States auto industry by Du, Hu, and Damangir (2015). The research questions for this study are:

What factors related to the US automobile industry led to the successful substitution of survey data with feature-specific internet search trend data in Du, Hu, and Damangir's (2015) study?

How well do the factors which made the US automobile industry a good fit for Du, Hu, and Damangir's (2015) study apply to the new home construction industry?

Theoretical Framework

This research is based on two foundational theories. First, a product's base attractiveness, the level of attractiveness which cannot be explained by marketing efforts, is a function of the mix and level of that product's features (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975; Lancaster 1966). Second, that although the level of importance consumers assign to any given product feature remains relatively constant in the short term, the relative importance of product features does change over time (Du, Hu, & Damangir 2015). Because levels of feature importance vary over time it is important for marketers to track changes in preferences and update products to match those changes so that product utility can be maximized.

Results

The new home construction industry is a good candidate to test the theory that internet search trends are predictive of sales at the product-feature level. The four factors critical for success in Du, Hu, and Damangir's (2015) study of the automobile industry were size of purchase, many easily defined features, fluctuations in popularity, and availability of sales data. The new home construction industry is a good fit for the first three factors because a new home is a large purchase that justifies extensive research, a home does have many easily defined features, and the features of a home are susceptible to fluctuations in popularity over time. The new home construction industry also has the potential to be a good fit regarding availability of data because the needed sales data does exist. However, it may be difficult to obtain the needed data. Although it will be no more difficult to obtain sales data in the new home construction industry than in other industries dominated by private sector firms. One advantage of the new home construction industry is the existence of annual US Census data for select characteristics of completed single-family homes. That data could be used as supporting evidence for more finite findings obtained using daily or monthly sales data.

Recommendations

This research is limited because of the non-empirical nature of the design. Based on the findings of this research that the new home construction industry is a good fit for the four factors which led to success in Du, Hu, and Damangir's (2015) study of the automobile industry, it is recommended that a similar quantitative correlational study be performed using data from the new home construction industry.

It is also recommended that the predictive power of internet search trends be tested in other industries. The personal electronic device industry is another possible area for study. Personal electronic devices often cost more than \$500, they contain multiple features that are susceptible to changes in popularity, and sales data does exist for personal electronic devices.

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SESSION 5.8: THE FACE OF YOUR SERVICE: EMPLOYEES

Chair:

Ji “Miracle” Qui, The University of Alabama

Presentation

Effect of Service Provider's Facial Attractiveness on Customer Outcomes

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Lauren Brewer, Marketing Department, University of Texas at Arlington, USA

Omar Itani, Hospitality Management and Marketing Department, Lebanese American University, Lebanon

Past research suggests the positive effect of service provider's attractiveness on customer outcomes. This study examines the effect of service provider's attractiveness based on SPPF framework wherein we propose that attractiveness can buffer the negative effects of bad service quality. We plan to run a between subject factorial experiment design to show that attractiveness matters across service professions and it effects various customer outcomes such as satisfaction, loyalty among others.

Introduction

Service researchers have consistently argued that the service encounter is a critical factor to influence overall service outcomes. Such encounters/dialogues are often termed as 'moments of truth' and provide tremendous opportunities to the firm to influence the outcomes of the service process. Though these dialogues, comprising of verbal communications, are an integral part of such encounters, past research has also analyzed the role of non-verbal communications on service evaluations (e.g., Koernig and Page 2002). Because non-verbal communication is distinct and is as important as verbal communication, we focus on the effect of non-verbal communication during the service encounter on customer perceptions and outcomes. Specifically, we focus on the facial attractiveness of the service provider because there is an automatic tendency to categorize people as attractive or unattractive. We contribute to the burgeoning scholarly research on non-verbal communications in a service context by extending it in two key ways. First, as described above, we consider interactive effects of attractiveness and service quality delivery rather than focusing on only attractiveness. Because service quality is an important factor in service domain, we consider how service delivery interacts with attractiveness in shaping final customer outcomes. Second, based on the stereotype content model (SCM) (Fiske et al. 2002) and the service provider perception framework (SPPF), we consider the interactive effect of attractiveness and service quality delivery for two service providers, doctors and lawyers, which rank high on competence dimension of the SPPF and which are not generally considered as attraction based occupations

Conceptual Background and Propositions

Past research has shown that good looking people are perceived as more sensitive, kind, sociable and exciting than less attractive people and that individuals make automatic appraisals (Söderlund and Julander 2009). Owing to spreading-activation theory (Collins and Loftus 1975), individuals perceive a person as more positive and the outcome from that person as more positive when faced with an attractiveness stimulus. Thus, we propose (P1) that attractiveness of the service provider leads to higher customer outcomes (perceived quality, perceived satisfaction, expectations, performance and intended loyalty). Further, an integral component of a service encounter is the service quality. Adopting from service quality literature, service quality is perceived as the crucial factor in evaluating overall performance of the service encounter (e.g., Parasuraman et al. 1985). Measured as the difference between expected and delivered service quality, research has shown that service quality delivery affects customer outcomes. Thus, we propose (P2) that good service delivery of the service provider leads to higher customer outcomes (perceived quality, perceived satisfaction, expectations, performance and intended loyalty). Additionally, when information about the service provider is limited, as in the case of a first encounter, individuals may use physical attractiveness to form a basis of impressions and make judgments. We argue that attractiveness of the service provider will buffer the negative impact of below average service delivery such that below average delivery by an attractive service provider will impact less negatively than bad service by an unattractive service provider. Hence, we propose (P3) that there is a significant interaction between attractiveness of the service provider and service delivery such that attractiveness buffers the negative impact of bad service delivery on customer outcomes (perceived quality, perceived satisfaction, expectations, performance and intended loyalty).

Further Steps

We plan to run a between-subjects factorial design that varies physical attractiveness, level of service and service provider's profession. We plan to have 50 respondents in each cell. Respondents will be recruited from one major Southern university and will receive credit for taking part in the survey.

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Summary Brief

Employees' Pride and Customer Focus: The Effect of Advertising on Perceived External Reputation

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Employees generally have a perception of the external reputation of their organization, which influences the level of employees' pride and customer focus. In order to counter this outcome, the present study examines the effect of corporate advertising on the relationship between employees' perceived external reputation and pride.

Introduction

Previous research has demonstrated that pride has a motivational element that would lead to employees become increasingly customer focused (Gilly and Wolfinbarger 1998). In the current research, Pride is defined as a positive emotion derived from one's own achievements, and the achievements of one's own organization (Celsi and Gilly, 2010). Also, customer focus is defined as "the individual's beliefs about customers... [and] acceptance of the marketing concept" (Allen et al. 1998, p. 9). However, employees' pride in the organization may be influenced due to a number of factors, such as recruitment, job satisfaction, and perceived external reputation. The focus of this research is on organization's perceived reputation, defined as the "employees' perceptions of how their organization is assessed by people external to the organization" (Helm 2012, p. 546). Since stakeholders incline to identify employees with the policies and standpoints of the firm (Cable and Turban, 2003), "employees form meta-stereotypes based on their impressions of these outsider views" (Helm, 2012, p. 544). Being part of a firm with a positive reputation is expected to inspire pride in employees, potentially increasing the relationship between the worker and the firm (Arnett, et. al, 2002). However, working for an organization with bad reputation can lead to shame, anxiety and decreased self-esteem, reducing the employees' pride.

Based on this context, the current research proposes that employees' perception of corporate advertising could buffer (magnify) the impact of bad (good) perceived external reputation on their pride. Advertising has been traditionally seen as targeting the customer; however, limited focus has been devoted to evaluating its effects on the firm's employees. In the current study, considering that employees are internal customers, we propose that when employees evaluate ad value congruence (employees belief that organizational advertising is credible) and ad promise accuracy (employees belief that promises made on organizational advertising will in fact be fulfilled) (Celsi and Gilly 2010) as positive, these will reduce employee's emotional state such as uncertainty, and increasing employees' pride, and customer focus. The findings will help managers to understand what factors they can control and whether it will have a substantial impact on challenges faced from the organization's external reputation.

Theoretical Background

The underlying theory behind current research is social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1981), because it helps to explain two motives which managers can use to increase employees' identification with their organization. The first motive is the notion of self-enhancement, which is established when individuals believe that being part of a group is rewarding and can be gained by an individual linking himself/herself with a firm that is successful (Fisher and Wakefield 1998), which is dependent on the perceived reputation of the company (Bergami and Bagozzi 2010). On the contrary, if employees feel displeased to belong to a firm with an unfavorable reputation, it can weaken their relationship with the company. Therefore, organization's perceived external reputation is an important element in affecting employees' relationship with their firm.

The second motive is self-categorization. This factor is centered on the perception of belonging to a group or organization. In doing so, an individual engages in a self-categorization process through which an in-group to which one belongs is clearly defined against an out-group (Bergami and Bagozzi 2010). Employees typically identify themselves with their organization (Celsi and Gilly 2010), and consider the organization as part of their in-group. Self-categorization can be reinforced through organization's ad communications. One of the central ways "organizations utilize to facilitate stakeholder identification is the presentation of organizational images in organizational communications" (Scott and Lane, 2000, p. 50). Therefore, by using ad communications, organizations can enhance employees' self-categorization and increase perceptions of in-group memberships.

Methodology

The current research will use stratified sampling to select participants, in order to ensure the presence of only a certain subgroup of frontline employees. We will select frontline employees of two large US airline companies. A web-based survey will be sent to 370 participants among flight attendants, call center employees, and counter employees as a representative of employees that have a day-to-day running with the customers. The participants will be asked to imagine how friends, family and general public see their organization, specifically, respondents will be asked "How do you feel people outside your company would rate it on the following attributes?" (Helm, 2012). The eight items on scale will be measured on an 11-point scale. Then participants will be shown four recent ads of the organization, and will be asked to evaluate ad promise accuracy and ad value congruence (Celsi and Gilly 2010), on a 7-point scale ranging from -3 (strongly disagree) to 3 (strongly agree). Finally, pride and costumer focus (Cable and Turban, 2003) will be measured, on a 7-point scale ranging from -3 (strongly disagree) to 3 (strongly agree). Data analysis will be carried out using regression analysis in MACRO Process using SPSS 23.

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Summary Brief

Frontline Employee Developmental Approaches, Engagement and Service Climate

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Drawing from social exchange theory, and built upon service climate framework, our study emphasizes the impacts of informal managerial coaching and formal customer service training on employee engagement as well as service climate.

Introduction

Employee engagement is defined as “harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances” (Kahn 1990, p. 694). In line with Kahn’s (1990) role specific characterization of engagement, Saks’ (2006) distinguishes engagement into job engagement and organization engagement. Job engagement focuses on the energy that employees invest in the job itself, whereas organization engagement emphasizes on the energy that employees invest in the specific organizations they work at (Saks 2006). Employee engagement has shown of having favorable associations with positive employee and customer outcomes (Saks 2006; Menguc et al. 2013). In contrast, far less is known about the impacts of human resource development (HRD) practices on employee engagement (Saks and Gruman 2014). To better understand these effects, our study assesses the influences of informal managerial coaching and formal customer service training on employee engagement. Managerial coaching is defined as “a manager or supervisor serving as a coach or facilitator of learning in the workplace setting, in which he or she enacts specific behaviors that enable his/her employee (coachee) to learn and develop” (Ellinger, Beattie, and Hamlin 2010, p. 258). Customer service training is defined as a “systematic approach to learning and development to improve individual, team, and organizational effectiveness” (Aguinis and Kraiger 2009). Empirical research favorably links managerial coaching and customer service training with employee job satisfaction, job performance, and most importantly, employee service competency. Bowen and Schneider (2014) view employee service competency as the critical aspect for building service climate. However, research also indicates that an appropriate management of human resource practices is a necessary but not sufficient condition for an effective service climate (Salanova, Agut, and Peiró 2005). In this regard, our study examines the impacts of HRD practices on service climate through employee engagement.

Theoretical Lens

Social exchange theory (SET) provides the theoretical basis for the relationships proposed in this study. According to Blau (1964, p. 91), “Social exchange ... refers to voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others.” As such, a series of reciprocal interactions could generate obligations between interdependent actors (Blau 1964). According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), SET is often used to explain the nature of relationships between employee and employer. Abiding by the exchange rules, reciprocal social exchanges create close social bonds, such as trusting, loyal and high-quality relationships between organizational members and their organizations (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). Based on the fundamental rules of SET, higher levels of investment in HRD are expected to increase employees’ perceived obligation to repay their organizations with equally valuable contributions. In the service context, organizations that invest in their employees by implementing both formal and informal training opportunities to equip employees with sufficient skills to serve customers are expected to be rewarded with higher levels of employee engagement and service climate.

Hypotheses Development

Bowen and Schneider (2014) emphasize the important impact of bundles of HRD practices on service climate. Empirical studies show that HRD actions and managerial practices positively impact organizational service climate (Salanova, Agut, and Peiró 2005). Managerial coaching and customer service training are viewed as organizational HRD resources that focus on personal growth, learning and development to improve employees’ service skills and

competency (Salanova, Agut, and Peiró 2005). Thus, based on SET, when employees are given enough accessibilities of coaching and training opportunities that assist them to do their jobs, employees will be more grateful for such resources and be more competent in serving customers. We therefore propose that: **H1a)** Managerial coaching and **b)** Customer service training are positively associated with service climate.

Kahn (1990) argues that engagement varies based on the resources employees perceive themselves to have. Kahn's contention is supported by empirical studies that show employees perceiving higher levels of supportive working environment like supervisor support, job autonomy, and transformational leadership reciprocate with higher levels of engagement (Menguc et al. 2013). Managerial coaching and customer service training are both valuable developmental resources that generate supportive working conditions echoing service employees' aspirations of providing customers with quality service. Drawing on the basic principle of SET, Saks (2006) suggests that service employees and their organizations are in a state of reciprocal interdependence. Thus, service employees with firms who provide valuable developmental resources and care about their growth are expected to repay their organizations by being more engaged: **H2** Managerial coaching and customer service training are positively associated with **a)** job engagement and **b)** organizational engagement.

A service climate is a shared perception of the practices, procedures and behaviors that project organizational practices that relies on service employees' collective efforts and service competency on delivering quality service (Bowen and Schneider 2014). Thus, it would be expected that when employees feel enthusiastic and highly involved at work, they experience a positive perception of service climate (Salanova, Agut, and Peiró 2005). Thus, we propose: **H3a)** Job engagement and **b)** organization engagement is positively associated with service climate.

Summary

The engagement literature has suggested that organizational developmental resources are important for the development of employee engagement (Menguc et al. 2013; Saks 2006). However, empirical research on this topic is relatively scarce. Therefore, our study built upon Bowen and Schneider's (2014) service climate framework and drawing from social exchange theory, hypothesizes the positive impacts of managerial coaching and customer service training on service climate via employee engagement. In doing so, we aim to contribute to services and marketing theories by empirically testing Bowen and Schneider's (2014) service climate framework as well as emphasizing the importance for service firms to employ both informal and formal training approaches to enhance employee engagement and service climate as a whole.

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SESSION 5.9: PROMOTION AND HEALTH: HEART OF THE MATTER

Chair:

Bridget Nichols, Northern Kentucky University

Summary Brief

Advertising Rhetoric and Positive versus Negative Emotions in Health Promotions

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The current study integrates and applies advertising rhetoric and appraisal theory of emotion in preventive health promotions. The experiment was designed to test the effects of advertising rhetoric in conjunction with emotional appeals in a public service announcement (PSA) promoting the USDA food pyramid website. The study demonstrates that the combination of advertising rhetoric (a rhyme scheme and a metaphor trope) and emotional appeals (pride and shame) can influence ad-processing outcomes in print advertising. In particular, results show that the emotion pride is more effective in combination with a trope than the emotion shame in combination with a trope on readership of copy, attitude towards the ad, and behavioral intention. When paired with a scheme, pride did not differ from shame in its effect on advertising outcomes.

Introduction

This study builds on previous research that has combined two research streams in preventive health promotions namely appraisal theories of emotions and advertising rhetoric. Recently the Emotional Appraisal and Reactions Model (EARM) that integrates appraisal theories of emotions in preventive health advertising campaigns (Block and Keller 1998, Eppright et al. 2002) and advertising rhetoric was posited (Albinsson 2009). The model focuses specifically on verbal rhetoric although recent research on advertising rhetoric also include the effects of visual rhetoric on advertising effectiveness (McQuarrie and Mick 2003, Phillips and McQuarrie 2004, Mothersbaugh, Huhmann, and Franke 2002). Until recently, most research focused solely on cognitive aspects of advertising rhetoric; therefore, limited research has combined emotional appeals and advertising rhetoric when studying processing outcomes (Huhmann 2008; Albinsson 2009). We therefore respond to recent calls for research to explore combinations of advertising rhetoric and emotions of different valence to find ways to develop effective health promotion advertisements. Specifically, in this research we investigate how the emotions of pride and shame work in combination with schemes and tropes in print advertisements. Schemes are rhetorical figures, such as rhyme or alliteration that attract attention and provide emphasis through repetition of sounds or words. Tropes are rhetorical figures, such as metaphors or hyperbole that require self-generated meaning to decode a literally impossible or false statement. For example, “Red Bull Gives You Wings” does not literally imply that a can of Red Bull energy drink will cause the drinker to sprout wings. Instead, this hyperbole should encourage ad elaboration. Further, elaboration tied to a positive emotion should be more enjoyable than elaboration tied to a negative emotion. Therefore, we hypothesize:

- H1:** Use of advertising rhetoric will increase readership of ad copy when combined with pride, a positive emotion more than when combined with shame, a negative emotion. This difference is likely to be higher for advertising rhetoric such as tropes as compared to advertising rhetoric such as schemes.
- H2:** Use of advertising rhetoric will increase attitude towards the advertisement when combined with pride, a positive emotion more than when combined with shame, a negative emotion. This difference is likely to be higher for advertising rhetoric such as tropes as compared to advertising rhetoric such as schemes.
- H3:** Use of advertising rhetoric will have a positive effect on behavioral intention when combined with pride, a positive emotion more so than when combined with shame, a negative emotion. This difference is likely to be higher for advertising rhetoric such as tropes as compared to advertising rhetoric such as schemes.

Method and Results

This study used a mock public service announcement (PSA) campaign for a governmental website promoting healthy eating. An experiment manipulating the type of emotional appeal and verbal rhetorical figure in a PSA was conducted. A 2x2 between-subjects experimental design was used with four headlines containing emotions (pride/shame) and advertising rhetoric (scheme (rhyme)/trope (metaphor)). The target audience was college students. Besides the emotional appeal and the verbal rhetorical figure, all other elements of the target communication were

held constant across conditions. Data was collected via an online survey using SurveyMonkey (N=324), extra credit was offered for participation. Participants were business students from two large public universities. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted with the dependent variables of readership of ad copy, attitude towards the ad, and behavioral intention. We found support for all three hypotheses.

Discussion

Emotional appeals and in particular pride were found to increase perceived level of processing and attitude towards the ad when combined with advertising rhetoric, especially in the trope condition (metaphor). The results for pride as a potential motivator in health prevention mirrors previous research findings on other positive emotions (e.g., hope) (Albinsson 2009; de Mello et al. 2007). This finding warrants further research in examining if specific tropes and other positive emotions such as joy, warmth, and humor work even better to motivate processing and readership. Previous research has shown that negative framing/or the use of a negative appeal is more often efficient in health prevention, however the use of shame was not as efficient as the use of pride in the current context.

Conclusion

Overall, our study extends existing knowledge on the effectiveness of advertising rhetoric from both theoretical and practical standpoints. Our study finds that the effectiveness of tropes is higher when a positive emotion such as pride, is used than a negative emotion, such as shame. Further, schemes have no differential effect on the depth of ad processing or persuasion reactions with use of either pride or shame. This examination of the combined ad execution of advertising rhetoric and emotional appeals provides important insights on consumer ad processing and reactions to health messages. Future research may need to study similar ad executions in different contexts and extend these findings to the use of other/additional ad stimuli to cope with unfavorable consumer reactions. Finally, examining cognitive processing in further depth will enhance current understanding of effectiveness of ad executions combining emotional appeals and advertising rhetoric.

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Summary Brief

Is Bigger Really Better? A Consideration of Ethnically-Derived Injunctive Norms when Using Larger-Bodied Women in Advertising

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Advertisers are shifting from excessive use of thin models to what are supposedly more realistic or natural body types (i.e., larger-bodied) in their campaigns. Though this could promote a healthy body image in an increasingly overweight society, studies show mixed results in terms of their effectiveness. In the present research, we continue this line of inquiry and, through a social norms perspective, examine how larger-bodied models and their ethnicity affect consumers' product and brand evaluations.

Introduction

The influence of a model's body size and race on advertising effectiveness lacks systematic investigation (Barry 2012; Halliwell and Dittmar 2004), and its influence on brand and product related dimensions is scarce. However, a recent trend for brands is to attempt to connect with consumers through advertising that incorporates models meant to represent "real" women, e.g., those who more accurately reflect the typical body shapes and size of women, which is around a size 14 (Barry 2012). Advertising and marketing experts claim that "women want to see their shapes and colors represented" (Howard 2017), and that using plus-sized or more natural sized models presents an opportunity to reach underserved consumers (Ang 2017). Despite the marketing trends, there is conflicting opinion about the overall social acceptance of larger bodies.

Considering brand and product judgments, Halliwell and Dittmar (2004) found that average-sized models were equally effective compared to thin models when measuring attitudes towards the ad and brand, and purchase intentions. However, Aagerup (2011) found that consumer impressions of the fashion brands were significantly affected by the body size of the model, where thin models promoted the most positive brand perceptions compared to the larger models. Kim and Sohn (2016) found that thin models resulted in more positive evaluations, which led to more favorable inferences of product quality. Thus, the impact of a larger-bodied model on consumer perceptions of the advertised product and brand remains unclear. Less clear is whether or not consumers respond differently to larger-bodied model depending on her ethnicity. This is an important consideration since there are ethnically-derived injunctive norms related to body size. Specifically, there tends to be wider acceptance for Black women (in the US) to be fuller-figured (Agyemang and Powell-Wiley 2013; Jacobi and Cash 1994).

This main purpose of this research is to examine the outcomes of using larger-bodied models by testing the hypothesis that (i) larger-bodied models reflect more favorably on the advertisement when the model aligns with ethnically-derived norms, and (ii) investigating how product-specific evaluations are affected by larger-bodied models. As a result, this study contributes to answering the complex question of whether or not larger, more realistic sized models improve advertising performance (Borau and Bonnefon 2016) and product perceptions?

Methodology

Two separate 2 x 2 full factorial experiments were conducted to test the hypothesis that female consumers respond more negatively to larger-bodied Caucasian models compared to larger-bodied Black models. Our predictions were that these negative reactions would spill over into product-related perceptions. In both studies, a between-subjects design was implemented using online survey software and an online consumer panel of women. Both studies utilized advertisements created by the researchers. Study 1 focused on a food product (snack bars), while study 2 was a replication study in the fashion category (purses). The main dependent variables of interest were brand attitude, perceived product quality, and a set of product specific attributes. We also measured anti-fat attitude and participant body size as potential covariates.

Results

In Study 1 (snack bars), results confirmed the hypotheses that the larger-bodied Caucasian model, compared to her thin counterpart, suppressed brand attitudes, lower perceived product quality, and negatively affected product attributes including the expectation that the bar would taste good and be healthy. The larger model also produced higher caloric estimates for the snack bar. On the other hand, there were no discernible differences in these variables between the larger-bodied and thin Black models.

Study 2 produced similar results for the fashion product, whereby the larger-bodied Caucasian model lowered brand attitude and perceived product quality, and also generated lower product attribute ratings related to the product's warranty, quality of construction, and how fashionable the purse was rated. Again, no differences between the Black models were observed.

In both study 1 and 2, anti-fat attitude was a significant moderator only for those viewing the Caucasian model. The participants' own body size had no effect.

Discussion and Implications

In two studies, we examined the effects of larger-bodied female models on brand attitudes, perceived product quality, and evaluations of specific product attributes. We conclude that there is an ethnicity effect operating that determines how consumers will respond to the larger-bodied model. We theorize that this is a result of ethnically-derived injunctive norms related to the latitudes of acceptance and rejection of body sizes. We also found that anti-fat attitudes influence people's perceptions of the larger-bodied model when there is a stronger expectation for her to be thin (Caucasian model).

This study should encourage practitioners to consider the generally accepted norms related to body size when crafting campaigns depicting "real," "natural," or "larger-bodied" women. We conclude from the present studies that larger-bodied Black women might be the best choice to succeed with such strategies.

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Summary Brief

Too Much to Digest: How Product Attribute Information and Choice Influence Shopping Intention

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Research in choice confusion and overload literature has primarily considered the effects of the number of choices present in a particular product category on consumer decision making and satisfaction. On the other hand, researchers have investigated the effect of information present in an advertisement on the consumer psyche. What will happen when a consumer is presented with few choices but overwhelming information about each of the choices available? The goal of this research is to demonstrate the interaction effects of information provision and number of choices on consumer shopping intention.

Introduction

Retailers use sophisticated advertising across multiple channels to reach consumers on the Internet, TV, print media, etc. and potential customers are exposed to a vast array of advertisements during their path to purchase. Major online retailers like Amazon have steadily increased their marketing budget over the years, resulting in \$5.25 billion expenditure for 2015 (Statista 2017). Proctor & Gamble, the mega consumer packaged goods brand, had an ad budget of \$3.17 billion dollars for the year 2013. This research investigates the impact of different advertising types on consumers shopping intention, as well as a shoppers' choice confusion. This research also explores the interactive effect of product attribute information along with the number of choices in one advertising medium. On and offline advertisements can be broadly divided into two distinct divisions on the basis of choice and information attributes (Schlosser, Shavitt, and Kanfer 1999). Static advertising media that displays a single item along with required product attributes, namely price, features or associated deals, can be termed as item-specific ads. In contrast, major retailers have started placements of multi-item ads or portfolio ads with the hopes of utilizing the maximum available space on a digital screen to make the most of their budget (Ailawadi et al. 2009; Demirkan and Spohrer 2014). These creatives are characterized by two or more products of similar category placed in the similar static media with limited information on each of the advertised products.

Background

Past literature has shown that the human mind is capable of processing only a finite number of choices at any given particular instance of time beyond which the capacity to be decisive is diminished (Scheibehenne, Greifeneder, and Todd 2010). This cognitive process is termed as choice overload or over choice (Chernev, Böckenholt, and Goodman 2015). On a similar note, Gross (1964) states that "Information overload occurs when the amount of input to a system exceeds its processing capacity. Decision makers have limited cognitive processing capacity. Consequently, when information overload occurs, it is likely that a reduction in decision quality will occur." Extensive selection of options, shown in the case of retail assortments, have shown to cause a decrease in motivation to choose, to commit to a choice, or to make any choice at all (Iyenger, Huberman, and Jiang 2004; Iyenger and Lepper 2000). In this project we have investigated the combined effects of number of choices available and the associated information with each of these choices on cognitive decision making.

Key Findings

The implications for efficient and effective advertisements are tremendous for retailers. The results of the studies conducted indicate that participants responded favorably towards more attribute information only for a single product choice. Given predictions concerning moderating effects, preliminary analyses were conducted using a full-factorial MANOVA, which revealed a significant 2-way interaction between Items \times Information and was attributable to the univariate two-way interaction for shopping intention and choice confusion. Furthermore, choice confusion impacts shopping intention. When consumers are presented with multiple product choices, more compared to less product attribute information leads to increased choice confusion, which in turn depresses shopping intention. Similarly, we find that when respondents are presented with more product attribute information, it lowers shopping intention for the multiple product choice condition compared to the single product choice condition. Conversely, there was a

nonsignificant change in participants' shopping intentions in the less product attribute information condition, as they reported similar shopping intentions for multiple and single product choice. Cramming in more products on a promotional piece or running a portfolio ad in a magazine might not be an optimal use of advertising real estate. Consumers are prone to choice confusion when a combination of large assortment and large amount of information is available.

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SESSION 7.10: SMA TEACHING MOMENTS I

Chairs:

D. Joel Whalen, DePaul University

Kesha Coker, Ball State University

John F. Tanner Jr., Old Dominion University

Introduction

The Society for Marketing Advances' (SMA) 2017 Annual Conference features four Teaching Moments sessions. This year's Teaching Moments track includes over 40 teaching innovations.

The sessions will feature a variety of classroom techniques. Some presenters offer assignments or complete class designs. Other ideas presented are perfect for classroom: Examples of marketing concepts, demonstrations, and quick interventions.

Each session features 10 professors pitching unique teaching ideas. Teaching Moments presenters range from the most experienced, honored SMA veterans to fresh-minted rookie teachers. The presentations are fast. Each presenter only has three minutes on stage. When the time is up, a bell is rung signaling you're done. Then, a wonderful SMA Teaching Moments tradition takes place: Thunderous Applause. Attendees express their appreciation via loud, enthusiastic applause for the successful presenter, and condolence for those few who fail to beat the bell. Time is reserved at the end of each Teaching Moments session for informal idea sharing between presenters and attendees.

SMA Teaching Moments I

Transferring the Steps to a Sales Call to Interviewing

Lucy Matthews, Middle Tennessee State University, USA

The sales call includes prospecting, building rapport, SPIN, and FEEBA and elevate the sale/close. Similar to a sales call, it is important to prospect and build rapport. Next, asking questions to uncover the situation as well as any problems in the company or position. After uncovering the needs of the employer, students feature their experiences and relate them in terms of the benefit to the organization as a solution to the hiring needs. Finally, uncover next steps and the decision making process.

Baby You Can Drive My Car or Can You?

Barbara R. Wooldridge, The University of Texas At Tyler, USA

In our classes we all discuss branding and the importance of having a strong brand. We can give examples of strong brands but does that really drive the concept home probably not. This exercise takes a product category that has strong brands (automobiles) and applies it to something that the students intimately know their university. The exercise is fast and simple after discussing branding ask all of your students to take out a piece of paper and write down if their school was a car then what car would it be and why? Watch out you may end up with a traffic jam of cars, but you will have driven home the point about strong brands.

For Pete's Sake: Stop Watching the Clock!

Parker J. Woodroof, University of Central Arkansas, USA

In a time when millennials are anxiously trying to find their place in this world, a little direction and encouragement is in order. Even if the student does not realize it, they are a brand. I have created a project designed to cultivate and position their brand by identifying how each student's passion and skillset can sustainably pacify a demand in the marketplace. You must have love and proficiency of your occupation because one without the other is not sustainable. This project provides an opportunity to create an occupational experience where watching the clock is not a temptation.

Celebrating Small Student Victories: A Source for Creating Big Impact on Classroom Environment

Charles Drehmer, DePaul University, USA

Taking a few minutes at the beginning of each class to recognize students for accomplishments, large or small, creates a positive classroom environment. These positive affirmations can be related to the class material (e.g., completing an assignment first or getting the top score) or outside the scope of the class (i.e., getting a job interview, landing an internship or registering to take the GMAT). When students know their instructor genuinely cares about their lives and success, it has a profound impact in the classroom and beyond.

Flip-Flop Discussion

Robert Allen King, West Texas A&M University, USA

Students are randomly split into two teams. I present them a video, situation, etc. and make one group argue one side; the other group must argue the opposite side. After half the time I have allotted, I make them switch sides and argue the opposite of what they originally argued. The first time they do this, the discussion is a little rocky, but from then on you can see that they start thinking about both sides before we start the discussion. I have gotten solid feedback on this method since it makes them think ahead before making a comment.

The Age of Big Data Is Just Beginning: Real Time Data Analytics

Jie G. Fowler, Valdosta State University, USA

Marketing education has recognized the importance of developing integrative business programs in response to such external factors such as the emergence of “Data Analytics”. As such, SAP has been incorporated into our curriculum as an analytical tool. The students learn various functions such as Lumira, a data visualization platform that captures patterns, and allows geospatial analysis. The real time data are retrieved from firms such as Tyson, and Sam’s Club. As I teach courses, the students are supposed to extract the “big data” from the firm’s database, which provides them a real time, real world experience.

Where It’s At: Mapping Exercises for Better Understanding Retailers and their Customers

Robert E. Boostrom, Jr, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater, USA

Marketing strategy often revolves around the physical location of customers, especially for retail management. The location of physical stores can make or break their bottom line because it gives access to a specific set of customers. In this exercise, students are asked to select a physical retail store and then attempt three mapping exercises relevant to that store’s location using Google© MyMaps, the U.S. Census site, and ESRI© Tapestry©. Students learn how to use mapping tools to better understand their customers and evaluate competitors. This also reinforces topics in the retail management text, such as information on store trade areas.

Experiential Learning Ideas that Include Community Partners

Melissa Clark, Coastal Carolina University, USA

Experiential learning is the process whereby learning occurs through reflection on doing and knowledge is discovered as a result of guided, purposeful experiences. Marketing courses are filled with opportunities for experiential learning while also incorporating the local business community. Some examples are marketing plans and social media marketing plans for local businesses; applied social media marketing activities including real-time content posting; original cases written about local businesses and their challenges; and marketer interviews.

**SESSION 7.3: PANEL PRESENTATION: SPORTS AND
ENTERTAINMENT MARKETING: WHAT'S NEW?**

Chair:

Don Roy, Middle Tennessee State University

Special Session

Sports and Entertainment Marketing: What's New?

Delancy Bennett, Clemson University, USA

Don Roy, Middle Tennessee State University, USA

John Drea, Illinois College, USA

Laurence DeGaris, University of Indianapolis, USA

Anthony Patino, University of San Francisco, USA

The scope and importance of sports and entertainment marketing have changed exponentially over the past decades. In this special session, a panel of sports and entertainment marketing scholars will discuss emerging trends and opportunities within the industry. Specifically, insights into four areas of current interest; athlete protest, sports analytics, student-based projects with pro teams, and e-sports will be discussed. Direction for future research as well as insights for in pedagogical practices will be addressed.

What's New in Sports, Again; The Histo-Cultural Significance of Sports Protest in America

Spectators' consumption of sports provide entertainment, offers escapism and fosters feelings of tribalism and belonging. As such, social or political protests by teams or athletes may dampen these effects and may be deemed as unnecessary or distracting. However, from a consumer culture theory vantage point, sports offer a microcosm of the more significant society readily available for study. From this perspective, social and political themes are historically played on the field, court, and even the ice. The results of these events help shape the country's culture, defining who we are as the American collective (Gitlin 2017). Within this context, athlete protest also taps into the higher consciousness of the nation and offer insight not only to where we currently reside and what challenges we face but also who we will become. Muhamad Ali's objecting to fighting in Vietnam in 1967; Tommie Smith and John Carlos's shoeless raised fist salute to the national anthem at the 1968 Olympics; the 1976 Yale women's crew team standing in protest with "Title IX" written on their naked bodies. Such examples comprise just the tip to the proverbial iceberg. To this end, the presenter offers that the framing of protest not be limited to "if" or "when" such is appropriate but also include what the protest's narrative signals about society today and said narrative's role in the shaping of tomorrows collective culture.

Esports: A Game Changer for Sport Properties and Sponsors

Once a niche interest limited to video game enthusiasts, esports has moved into the mainstream. A definition of esports is that it is "an area of sport activities in which people develop and train mental or physical abilities in the use of information and communication technologies" (Wagner 2006). The evolution of esports into a global sport has attracted the interest of sport properties and corporate sponsors, both keen to reach an audience assumed to be less interested in traditional sports. Aligning with consumer interest in esports is a high-stakes proposition; the global audience for esports is expected to reach 303 million by 2020 with annual revenue approaching \$1.5 billion (Warman 2017). For sport properties, esports offers opportunities to engage with video game players who may or may not be traditional sports fans. An example of a property adding esports to its product portfolio to reach new audiences is the National Basketball Association and its NBA 2K esports league, a collaboration between 17 NBA clubs and NBA 2K game maker Take-Two Interactive. Similarly, corporate sponsors see potential in esports to achieve targeted reach. Brands known for sponsorship spending in traditional sports including Coca-Cola, Buffalo Wild Wings, and Geico have invested in esports sponsorships. These trends are taking esports from an intriguing prospect to a solid business opportunity with identifiable return on investment for properties, media partners, and sponsors.

Analytics and the Front Office: Opportunities and Challenges

Since Moneyball, there has been a lot of buzz around "analytics" in the sports industry. Originally focused on quantitative analysis of on-the-field performance, more recently this buzz has translated into executive positions in the front offices dedicated to business analytics. This is a sharp departure for an industry which has received consistently failing grades on providing measurement and data to sponsors, despite assistance measuring ROI/ROO being sponsors' most valued property-provided service (IEG/ESP, 2015). While a greater emphasis on data and analysis is a positive development, and a big opportunity for sports business faculty seeking partnerships with teams,

the emphasis on “data science” in these positions might lead to the exclusion or minimization of traditional market research.

The Challenges and Benefits of Working with Professional Sports Teams as Clients

Experiential learning projects, like client-based research assignments, allows students the ability to learn from applying theory to real situations (Bobbitt, Inks, Kemp and Mayo 2000). The benefits of these types of projects are numerous. They include increased motivation on the part of students (they are working on something they want to do), networking with individuals that can help with future internships or employment, and the creation of a basis of differentiation during future job searches (it makes for an interesting talking point, even for non-sports employment). However, gaining access to sports teams as clients offers challenges unique to the field. The purpose of this discussion is to leverage the panel’s combined thirty plus years of working with student-lead professional sports projects (including work with the Indiana Pacers, the Charlotte Hornets, and the Milwaukee Brewers) to provide insight on how to navigate such. This is done via the introduction of an RRTS (relationship building, return on investment, timing, and student selection) framework. This framework highlights the relationship-building component needed to work with professional sports teams and the importance of conveying the value of the project for the team. The framework also focuses on the need to start on projects early in the semester and the importance of choosing the right students for these projects (since the relationship with the team is only as good as the last student project).

Structure of the Special Session

This special session will consist of an overview segment and a discussion segment. In the overview segment, different panel members will introduce one of the four aforementioned topics. In the second segment, the floor will be open for discussion between the audience members and the panel. Questions from the audience that evoke discussion about other current trends in sports and entertainment marketing are also welcomed at this point.

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SESSION 7.5: SOCIAL MEDIA AND ENGAGEMENT

Chair:

Mohammad Amin Rostami, University of Texas at Arlington

Summary Brief

Firm's Digital Marketing Pursuits: Examining the Role of Social Media and Salesperson Knowledge for B2B Relationships

Omar S. Itani, Lebanese American University, Lebanon

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Praveen Singh, DXC Technology, USA

Sandeep Tyagi, Vollzo Consulting, USA

This study aims to enhance our understanding of social media use in B2B selling context. Specifically, we try to understand if salespeople who incorporate social media in their work are likely to expand their knowledge about their offerings and market. We also test if social media use can enhance the relationships salespeople have with customers. Findings demonstrate that social media helps salespeople to enhance their knowledge, thus, helping them with their knowledge-broker role. Moreover, social media is found to hold favorable but indirect impact on customer-salesperson relationship. Salespeople should be aware that trust isn't gained through social media, but requires more of face-to-face interaction.

Introduction

Digital marketing is constantly altering the way we do business. Although many components are available to make up a digital marketing campaign, social media is one of the key available channels of digital marketing. Social media within the B2B selling has evolved from a simple connecting tool to a central platform used to discover new prospects and develop better relationships with current customers (Rodriguez et al. 2012). The interactions between firms within a B2B relationship occur at different levels such as, interpersonal, person-to-firm, and inter-firm (Macintosh 2007; Palmatier et al. 2007). This makes it important to consider the interplay between customer-salesperson and customer-firm relationships within a model.

Background

In general, social media is defined as “the technological component of the communication, transaction and relationship building functions of a business which leverages the network of customers and prospects to promote value co-creation” (Andzulis et al. 2012). Social media is rapidly becoming a strategic tool that marketers and salespeople are deploying for and not limited to: generating qualified leads, gaining market insight, improving sales and increasing brand exposure and web traffic. Despite the consensus on the importance of social media by practitioners, its role and impact within the B2B market are still not well understood (Jussila et al. 2014; Swani et al. 2014).

Model Development

As per the service dominant logic, "skills and knowledge are the fundamental unit of exchange" (Vargo and Lusch 2004, p. 3). This is in line with the cognitive selling paradigm that emphasizes the importance of increasing the level of knowledge of salespeople for the positive effects on performance (Sujan et al. 1994; Weitz et al. 1986). Nowadays, customers do expect salespeople to access and be aware of relevant information due to the rich customer content found online, especially information related to the organizations salespeople are targeting (Jones et al. 2005). On the other hand, much of the time organizational buyers don't have sufficient knowledge about the products and services offered, which make it more of responsibility to salespeople to hold required knowledge.

This study suggests that social media may help salespeople in gaining more knowledge they need to possess, especially that about their offerings. Moreover, using social media provide complete two-way communication and increase clarity between salespeople and customers leading to increased levels of trust. In line with attribution theory (Kelley 1987), customers who witness a salesperson who is active on social media would attribute higher levels of confidence in his/her integrity and credibility.

Discussion and Implications

In this study, we shed light on the possible role of social media in the B2B selling context. This stream of research is limited and possesses a research gap that is gradually widening with the limited number of studies which are not able to keep up with the skyrocketing development of social media. This research tries to help salespeople and organizations better understand the effects of social media since they are still concerned about the advantages and benefits of it as a marketing tool. This heightened concern is mainly caused by the lack of studies that examine the possibilities of social media use. In sum, this research found that social media is an important enabler of product knowledge of salespeople and can indirectly help develop trust-based relationships with customers.

References available upon request.

Summary Brief

Online Social Presence: Scale Development and Validation

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Joseph F. Hair, PhD, University of South Alabama, USA
Thomas L. Baker, PhD, University of Alabama, USA

This paper uses partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) to develop and validate a scale to assess Online Social Presence (OSP) as a second order reflective formative measure comprised of authenticity, immediacy and intimacy. This scale is developed and validated, using an important consumer outcome (purchase intent) via PLS-SEM. By doing so, we provide a method to measure consumer reaction to e-tailer efforts to create persuasive and effective online retailing experiences for practitioners and researchers.

Introduction

This study outlines the development and validation of a proposed measure of Online Social Presence (OSP) in an e-tailing setting using PLS-SEM and ties it to e-tailing performance. While e-tailing sales have experienced more than a decade of double-digit annual growth (Schonfeld, 2010) and are forecast to exceed \$523 million in 2020 (Linder, 2016), researchers and practitioners struggle to identify meaningful mechanisms to evaluate e-tailing performance (D. W. Wallace, et al., 2004). Subsequently, immediacy, intimacy and authenticity are proposed and validated as sub-constructs forming OSP as a second-order construct. The established outcome variable of purchase intent is leveraged as an outcome and helps to provide evidence of nomological validity. The evaluation and specification of reflective and formative measures answers calls for more rigor in the specification of relationships (reflective or formative) between latent variables (e.g., Diamantopoulos & Sigauw, 2006; Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003).

The Online Social Presence (OSP) Framework Specification and Methodology

Revisiting social presence theory (Short, et al., 1976), this study advances OSP as a means to better understand a topic of burgeoning interest to researchers and practitioners, e-tailing performance; while answering calls for better rigor in the specification of relationships (reflective or formative) between latent variables and the measurement of constructs of interest (e.g., Diamantopoulos & Sigauw, 2006; Jarvis, et al., 2003). Further this research answers calls to correctly specify the nature of relationships of constructs as twenty-nine percent of marketing constructs are estimated to have been specified as reflective when these relationships should have been specified as formative (Jarvis, et al., 2003).

Applying the guidelines set forth in Jarvis, et al. (2003), the proposed OSP construct is considered to be a naturally occurring phenomenon and should be measured by reflective items. Thus, we suggest the higher order construct of OSP is caused by the occurrence of intimacy, immediacy and authenticity in an e-tailing setting and should be measured as a formative second order construct. Subsequently, this research utilizes methods for reflective measurements for the first order constructs in a manner consistent with classic test theory (Hair, et al., 2017). The specification of a formative higher order construct follows the guidelines of (Diamantopoulos, Riefler, et al., 2008).

Using PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2016), this research validates OSP within a nomological net with an established outcome variable (purchase intent) in an e-tailing context via a 10 stage data collection procedure (Reams, R. S., 2013). Qualitative data collected via literature review and consumer interviews was purified using multi-stage expert review procedures. Quantitative data was collected in multiple rounds by having e-tailing consumers answer survey questions regarding recent e-tailing purchases. Leveraging robust qualitative and quantitative data, this study used exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) procedures to validate the OSP framework (Hair et al., 2017). This methodology further analyzed the OSP scale and presents both a validated long form (34 items) and short form scale (12 items – see appendix 1), answering the call for parsimonious research instruments (Netemeyer, et al., 2003).

Contributions

By reexamining social presence theory (Short, et al., 1976), this study extends social presence theory into the modern e-tailing context through the development and validation of the proposed OSP scale in an e-tailing setting. Immediacy, intimacy and authenticity are proposed and validated as sub-constructs forming OSP as a second-order construct, and the established outcome variable of purchase intent demonstrates nomological validity.

Having employed a robust mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods, this research presents the OSP scale and framework for researchers and practitioners to examine and positively influence the performance of e-tailing websites. Social presence offers a mechanism to understand how persuasive communication may be achieved through different communications mediums. The validated OSP scale offers both a long form and short form validated mechanism to understand better both the impressions consumers form during an online shopping experience.

Appendix 1: OSP Scale Used in Study

(Items in bold are represent the OSP short scale)

Immediacy:

1. This website is organized so I can easily find the product or service I am considering purchasing.
- 2. The purchase process on this website is designed to be easy to follow.**
3. The people operating this website offer convenient shopping.
4. The people operating this website promptly update my account when I purchase.
5. The people operating this website do not require a lot of unnecessary clicks to order an item.
- 6. The people at this website tell me if the item I am shopping for is in stock.**
7. This website was designed so that the number of steps required to supply the necessary personal information to complete a transaction is reasonable.
- 8. The operators of this website make it easy to find similar products.**
9. This website is designed so that I can easily log into my account on this website.
- 10. Q q**
11. The designers of this website make it easy to select the shipping service I want for an item.
12. The designers make it easy to find items on this website that meet my needs.

Intimacy:

13. It feels like the people behind this website create a personal experience.
14. I feel like I can easily ask someone questions about a product on this website.
15. This website is designed to make me comfortable participating in discussions with people on this website.
16. The people operating this website fully answer my questions.
17. There is a feeling of human warmth on this site.
18. The people operating this site make it easy to share information about the items I like on this website with my friends.
19. I trust that people at this website respect my privacy.
20. (6.) I feel like the people at this company care about me as a person.
21. This website is designed to make me feel comfortable describing this website to others.
22. (7.) This website feels sociable.
23. (8.) This website feels like being part of an online community.
24. I feel like I'm with friends on this website.

Authenticity:

25. This website makes me feel like a salesperson is providing enough variety of different pictures to allow me to visualize details about the product/service.

26. This website is designed to allow me to see the product/service as if it was in a store.
27. Previous experiences with this website make me feel like the website is designed to feel like I'm in a store.
28. The ability provided on this site to zoom in/out and rotate the product on this website lets me visualize the product as if it were being demonstrated in a store.
29. When I need to see sizes, the guides offered by the people operating this site enable me to understand product options (e.g., size charts).
30. (9.) The ability to zoom in and out on pictures on this site gives a sense of someone explaining the details of the product/service.
31. This website creates a shopping experience similar to the one I would have when shopping in a store.
32. (10.) The designers of this site provide information in a manner that enables me to evaluate a product similar to how I would in a store.
33. (11.) The people behind this site present products/services that allow me to consider my purchase similar to how I would in a store.
34. (12.) The people operating this site allow me to determine the accuracy of information similar to the way I would in a store.

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Presentation

The Role of Storytelling in Enhancing Consumers' Engagement with Social Media Content

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Elten Briggs, University of Texas at Arlington, USA

This summary describes an early stage research project that will examine the effects of storytelling on social media strategies. A set of propositions is presented. We argue that greater use of storytelling strategies ultimately leads to higher psychological engagement with social media content by online users and more meaningful participation on the brand's social media page(s). Though economic incentives (i.e., monetary benefits, prizes, etc.) may be paired with storytelling approaches to further enhance participation, we argue that these economic incentives can have the effect of weakening the otherwise positive effects of customer participation on engagement.

Introduction

The concept of marketing has evolved from focusing on the distribution and exchange of tangible products to services provision and co-creating value. Similarly, advertising approaches have evolved from simply conveying messages to storytelling, which can help achieving higher brand recognition, recall, awareness, and comprehension (Singh and Sonneberg, 2012). Firms now increasingly seek to implement storytelling strategies by co-creating stories with current and potential customers. The emergence of social media has provided a practical mean of conducting the necessary interactions with online users to engage them in the storytelling process and disseminate those stories (Singh and Sonneberg, 2012). Though one of firms' main challenges in managing social media is dealing with its unpredictable and uncontrollable nature, storytelling approaches use this potential drawback in an advantageous manner by leveraging this characteristic to motivate consumers to participate and co-create brand messages. With story co-creation, brand managers must ensure that their brand remains an integral part of the story as customers contribute more of their own content to the narrative. One example of a successful storytelling campaign is the Dove "Real Beauty" campaign. The campaign now asks users to share their own stories of real beauty, which then becomes part of Dove's broader narrative. While companies like Dove have achieved great success with storytelling strategies through social media, there is lack of empirical research on this topic. The main research question(s) we would like to address are: does using a storytelling approach with social media drive consumer engagement with brand content, and if so, how? We provide a model to conceptualize how brand storytelling could affect engagement with social media content. This research contributes to social media literature by investigating the co-creation of online content, one of the most important opportunities that social media provides for brands. From a managerial perspective, firms will be able to use the results to better evaluate how storytelling can help them strategically manage their brands on social media.

Theoretical Background

Storytelling

Delgado & Escalas (2004) argue that a story's structure includes two important elements: chronology and causality. Chronology is the organization of events in a temporal dimension, and causality is the organization of established relationships between elements of story which makes the causal inferencing possible. When storytelling principles are applied to social media, consumers engage in this process and often this changes the narrative, as with an improvisation theatre performance (Singh and Sonneberg, 2012). However, the research in marketing has only conceptualized the process and interactions involved in storytelling rather than contemplating its outcomes.

Engagement with Social Media Content

In this research we apply the perspective of Syrdal and Briggs (2016), which describes engagement with social media content as "a psychological state of mind". This conceptualization is an appropriate fit with the study context. Research suggests, that people naturally think narratively rather than argumentatively or paradigmatically (Woodside et al. 2010). Hence, storytelling is consistent with consumers' thinking style, making it easier for them to engage with stories and retrieve information from stories than from other firm communication techniques.

Proposition 1: Using a story-telling approach in social media is positively related to users' engagement with social media content.

User Participation

We identify four levels of participation based on how involved online users become in disseminating the story of the brand. The highest level of participation would be creating content and contributing to the advancement of the brand story by writing, posting content, photo, or video or some other creative activity. Second, online users can participate by sharing the company-produced content. Third, online users can write a comment on the brand story. Fourth, online users can participate by merely liking the content. Based on Singh and Sonneberg's (2012) conceptualization of story co-creation in social media as an improvisation theatre performance, we argue that initiating a story in social media would lead to more high-level participation by online users. When a brand initiates a story, it may compel online users to advance and disseminate the story, which can further engage users. Then, when consumers participate in producing content in social media (i.e., co-creating the story), these behaviors should encourage engagement with the brand's content on an ongoing basis. Higher levels of participation represent greater levels of investment by the consumer into the brands' activities. Since users would lose this investment without the brand's social media platform(s), they should become psychologically more engaged with the brand's social media content.

Proposition 2: Using story-telling approach in social media is positively related to user participation with the brand's social media page(s).

Proposition 3: User participation with a brand's social media page(s) is positively related to engagement with social media content.

Economic Incentives

According to social exchange theory (SET) individuals are motivated by social and economic rewards (Blau, 1994). Applying this theory in this study context, the participation of online users may be motivated by economic rewards provided by the company, by social rewards from others in their social media network, or by both. Some organizations provide economic incentives for participation, such as a chance to win monetary prizes or tangible goods. Though these types of economic incentives are likely to motivate consumers' participation on the brands' social media page, at least temporarily, we argue that this strategy could also have negative repercussions. Specifically, if the incentive functions be the main reward for a customer's participation, it could weaken the impact that the participation would otherwise have on users' engagement with the brand social media content. If the online user is mainly participating for a chance of winning a prize or getting a discount, he/she may feel that they have been equitably compensated for their participation. Thus, they would not have a sense of loss if they break with the social media content being created by the brand.

Proposition 4: Economic incentive is positively related to customer participation on the brand's social media.

Proposition 5: Economic incentive moderates the relationship between customer participation on the brand's social media page and engagement with social media content. The relationship is weaker when there is a monetary incentive for customer participation.

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Presentation

Understanding the Relationship between Social Conversations and Customer Engagement

Sujata Ramnarayan, Notre Dame de Namur University, USA

The term “engagement” has captured the attention of many organizations lately. It has drawn the attention of marketers more recently as consumers take to social media to express their likes and dislikes. Recent research indicates that “customer engagement” is positively related to organizational performance and is strengthened through “employee engagement.” Prior research describes “customer engagement” as a four dimensional construct, three of which are non-transactional and related to various outcomes of social conversations that add value to a firm such as referrals, influence, and innovative ideas. However, to date, the relationship between social conversations and customer engagement has not been explored. For example, volume and valence of comments could determine the magnitude of all four dimensions of customer engagement. The purpose of this research is to understand how underlying motivations and other characteristics such as volume, valence, and frequency of social conversations are related to different dimensions of customer engagement.

Introduction and Literature Review

Research supports the influence of customer engagement on corporate performance (Kumar and Pansari 2016). While some have looked at customer engagement as behavior that goes beyond transactions, others define customer engagement as consisting of both transactional and non-transactional interactions that take place between companies and customers (e.g. Kumar et. al. 2010). Kumar et.al. (2010) propose that customer engagement includes four different components - lifetime value of the customer (CLV), customer influence value (CIV), customer referral value (CRV), and customer knowledge value (CKV). Thus, three of the components of customer engagement value are related to social conversations and electronic word of mouth communication (eWOM). Customer engagement, thus, is composed of facets that are not purely transactional. Since the non-transactional components of customer engagement are all aspects of social conversations, it is important to understand how specific characteristics of social conversations might be related to customer engagement. Understanding how more engaged and less engaged customers and prospects are different in the nature of non-transactional behaviors and motivations can help in formulating a strategy for managing social conversations and thereby, customer engagement.

Social conversations can either add value or detract value for a firm through customer participation in social conversations. However, we still do not know how highly engaged and less engaged customers would differ in the nature of and motivations for their social conversations. While Kumar et. al 2010 operationalize CRV as sharing that is created due to monetary rewards to both referrer and the recipient, due to the pervasiveness of social media, many companies today request customers to share without a monetary reward. In addition, research on sharing shows that people share for intrinsic reasons that are altruistic such as sharing something for the success of the company or to benefit other consumers (e.g. Hennig-Thurau et al 2004). Thus, the authors argue that CRV which is defined as acquisition of a customer through another customer because of a reward would extend to non-economic reasons of intrinsic value as well for referrals. Thus, the reward for customer referral need not be monetary but also a feeling of doing good. This leads to our first hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Highly engaged customers that share referrals are likely to score higher on customer referral value that does not involve monetary incentives than less engaged customers Dubois et al (2016) showed that the desire to protect and therefore, the tendency for negative word of mouth is stronger in high interpersonal closeness (IC) conditions such as ties on Facebook as opposed to ties on LinkedIn. John et al (2017) more recently questioned the impact of ‘liking’ a brand on its social network on marketing outcomes. Through a series of experiments the authors suggest that the effects found on attitudes and behaviors are due to pre-selection rather than the fact that ‘liking’ leads to a more favorable attitude toward the brand. Thus, you would expect more engaged customers with a higher CIV to also share more positive comments than negative comments. On the other hand, those with a lower CIV are likely to be willing to share more negative comments compared to those with a high CIV. Thus, it is proposed that:

Hypothesis 2: High CIV customers are expected to share more positive than negative comments compared to low CIV customers. High CIV customers are also expected to share more frequently compared to low CIV customers.

Research on motivations for sharing online has identified a number of factors from either a psychological and/or sociological or situational perspective (Hennig-Thurau et al 2004). The motivations for sharing product related knowledge can stem from reasons of social approval or for reasons of relieving tension when sharing disappointment in product performance. Since such product related knowledge shared online, contributes to or detracts from the customer knowledge value (CKV) facet of customer engagement, it is expected that those with a higher CKV are likely to share more positive aspects of performance compared to those with a lower CKV.

Customers also bring value through their ability to influence others, an outcome that contributes to CIV dimension of customer engagement. Although the value to the firm comes from positive influence, customers influence other customers and prospects from making purchases as well. The motivations in both cases are potentially intrinsic and yet completely different. High CIV customers might be motivated for altruistic reasons to benefit the company, whereas low CIV customers could be motivated by altruistic reasons but to protect other customers from harm or due to motivations of revenge to harm the company. We thus propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: High CKV customers share for social, self-approval, and positive homeostasis reasons while low CKV customers are expected to share for negative homeostasis reasons.

Hypothesis 4: High CIV consumers are likely to be different from low CIV consumers in motivations for sharing. High CIV customers are likely to share more for social and self-approval reasons whereas low CIV customers are likely to share for altruistic reasons.

Conclusion

This research brings together two different but related streams of research to get a better understanding of how managing and influencing social conversations can lead to a higher customer engagement value. Understanding how highly engaged customers differ from less engaged customers in the motivations for and the nature of social conversations can help in both increasing customer engagement and understanding the reasons for disengagement.

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**SESSION 7.6: JUST CAN'T GET ENOUGH: INVESTIGATING
SCARCITY AND CONSUMPTION ENVIRONMENTS**

Chair:

Jose Luis Saavedra, Southern Illinois University Carbondale

Summary Brief

Need for More: Conspicuous Consumption, Social Settings and Materialism

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José Luis Saavedra Torres, Southern Illinois University-Carbondale, USA

Three studies will be conducted to show how power increase conspicuous consumption. Findings contributes to the literature by demonstrating an mechanism on decision making, that emphasizes the importance of consumers' state of power in consumption behavior and showing how deeply the experience of power seeps into everyday life.

Introduction

Power as the capacity to control resources and outcomes, both one's own and that of others (Keltner, et al. 2003), and is a foundational basis of social hierarchy that affects psychological processes related to how people think, feel, and behave (Galinsky et al. 2008). Thus, power varies from situation to situation, with each context carrying its own hierarchical arrangement (Rucker and Galinsky 2008). Customers may have different behaviors based on the power. One simple prediction is that a state of low power might signal to consumers that they have fewer resources and, as a result, reduce the amount they are willing to spend on products. However, Rucker and Galinsky (2008) allude that feeling powerless is often an aversive state that will lead consumers to attempt to attenuate or alter this state and argue that low power fosters a desire to acquire products associated with status to compensate for lacking power. Then, products can signal one's status by spending more on consumer goods such as luxury brands (Rucker and Galinsky 2008) which leads to increase conspicuousness (Lee, Shrum, and Yi 2017). As a consequence, conspicuous consumption would be increased by low power consumers due to a desire to signal status (Dubois et al. 2012).

We hypothesize that individuals experiencing a state of low power seek to restore their sense of power by acquiring status, which increases preferences for conspicuous consumption (serial mediation). Based on that, two hypotheses of moderation were derived. First, the preference for conspicuous consumption by the powerless should be greater when consumption is socially visible to others (Dubois et al. 2012). Second, materialism could increase preference for conspicuous consumption for consumers in high power situations (Podoshen and Andrzejewski 2012).

Theoretical Background

The two main theories to the current research are social visibility (Ridgeway and Correll 2006) and materialism (Richins 1994). Social visibility refers to consumer's perception of their own status, which is primarily measured "in the eyes of others" (Ridgeway and Correll 2006) and is sensitive to the social context. Rucker and Galinsky (2008) suggest that states of powerlessness increase one's sensitivity to others. They also find that individuals from groups historically associated with low power, spend more in contexts in which consumption is social (e.g., at the dealership) compared to more private contexts (e.g., online purchase at home). Therefore, the preference for conspicuous consumption by the powerless should be greater when consumption is socially visible to others. The second theory is materialism, which defined as a perspective in which possession and the process of acquisition occupy the focal point in one's life (Richins 1994). Materialism is generally regarded as a negative value system as it involves placing possessions and their acquisition at the center of life with a belief that acquiring more possessions leads to happiness (Podoshen and Andrzejewski 2012).

Methodology

Three studies will be conducted to test our model. The first study will test how consumer in a low state of power have more preference for conspicuous consumption and this process is mediated by sense of power and need for status. One hundred undergraduate students will randomly be assigned to the low and high state power condition. Power will be manipulated using a recall task adapted from Galinsky, Deborah and Magee (2003). Then, survey will measure preferences for conspicuous consumption by asking participants to imagine they are buying a coat and then to indicate their preferences for conspicuous logos (Rucker and Galinsky 2008).

Second study will test that customer's preference for conspicuous consumption by the powerless (powerful) consumers will be higher (lower) in public settings. A 2×2 (power: high vs. low and social context: public vs. private) between-subjects design will be conducted with a sample of 120 undergraduate students. Power will be manipulated

through an imagination task adapted from Dubois et al. (2010). Social context will be manipulated through an imagination task adapted from Lee, Shrum, and Yi (2017). The measurement for conspicuous consumption is the average size of logo chosen by participant. Finally, the third study will test if consumers with high power have higher (lower) preference for conspicuous consumption in materialistic (control) condition, whereas consumers with low power will have high preference for conspicuous consumption regardless of materialistic (control) condition. A 2×2 (power: high vs. low and materialism: materialistic vs. control) between-subjects design will be conducted with a sample of 120 undergraduate students. Materialistic will be manipulated through a depiction of luxury goods adapted from Bauer et al. (2012) (images of luxury goods vs. images of natural scenes). Power manipulation and conspicuous consumption measurement will be the same as in study two. MACRO Process using SPSS 23 (model 1 and 6) will be used to analyze data.

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Presentation

Beyond Window Signs: the Effects of Window Signs on Consumers' Attitudes and Shopping Decisions.

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This study investigates the role of window signs influencing consumer attitudes and store patronage intentions. This research presents empirical evidence on how this commonplace marketing tool generates inferences to the consumer about store's image and store's value savings (promotions), which further influence consumers' patronage intentions. Results reveal window signs are not only a relevant diagnostic cue for consumers, but also generate inferences about place identity and sense of place. We propose that sense of place mediates the relationship between consumers' attitude toward window signs and their perception of store's value savings. Findings also reveal that window signs do not harm store image, which is contrary to the belief that justifies the existence of sign codes to regulate urban environment. Our investigation includes the store's manager perspective to show that retail managers have strong positive attitudes toward window signs, which help them to rely on this promotional tool to announce retail promotions.

Introduction

Several potential influences on the consumer emerge at the front of the store: merchandise presentation, building signs, and window displays (Lange et.al, 2016; De Nisco and Warnaby, 2012; Sen et.al 2002). This research focuses on window signs, which take the form of posters or window captions attached to window displays and/or store doors. In particular, we explore how the attitude toward window signs play a role in customers' perceptions of store image, value savings, and store patronage intentions.

We presume that windows signs not only generate positive impressions about the store's image, but also evoke symbolic meanings to consumers that are related to sense of place. These feelings of familiarity and place identity to the store help consumers to perceive value from retail promotions. Furthermore, this research includes the store's manager perspective to investigate how window signs represent a key instrument to communicate promotions, and how this relationship is moderated by the effect of city codes that regulate the appeal of the front of the store.

Conceptual Development

Previous literature suggests that consumers apply decision-relevant information to make inferences about retail stores. For instance, several studies investigated the role of window displays and store exteriors influencing consumers' decision-making (e.g., Lange et.al, 2016; Oh and Petrie 2012; Cornelius et.al, 2010). However, these studies argue that still little is known about the effects of storefront stimuli on shopper behaviors. This study addresses this call by investigating the role of window signs influencing consumers' shopping experience. Since window signs are a ubiquitous element on window displays and because they indicate a direct attempt from store managers to communicate store's image and promotions, it is relevant to study their influence on consumer attitudes and behaviors.

This study builds its logic by following Sen et.al, (2002) framework in which it is recognized that store image and promotions are relevant pieces of information that consumers acquire in order make inferences about the store. In our conceptualization we predict that when consumers engage in mental representations regarding store's atmosphere and value from promotions, this process elicits a sense of place (i.e. Brocato et.al, (2015).

Method

This study uses a multi-method approach to find evidence for the propositions we conceptualized. Study 1 uses survey data from a randomized sample of store managers to assess the importance of window signs in communicating promotions to consumers and to evaluate the influence of city regulations. Study 2 also uses survey data (a mall intercept approach) to assess the impact of window signs on customers when making shopping decisions. We used partial least square-structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) to analyze the data for Study 1 and Study 2. Study 3 is an online experiment design to replicate Study 2 findings and to explore the mediating role of sense of place. All measures used in all three studies were adapted from literature, utilized a seven-point scale, and were subject to analysis for reliability and validity (item loadings, CR, AVE and Cronbach's alpha values were all valid).

Results

Study 1 Store's Manager Perspective

Our first step involved obtaining an assessment of attitudes of store's managers toward window signs. Then, we measured the perceived importance of communicating price, promotions, and special offers to customers, which was the main dependent variable. The results suggest that managers attitudes toward window signs associates significantly with the importance of promotions communication ($\beta = 0.34, p < 0.001$). Additionally, we asked managers if they perceive the impact of sign regulations. By this, we identified the moderating effect of sign codes on the relationship between attitudes toward window signs and promotions communication ($\beta = -0.11, p < 0.10$). Model fitness statistics reported a non-significant chi-square ($\chi^2 = 174.33$) and optimal values for NFI= 0.85 and a SRMR= 0.06.

Study 2 Customers' Perspective

After purchasing goods in a store, customers were approached and asked to rate the store's window signs (e.g., attractive, believable, informative, appealing, and so forth). Then participants were asked to evaluate the store image and appeal (e.g., if the store is visually appealing, provides a pleasant environment, store is attractive, and so forth). Customers also rated the store using their perceptions for "receiving a high value for their money", "perceived savings" and if the "products are economical". Finally, customers expressed their intentions to patronize the store (e.g., "I will continue shopping at this store; "I will recommend this store to a friend"; "In the future I will use the store for more of my needs").

Data analysis suggests that consumers attitudes toward window signs associates significantly with their attitudes toward store image ($\beta = 0.52, p < 0.001$). Furthermore, they are positively and significantly related with their perceptions of store promotional value ($\beta = 0.37, p < 0.001$). The path coefficient between store promotional value and intentions to patronize the store was significant ($\beta = 0.65, p < 0.001$) compared to the path coefficient between store image and intentions to patronize the store ($\beta = 0.11, p = 0.31$). Model fitness statistics reported a non-significant chi-square ($\chi^2 = 346.74$) and optimal values for NFI= 0.80 and a SRMR= 0.07.

Study 3 Mediating Role of Sense of Place

Eighty-five undergraduate students participated in an online study in exchange for extra credit. At the beginning of the study, participants were exposed to one of two versions of a restaurant storefront picture showing either a restaurant with window signs announcing the menu and promotions, or a restaurant with no window signs. The main dependent measure was participants' rating for the restaurant as how sophisticated and expensive they perceive it is. Next, participants completed the place identity scale (Brocato et.al, 2015). The results of the manipulation check confirmed participants identified the promotions displayed on the window signs. Consistent with our expectations, the results revealed that participants exposed to window signs indicated the restaurant is not perceived expensive ($\beta = -0.42, p < 0.10$). The significance of the indirect effect of sense of place was tested using bootstrapping procedures (Preacher' et al., 2007). The analysis revealed a 95% confidence interval around the indirect effect with zero falling outside of the confidence interval (95% CI= 0.01 to 0.61), indicating the mediating path was significant.

Discussion

This study theoretically contributes to extend the knowledge of how storefront marketing stimuli influence consumers' shopping decisions. We highlight the importance of window signs generating positive inferences about store's image and developing place identity. Both outcomes influence consumers' intentions to patronize a store.

For marketing practitioners this study signals the importance of windows signs. We would expect that window signs interfere in store's appeal and atmospherics, but the results show the contrary. Window signs positively influence store image. Moreover, when retailers use window signs they are creating an atmosphere that evoke meanings of place identity to the consumer. Certainly, this finding contradicts the basis for placing city codes to regulate store signage.

Summary Brief

Consumer Persistence and Creativity in the Face of Extreme Shortage

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This project examines the structural conditions and consumer response that created and perpetuated an extreme product shortage in the personal ammunition market beginning in late 2012. The various methods consumers used to mitigate this actual or perceived shortage are a classic illustration of Brehm's 1966 reactance theory. Product shortage threatened personal freedom and limited choice and consumers predictably responded with reactance theory based behaviors including extended search strategies, opportunism, and stockpiling/hoarding. These behaviors ensured that there was little to no stock available at retail, or that when there was stock it sold out quickly, thus exacerbating the situation. Understanding consumer response to extreme product shortage may help organizations to manage marketing efforts when such conditions occur.

Introduction and Literature Review

Brehm (1966) introduced reactance theory as a predictor of individual behavior. Reactance theory holds that any perceived threat to any freedom will result in a reaction and perhaps overreaction in certain conditions. One such condition is a lack of freedom or choice due to scarcity of products just as experienced in the personal ammunition market in later 2012. Increased attractiveness of the denied freedom is a possible reactance response. Furthermore, Clee and Wicklund (1980, p. 390), noted “. . . behaviors stemming from reactance arousal not conservative, in the sense of the person attempting only to return to the prereactance state of affairs. Rather, the reactance response often entails an overreaction, whereby threatened behaviors or attitudes come to be prized more than before.”

In late 2012, consumers of certain types of ammunition experienced just such a threat to freedom resulting in significant reactance arousal. A number of characteristics of this particular threat to these consumers' freedom to purchase ammunition support the relatively high level of reactance arousal reported in this study. The scarcity of inventory, both in stores and online, in most product categories of ammunition curtailed freedom to buy any brand in any distribution channel of these particular product categories. A high level of freedom existed for these consumers before this scarcity; virtually all calibers were available to consumers whenever they wanted it. Various brands in each product category of the now limited calibers were available. The importance of this freedom to consumers varied depending upon behavioral characteristics of consumption. To high usage rate consumers, such as trap/skeet sporting shooters who use large amounts of ammunition and to whom this activity is a valued hobby and a source of social interaction, the thought of curtailing participation in the sport is painful. For those consumers whose ammunition purchase and shooting activity focused not so much on sport but self- and home-defense, the freedom restricted can be viewed as a life or death situation and clearly, then, important. Thus this restricted freedom presented by scarcity may be quickly extrapolated from loss of participation in an active social hobby to the possibility of being unable to defend oneself, one's family, and one's home.

Methodology

Using theoretical sampling methods (Glaser 2001), eleven participants were recruited via contacts with sport shooting associations and ranges. The primary data collection method was long interview (Patton 2002). We used an interview guide consisting of open-ended questions and prompts. We recorded the interviews and analyzed them using Atlas.ti, a computer program used to code text. We coded in two cycles (Saldana 2009). The first cycle consisted of open coding, during which we broke the text into smaller “meaning units” with codes that represented our interpretations of what the participants were saying (Strauss and Corbin 1998). The second cycle of coding involved the use of a coding paradigm, developed by Strauss (1987), in which we organized the open codes into three categories: structural conditions, strategies, and consequences. These three categories represent what we believe explains most of the behavior of consumers during the phenomenon.

Findings

Structural Conditions

Structural conditions include “the specific set of conditions that come together to produce a specific situation” (Strauss and Corbin 1998, p.130). Structural conditions identified in this situation include fear of governmental restriction to buys weapons and ammunition, the repetitive and high usage nature of ammunition consumption by sport shooters, limited substitutability for ammunition, and uncertainty of the duration of the shortage.

Strategies

Consumers used a variety of strategies to mitigate the effects of the ammunition shortage. We found specific strategies in this phenomenon to include substitution (purchase of less preferred brands, loading/reloading) extended search methods, opportunism, and hoarding/stockpiling. All of these methods were, to varying degrees, successful for some of the participants in the research.

Consequences

The conditions of this phenomenon, which drove the fear, uncertainty, and need for frequent and large purchases felt by ammunition consumers led to strategies which appear to have worsened the shortage. In particular, extended search methods, opportunistic buying, and hoarding/stockpiling ensured that there was little to no stock available at retail, or that when there was stock it sold out quickly. As Henry told us, “In my opinion, it was not so much that the ammunition was not being built, it was that it was being over-purchased. I have a lot of friends that used to say that it was scarce. Well it is because so many people were buying it as soon as it would hit the shelves (*italics added*).” Substituting reloading for retail purchases may have alleviated some of the shortage at first, but the increase in volume of component purchases had an eventual effect on those supplies as well. It would appear that in this phenomenon, consumers through their actions both caused and perpetuated the problem. Ironically, the effectiveness of their strategies appear to have created a situation that made it even more difficult for manufacturers and retailers to manage.

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Summary Brief

The Mediated Impact of Perceived Security Breach on Consumer Repurchase Intention

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Security or data breach has been in the forefront of news in the past few years and its continuing. The importance and relevance of security breach impacting consumers cannot be undermined. Although, the organizations dealing with products and services are the initial victim of security breach, nonetheless it affects consumers both financially and emotionally. The effort on our part is to study the consumer responsiveness when security breach affects consumers. The idea is to find out consumer response towards repurchase intention. Also, we examine the moderating relationship of trust between perceived security breaches and repurchase intention. An initial question which might arise to consumers is that 'Is my personal information secure?' If the personal information is not secure then consumers can be rightly apprehensive about visiting the same store again or even online. In simple words, consumers would avoid entering in any business transaction where security breach has been observed.

Introduction

In recent years, the retail industry has suffered several highly publicized security breaches: for example, in December 2013, security at Target was compromised, and this failure was followed by security breaches at Sears, Home Depot, and K-Mart in 2014. These breaches have forced retailers to think about how these breaches might affect customer repurchase intention. To date, the research investigating the impact of security breaches on repurchase intention has been lacking. An obvious question arises that is likely to be asked by customers: "Do I want to shop at this store again, either in person or even online?" A thorough study examining the attitudes and intentions of customers is needed. This study begins filling this need by looking at the underlying reasons for customers' responses regarding repurchase. The following research questions are proposed:

- 1) How does security breach affect consumer repurchase intention?
- 2) How does consumer response mediate the impact of security breach on consumer's repurchase intention?
- 3) How does consumer trust, or mistrust, moderate the impact of security breach on consumer repurchase intention?

Conceptual Development

Goodwin (1991) defines consumer privacy as "the consumer's ability to control (a) presence of other people in the environment during a market transaction or consumption behavior and (b) dissemination of information related to or provided during such transactions or behavior to those who were not present." To understand which variables affect consumer response, we apply few theories, such as, adaptation level theory (Helson 1964), seems to be appropriate for explaining how past cognitions, which serve as the adaptation levels are mediated by present satisfaction in influencing repeat purchase behavior (La Barbera et al. 1983). La Tour and Peat (1979) applied the comparison level theory (Thibaut and Kelley 1959) in the context of a product purchase setting. The theory is particularly appealing because it adds a dynamic aspect whereby outcomes from a present experience modify the comparison level for future consideration. According to comparison level theory, a high level of satisfaction results in a greater difference between outcome and the comparison level which yields a higher intention to repurchase the brand (La Barbera 1983). Drawing on Weiner's (1985) attributional approach, it can be hypothesized that causal inferences would have direct effects on desire to repurchase and complain as well as indirect effects, which would be mediated by anger at the firm (Folkes et al. 1987). Two orthogonal dimensions relevant to this research are controllability and stability. On the one hand, causes differ by the extent to which they are either under volitional control and involve choice or are not under volitional control and are constrained (Weiner 1985). When fog or ice delays a flight the delay is not controlled by the airline; when an airline delays a flight to sell more tickets, the delay is controlled by the airline (Folkes et al. 1987). The same scenario can be applied in our study context where companies cannot control external influences affecting the operations of the company in the form of security breach. Drawing an analogy from Folkes et al. (1987) consumers would be less willing to visit the same store or use services of the store when security breach are perceived to be controllable consumers than when they are perceived to be uncontrollable. Furthermore, the regret theory (Bell 1982) provides additional understanding. When people evaluate outcomes they compare what they have received with what

they would have received had they made a different choice (Boles and Messick 1995). They regret their decisions if a different choice would have led to a better outcome. Conversely, if a different choice would have led to a worse outcome, people will rejoice. Thus, regret (rejoicing) is the result of comparing one's outcome with a better (worse) outcome that would have occurred had a different alternative been selected (Tsiros et al. 2000). Therefore, if consumers experience security breach then they might think of their own decision making of shopping at that store instead of other stores and which will influence their response towards repurchase in the same store.

Conclusions

This study attempts to explain the consumer response with regards to repurchase intention when consumers are confronted with perceived security breach. The moderating relationship of trust is also examined between perceived security breaches and repurchase intention. First, this study suggests if customers' confidential information is stolen in a security breach, relationship marketing is negatively impacted because relationship marketing concerns attracting, developing, and retaining customer relationships (Morgan and Hunt 1994). Second, it is often perceived that customer trust has greater impact on repurchase intention than customer acquisition. The reason for this is simple: the greater the trust, the greater the repurchase intention. Hence, the element of repurchase intention plays a pivotal role for any business. The goal of this research is 1) to understand consumers' response processes in terms of trust after occurrence of security breaches, and 2) to explain the effects security breaches have on customer repurchase intention.

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SESSION 7.8: CONSUMER CONSTRAINTS & EMPOWERMENT

Chair:

Laurel Aynne Cook, West Virginia University

Summary Brief

Discovering the Best Consumer Complaint Strategies to Gain Compliance from Financial Institutions

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Using consumer credit card complaint narratives filed with the Consumer Financial Protection Bureau (CFPB), we identify the persuasion tactics most related to the best outcome for consumers dissatisfied with a credit card provider. We examine the various persuasion strategies based on the sales, promotion, and justice literatures using NVivo. Additionally we use LIWC, a computerized text analysis tool, to identify effective themes. Consumers who are authentic, use more facts, and show vulnerability are more likely to get positive responses. Traditionally, marketing scholars have studied how companies attempt to persuade consumers to purchase their product. This study is significant because we are looking at how consumers are trying to persuade the company to act in the consumer's favor thereby improving consumer wellbeing.

Introduction

The Consumer Financial Protection Bureau (CFPB) is the newest of federal agencies working to protect consumers against unfair practices. CFPB maintains an extensive database of consumer complaints against financial services (CFPB 2016a). Thousands of consumers voice complaints through this portal each week. Complaints are de-identified and published verbatim to the public. This database offers a unique opportunity for researchers interested in consumer complaint behavior by providing a glimpse of real consumers working with real concerns.

The purpose of this paper is to offer an initial examination of these complaints by exploring the persuasion strategies consumers use when attempting to resolve problems with a firm. We hope to advance understanding of consumer complaint behavior. Specifically, existing literature conceptualizes consumer complaint behavior as a dichotomy—either the consumer complains or s/he does not. We examine the content of those complaints to determine what makes them most effective.

Background

“Compliance gaining” can be defined as “the degree to which one partner alters his/her attitudes, cognitions or behavior as a result of the other’s communication,” (Newton and Burgoon 1990, p. 478). Marwell and Schmitt (1967) brought together techniques suggested by persuasion researchers and identified sixteen compliance gaining strategies. These strategies vary greatly. For example, one can threaten punishment or offer a reward if the other individual will comply, can use a moral appeal by suggesting that it is immoral for the person not to comply, or appeal to the other’s altruism by explaining how badly one needs the other actor to comply.

Garner (2009) identified thirteen influence message types that could be used within organizations to “change another person’s behaviors and or beliefs according to one’s own objectives,” (p. 199). Based on Garner’s message types, Bolkan et al. (2014) asked student subjects to think about a situation within the past six months in which they had an unsatisfactory experience and write a complaint letter. Bolkan et al. (2014) made strong, logical connections between the consumer complaint letters written by their participants and Garner’s 2009 typology developed for use in compliance attempts within firms. Included among the thirteen strategies are “direct-factual appeals” which are focused on proving information to support one’s argument and let the other actor know what has happened, offering solutions to resolve the problem, and venting (using emotional language and labeling the experience with emotional terms).

The sales literature also offers insight into how consumers may attempt to persuade firms to resolve complaints. For example, Frazier and Summers (1984), using a sample of new car dealers, identified six influence strategies. Two are indirect strategies meaning they are based on altering perceptions (information exchange and recommendations). The remaining four strategies are direct meaning that they are not based on altering perceptions (promises, threats, legal appeals, and requests).

Other factors may also play a role in when consumers try to resolve disputes include appeals to justice. Indeed, a breach of justice was identified as a major determinant of complaints (Voorhees and Brady 2005).

Key Findings

The Consumer Financial Protection Bureau (CFPB) maintains an extensive database of consumer complaints against financial services (CFPB 2016a). Complaints are de-identified and published verbatim. Importantly, company responses to the complaints are also reported. Company responses include a simple explanation, monetary relief or nonmonetary relief. Complaint data was drawn randomly and examined using codings based on the literature via NVivo and Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC, pronounced “Luke”), a computerized text analysis tool (Pennebaker, Jordan and Blackburn 2015).

Companies’ responses to the consumer complaints are related to whether the consumer refers to a manager-supervisor, grammatical or spelling errors, references to informational justice, discussion of the firm breaching procedural justice, venting, vulnerability/ powerlessness/helplessness, and direct factual appeal and information exchange (Nagelkerke $R^2=0.23$). Additionally, if a consumer uses a negative emotional tone, or uses language that indicates tentativeness, risk, work or anxiety, the company is more likely to provide an explanation rather than monetary relief. While if consumers used authenticity in their complaints and provides a longer narrative, they were more likely to receive monetary relief than only an explanation. Additionally, consumers are more likely to receive non-monetary relief if they used emotional tone, authenticity, risk, and work related variables rather than closed with explanation.

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Summary Brief

Co-creation of Customer Experience in a Social Program: A Qualitative Exploration of the Customer Redemption Experience in the WIC program

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Based on a unique research context of the WIC program, this study developed a theoretical framework to explain how customer experience is co-created. Qualitative research methods including focus groups and in-depth interviews were employed. We found that consumer experience is co-created by three parties: the consumer, the retail store, and the WIC program, and have five dimensions including sensational, cognitive, emotional, lifestyles, and relational components. There exists a cyclic longitudinal relationship between co-creation and consumer experience in which customers' co-creation behaviors largely shape their redemption experience, which in turn influences consumers' subsequent co-creation behaviors. Additionally, the experience shaped customers' attitudes toward WIC, attitudes toward the store, and in some cases attitudes towards the consumers themselves. When the redemption experience was positive, WIC participants were more likely to fully redeem their benefits, maximizing the value proposed by the WIC program.

Introduction

Although modern marketing is moving towards customer experience management and the importance of the customer experience has been increasingly recognized, the academic research on customer experience is still limited (Verhoef et al. 2009). As a result, some fundamental questions such as how the customer experience is created and what factors influence customer experiences are still not very clear. Particularly, customer experience in social programs has been largely neglected. Prior research examines customer experience in a traditional economic exchange context of money for good and services, in which customer experience is co-created by the seller and the buyer and price is an important determinant of customer experience. There is little research surrounding the customer experience in social programs, in which benefits are provided without charges and more than two parties are involved in the co-creation of customer experience.

To fill out the above research gaps, we conducted a qualitative study from a grounded theory approach and intend to develop a theoretical framework of the customer experience in the social program, in which we will explore the how multiple parties interact and co-create the customer experience. We employed the WIC program (The Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants, and Children) as the research context. The WIC program, funded by the United States Department of Agriculture, was founded to assist low-income and nutritionally at-risk women, infants, and children by providing supplemental food benefits (Oliveira and Frazao 2015). Understanding customer experience from the co-creation perspective, this study will contribute to the customer experience literature by offering a new theoretical framework of customer experience in the social program. Specifically, we propose that customer experience is not solely determined by how well a customer is treated in a social program but how the experience is co-created by multiple parties.

Methods

We conducted four focus group interviews and three in-depth interviews with a total of 41 current WIC participants in the eastern United States. Focus groups and interviews were conducted between April 2016 and May 2017, and each focus group or interview was approximately one and a half hours long. All participants are currently enrolled in the WIC program. After the focus groups and interviews were conducted, the audio was transcribed. Two researchers coded the data independently and then their results were compared for consistency. We used qualitative coding techniques as outlined by Spiggle (1994) and Strauss and Corbin (1990) in the data analysis. Through comparing transcripts of interviews and focus groups, a grounded interpretation emerged. Our findings led us to

develop a holistic picture of the customer experience and co-creation process with the involvement of the multiple parties (WIC, the store, and the consumer).

Findings and Conclusion

We employed an inductive-based grounded theory approach and intend to develop a framework to understand the customer experience with multi-parties proposing and offering value. In the framework, we first identified the major dimensions of customer experience, then examined the factors that influence the customer experience, and finally analyzed the outcomes of the customer experience. We emphasized the co-creation among the three parties including the WIC program, the customer, and the participating retail stores. Particularly, we found that customers were the key actor and their co-creation behaviors largely shape their own customer experience, and at the same time, their experiences shape and influence their co-creation behaviors – there is a feedback loop between the two constructs. See Figure 1 (e.g., Customer redemption experience co-creation) for our theoretical model. The data were coded into the following abstract categories: Customer Experience, Factors Influencing Customer Experience, Co-Creation, and Outcomes. We found support that the consumer experience has five multidimensional components: sensational, cognition, emotional, relational, and lifestyle. The customer redemption experience is co-created by all three parties involved including the WIC program, retail stores, and consumers. The three parties interact with each and their interactions influence the overall experience and value creation. Particularly, the consumer is a key contributor to their own experience and the adaptive or maladaptive behavior they adopt may lead to completely different redemption experiences. Furthermore, consumer redemption experiences influence later co-creation behaviors as a type of learning takes place within the context of WIC, the store, and the consumer. In addition, the customer experience influences customers' attitudes toward WIC, attitudes toward the stores, and even sometimes attitudes toward themselves.

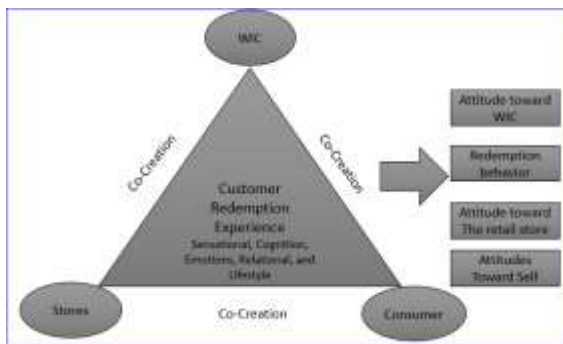


Figure 1

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SESSION 7.9: WHEN POLICY INFORMS MARKETING STRATEGY

Chair:

Ania I. Rynarzewska, Mercer University

Summary Brief

Memory of Issue/Image Political Advertisements: A Political Involvement Perspective

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Two of the most important functions of political advertisements are to help candidates develop or discuss campaign issues and construct or reconstruct their images, and political advertisements are therefore categorized as issue- or image-oriented. Previous research comparing the effects of the two types of advertisements has generated mixed results, and the purpose of this study is to address the controversy as to which one results in better memory. Built upon multiple theories about informational/transformational advertising, political involvement, and the Elaboration Likelihood Model, this study indicates that issue advertisements are better remembered, in terms of long-term verbal memory, than are image advertisements, but this superiority of issue advertisements only applies to individuals with a higher level of political involvement.

Introduction

There has been contradictory findings suggesting better memory of image advertisements (e.g., Schleuder 1990), better memory of issue advertisements (e.g., Kaid, Fernandes, and Painter 2011), or no difference between the two types of advertisements (e.g., Geiger and Reeves 1991). This inconsistency might be caused by not only the difference in the issue and image content of the advertisements across these studies but also the difference in processing the verbal and visual materials in the two types of advertisements. From a cognitive resource matching perspective of the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Coulter and Punj 2004), a message will be best processed if there is a match between required and available cognitive resources, for example, thinking-based central route processing of verbal materials in issue advertisements and high involvement or feeling-based peripheral route processing of visual materials in image advertisements and low involvement; conversely, a message will be poorly processed if there is a mismatch between required and available cognitive resources, for example, feeling-based peripheral route processing of visual materials in image advertisements and high involvement or thinking-based central route processing of verbal materials in issue advertisements and low involvement. Alternatively speaking, for high-involvement individuals, those exposed to issue advertisements would exhibit better long-term verbal memory than would those exposed to image advertisements, and this is because high involvement is a much better match to the primarily verbal-based processing of issue advertisements than to the primarily visual-based processing of image advertisements, and verbal-based processing results in better long-term verbal memory than does visual-based processing (Isen 1987); for low-involvement individuals, there would be no difference in long-term verbal memory between issue and image advertisements, and this is because low involvement mismatches the primarily verbal-based processing of issue advertisements and verbal materials are secondary to visual materials in image advertisements.

Results

There was a significant main effect of advertisement type ($b = -.36$, $t = -3.08$, $p = .00$) on long-term verbal memory, and issue advertisements were better remembered than were image advertisements. This main effect was qualified by a significant interaction with political involvement ($b = -.45$, $t = -2.79$, $p = .01$), and the superiority of issue advertisements over image advertisements in memory was more pronounced among individuals with a higher level of political involvement than among individuals with a lower level of political involvement. The moderating effect of political involvement on long-term verbal memory was confirmed.

Discussion and Managerial Implications

There are controversies over the effects of issue and image political advertisements in the literature, and the controversies are likely caused by the variation in advertising content and the moderating effect of political involvement. Therefore, the main contribution of this study is that it is among the first to investigate long-term memory of issue and image political advertisements in the framework of the Elaboration Likelihood Model. Issue advertisements were hypothesized and proved to be better remembered, in terms of long-term verbal memory, than image advertisements only among individuals with a higher level of involvement. It can be argued that individuals with a higher level of political involvement, due to their stronger interest in politics, are more likely to participate in political activities, for example, voting, than individuals with a lower level of political involvement. In line with this

reasoning, the superiority of issue advertisements over image advertisements in long-term verbal memory under high involvement suggests that issue advertisements are indeed more important than image advertisements, that is, high-involvement voters are more likely to rely on what they remember from issue advertisements rather than what they remember from image advertisements when casting their votes, and this advantage is particularly valuable because there is a natural lag between receiving a political message and making a voting decision.

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Summary Brief

Redefining Recruitment Strategy: Projecting the Likelihood of a New Residential Student at an Access College with Pre-Enrollment Data.

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Ania Izabela Rynarzewska, Mercer University, USA

This study examines pre-enrollment applicant data from Fall 2016 of a traditional access college in southern Georgia. The data consists of applicants who applied to the College's main campus and would be required to live on campus. The study utilizes a logistic regression model to fit the data and predict the probability of an applicant enrolling as a residential student. Demographic, geographical, academic, and behavioral variables are tested for their significance outside and inside the equation. This study's findings depart from previous research regarding several of its variables; however, it confirms the importance of in-state and non-metro residence to the likelihood of enrollment.

Introduction

In the summer of 2016, a small, traditionally access college in rural southern Georgia established a special advisory committee on residential enrollment at the College's main campus site. (The College has historically been identified as a two-year institution with the addition of select baccalaureate degrees in recent years). A committee, known as the Housing Task Force, was assigned the difficult charge of creating strategies to increase the main campus's residential enrollment. Over the previous three fall semesters, residential enrollment declined with substantial drops in Fall 2013 (-28.3%) and Fall 2014 (-12.8%). By Fall 2015, residential enrollment decreased slightly (-2.1%); however, remaining at the occupancy level of Fall 2015 threatened the residential life experience for students and the financial sustainability of the Office of Residence Life over the long term. The Housing Task Force desired immediate results for Fall 2016 that would give optimism to reversing the declining residential trend.

Unfortunately, the Housing Task Force did not prevent a further decline in the residential enrollment of the main campus for Fall 2016 (-10.3%). The decline was nearly as substantial as the shortfall from Fall 2013 to Fall 2014. Rather than discontinuing the Task Force, the College's administration agreed for it to remain as a year-long initiative that not only establishes tasks to do in the hope of enhancing residential enrollment but to truly gain a deeper understanding of the factors that drive residential enrollment. In this effort, the College provides this study with pre-enrollment data of admissions applicants from Fall 2016.

Body

This study utilizes a logistic regression model to predict the probability of an applicant, who would be required to live on the College's main campus, enrolling as a new residential student. The study examines the College's most recent fall applicant data and constructs hypotheses based upon the last stage of the theory of college choice (Hosseler and Gallagher, 1987) and its incorporation within subsequent empirical research (Thomas, Reznik, and Dawes 1999; DesJardins 2002; Berge and Hendel 2003; Goenner and Pauls 2006). Specifically, this study addresses the effects of demographic, geographical, academic, and behavioral variables on the likelihood of enrollment. Results demonstrate agreement with previous studies that in-state and non-metro residence increases the likelihood of enrollment (Thomas, Reznik, and Dawes 1999; DesJardins 2002; Berge and Hendel 2003). However, several findings are unexpected and inconsistent with this past research. Financial aid award is found to slightly decrease the odds of enrollment. Other variables, such as high school GPA and ACT/SAT scores, are insignificant, and conclusions about their effect on enrollment could not be determined.

Still, the study offers a perspective into the value of predictive analytics to understand the drivers behind new residential enrollment on the College's main campus. For years, the College has focused its recruitment strategy in metro areas and, in the past couple of years, has increased recruitment in out-of-state locations. This study suggests that these strategies may not be the most beneficial to increasing enrollment. Further research consisting of an economic model may give more justification to a shift in recruitment planning. Expenses to market and recruit a student within metro and out-of-state areas should be compared to targeting students in Georgia's non-metro places.

Such an analysis will provide context for understanding the opportunity costs and marginal benefit from the current strategic position.

From the stepwise approach, the final model achieves a prediction accuracy rate of 85.8%. If additional data are examined over multiple terms, findings could refine the model's performance and provide greater insight into the effects of the variables examined. Upon further development, the model could be implemented as an algorithm for calculating the probability of an applicant enrolling as a new residential student on the main campus. Knowing the enrollment probabilities of applicants could assist in better understanding targeted audiences for student yield campaigns. Intentional efforts to boost enrollment, such as open houses and summer call campaigns, could move away from wasting resources on low probability applicants (less than 50%). Instead, marketing and student recruitment could strategically target mid-to-high probability applicants that offer the greatest likelihood for increasing enrollment.

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Presentation

Effects of Front-of-Package Cues: The Moderating Role of Package Color on Consumers' Food Evaluations and Choices

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Christopher L. Newman, University of Mississippi, USA

Front-of-package (FOP) icons are increasingly prevalent in the marketplace. Accordingly, much attention has been paid to the effects of these icons on consumer behavior. Previous research in this area finds that various FOP icons influence product evaluations and choices. However, researchers have failed to consider that other factors may be influential at the point of purchase, specifically package color. The current research examines the moderating role of package color and the mediating role of fluency on consumers' evaluations of product healthfulness and choices. Implications for managers and public policy makers are discussed.

Introduction

The FDA introduced the Nutrition Facts panel (NFP) in 1993 to ensure consistent, accurate information on nutrition labels and to combat health issues (IOM, 2010). Nearly 25 years later, one of the most common health issues, obesity, continues to increase at alarming rates and is likely to continue rising (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2017). Currently, 70.7% of adults in the United States are considered to be overweight or obese (CDC, 2017). Obesity has been linked to a variety of health problems including arthritis, cancer, heart disease, high blood pressure, and type 2 diabetes (National Institutes of Health [NIH], 1998).

Today, Americans have increasingly busy lifestyles, yet they desire quick and nutritious food choices (Federal Register, 2010). Nearly 2 in 3 consumers (65%) are pressed for time when grocery shopping (IRI, 2014) and thus may not have the time to interpret and compare NFPs, which are usually placed on the back or side of packages. When pressed for time, consumers may rely on more readily accessible cues on the front of the package such as front-of-package (FOP) nutrition icons.

While prior research has shown that FOP nutrition icons can influence consumers' product evaluations and purchase intentions (Andrews et al. 2011; Newman et al. 2014, 2016), and that colors can influence product healthfulness evaluations and purchase intentions (e.g., Mai et al. 2016), it is still unclear whether color influences the effectiveness of FOP icons. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to examine the effects of FOP icons, package color, and their interaction on product evaluations and choices.

Conceptual Framework

Colors possess both aesthetic and informative value (Elliot & Maier 2007). Particular colors and concepts are often repeatedly paired, creating learned color associations over time (Labrecque et al. 2012; Elliot & Maier 2007). For example, many countries use the same colors in traffic lights, drawing on what may be considered universal color associations: green means "go", yellow means "slow down/prepare to stop", and red means "stop." Based on these associations, we posit that judgments about food products can be partly based on the conceptual association between product type and the color with which it is paired.

Fluency

Lee and Labroo (2004) dissect the concept of fluency into two types: conceptual fluency and perceptual fluency. Conceptual fluency is concerned with the processing of meanings and reflects the ease with which the meaning of information comes to mind. Perceptual fluency impacts information processing by changing how easy it is for people to visually recognize given stimuli. The more easily and quickly a physical form of a product is recognized, the more fluently it is processed.

Utilizing a processing fluency theoretical framework, the authors hypothesize that when cues are congruent, higher fluency is achieved, whereas when cues are incongruent, information is processed less fluently. The present research investigates the mediating role of fluency on consumer evaluations and choices and provides valuable insights for both managers and public policy makers.

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SESSION 8.10: SMA TEACHING MOMENTS II

Chairs:

D. Joel Whalen, DePaul University
Kesha Coker, Ball State University
John F. Tanner, Jr., Old Dominion University

Use a Dummy for Smarter Forecasting

James H. Underwood III, University of Louisiana, USA

Changes in conditions may alter relationships between independent variables (IV) and dependent variables (DV) in multiple regression models used to forecast sales or other DVs. Such changes may result from a major exogenous event as an economic or environmental disaster (e.g. hurricane, economic crash, terrorist event, etc.) or a major shift in marketing strategy (e.g. repositioning, product improvement, etc.). This teaching moment shows how to visually present the concept of using a dummy variable to build a smarter sales forecast when changing conditions alter the historically manifest relationships between IVs and DVs.

Learning by Role Playing – B2B Selling Graduate Class

Jay Mulki, Northeastern University, USA

Student teams will role play the process of meeting with a potential buyer. One student will be buyer for the assigned company and the second will act as salesperson for the product/service. Team will collect information about the customer (company) and develop a profile of the buyer (decision maker) which includes demographics, communication style and personality style. This information forms the foundation of the interactions in the role play. Grades are based on the students' demonstrated ability to incorporate communication styles, personality styles and seller's use of company, competition and market information into their role plays. Non-participating students will evaluate the effectiveness of the role play.

Teaching Team Management Skills through Group Projects

Elliott Manzon, University of Cincinnati, USA

Student project teams often struggle when students lack the knowledge of how to make groups work successfully. In this activity, students are trained in the factors that lead to group success including group goals, group size, and communication. This information is then applied by students as they create groups in the class. This activity leads to improvements in how the teams work as well as a decrease in group conflicts.

The Buddy System: Facilitating Learning through Sense of Community

Reanna Berry, Georgia Gwinnett College, USA

On grade school field trips, the buddy system is used to ensure that a child stays with the group and does not get lost. The buddy system can be adapted for the college classroom to simultaneously increase peer interaction and learning. A sense of community is developed among students when given the opportunity to interact in a low-stakes scenario (either no or small percentage grade). Peer interaction can be frequent and short in duration, such as think-pair-share activities. Alternatively, partnerships can be established for the duration of the course.

Learner-Centered Education: An Example Using Crossword Puzzles and Jeopardy

Sally Baalbaki, Metropolitan State University of Denver, USA

Learner-centered education engages students in the learning process by encouraging them to reflect on what they are learning. The expectation is that students come to class having read the material to participate in discussions and activities that help them reflect, analyze and critique what they are learning. The goal is to have students oversee their own learning, so they learn from and with each other. Activities like crossword puzzles and jeopardy allow students to enjoy learning in a fun, interactive and collaborative environment. Asking students to help create assessments also motivates them by giving them some control over learning processes.

The Flaky Business of Cereal: The Great Extravaganza Is Declining

Monica Santaella, Louisiana State University, USA

Last year, to help students understand segmentation, target market and positioning, we learned from a colleague how using various cereals. Cereal stories allow us to continue the lessons on marketing strategies. Students are shown cereal products, short videos, advertisements, and news reports about Kellogg Company and competitors. At various points in the presentation, the students are asked to collaborate comment on marketing strategies used. The exercise can be used to interact with a big class. Given that many students are not marketing majors, students become familiarized with how marketing affects their everyday life thus learning the course objective.

Assessing Student Learning Outcomes Using Direct and Indirect Measures

Ella Carter, Bowie State University, USA

As educational institutions strive to meet the increasing demands from state and federal governments as well as regional and national accreditation agencies, assessment and student learning outcomes have become more important than ever before. New standards from AACSB and performance-based funding have dramatically changed how many educators think about assessing student performance. Direct measures are essential, however indirect measures can also provide insight and possible solutions, which may enable faculty members to close the loop and improve student-learning outcomes. Pretests, posttests and rubrics can help make the assessment process easier and provide opportunities for continual improvement and improved student performance.

Social ME Labs: Lessons in Social Media Marketing of Students' Personal Brands

Kesha K. Coker, Ball State University, USA

Many social media marketing (SMM) courses entail students writing a strategic SMM plan for a real-world brand. However, unless the real-world brand is a client, many marketers would not allow students to modify their social media presence in real-time. To overcome this challenge, Social ME labs allow students to work on their personal brand on LinkedIn. These labs walk students through their LinkedIn Summary and social publishing. The outcome is two-fold: application of strategic SMM concepts and enhancement of the students' LinkedIn profiles for use on the job market.

Case Presentations & Use of Student Critiquing Groups

Russell Lacey, Xavier University, USA

To practice students' communication and cooperation skills when working in groups, I will have student teams responsible for both presenting and critiquing marketing case presentations. As opposed to inviting the entire class to engage in Q&A, I place the primary responsibility to assigned student teams. This requires group preparation along with an in-depth knowledge of the case from each member of the critiquing group. The grading of the critiquing group is based on the quality and contributions made by the team's line of questioning and constructive feedback. This exercise teaches students to prepare for a thought provoking discussion and exchange of ideas.

**SESSION 8.1: PANEL PRESENTATION: STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP
AND RECRUIT FOR STUDY ABROAD PROGRAMS**

Chair:
Doreen Sams, Georgia College & State University

Special Session Panel

Strategies to Develop and Recruit for Study Abroad Programs

John Branch, University of Michigan, USA

Karin Braunsberger, University of South Florida St. Petersburg, USA

Jie Fowler, Valdosta State University, USA

Kevin Shanahan, Mississippi State University

Doreen Sams, Georgia College & State University, USA

The AAUP (Association of American Colleges & Universities) has identified Global Learning as a high-impact practice. One means to provide students a high impact learning experience is through study abroad. This panel will discuss best pedagogical practices, recruitment, and branding across a variety of types and length of study abroad experiences. Panelists will discuss these topics for both undergraduate and graduate study abroad perspectives.

Developing and Marketing the Education Abroad Experience

A Graduate Course Perspective

The field portion of the University of South Florida graduate course Social Entrepreneurship in Emerging Markets was developed with the help of a vendor who specializes in service trips to Guatemala. The reason for choosing a vendor included the instructor's limited knowledge of Spanish and Tz'utujil, which would have made it difficult to plan the trip. It also included security issues in a country that is still recovering from a civil war; the difficulty of securing from afar the coops students will be working with; the organizing of ground transportation and safe dining; and the vendor having the knowledge and experience to put together a meaningful trip. In terms of student recruitment for the education abroad experience, the single most important factor has been course content. Since students get the opportunity to have a significant and lasting economic impact on the businesses they work with, the trip has been attracting students who want to engage in this experience and are, after their return, more than willing to help promote the trip. The instructor's availability to talk about the trip and build relationships with students' apriori is a significant marketing tool. Further, developing a brand around the trip has been a very effective recruitment tool, especially when students find out that the trip resulted in the founding of the nonprofit Para Adelante, which provides the opportunity of impoverished Mayan women to attend university. A Facebook page for this trip has enabled past students to share advice with prospective students. Other successful recruitment methods include visiting fellow instructors' classes and giving a short presentation to their students; an informational pizza party with prizes; the education abroad fair sponsored by the university; write-ups in the student newspaper; postings on online message boards and emails to all graduate students. It further helps to open the trip to graduate students across all colleges and campuses. In addition, making sure that our online students know that they can participate via Skype in the trip preparation and meet us in Guatemala City for the field portion has driven enrollment from this student target.

A Hybrid Approach to Study Abroad

Students may earn up to nine credits during Valdosta State University's (VSU) study abroad trip. One marketing senior level course (MKTG 4720: Advertising and Society), and one finance course (FIN 3650: Multinational Corporate Finance), or one additional International business course (IB 4900: International Business) are offered. All courses are taught in a hybrid format. Because it is a hybrid study abroad program, students are required to meet once a week in the classroom in the fall. The estimated class hours are 22-23 hours (1.5 hours each week on average), and then they will travel to Hong Kong or Shanghai/Beijing for the 12-14 days (approximately 23 hours). In total, each class offers at least 45 contact hours. Lectures are provided by three professors with doctoral degrees in the related field. Additional field trip/excursion include visits to various historical/cultural sites. Most importantly, the students have the opportunities to visit many multinational corporations, such as Google, Cathay Pacific, and JP Morgan. The primary method of evaluation for the Marketing/Finance/International Business course is letter grade from VSU with the appropriate course name and level. But, final grades are determined by the program director and VSU participating faculty members. Grades are based on class attendance, participation, academic efforts, overall understanding of Marketing/Finance in China. The grade is reflected in students' transcripts under the appropriate title. After the trip,

the instructor of the program is evaluated by students using the university's SOI system and a written questionnaire is administered by the Center for International Programs.

Don't Go It Alone When Customizing

A collaboration between ISA (International Study Abroad) and Georgia College & State University (GCSU) resulted in a customized Spain study abroad program in 2012 that has been modified to meet changing needs. ISA is a great partner for creating and implementing customized study abroad programs. ISA is involved in the planning of everything from medical, in-country travel, business to visit, cultural experiences, housing, meals, and includes the marketing of the program. The ISA staff is extremely accommodating at all stages of the experience. ISA was chosen based on research of several similar companies. The decision to go with a company for the study abroad experience was born out of the difficulty to make complex arrangements in a foreign country. In customizing the experience, students experience multiple cities, companies, and cultural offerings. Although the product offering is two marketing courses, with the support and cooperation built from relationships with the USA ISA staff and the host country over time, a research component was added to the 2016 trip that resulted in publishable research for both the undergraduate student and the faculty member. Further, the professor gained an opportunity to collaborate on market research in the USA. That opportunity leads to course projects for the marketing research class and future research opportunities.

Study Abroad Programmes: Boon or Boondoggle

Global Practicum is an experiential course, which is offered each winter semester. It centers on a project in which students explore a specific international business issue. This issue can be functional, industrial, cultural, and/or topical in nature. To complete the project, students conduct field research in one or more countries during the Winter break. The field research includes such activities as lectures, factory tours, meeting opportunities with company managers, social events, and cultural visits. The project culminates in a formal presentation to members of the Ross community at the end of the semester.

Promotion with Flair

Whether marketing at a study abroad fair, using promotional videos, handouts, posters, campus radio ads, or chalking it is all about meeting your audience where they live in the "eduTainment" space. An important aspect of marketing is cutting through the clutter. In some cases, it means having the best-decorated table and great giveaways at the study abroad fair, or cutting-edge music videos (demonstrating the social aspects of the trip) to get their attention. Colie Edison, VP of Marketing at Bowlmor AMF (2017) says millennials "like to see themselves in the media they consume." So marketing through a video their classmates created while studying abroad in the previous year (e.g., dancing to Justin Timberlake's "Can't Stop the Feeling"), highlights the fun times of the trip. Once you have their attention, then you can have those conversations about the learning aspect of the trip.

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SESSION 8.3: SALES TEAMS IN THE WORKPLACE

Chair:

Lucy M. Matthews, Middle Tennessee State University

Summary Brief

Both Hinderling and Motivating: The Role of Interfunctional Tension in Salesperson Cross-Functional Integration

Nawar N. Chaker, Elon University, USA

Adam Powell, Shippensburg University, USA

The study of interfunctional conflict in the sales literature does not differentiate between the event of conflict and the more enduring state of tension. The authors argue that tension should be studied independent from conflict in interfunctional sales research and, accordingly, present a model of interfunctional tension. Tension is defined along a continuum, from hindering to motivating, with potential for positive outcomes. Cross-functional competition is proposed to influence interfunctional tension toward being motivating, while constituent difference and functional identification are proposed to influence interfunctional tension toward being hindering. Interfunctional tension is also proposed to relate with cross-functional integration, either positively, through motivating tension, or negatively, with hindering tension. This relationship is moderated by outcome-based and behavior-based sales control systems. In addition, cross-functional integration is proposed to positively relate with sales performance, and this relationship is moderated by cross-functional competition.

Introduction

The marketing and sales functions play substantial cross-functional roles in many organizations today. In these organizations, integration across functions influences sales and firm performance. Despite the extensive body of research in this area, there appears to be no differentiation between the concepts of interfunctional conflict and interfunctional tension (IT), whereas conflict and tension are defined differently in other contexts. We propose that IT is distinct from interfunctional conflict and should be studied independently, where it is prevalent in a sales context. We also present a model of IT and propose both antecedents and outcomes of IT.

Tension vs. Conflict

Conflict can occur independent from tension, such as in competitive sports (Pear 1957). As well, tension and conflict are different, with conflict being episodic in nature and tension being an affective state (Pondy 1967). Therefore, IT is defined as a state of disharmony or strain that exists between business functions. Unlike interfunctional conflict, IT is not dependent on behaviors or conflict episodes (Maltz and Kohli 2000; Pondy 1967), but endures from conflict episode to conflict episode. IT is also different from interfunctional conflict due to its potential for positive outcomes, such as with competitive tension (Chen, Kuo-Hsien, and Tsai 2007). For this reason, IT is proposed on a continuum from hindering tension to motivating tension (Fernandez, LeRoy, and Gnyawali 2014).

Antecedents of Interfunctional Tension

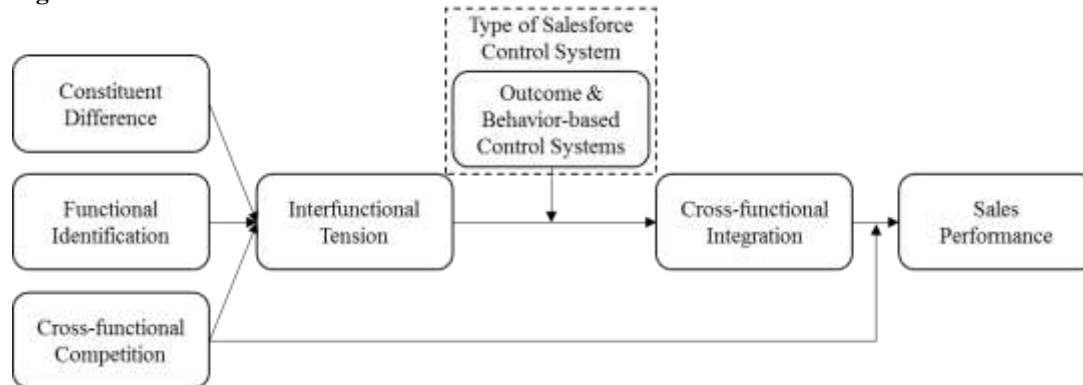
IT between sales and other functions is proposed to have three antecedents. First, constituency-based theory suggests that different groups in organizations serve different constituents or coalitions, which is especially true of the sales function. Accordingly, hindering IT is proposed to result from the difficulty of cooperating between functions which serve different constituents (Ellinger, Keller, and Hansen 2006). Second, social identity theory suggests that as groups are formed in organizations, employees tend to view their in-group positively, and out-groups negatively, therefore, functional identification is proposed as a second antecedent of IT (Cadogan et al. 2005). Finally, cross-functional competition has been shown to produce motivating IT (Fernandez, et al. 2014).

Outcomes of Interfunctional Tension

As figure 1 depicts, we propose that interfunctional tension relates with cross-functional integration (CFI). Specifically, motivating IT positively relates with integration, while hindering IT relates with a lack of integration. This proposed relationship is moderated by salesforce control systems, with outcome-based controls exacerbating the effects of hindering tension on CFI, and behavior-based controls limiting these effects (Oliver and Anderson 1994). CFI is furthermore proposed to positively relate with sales performance, but that this relationship is moderated by

cross-functional competition, based on the synergistic results of cooperation (Luo, Slotegraaf, and Pan 2006). Planned future research will empirically examine this proposed model in hopes of further contributing to IT research.

Figure 1. A Model of Sales Interfunctional Tension



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Summary Brief

Cross-functional Teams and Social Identity Theory: A Study of Sales and Operations Planning (S&OP)

Scott C. Ambrose, Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, USA

Lucy M. Matthews, Middle Tennessee State University, USA

Achieving proper levels of integration across functional boundaries is a major challenge for firms. Rigorous cross-functional planning processes have arisen within companies in hopes of achieving greater levels of integration. Sales and operations planning is one such process designed to help companies better align customer demand with product supply. Yet, achieving success with such supply chain processes has continued to allude many firms. This research applies social identity theory to the study of sales and operations planning to see if fostering superordinate identity can help integration efforts in such a cross-functional team setting. Results confirm the importance of superordinate team identity in achieving sales and operations planning performance. Furthermore, factors that support superordinate identity formation among teams are identified and discussed.

Introduction

Sales and Operations Planning (S&OP) is a process that seeks to align customer demand with product supply. It has evolved out of supply chain planning processes going back to the 1980s (Chu 2008; Grimson & Pyke 2007) and is continuing to evolve into wider conceptions of business integration (Moon & Alle 2015). Typically recurring monthly, S&OP is carried out by a cross-functional planning team comprised primarily of mid-level managers and analysts (Stahl 2010). As such, getting S&OP to function properly is a major challenge for most companies as it requires getting people who occupy different functions to agree on assumptions for operating the business. A primary source of tension originates at the interface between sales and operations sub-groups as these functions are typically evaluated and incented by different, and often competing, priorities (Mello 2010; Shapiro 1977). For instance, sales representatives typically prefer to have wide product variety and ample inventory allowing them to grow revenue and to ensure superior customer service (Oliva & Watson 2011). Meanwhile, managers in manufacturing often seek to minimize product scope and maintain discrete inventory levels as operational groups are generally held accountable for cost containment and efficiency (Oliva & Watson 2011; Shapiro 1977).

Social Identity Theory and Teams

Social identity theory posits that people tend to classify themselves and others into various social categories as a means of determining self-identity and belongingness to some larger human aggregate (Ashforth & Mael 1989). Social categories can include a plethora of associations such as gender, religious affiliation, age cohort, and organizational membership to name a few. Social identity theory has been studied in several contexts ranging from work groups (e.g. Sethi 2000) to rivalry among sports teams and their fans (e.g. Havard & Reams 2016). Groups for which one perceives association with are called “in-groups” while outside, and in some cases competing groups, are referred to as “out-groups” (Tajfel 1982). As people seek to maximize their self-esteem they will form positive conceptions of their in-groups, and in turn, negative biases toward out-groups (Tajfel 1982).

Study of social identity theory suggests that individuals within cross-functional teams can overcome these negative preconceptions when they are able to achieve superordinate identity (Sethi 2000). Defined in this study as the extent to which S&OP team members identify with the group, are committed to overarching goals of the group, and have a stake in the collective success or failure of the group, this definition of superordinate identity is consistent with conceptions of superordinate identity as studied primarily within cross-functional new product development teams (Nakata & Im 2010; Sethi 2000). These studies indicate that superordinate identity is a key driver of new product performance (Sethi 2000), innovativeness, and cross functional integration (Nakata & Im 2010). Yet, S&OP teams have different goals and important distinctions when compared to other cross-functional team types making both the ability to achieve superordinate identity and requisite benefits of achieving so less certain and worthy of examination (Ambrose 2016). Attention will now shift to articulating distinctions of S&OP as a rather unique team type.

Methodology

A cross-sectional survey approach was used for model testing using responses from key informants representing mid-level management from the functional areas of sales and operations. The questionnaire was designed to assess key informant perceptions of the S&OP processes at their respective companies. Key informants are core S&OP team members representing mid-level management from the functional areas of sales and operations. Except for the newly created resources/time measure, all items in the questionnaire were based on established scales and were rated on either five or seven-point Likert-type scales. (e.g. 1 = “Strongly Disagree” and 7 = “Strongly Agree”). Minor wording changes were made to the established scales in many cases to adjust for an S&OP setting. The survey was hosted by Qualtrics and it reached a wide level of companies and industries, coupled with a balance of responses between both sales and operations respondents.

Discussion

From a theoretical perspective, this research provided an opportunity to study social identity in a unique team setting. It was not certain that superordinate identity would be important or even achievable considering the cross-functional approach of S&OP planning, iterative nature of the process, and part-time commitment of the work team. Yet, the ability of teams to develop a psychological bond has significant impact on both dimensions of S&OP performance. This study also identified several precursors of superordinate identity formation. More specifically, having a special team structure including both decision making autonomy and incentives structured to support team goals above and beyond functional concerns are important in the development of team social identity. This is an important determination as Oliva and Watson (2011) found a prospering S&OP team in absence of reward structures that were aligned for S&OP and conjectured that the absence of joint rewards may have motivated participation. The process influencers of having both information and procedural quality are also drivers of superordinate identity. These findings extend social identity research by identifying additional antecedents beyond traditional group factors. Surprisingly, having resources and time munificence for S&OP did not exhibit a significant impact on social identity. However, caution should be exercised in assuming that this is not important as the association was not far outside the range of significance. In sum, the group factors accounted for over 60% of the variance (R²) in superordinate identity, indicating significant pathways to social identity formation and ultimately to S&OP performance.

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Summary Brief

The Viability of Digital Boat Sales

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Six categories of 1,606 currently registered boat owners, which represent 80% of all new boat volume sales in the United States, were surveyed as to their likelihood of purchasing a boat within a digital storefront platform. The vast majority of respondents fit into one of two bipolar categories: (1) those with low-interest – virtually no interest in the digital purchase concept; and (2) those with high-interest - highly favorable proclivity towards the digital purchase concept. Significant differences were found in age, buyer type, and boat type. Additionally, between the high-interest group versus the low-interest group, there were significant differences across every trust and personal risk factor, as well as, across each of the recreational core values of escape, enhancing relationships, personal mastery and winning. The best initial targets for digital boat purchases are those individuals who recreate with friends and family either in a social context or highly competitive/play hard context.

Introduction

Internet buyer behavior has been closely scrutinized for over 15 years, beginning in mid-1990 when digital retail sales were mostly considered to be a novelty venue. In 2012, over 2 billion Internet users engaged in total e-Commerce retail sales of \$188.1 billion with the estimation that this total would approach \$270 billion by 2015 (Industry trends, e-commerce & Internet business trends analysis - Plunkett research, Ltd, no date). The acceptance of web-based retailing has seen a gradual evolution. One significant earlier concern for digitally based consumers was security. The main security concern included privacy issues regarding the personal protection of the consumer's credit card information feasibly being exploited within the online transaction. Consumers' trust of website purchasing transactions quickly emerged as a salient issue and Shankar, Urban, and Sultan (2002), and Yoon (2002) suggested a link between trust and behavioral intent, for example, lack of trust translated into buying reluctance. This dimension of trust, with respect to online purchasing, has been widely researched as a critical component of acquiring and retaining digital customers. While there is a substantial body of research on a wide range of product categories sold on a digital storefront that would be classified as consumer goods, there is considerably less research on the viability of a digital format in sustaining the purchase of major durable products. The notable exception to this is the automobile where there has been the extensive examination of the Internet search and transaction processes.

Methods

A sample was selected from registered boat owners in the United States and quotas were established for each of the following variables (1) boat types to include sport/deck, sport cruiser, fiberglass fishing 15' - 23', fiberglass fishing 24' - 40', aluminum fishing, and pontoon; (2) geographical location to include Northern, Southern and Western United States; (3) age including 21 - 45-year-olds and 46+; (4) gender and (5) buyer type including first-time boat buyer, and second time or more boat purchase buyer. The survey was conducted by telephone. A total of 1,606 surveys were completed.

Analysis and Test of Hypotheses

While there is a clear relationship between trust and risk and the willingness to purchase online, this would be a complex variable for a marketing manager in the marine industry to target. A considerably higher value would be a specific consumer demographic, a particular type of boat, or a behavioral and/or lifestyle characteristic that could be easily targeted. A total examination of trust and risk factors, geography, age, buyer type, gender, and boat type found significant differences in which trust and personal risk factors do impact potential buyers in the likelihood of purchasing a boat over the Internet ($p < .05$), 21 – 45-year-olds were more likely to make a digital boat purchase over the Internet ($p < .05$), buyer type of purchasing a 2nd or more boat was more likely to make a digital boat purchase over the Internet ($p < .05$), and the boat type was significant in that the sport/deck model was more likely to be purchased utilizing a digital storefront platform ($p < .05$).

H1: Trust and personal risk to potential buyers impact the likelihood of purchasing a boat over the Internet, therefore accepted.

H2: Geography impacts the initial likelihood of purchasing a boat within a digital storefront capacity, therefore rejected.

H3: Age impacts the initial likelihood of purchasing a boat within a digital storefront capacity, therefore accepted.

H4: Gender impacts the initial likelihood of purchasing a boat within a digital storefront capacity, therefore rejected.

H5: Buyer type impacts the initial likelihood of purchasing a boat through the Internet, therefore accepted.

Additionally, an examination of the six boat type categories showed that the most likely initial boat type to be purchased over the Internet was the sport/deck model ($p < .05$).

H6: The type of boat impacts the initial likelihood of purchasing a boat through the Internet, therefore accepted.

There were no significant findings found with geographical location and gender ($p > .05$).

Each respondent in the survey was asked to select his/her primary motivation for engaging in recreational/leisure activities and based upon this individual response, was assigned to one of the core recreational values of Escape, Enhancing Relationships, Personal Mastery, and Winning, or to a sub-value associated with one of the primary core values. Two distinct findings are apparent. First, There is a significant difference between the High and Low-Interest groups for each core recreational value ($p < .0001$); and second, Enhancing Relationships and Winning are significantly higher for the High-Interest group ($t = 5.379$, $p < .0001$; $t = 6.248$, $p < .0001$), respectively.

H7: Consumer personal core values and motivations for recreating impacts the likelihood of purchasing a boat within a digital storefront capacity, therefore accepted.

Discussion

This research explored the viability of a digital distribution channel for boat purchases, which currently does not exist. The study focused on a single major durable recreational good (power boats) sold within a specific geographical location (United States) and considered relevant variables of trust and risk, selected demographics, buyer type, boat type, and core recreational motivations. However, analyzing personality traits (i.e. conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to new experiences, and extraversion), which have been closely linked to Internet purchase behavior, as well as, the demographic elements of income and family size, are potential future research directions. Lastly, this study focused on a single major recreational durable product – powerboats. There are numerous supplementary recreational products that this could be extended to, for example, all-terrain vehicles (ATVs), sport utility vehicles, sailboats, snowmobiles, motorcycles, and jet skis.

Conclusions

Based on the results of this study, the 21 – 45 years old would be most likely to initially make a boat purchase over the Internet, as would individuals making a boat purchase for the 2nd or more time. The sport/deck boat model was the most popular boat of choice among potential digital buyers, whereas, aluminum fishing boats were the least popular of choice. The main concern regarding purchasing a boat digitally had to do with disclosing financial and personal information within an unknown or unfamiliar dealer website and uncertainty regarding how the overall process would work. The top consumer preferences were being able to use the dealer who delivered the boat for service calls after the sale and being able to negotiate the price with the dealer of their choice when settling on a final boat price. Overall, what motivates the participants are wanting to enhance relationships by having a good time with friends and family, and escapism, by way of, the need and desire to relax. The high-interest group regarding buying a boat digitally scored higher within the core recreational values of enhancing relationships and winning.

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**SESSION 8.5: IN OR OUT? INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL COMPARISONS,
DEATH AND ACQUISITION**

Chair:
Christian Bushardt, Louisiana Tech University

Presentation

Death as Experience Economy on Consumer Purchase Behavior

Heejung Park, University of Wyoming, USA

In Jung Song, Hankuk University of Foreign Studies, Korea

Narang Park, University of Georgia, USA

Wookjae Heo, South Dakota State University, USA

This paper inspects whether the situational condition or dispositional condition leads consumer's decision on life insurance demand when there is an experience of death in family members. We show evidence that family members' death experience is positively associated with the life insurance ownership thus the experience of death in family members is the new driver of life insurance demand.

Introduction

In 1957, Alderson argues that the value of customer experience is very important in marketing. Many previous researchers have studied customer value resulting from customers' consumption experiences (Richins 1997). Pine and Gilmore (1999) emphasized that researchers cannot ignore the economic value produced by consumer experience. In current marketing, many researchers study the effects of different consumer experiences (Poulsson and Kale 2004; Atwal and Williams 2009). Then, how does the consumer's particular emotional experience affect consumer behavior in purchasing services or products?

Death experience has an important impact on consumer behavior. Death brings not only sadness and grief but also financial loss to the remaining family. Because survivors need financial resources to maintain their standard of living, people demand for life insurance. Prior literature on determinants of the demand for life insurance is considerable and the importance of the existence of family member has been heavily discussed (Baek and DeVaney 2005; Burnett and Palmer 1984; Showers and Shotick 1994). However, no marketing studies examined the effect of family members' death experience on demand for life insurance. Accordingly, this paper focuses on the impact of death experience.

Literature Review and Hypotheses

Attribution Theory (Heider, 1958) states that an individual's behavior is understood by situational and dispositional conditions. Situational attributes refer to the environmental or contextual factors encompassing individuals such as society, economics, and familial background. Dispositional attributes indicate the inner factors of individuals manifested by personality traits, beliefs, and attitudes. For situational factors, a number of studies find the households' financial status are significantly related to the life insurance ownership. For example, the amount of life insurance is positively associated with the income levels and savings of households (Baek and DeVaney 2005; Showers and Shotick 1994). Dispositional factors of household heads (e.g. risk-taking, self-esteem) also exhibit a significant relation to life insurance ownership (Baek and DeVaney 2005; Burnett and Palmer 1984). However, researchers barely focus on the impact of death on life insurance purchase. This paper investigates whether situational condition or dispositional condition leads individual's decision on life insurance demand when there is experience of death in family members. There are three hypotheses.

- H1a** (Situational hypothesis): Income and saving changes are associated with the ownership of life insurance when assuming other family characteristics are constant.
- H1b** (Situational hypothesis): Experiences of death of family members are associated with the ownership of life insurance when assuming other family characteristics are constant.
- H2** (Dispositional hypothesis): Psychological attributes of respondents (e.g. risk-taking, self-esteem) are associated with the ownership of life insurance when assuming other family characteristics are constant.

Data and Methodology

National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1979 (NLSY79) is used for our analysis. NLSY79 contains the information of 12,686 people who were 14-22 years old when the survey was conducted in 1979. Using 2006, 2008,

and 2012 datasets, the sample were limited to the respondents who reported their ownership of life insurance. The total sample size is 3,285. The interesting variable, death indicates whether the respondent had experienced death of family members including father, mother, or babies. Our empirical model using multinomial logistic regression investigates the impact of independent variables on life insurance ownership change.

Results and Conclusion

Our results indicate that situational attributes and dispositional attributes have associations with both termination of life insurance and purchasing of life insurance. Specifically, termination of life insurance policies is negatively related with income change. That is, household are more likely to terminate their life insurance when experiencing a decrease in income. Risk-taking is also significantly but positively associated with termination of life insurance. On the other hand, purchasing of life insurance is positively associated with saving and family member's death experience. The more households save, the more likely they purchase life insurance policies. Finally, death experience has a significant impact on life insurance purchase indicating that households that newly bought life insurance policies had experienced loss of one or more of family members compared to the households with no change in life insurance ownership.

This study provides three contributions to consumer behavior research. First, in order to understand consumer behavior, researchers need to consider consumer psychological factors such as self-esteem and risk tolerance. Second, researchers must consider changes in consumer behavior that come from the consumer's personal experience. Finally, it shows that experiential marketing need to consider more various of research methods so as to understand consumer behavior.

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Presentation

Going Solo: The Role of the Internet in Consumer Preference for “Solo” Celebrity Brands vs. “Group” Celebrity Brands

Jared Wolfe, LIU Post, USA

This research in progress aims to explore the potential relationship between the rise of the Internet and related digital media and consumers’ preference for “solo” celebrity brands (i.e., a single individual as the subject, such as a solo artist) vs. “group” celebrity brands (i.e., a group as the subject, such as a band).

Introduction

The Internet and related digital media has led to profound changes in both the quantity and types of information that consumers can access regarding brands, as well as how consumers can communicate with brands. These changes have arguably been especially prominent for human (i.e., celebrity) brands, which refers to “any well-known persona who is the subject of marketing communications efforts” (Thomson 2006, p. 104). For instance, celebrity websites, e-mail accounts, and various forms of social media platforms now provide consumers with opportunities to engage with celebrity brands in ways that would have been inconceivable before the Digital Age. What effect might these opportunities have on the types of celebrity brands consumers prefer? This research in progress aims to explore the potential relationship between the rise of the Internet and related digital media and consumers’ preference for “solo” celebrity brands (i.e., a single individual as the subject, such as a solo artist) vs. “group” celebrity brands (i.e., a group as the subject, such as a band).

The extant literature on attachment theory suggests that consumers can become attached to celebrity brands (Thomson 2006). Similar to the potential effects of attachment to brands in general, consumers’ attachment to celebrity brands has been found to have positive effects on purchasing intentions (Ilicic, Fry, and Webster 2008). The more positive, relevant, and personally meaningful memories consumers have regarding a brand, the closer they tend to feel towards it (Park, Eisingerich, and Park 2013), and the Internet and related digital media, such as celebrity websites, e-mail accounts, and various forms of social media, should only increase the quantity and intensity of such memories consumers have the opportunity to obtain regarding celebrity brands compared to the opportunities before the Digital Age (e.g., reading a celebrity’s tweet regarding an event as it is unfolding in real time).

However, the expanded opportunities for exposure and interaction arising from the Internet and related digital media to potentially make relationships between consumers and celebrity brands even closer arguably apply even more to “solo” celebrity brands (e.g., a solo artist) than to “group” celebrity brands (e.g., a band). At least in certain instances, individuals tend to elicit more empathy and stronger emotional responses than do groups (e.g., Kogut and Ritov 2005), and research on impression formation has shown that individuals tend to make stronger, quicker, and more confident impressions of individuals than groups (Susskind et al. 1999). Thus, “solo” celebrity brands may benefit to an even larger degree than “group” celebrity brands from the increased opportunities that the Internet and related digital media may bring for forging and developing connections with consumers.

Furthermore, simply from a practical standpoint, it should generally be easier for a “solo” celebrity brand than a “group” celebrity brand to navigate the logistics to take advantage of the opportunities the Digital Age provides (e.g., an individual celebrity making the decision to send a tweet in real time rather than a group making a similar decision), which, relatedly, should also often come off as more “personal” and intimate since it should be easier for consumers to believe that one person, say, posted an authentic message on social media rather than a message that supposedly represents similar thinking among a group of people (e.g., a tweet from an individual celebrity about enjoying a new TV show compared to a tweet from a group about enjoying a new TV show). Thus, it is hypothesized that the rise of the Internet and related digital media is associated with an increased consumer preference for “solo” celebrity brands over “group” celebrity brands.

Initial Study

An initial study in this research project was conducted to test this hypothesis using the #1 song of each year on Billboard's Hot 100 chart beginning with the first full year that the Billboard Hot 100 was measured, 1959. More specifically, the top song on each year's list was recorded, along with whether that top song of the year was from a solo artist or a group.

1995 is arguably an appropriate line of demarcation in terms of when the Internet began to rise among consumers, and has been referred to as the year "the public Internet [was] born," (Cybertelecom 2017). For instance, among other important developments, the initial release of the user-friendly operating system Windows 95 (including a graphical interface with a "start" button) and the web browser Microsoft Internet Explorer occurred in 1995 (Wohlson 2012). Thus, each year's top Billboard Hot 100 song (i.e., the #1 song of the year) was either included in the "pre-Internet rise" era (1959-1994) group or the "Internet rise" era (1995-2016) group.

Results of an ANOVA indicate that a statistically significantly larger proportion of #1 songs of the year came from solo artists (vs. groups) during the "Internet rise" era ($M = 0.73$) than came from solo artists (vs. groups) during the "pre-Internet rise" era ($M = 0.44$), $F(1, 56) = 4.62$, $p = .04$. In other words, a solo artist having the #1 song of the year was more likely to occur in any given year during the "Internet rise" era (1995-2016) than during the "pre-Internet rise" era (1959-1994), supporting the hypothesis.

Future Studies and Contributions

Future studies can include a controlled experiment to help determine direct causality of the pronounced effect that online digital media opportunities may have on preference for "solo" celebrity brands vs. "group" celebrity brands, with participants reading about a hypothetical television show (same general synopsis for all participants, but either focused on an individual or an ensemble cast), and then exploring various digital media related to the show, such as a main website and social media account (same general content, but either focused on/portrayed by an individual or an ensemble cast), with preference for the celebrity brand then being assessed for each group of participants. Participants could also be asked about their perceived connectedness with the celebrity brand to help directly determine mediation. In addition to its potential theoretical contributions (e.g., regarding brand attachment, consumer relationships, impression formation), this research could have practical implications for both marketing managers (e.g., whether to promote a product as a "solo" celebrity brand or as a "group" celebrity brand) and consumers (e.g., a better understanding of, and therefore potentially better control over, the mechanisms behind their preferences for particular celebrity brands).

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**SESSION 8.8: NEW PERSPECTIVES ON NOSTALGIA,
ANTHROPOMORPHISM, AND ADDICTIVE CONSUMPTION**

Chair:

Irina Toteva, Florida Atlantic University

Presentation

The Role of Involvement in Nostalgia-related Consumption

Jana Rutherford, Barry University, USA

A notable trend is the increased popularity of nostalgic products and services. Despite the popularity of nostalgic products, services and even messaging, this domain remains under-researched when compared to other areas of consumer behavior. This paper proposes a relationship between two factors not typically related. The link between nostalgia and involvement appears to have been virtually overlooked if not ignored. The paper also intends to provide managerial perspective in terms of how/when marketers can/should use nostalgia in product development, advertising, and branding strategies to increase consumer involvement, greater elaboration and ultimately greater purchase intention.

Introduction

Unlike in earlier times, today's marketing is consumer oriented, and a notable trend is the increased popularity of nostalgic products and services. Over the past few decades marketers have used nostalgia-based advertising, branding, and products in response to this trend. Examples of this have occurred across various product categories. Previous research has linked nostalgia with numerous constructs. Therefore, the contribution of this proposed idea is to relate the factors of nostalgia and involvement and to propose managerial implications.

Concepts of Nostalgia and Involvement

Nostalgia has been defined as a longing for the past or "yearning for yesterday" (Davis 1979). Broadening its meaning, Holbrook and Schindler (1993) define nostalgia as a "preference toward objects that were more common when one was younger" (p. 330). Further, these authors developed a Nostalgia Index (Holbrook 1993) - a multi-item scale designed to measure individuals' nostalgia proneness. These authors' premise of nostalgia proneness is that it is an individual characteristic where some individuals have a higher propensity to become nostalgic than others.

Involvement has been defined as "a person's perceived relevance of an object based on intrinsic needs, values and interests" (Zaichowsky 1994, p.61). Zaichowsky (1994) and Hsu and Lee (2003) created scales to measure this construct to explain the variation in levels of involvement that exists among consumers. Further, Bloch and Richins (1983) argue that a person's involvement level could be affected in three distinct domains: (1) personal, (2) physical and (3) situational. It is expected that these three factors individually and collectively will positively influence the level of involvement in a purchase decision and the intention to purchase nostalgia-related product and services.

Hypotheses

Nostalgia Proneness (Personal Domain)

Hirsch (1992) argued that a nostalgic urge to recreate the past in the present could be considered a driving force for behavior. In developing the Nostalgia Proneness Index, Holbrook (1993) argues that some individuals are more susceptible to nostalgic feelings than others. In a similar vein, one study found that nostalgia proneness contributed to the consumption of vintage clothing (Cervellon & Harms 2012). Additionally, Merchant and Rose (2013) found that nostalgia proneness influences brand preference.

H1: Nostalgia proneness positively influences an individual's involvement. Further, the greater an individual's nostalgia proneness, the higher the level of involvement in the purchasing decision and purchase intention will be.

Retro Attributes (Physical Domain)

Retro-product attributes are the characteristics of an object that cause differentiation and increased interest (Zaichokwsy 1985). Marketers have seen an increased interest in retro-products (e.g. jewelry, antiques, cars). Holbrook and Schindler (1993) showed that the attributes of a product from the past can serve to evoke nostalgic feelings. The nostalgic feeling that may be evoked by an object, however, varies among individuals

H2: Retro-attributes positively influence an individual's involvement. Further, the greater the nostalgic feeling evoked by object attributes, the higher the level of involvement in the purchasing decision and purchase intention will be.

Nostalgic Advertising and Branding (Situational Domain)

Nostalgic advertising/branding is the placement of nostalgic elements in advertisements or on products. The feelings evoked by nostalgia-themed advertising and branding strategies often facilitate greater elaboration, higher recall and preference for the ad or brand. Reisenwitz, Iyer and Cutler (2004) suggest that consumers who are more nostalgia prone are also more positively reactive to advertising and branding that include nostalgic elements.

H3: Nostalgic advertising and branding positively influences an individual's involvement. The greater the nostalgic feeling evoked by nostalgia-themed ads or branding, the higher the level of involvement and purchase intention will be.

Research Plan

The proposed plan is to have subjects complete Nostalgia Proneness, Personal Involvement and Purchase Intention scales while either evaluating products with or without nostalgic elements. Age and gender will serve as control variables. Analysis of variance for group (treatment vs. control) comparison will be employed.

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SESSION 9.10: SMA TEACHING MOMENTS III

Chairs:

D. Joel Whalen, DePaul University
Kesha Coker, Ball State University
John F. Tanner Jr., Old Dominion University

Not So Passé MBA

Rebecca VanMeter, Ball State University, USA

In September of 2016, NPR released a new podcast devoted to hearing the back story of some of the nation's most successful companies; its call How I Built This. Each week there is a new fascinating tale of the struggles and successes of companies like Kate Spade, Airbnb, etc. These short podcasts serve as the cases for an interactive MBA course. The chapters have been paired so they align with the content discussed in the podcast. Students listen to the podcast, complete a subset of the case questions, and in class we have a lively discussion about our case.

A Last Day of Class Idea for Project-Based Courses: Recapping Student Accomplishments

Mary P. Harrison, Birmingham-Southern College, USA

In marketing project-based courses, students develop valuable skills and experiences that may be similar to an internship. At the end of my marketing research course, I did not want the skills, training, and activities that students engaged in to be lost in a sea of their college memories. On the last day of class, I have started handing out a list of the things students have accomplished in the course. Examples include “Experience with trend analysis and reports/conducted research on future innovations, trends, and developments in a specific industry.” This list gives students talking points in an interview and provides information that they could include on a resume. This idea could work well in any course in which projects are involved.

Critical Minds

Kerrie Anne Ambort-Clark, The University of Texas at Tyler, USA

Due to shifts in academic expectations, advances in technology, and an increased need for critical thinking skills, I utilize what I refer to as a “critical mind” approach to learning. Critical Minds is a systematic approach to delivering course content through class workshops as opposed to standard lecture practices. In the classroom, the traditional lecture is replaced with workshops that require whole class participation, critical thinking, and group activities. Students are exposed to pre-recorded lectures preparing them to actively engage in the workshop model. In class, students learn through hands on application and in-depth analysis of the topics presented.

Social Media and Cultural Context Case Study: A Tale of a Mardi Gras Facebook Post

Pamela A. Kennett-Hensel, University of New Orleans, USA

This case focuses on the fallout from a Facebook post made by Ann Tuennerman, Founder and Executive Director, Tales of the Cocktail® (ToC), the world's premier cocktail festival. A master of social media, Ann/ToC has over 200,000 followers on Facebook alone. On Mardi Gras day 2017, Ann rode in the Zulu parade. Riding in Zulu, an African-American organization which requires all riders to ride in blackface, is considered an honor. Ann, who is Caucasian, posted to Facebook a video of herself taken by her husband which showed her in costume and blackface. The reaction was immediate and polarizing. Classroom discussion is lively, touching on the power of social media, cultural context, racial sensitivity and crisis marketing.

Keeping Goliath on His Toes: The 4Ps Method of Case Discussion

Lora Harding, Belmont University, USA

Application-based assignments are often forgone in large marketing classes due to the daunting grading challenge they present. One solution is to divide the class into groups, but groups present their own challenges—of particular interest, the potential for students to free-ride on the efforts of others. The 4Ps method of case discussion was developed to keep students in large classes engaged and accountable while minimizing the grading burden on instructors. Indeed, not only does the 4Ps method facilitate stimulating case-based discussions which enable students to apply course concepts, it also improves perceived and actual learning outcomes while keeping grading manageable.

Can I Interest You in A Quinoa Burger?

Stacy Trisler, University of Wisconsin-La Crosse, USA

UW-La Crosse's internal sales competition is a unique opportunity for marketing student to experience a simulated "real world" of professional selling. Students interact with local sales and procurement professionals as they compete for the best sales presentation. The top four salespeople move on to a national competition, which entices students at all levels to participate. Often, student competitors have not yet taken any course in professional selling, necessitating a "boot camp" to learn the sales process. This "teaching moment" activity not only demonstrates the sales process, but also eases students into the often-scary world of role play.

Jumpstarting Group Projects with a "Wild Goose Chase"

Julie Harding, Marietta College, USA

Attempting to find ways to make group work more palatable for students? Interested in better connecting students with the local business community? To create early teambuilding momentum for a semester-long project involving local businesses, "The Main Street Wild Goose Chase" helps student groups build early rapport, while simultaneously connecting students with business owners/managers. Other desirable outcomes include the development of problem-solving skills, as well as improvement of interpersonal skills and confidence in professional interactions. The competitive, fun activity requires only one hour and is easily adapted for a variety of uses.

Who Are You: Using A Segmentation Worksheet to Generate Descriptive Target Market Profiles

Chip Heath, Northern Kentucky University, USA

Me: Who is your customer? Describe your target market to me.

Student: Male college student 21 years old.

Me: (staring dumbfounded) Is that all? How else would you describe them?

Student: (blank look)

I uncovered this deficiency teaching social media strategy. Clearly, it is critical they understand the importance of describing target market profiles with depth of coverage, addressing many segmentation bases, and with flair! To accomplish this, I assign a worksheet in which they select descriptors from 18 segmentation bases, write a story describing the target, and then name and find an image representative of their target customer.

Scavenger Hunts as Active Learning

Tracey King Schaller, Georgia Gwinnett College, USA

To encourage active learning of marketing course concepts, students participated in a scavenger hunt during class time. Prior to the class, the professor visited a local shopping mall to generate ideas and formulate "clues" that would lead students to observe examples of concepts from class. On the day of the assignment, the class met at the shopping mall, broke into teams, and followed the clues, leading them around the mall to make their own observations and, in turn, complete the assignment. Based on anecdotal feedback, students enjoyed the active learning experience and benefited from observing "real world" examples.

Freeing Up Your Marketing Classroom

Walter Henley, University of Memphis, USA

As noted by a recent AMA article (Funding the Future of Free Knowledge, Brooke 2017), the world's number five most visited website is the depository of "written" free educational material. But what is the #1 Googled website depository for free educational "videos"? Would you believe that one of our discipline's recent Ph.D. grads helped launch this new website and is currently the Executive Director? The website is WatchKnowLearn.org and it has over 50,000 free videos covering hundreds of subject categories from math to marketing. You can even add your own videos for others to view.

**SESSION 9.1: SUSTAINABILITY, ATTITUDE RESILIENCE AND
QUALITY: A STUDY OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY**

Chair:

Scott R. Swanson, University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire

Summary Brief

Destination Reputation: The Moderating Role of Relationship Quality on Subjective Well-being and Environmentally Responsible Behaviors

Scott R. Swanson, University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire, USA
Lujun Su, Central South University, China

Based on signaling theory, this study investigates how the perceived reputation of a destination impacts the environmentally responsible behavior and subjective well-being of tourists through satisfaction and identification with a destination, respectively. The findings support the proposed behavioral model. A total of 539 valid questionnaires were obtained from tourists to a natural ecology and historical culture destination in China and analyzed. The results show that destination reputation has a direct impact on tourists' satisfaction and identification with the destination. Satisfaction and identification with the destination both partially mediate the effect of perceived destination reputation on tourists' environmentally responsible behavior and subjective well-being. Findings suggest that enhancing perceptions of a destination's reputation is an important step in increasing tourists' subjective well-being and strengthening their engagement in environmentally responsible behaviors.

Introduction

Although lacking physical substance, a positive (negative) destination reputation can be an asset (liability). We define destination reputation as tourists' collective judgments of a destination based in assessments of the financial, social, and environmental impacts attributed to the destination over time. Gaining and boosting a positive reputation is becoming more and more important to the tourism industry. The present study utilizes signaling theory to build and test a model that allows for improved insight into destination reputation and how reputation at the destination level relates to important relationship variables (satisfaction and identification) and, ultimately, to tourists' subjective well-being and participation in environmentally responsible behaviors.

Background

Signaling theory emphasizes the purposeful sharing of positive information held by insiders to outsiders to convey positive attributes about some entity (Connelly et al. 2011). When trying to attract tourists, information asymmetry may be present as potential tourists may not know the true quality or reputation of a destination. In the context of the current study perceived destination reputation acts as the signal that we investigate. Previous research suggests that corporate reputation has a direct effect on customer behaviors and intentions and provides a variety of organizational benefits. To the best of our knowledge, there has been scant attention paid to exploring the role of reputation from a destination perspective. Yet signaling theory would suggest that destination reputation may be extremely important in how tourists perceive their destination experiences and respond behaviorally.

In a hospitality context, Kim and Cha (2002) defined relationship quality as “customer perceptions and evaluations of individual service employees' communication and behavior, such as respect, courtesy, warmth, empathy, and helpfulness” (p. 322). Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) suggest that resilient relationships frequently are the consequence of customers' satisfying one (or several) essential self-definitional needs through the identification phenomenon. This study specifically investigates if the perceived reputation of a destination is positively associated with tourist satisfaction with a destination, and if the perceived reputation of a destination is positively associated with identification with a destination.

Lee, Singal, and Kang (2013) suggest that, for tourists, environmentally responsible behavior refers to making efforts to minimize adverse environmental effects, protect the environment, or avoid damaging the destination environment during their tourism experience. Subjective well-being is an individual, experiential concept, which is how a person evaluates her or his life. We investigate if: satisfaction with a destination is associated with tourists engaging in environmentally responsible behavior; tourist identification with a destination is associated with tourists engaging in environmentally responsible behavior; tourist satisfaction with a destination is associated with subjective well-being; tourist identification with a destination is associated with subjective well-being; and the moderating role

for satisfaction and identification between destination reputation and environmentally responsible behavior and subjective well-being, respectively.

Key Findings

Research results show that (1) positive destination reputation is associated with a greater intensity of identification and satisfaction with the destination; (2) greater satisfaction is associated with tourists engaging in more environmentally responsible behaviors and a stronger sense of subjective well-being; (3) identification with a destination enhances environmentally responsible behavior and subjective well-being; (4) destination identification and destination satisfaction both play a significant mediating role in the destination reputation relationship with environmentally responsible behavior and subjective well-being, respectively.

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Summary Brief

Sustainability Labeling In Travel Destinations Branding

Elvira Kizilova, West Virginia University, USA

Michael F. Walsh, West Virginia University, USA

We live in the era when humanity is increasingly concerned about its impact on the environment and the well-being of future generations. This is especially relevant to industries where human's use of natural and cultural resources is most extensive, tourism being one of them. As tourism is becoming one of the largest and fastest-growing sectors of world economy, travel destinations will need to solve two mutually exclusive problems: growing their tourism business and limiting the damage or loss of their environmental systems and cultural heritage that come from such growth. These two competing strategic goals can be managed by employing sustainability principles and promoting this commitment to sustainability in marketing and branding strategies. The present paper examines the effect of sustainability labels on consumers' behavioral intentions. Brand humanization and environmental awareness are proposed to strengthen these effects. This paper presents a series of testable propositions relating to the notion of sustainability and tourism destination marketing.

Introduction

Many researchers (e.g. d'Angella and De Carlo 2016; Nidumolu, Prahalad, and Rangaswami 2009) emphasize that sustainability is an important governance principle and a competitive advantage for businesses. One of the most obvious ways of utilizing sustainability in marketing is to create differentiation by emphasizing commitment to sustainability (Chabowski, Mena, and Gonzalez-Padron 2011; Connelly, Ketchen, and Slater 2011; Jones et al. 2008). This practice is widely used in such industries as retailing, fashion, and food industry (Jones et al. 2008; Cardameins 2015). Although marketing literature indicates that, by addressing sustainability issues, the businesses gain advantage over competitors, little research has been conducted in tourism sector.

Sustainability as a Brand Differentiator in Tourism Sector

In the tourism sector, sustainability is relevant as the profit comes from destination's comparative advantages in natural and cultural resources, and the impact of tourist consumption can delete these resources.

Turning to marketing strategy, one way to signal commitment to sustainability is the use of a universally accepted labeling (symbol or pictogram) - element included in the brand aesthetics. Given that marketing and branding literature suggests that customers differentiate brands to make selections in a competitive market and select a brand based on understanding of the value contributed by this brand, the following is proposed:

Proposition 1. Sustainability label on a travel destination ad will result in increased a) favorable attitude towards the travel destination's brand and b) visit intentions.

Sustainable Travel Brand as a Predictor of Responsible Behaviors

In addition to serving as a means to differentiate a brand, marketing emphasizing sustainability may help in consumer awareness and understanding of sustainability and, in some cases, actually change consumers' behavior (Jones et al., 2008). Destination marketing organizations (DMOs) thus may view sustainability labeling as advantageous also because they will be able to target tourists who would appreciate the destination's special concerns (conservation, local businesses, engaged communities, etc.) and engage in responsible and cooperative behavior.

Some branding and marketing theorists (e.g. Fournier 1998; MacInnis and Folkes 2017) have found that people humanize brands (attribute human characteristics to them) and engage in relationships with them. Based on the social exchange theory (Blau 1964, Homans 1961), when two or more individuals engage in social interactions, if a favor is given to a person, a person is willing to return the favor. Thus, if a destination frames sustainability as a part of its brand, this may be understood by tourists as a "favor" (care about tourists' well-being and about our planet and future generations). If a destination brand is perceived as humanlike, tourists will "return the favor" in form of responsible behaviors.

It can be predicted that the more tourists bond with a destination, the more positive emotions and commitment towards the destination they have. Feeling commitment, tourists may be willing to spread the word about the destination (e.g. via social media).

Proposition 2. Sustainability labeling will increase a) responsible behaviors, and b) the likelihood of sharing positive information about the destination.

Proposition 3. Brand humanization will mediate the effect of sustainability labeling on visit intentions and responsible behavior.

Numerous studies (e.g. Thapa 2010) have found that responsible, or pro-environmental behavior is affected by the possession of the knowledge on environmental aspects. Thus, the following can be proposed:

Proposition 4. The effect of sustainability labeling on the favorable attitude towards the travel destination's brand and responsible behaviors is greater when consumer's environmental awareness is higher.

Conclusion

In tourism industry, the advantage of sustainable appeal is not fully recognized. The present paper will address these issues suggesting, that, if communicated as a "giving", sustainability labeling would increase the favorable attitude towards the travel destination's brand, the likelihood of purchase (visit intention) and would positively affect tourists' responsible behaviors and the likelihood of promoting a destination through word-of-mouth. These effects are suggested to occur through the activation of brand humanization (anthropomorphism) and to be moderated by people's environmental awareness.

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Summary Brief

The Effect of Consumer Resilience on Forming Consumer Attitude toward Traumatic Information

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The purpose of this study is to explore the effect of consumer resilience on the relationship between corporate social responsibility (CSR) and consumer attitude. For the purpose, this study designed a specific circumstance to collect survey data for a quasi-experiment, in that this study assumes that each respondent is exposed to a traumatic information or experience such as terrorism attacks or gun violence when they are willing to have a family vacation. After confirmatory factor analysis for each construct's validity, PLS-SEM is casted to verify the model fit. ANOVA and regression analysis are employed to test each hypothesis for this study. The findings show that CSR has positively associated with consumer attitude and resilience. More importantly, this study shows that consumer resilience helps consumers improve their attitude and the level of resilience has differently impacted on forming consumer attitude as expected.

Introduction

According to the Global Terrorism Database (GTD), international terrorism targeted at random people has occurred in many areas around the world, even in the cities listed above. A previous study suggested that this type of terrorism negatively affects consumer decision making and consumption (Ryan 1993). Under the unstable market condition, consumer resilience plays a relevant role not only forming consumer attitude, but also improving consumer well-being. Within this vein, consumer resilience play an important role when consumers form attitude and make a decision, especially in executing successful consumption experiences (Bal and Lamberton, 2015). However, in the marketing disciplines there is not much research on consumer resilience and its relationship with consumer behavior. As a marketing strategy, Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) plays a prominent role in contemporary business industries, such as tourism (Calveras 2015). Calveras (2015) illustrates that CSR as a marketing strategy aids consumers to understand the socially responsible deeds that hotels do that can positively change the consumer's recognition of a company in the market. Thus, it is important to seek for the effect and role of CSR on the process of forming consumer attitude under the market environment threatened by terrorist attacks.

Literature Review and Theoretical Research Framework

Resilience has become an important determinant of consumer well-being (Ball and Lamberton, 2015). Through the process of adopting and overcoming results from the innumerable choices and actions, consumers maximize and optimize their experience of consumption and utility. In the process, consumer resilience enables consumers to overcome bad experiences from their past choices and actions and to change their attitude towards life from negative to positive (Glandon 2015). Resilience can help the consumer determine his or her relationship towards a firm as well as overcome negative information about the firm (Eisingerich et al. 2011). In today's business environment, CSR is pronounced in the tourism industry because it is heavily depended upon environmental, cultural, and social resources (Calveras, 2015). Based on the strategic point of view of CSR, a hotel is able to differentiate its service and product from its rivals in the competitive tourism industry. CSR is an important factor that enables firms to satisfy consumers (Saeidi et al., 2014). Thus, this strategic action enables a hotel to improve its reputation, especially in the sense of environmental concerns. Furthermore, this strategic action has been increasingly important for the tourism industry because of the global risks such as gun violence or terrorism. Thus, this argument suggests that consumers may change their attitudes towards risk. Therefore, research hypotheses are formulated as follows:

H1a: Consumer resilience will positively affect consumer attitude.

H1b: There is a difference of attitude between a group with a higher resilience level and another group with a lower resilience level.

H2: CSR positively affect consumer attitude.

H3: CSR positively affects consumer resilience.

H4: Consumer resilience mediates the relationship between CSR and consumer attitude.

Method

Total 165 surveys were collected from distributed 200 surveys, which is 82.5% response rate, and only 149 out of 165 were valid for this study as a sample. To measure consumer resilience, this study manipulated studies of Reivich and Shatté (2003) and Southwick and Charney (2012). To measure corporate social responsibility (CSR), this study adapted questionnaires developed by Jamali and Mirshak (2007). To measure consumer attitude, this study defined the concept of attitude as a comprehensive summary and assessment of an object including products, services, and brands (Malhotra, 2005). To verify each construct in this study, we employed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Findings

Overall model fit of this study is statistically sufficient and significant (SRMR: 0.046, RMS_theta: 0.047, NFI: 0.894, χ^2 : 712.863). This study found that there is a difference of attitude between groups holding a high resilience and a low resilience by conducting ANOVA. Using the simple classification analysis (regression), this study tested each hypothesis. All hypotheses are supported: H1 (a positive relationship between resilience and attitude), H2 (a positive relationship between CSR and attitude), and H3 (a positive relationship between CSR and resilience).

Mediating Effects of Consumer Resilience

As H4 suggested, this study conducted a test to investigate the role of consumer resilience in the relationship between CSR and consumer attitude. The result shows that H4 is not supported.

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Summary Brief

The Role of WAR in Predicting MLB Team Attendance: An Exploratory Study

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Many Major League Baseball (MLB) teams show considerable variation in attendance from year to year. Teams have previously used variables such as last season's winning percentage, promotions, star players, payroll, etc., to predict attendance for the next season. The present research examines whether a different statistic, the change in Wins Above Replacement (WAR), provides for additional explanation of season attendance data. Data was examined for all thirty MLB teams for 2014-2016 seasons. The results indicate that changes in the WAR statistic are a significant predictor for medium-market teams. The data also shows that payroll size is a better predictor for large market teams, and payroll size and winning percentage are better predictors for small market teams.

Introduction

Major League Baseball (MLB) is the most widely attended professional sport in the United States. In 2016, MLB baseball generated a total regular season attendance of 73,159,044 (Baseball Reference.com 2016), far exceeding both the NFL (17,788,671) (Pro Football Reference 2017) and the NBA (21,972,129) (Inside Hoops 2016). In 2016, seven MLB teams exceeded 3,000,000 in attendance: LA Dodgers, St. Louis, Toronto, San Francisco, Chicago Cubs, NY Yankees, and the LA Angels of Anaheim. While average NFL game attendance exceeds average MLB game attendance, Major League Baseball remains the most popular sports ticket in the US. With 29.82% of total MLB revenue comes from ticket sales (Statista 2016), ticket revenue is clearly an important revenue stream for Major League Baseball.

While overall MLB attendance has remained flat over the past six years, there is considerable attendance variation between MLB teams. For example, in 2011, the Los Angeles Dodgers ranked 11th in attendance at 2.9 million, but have been ranked 1st in MLB since 2013, with attendance of nearly 3.8 million in 2016. In contrast, the Philadelphia Phillies were ranked 1st in attendance in 2011 at nearly 3.7 million, but finished 2016 ranked 24th of thirty MLB teams at 1.9 million. Other teams such as the LA Angels of Anaheim, the San Francisco Giants, and the Boston Red Sox remain relatively unchanged from year to year, regardless of performance.

Previous research has identified several factors related to overall MLB attendance, including winning, payroll, and the use of promotions. The purpose of the present research is to examine an additional potential influence – the quality of roster construction, as measured using the Wins Above Replacement (WAR) statistic for each player. WAR estimates the number of games a team won by having a specific player on the roster, compared to having a “replacement level player” on the roster. As a result, WAR measures the quality of individual player performances more directly than salary information. An extreme example would be NY Yankees outfielder Aaron Judge, who has one of the highest WAR numbers for 2017 (6.3 wins above replacement) and one of the lowest MLB salaries (\$544,500 for 2017).

Background

Influences on MLB Season Attendance

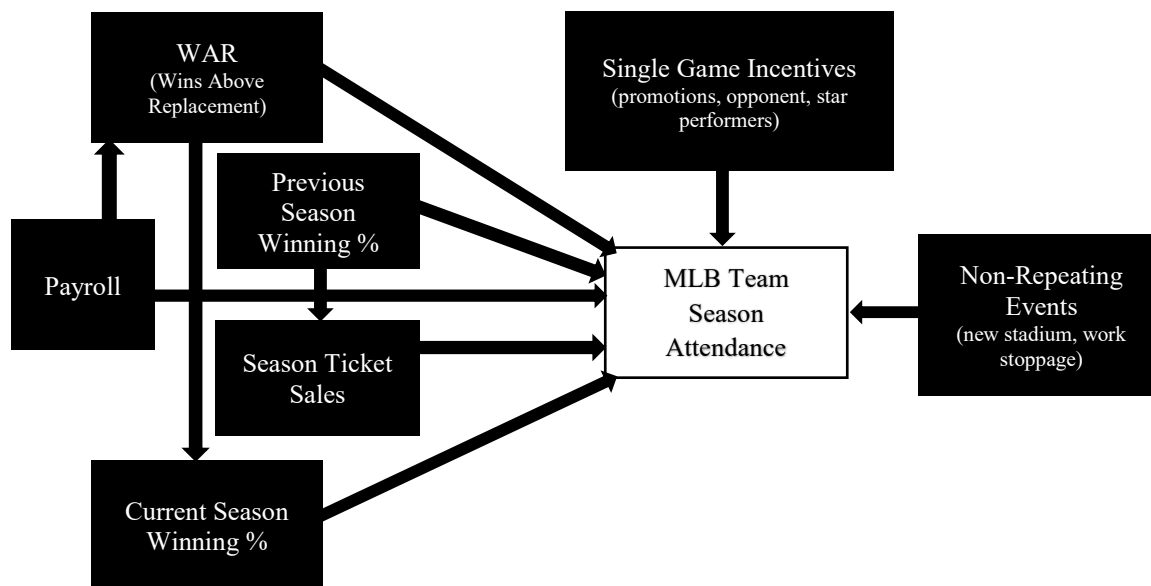
Previous research has noted an associative relationship between winning and attendance (Davis 2009; Padgett and Hunt 2012; Langhorst 2014), with the strength of the relationship varying from team to team. Ormiston (2014) determined that both the winning percentage of the home team and the winning percentage of the opponent were significant predictors of MLB game attendance. Reasons for the relationship between winning and attendance can be viewed from a variety of academic perspectives. From an economic view, winning and drama add to the entertainment value of a sporting event, thereby increasing the overall value of being in attendance. From an anthropologic view, one of the reasons fans attend sports is to see the ethos of a team emerge – the emergence of a team character in which “good” (the fan’s team) triumphs over “evil” (the opposing team).

Not all sources agree with a uniform relationship between winning and attendance in professional sports. While winning is associated with higher levels of attendance, it has been argued that when the outcome of a game approaches near certainty, attendance can be expected to decline since some of the excitement has been removed from the game (Kesenne 2014). This is unlikely to be as relevant to MLB attendance as it might to other leagues such as some European football leagues, since even the best MLB teams lose one third of their games, thereby creating at least some uncertainty for every game.

Recently, the role of payroll has also been considered as a potential driver of MLB attendance (Rivers & Deschrivier 2002; Wiseman and Chaterjee 2003). The idea of a reciprocal relationship between attendance and payroll was rejected (Lependorf 2012). While increases in payroll are associated with increases in winning, the effect of winning on subsequent increases in payroll (the idea that increased winning yields increased revenue, which leads to a payroll increase) was not found to be significant.

Depken (2006) and Clapp and Hakes (2005) have also noted the effect of new stadiums on attendance. For example, the Minnesota Twins opened Target Field for the 2010 season, and attendance increased from 2.4 million in 2009 to 3.2 million in 2010. Both Davis (2009) and Rascher (1999) also reported an attendance increase for interleague games.

Figure 1. A Conceptual Model of Influences on MLB Season Attendance



Additionally, single game incentives are a significant influence on MLB attendance, though not all promotions are created equal. Barilla et al. (2008) examined the influences of promotions on MLB attendance for the 2005 season, finding that while the average promotion was associated with an increase of 1,532 fans, many promotions were not associated with any increase in attendance. This was confirmed in a study of the 2008 Milwaukee Brewers (Schoenrock 2008), in which bobbleheads and giveaway items were found to be significant influences on attendance, and coupons and events were not significant influences. As previously noted, Ormiston (2014) reported that the winning percentage of the opposing team was positive related to single game attendance. Some franchises have noted an increase in attendance for fans interested in seeing a particular player (Rivers & Deschrivier 2002). In 2015, the Miami Marlins averaged 4,942 more fans per game when the late star pitcher Jose Fernandez pitched; however, this appears to be more the exception than the rule. By comparison, the Chicago White Sox actually drew 980 fewer fans on average when their star pitcher, Chris Sale, started (Clarke 2015).

Wins Above Replacement Value (WAR)

As previously noted, WAR is a scale-level measure that can be used to determine the number of wins a player contributes to a team above a replacement level player (Baseball Reference.com 2016a). WAR provides a relatively objective measure of the quality of a player that is adjusted for stadium and team differences, and allows the same metric to be used for both position players and pitchers.

At a fundamental level, WAR is rooted in the concept of runs – how many runs a player helps to score for his team and how many runs he helps to prevent the opposition from scoring. For position players (non-pitchers), there

are six broad categories of factors used in the calculation of WAR: Batting runs, base running runs, runs added/lost due to double plays, fielding runs, positional adjustment runs, and replacement level runs. For pitchers, the factors include overall runs allowed and innings pitched, with numerous adjustments for stadiums, defense, etc. Each player is compared against a hypothetical replacement player whose performance is between a major and minor league level. A team composed entirely of replacement level players (WAR = 0.0) would be estimated to produce a record of 48-114. The combined WAR for all MLB players in a season is 1,000.

Table 1. Comparisons of 2016 WAR Calculations for Top MLB Players (change in WAR from 2015 to 2016)

Player	Baseball Reference		FanGraphs WAR	
	WAR	(ΔWAR)	WAR	(ΔWAR)
Mike Trout (LAA)	10.6	(+1.2)	9.4	(+0.4)
Mookie Betts (BOS)	9.6	(+3.6)	7.8	(+3.0)
Kris Bryant (CHC)	7.7	(+1.8)	8.4	(+1.8)
Jose Altuve (HOU)	7.7	(+3.2)	6.7	(+2.2)
Josh Donaldson (TOR)	7.4	(-1.4)	7.6	(-0.9)
Robinson Cano (SEA)	7.3	(+3.9)	6.0	(+3.9)
Kyle Seager (SEA)	6.9	(+2.6)	5.5	(+1.6)
Manny Machado (BAL)	6.7	(-0.4)	6.5	(-0.3)

Unlike more traditional baseball statistics (batting average, ERA, etc.), there are variations for calculating WAR. These differences in WAR involve how differences between leagues, ballparks, and missing data are handled, as well as how much certain factors are emphasized. As a result, WAR statistics for an individual player typically show some variation between sources, depending on the formula and weights used for the calculation. Individual MLB teams also have their own formulas for the calculation of WAR, depending on which factors are weighted more heavily by the team. As shown in Table 2, WAR totals for players also vary from year to year.

When fans and season ticket buyers are assessing the potential quality of their team for an upcoming season, they are likely basing their decision on how much enjoyment they anticipate from attending games for the season, and a significant component of the fan experience is the likelihood of winning. WAR can serve as a useful metric in this regard. If a player with a WAR of 1.0 in 2016 is replaced with a star player who had a WAR of 5.0 in 2016, fans are likely to expect the team to be better in 2017. Similarly, if a star player with a WAR of 5.0 is traded away for a younger, less expensive player with a WAR of 1.0, fans may expect the team to perform more poorly for the upcoming season.

WAR and Attendance

Most significant roster moves made by a major league baseball team occur during the off-season. For season ticket buyers, the issue is whether the value derived from the ownership and use of a season ticket exceeds the purchase price of the ticket and other related costs, both financial (parking, concessions) and non-financial (finding time to attend games). As a result, the perceived value of a season ticket is likely to fluctuate, based upon both the composition of the players and management and the perceived ability to win.

There is a significant degree of consumer learning that influences future buying behavior; that is, it is unreasonable to assume that a ticket buyer decides to buy/not buy a season ticket based on a static determination of the value of a ticket. Season ticket buyers are fans, and the optimism/pessimism for the next season is a function of last season's performance in combination with roster changes – is the team's performance likely to improve or decline based on the off-season roster moves? This is particularly relevant for teams that have decided to enter a rebuilding phase – trading established players with limited years of contractual control for younger, less expensive players with more years of contractual control. Rebuilding teams often make the deliberate but unspoken move to acquire less expensive, less experienced players knowing the team is unlikely to be competitive for one or more years, in hopes of developing a nucleus of young talented players who mature into excellent performers at a time in the foreseeable future.

A certain degree of correlation can be expected between WAR, payroll, and the previous season's winning percentage. In general, better players (higher WAR) require a higher payroll, and a higher WAR should produce a better winning percentage. While the relationship between winning and payroll to total season attendance has been generally accepted, the potential role of WAR (as a surrogate for roster quality) has not been analyzed to see if it accounts for additional variation. A study was undertaken to determine if WAR explained significant additional variation in season attendance.

Hypotheses

Ho1: Change in Cumulative WAR (Δ WAR) for the eight primary position players and five starting pitchers will not explain additional variation in the variable Change in Attendance (Δ Attend) beyond what is already explained through the variables Change in Winning Percentage (Δ Winning%) and Change in Payroll (Δ Payroll).

Ho2: Increasing WAR will not generate sufficient additional ticket revenue to offset the average cost of adding WAR to an MLB team.

Methodology

Data was collected from all thirty MLB teams for the 2013-2016 seasons for the following variables.

Table 2. Dependent and Independent Variables

Dependent		
Variable	Defined	Sources (online)
Δ Attend	The change in total season attendance from the previous year.	Baseball Reference
Independent		
Variables	Defined	Sources (online)
Δ Payroll	The change in payroll from the previous season to the current season.	Spotrac
Δ WAR	The change in cumulative WAR for the eight position players and five starting pitchers from the previous season minus the cumulative WAR from the previous season for eight position players and five starting pitchers that played in the following season (see Table 3 for an example.)	Baseball Reference
Δ Winning%	The change in the team's season winning percentage from the previous season to the current season.	ESPN

Table 3 provides an example of how the Δ WAR was calculated for each team for each season. As shown in the table, the predicted 2016 WAR calculation is created by taking the eight position players/five pitchers on the 2016 team and determining their cumulative WAR for the previous season, then subtracting the cumulative WAR for the actual 2015 position players and pitchers.

Table 3. Sample Calculation of Change in WAR (Δ WAR), 2015-16 Milwaukee Brewers

Position	2015 Player	Actual 2015		Predicted 2016 WAR (i.e., 2015 WAR)
		WAR	2016 Player	
C	Jonathan Lucroy	1.0	Jonathan Lucroy	1.0
1B	Adam Lind	3.1	Chris Carter	-0.1
2B	Scooter Gennett	0.6	Scooter Gennett	0.6
SS	Jean Segura	0.0	Jonathan Vilmar	0.9
3B	Aramis Ramirez	-0.3	Aaron Hill	-0.3
LF	Khris Davis	0.8	Ryan Braun	3.8
CF	Carlos Gomez	1.6	Kirk Nieuwenhuis	0.7
RF	Ryan Braun	3.8	Domingo Santana	0.4
SP	Jimmy Nelson	1.3	Jimmy Nelson	1.3
SP	Kyle Lohse	-1.3	Zach Davies	0.6
SP	Matt Garza	-1.7	Chase Anderson	0.8
SP	Taylor Jungman	1.5	Wily Peralta	0.1
SP	Mike Fiers	1.1	Junior Guerra	-0.1
Actual Brewers WAR, 2015		11.5	Predicted Brewers WAR, 2016	9.7
Change in WAR (Δ WAR), 2016 Anticipated WAR minus 2015 Actual WAR				-1.8

Notes: Several players on the 2016 Milwaukee Brewers played for other teams in 2015. This includes Chris Carter, Domingo Santana, and Jonathan Vilmar (Houston), Aaron Hill and Chase Anderson (Arizona), Kirk Nieuwenhuis (NY Mets and LA Angels), and Junior Guerra (Chicago White Sox). Three other players (Ryan Braun, Zach Davies, and Wily Peralta) were members of the 2015 Milwaukee Brewers, but were in different positions.

Results

As expected, Pearson correlations showed a relatively strong and positive association between Δ Winning% and Δ WAR ($r = .494, p = .000$) and Δ Attend and Δ WAR ($r = .417, p = .000$). Weaker but still significant correlations were found between Δ Winning% and Δ Attend ($r = .347, p = .001$). Δ Payroll was found to be significantly correlated with Δ Attend ($r = .362, p = .000$); however, Δ Payroll was not significantly correlated with Δ Winning% ($r = .110, p = .304$).

Table 4. Pearson Product-Moment Correlations

		<i>Δ WAR</i>	<i>Δ Attend</i>	<i>Δ Winning %</i>	<i>Δ Payroll</i>
<i>Δ WAR</i>	Correlation	1	.417	.494	.227
	Sig. (two tailed)	90	.000	.000	.032
	N		90	90	90
<i>Δ Attend</i>	Correlation	.417	1	.347	.362
	Sig. (two tailed)	.000	90	.001	.000
	N	90		90	90
<i>Δ Winning %</i>	Correlation	.494	.347	1	.110
	Sig. (two tailed)	.000	.001	90	.304
	N	90	90		90
<i>Δ Payroll</i>	Correlation	.227	.362	.110	1
	Sig. (two tailed)	.032	.000	.304	90
	N	90	90	90	

Table 5. Overall Stepwise Regression Results (*Δ Attend* as dependent variable)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2
Constant	10,654.112 t = .479 (.633)	-17,909.292 t = -.765 (.446)
<i>Δ WAR</i>	16,517.749 t = 4.304 (.000)	13,982.289 t = 3.702 (.000)
<i>Δ Payroll</i>		.003 t = 2.963 (.004)
VIF	1.000	1.054
Adj. R²	.165	.232
F-ratio	18.526 (.000)	14.470 (.000)

Δ Winning % was excluded from analysis (t = 1.783, p = .078)

Stepwise regression was used to create a predictive model for the dependent variable *Δ Attend*. The independent variable *Δ Winning %* was dropped from analysis due to lack of statistical significance, resulting in the following regression equation:

$$\Delta \text{ Attend} = -17909.292 + 13982.289(\Delta \text{ WAR}) + .003(\Delta \text{ Payroll})$$

Model 2 accounted for 23.2% of the variation in *Δ Attend*. While this two-predictor model (*Δ WAR* and *Δ Payroll*) was found to be significant predictor of *Δ Attend* (F = 14.47, p = .000), the model left a considerable amount of variation unexplained (Adjusted R² = .232).

One possible explanation for the lack of fit of the model to the data are the differences that exist in each MLB team market. Previous research (Langhorst 2014) has indicated that attendance levels in different MLB markets have a differential response to changes in team winning percentage, though the reasons why differences exist between teams is unclear. One possible explanation is the effect of market size; specifically, whether small, medium, and large market MLB teams behave in a similar manner. To explore this possibility, stepwise regression analysis was run to analyze MLB teams according to market size (small, medium, large) which was assessed by examining how each team ranked in terms of overall revenues (Trueblood 2012).

Table 6. Stepwise Regression Results of Δ Attend Model by Market Size

Variable	Large Market Teams	Medium Market Teams	Small Market Teams
Teams	New York Yankees, Boston, Philadelphia, New York Mets, LA Angels, Chicago Cubs, LA Dodgers, Texas, Washington, Chicago White Sox	Atlanta, Detroit, Toronto, San Francisco, Houston, Miami, Arizona, Minnesota, St. Louis, Colorado	Cleveland, Pittsburgh, Seattle, Baltimore, Cincinnati, San Diego, Milwaukee, Tampa Bay, Oakland, Kansas City
Constant	-42,558.78 t = -1.051 (.302)	27,053.884 t = .842 (.407)	-29,505.993 t = -.742 (.465)
Δ WAR		B = 23,304.352 t = 4.005 (.000)	
Δ Payroll	B = .004 t = 2.339 (.027)		B = .006 t = 3.372 (.002)
Δ Winning %			B = 1,348,957.573 t = 2.426 (.022)
VIF	1.000	1.000	.995
Adj. R²	.134	.341	.363
F-ratio	5.47 (.027)	16.037 (.000)	9.255 (.001)
Excluded variables	Δ WAR (t = 1.112, p = .276) Δ Winning % (t = 1.632, p = .114)	Δ Winning % (t = .510, p = .614) Δ Payroll (t = .455, p = .653)	Δ WAR (t = .665, p = .512)

The results of the second series of stepwise regressions indicates that different independent variables are significant for different market sizes. While Δ WAR was found to be a significant predictor (t = 4.005, p = .000) of the dependent variable Δ Attend for medium market MLB teams, it was not a significant predictor for other market sizes. Δ Payroll was found to be a significant predictor of Δ Attend for both small market (t = 2.339, p = .027) and large market teams (t = 3.372, p = .002), but not for medium market teams. Δ Attend for small market teams was also influenced by Δ Winning% (t = 2.426, p = .022).

The regression equations produced by this analysis are:

$$\text{Overall (all 30 MLB teams): } \Delta \text{ Attend} = -17,909.292 + 13,982.289(\Delta \text{ WAR}) + .003(\Delta \text{ Payroll})$$

$$\text{Large market MLB teams: } \Delta \text{ Attend} = -42,558.78 + .004(\Delta \text{ Payroll})$$

$$\text{Medium market MLB teams: } \Delta \text{ Attend} = 27,053.884 + 23,304.352(\Delta \text{ WAR})$$

$$\text{Small market MLB teams: } \Delta \text{ Attend} = -29,505.993 + .006(\Delta \text{ Payroll}) + 1,348,957.573(\Delta \text{ Winning \%})$$

As a result, Ho1 is rejected for overall MLB model and for medium market MLB teams, as Δ WAR was found to not only be a significant predictor for Δ Attend, but also as the most important independent variable tested (based on unstandardized regression coefficient values.)

While Δ WAR data is potentially useful in improving the explanatory power of MLB attendance models, the results suggest practical limitations to adding WAR as an attendance building strategy. For the 2015 MLB season, the average payroll cost to generate 1.0 WAR was \$7.7 million (Paine 2015). A team that increases WAR by 1.0 by increasing payroll by \$7.7 million would expect to attract an additional 19,173 fans (using the overall regression formula for all thirty MLB teams). If a MLB team generates \$30/ticket in average margin, the team would be spending an additional \$7.7 million in payroll to generate an additional \$575,190 in additional margin dollars. As a result, the data suggests that increasing payroll as an attendance building strategy has limited practical application. As a result, Ho2 is not rejected, since the cost of acquiring each unit of WAR is greater than the margin dollars generated through additional ticket sales.

Discussion

It is noteworthy that a change in WAR (Δ WAR) contributes unique variation to change in attendance (Δ Attend) in the overall regression. Standardize coefficients indicate that Δ WAR accounts for more variation in Δ Attend than Δ Payroll or Δ Winning% (Δ WAR = .353, while Δ Payroll = .282. Δ Winning% was excluded.) The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) of 1.054 for this model suggests collinearity between Δ WAR and Δ Payroll is not a concern. VIF scores of 5 or greater are considered “moderately correlated” while VIF scores exceeding 10 are “highly correlated” (Minitab 17 Support 2016).

It is also worth noting that while Δ Attend is significantly correlated (as expected) with Δ Winning% ($r = .347$, $p = .001$), Δ Attend is actually more strongly correlated with Δ WAR ($r = .417$, $p = .000$). This suggests that MLB teams consider adding Δ WAR as an independent variable in their attendance modeling.

One of the interesting findings from the analysis was the improved fit of the models for small and medium market teams when the data was grouped according to MLB team market size.

- Δ Payroll was a significant predictor of Δ Attend for large market teams.
- Δ Payroll and Δ Winning% were both significant predictors for small market teams.
- Δ WAR was the only significant predictor variable for medium market teams.

One possible explanation for the significance of Δ Payroll and Δ Winning% for small market teams is the differences in fan base behavior for small market teams. Small market teams often have considerable variation in their winning percentage from year to year. As a result, it is likely that fans of small market teams do not expect their teams to win every year, so a higher winning percentage excites the fan base by creating additional entertainment value. Δ Payroll may also have a different meaning for small market teams, where an increase or decrease in payroll sends a signal to fans regarding the commitment of the team to winning in the current season. By contrast, large market teams often expect to win and changes in payroll would be more likely to affect attendance when payroll declines (i.e., “are we committed to winning?”) than when payroll increases (i.e., “of course our payroll increases, our team has lots of money.”)

As previously mentioned, the only significant independent variable for predicting Δ Attend for medium market teams was Δ WAR. The present exploratory study did not look at what specific factors might explain why Δ WAR was a particularly useful predictor for medium market teams. The regression analysis was repeated using a different definition for market size, using alternate definitions of Metropolitan Statistical Area (MSA) population size in one set of analysis (MLB markets with between 3-5 million population), and payroll ranking (teams ranked 11-20). The results are shown in Table 7. The results indicate that Δ WAR remains a significant predictor for all three methods of determining market size (revenues, MSA, and payroll).

Table 7. Unstandardized Stepwise Regression Coefficients, Δ Attend Model for Medium Market Teams, Using Alternate Definitions of Market Size

Variable	Model 1	Model 2
	MSA Population Market Definition	Payroll Ranking Market Definition
Constant	33,094.436 t = .668 (.514)	-26,518.071 t = -.650 (.521)
Δ WAR	26,761.923 t = 2.866 (.011)	16,062.929 t = 2.808 (.009)
Δ Payroll		.005 t = 2.471 (.020)
VIF	1.000	1.148
Adj. R ²	.298	.406
F-ratio	8.213 (.011)	10.896 (.000)

Δ Winning % ($t = .426$, $p = .676$) and Δ Payroll ($t = 1.123$, $p = .279$) were excluded from Model 1. Δ Winning % was excluded from analysis in Model 2 ($t = 1.406$, $p = .172$).

The analysis suggests that medium market teams behave differently from large and small market teams, with Δ WAR serving as a useful variable for predicting Δ Attend. While the reasons for this difference are unclear, the results do suggest at a minimum that medium market teams should consider incorporating Δ WAR into their attendance modeling procedures.

Conclusions/Recommendations

The research suggests that Δ WAR needs to be further explored as a potential input into attendance formulas for MLB teams, as it provides unique variance otherwise unaccounted for from payroll and winning percentage. While the present findings suggest that team investments into players with higher WAR statistics are unlikely to be directly recouped through ticket sales, the research does suggest that modeling Δ WAR is likely to add to the predictive and explanatory power of MLB attendance models.

Future research is needed in several areas.

1. There is an immediate need to expand the number of years in the analysis to see how relationships between WAR, Payroll, and Winning % change, and to also model specific effects of recurring influences on attendance (single game and promotions and season ticket incentives), as well as non-recurring events such as a new stadium opening/major remodel, work stoppages, etc.
2. If most fans do not study WAR statistics before making purchase decisions, how is projected roster quality communicated to potential ticket buyers? What is the process consumer use to interpret changes in WAR?
3. Research is also needed to determine how changes in WAR trigger changes in attendance, and whether there are differences depend on fan characteristics.
4. Finally, additional research is needed to explore why team attendance from different market sizes respond differently to changes in WAR.

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SESSION 9.2: ADVANCING SOCIAL MEDIA THEORY AND PRACTICE

Chair:
Mathew Joseph, St. Mary's University

Summary Brief

Student Perception of Online Versus Traditional Education: A Preliminary Investigation

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With the advancements of digital technology and increased cost and resource pressures facing universities, course offering modality has changed rapidly over the past twenty years. Traditional courses, although still popular, are challenged by the competition of online and hybrid courses. This preliminary study examines students' perceptions of online versus traditional (face-to-face) course offerings at the business school of a liberal arts university in Southwest USA. The research compares perceptions of students who have been subjected to online education with those who have not been exposed to online education and examines likelihood to take online courses. The results indicate that generally, students have neutral perceptions about online courses, while favorable perceptions are strongly associated with likelihood to take online courses. Moreover, prior exposure with online courses is not a significant factor in forming favorable perceptions about online courses.

Introduction

With the implementation of online curriculum in an increasing amount of learning institutions, digital education has forged a new path for new generations. Although online education is not revolutionary, the past few decades have witnessed a drastic elevation in enrollment of these courses by millennials or "digital natives" (Auster 2016). According to BABSON Survey Research Group, the number of enrollment in online degree-granting postsecondary institutions have increased from 16.6 million in fall of 2002, to 19.6 million in 2010. Additionally, over two-thirds of professionals agree that online courses offer the same outcome in comparison to traditional courses (Allen and Seaman 2011). In retrospect, this certainty is monumental because technology had not really started effecting the higher education industry until the late 1990's (Saba 2011).

Extant research has provided evidence that online education is at least as effective as face-to-face education (Can 2007). However, a 2013 study conducted in an AACSB accredited business school revealed opposing results, indicating that 34.6% of students strongly disagreed that they learn more from online courses, while 31.1% disagreed, 21.2% had no opinion, 8.6% agreed, and only 4.3% strongly agreed with that statement. In addition, 37% of students strongly agreed that they learned more in traditional classes, 31.1% agreed, 21.3% had no opinion, while 19% disagreed, and 1.2% strongly disagreed with that statement (Kuzma, Kuzma and Thiewes 2015).

The present study aims to examine liberal arts students' perceptions of online education versus traditional in-class education at a southwest USA university where the mode of course offering is currently traditional courses and few online options are provided.

Method and Results

Paper and pencil surveys were distributed in different classes at a business classes at a university in Southwest USA. The target group was undergraduate students. Respondents were asked first if they had taken an online course before, and if so, they were asked to list the number of online courses they had taken. Overall, 192 usable responses were collected (50.3% were female and 84.5% were between 18-22 years old).

The results indicated that 46.1% of participants had taken online courses. Of those with prior exposure to online courses, 60.7% were satisfied with their experience, and 68.4% liked to take another online course. Out of all respondents, 68.4% expressed that they would like to take an online course and only 16% were in opposition. Also, 87% of respondents agreed that students should have the opportunity to have the option of taking an online or traditional course.

In order to further test students' perceptions about and likelihood to take online courses, we ran several ANOVAs to compare the perception and likelihood of students who had taken online courses in the past with those who had not. The construct perception was created by calculating the mean values for questions that captured opinions about online courses (note that the questions about the likelihood to take online courses and providing both online and traditional

courses were not included due to their nature that was not an overall perception but willingness and preference). The results indicated that there is no significant difference between students who have taken or not taken online classes on their overall perceptions of the online classes ($F(1, 190) = 1.18, p > .2; M = 3.09$ vs. 3.02 for those who had taken an online course vs. not). Similarly, the likelihood to take an online course was not significantly different for students who had previously taken an online class vs. not ($F(1, 190) = .66, p > .4; M = 3.76$ vs. 3.63 , respectively). Moreover, gender did not significantly impact students' likelihood to take online classes ($F(1, 189) = .31, p > .5; M = 3.75$ vs. 3.7 for male vs. female students, respectively) or perceptions about online courses ($F(1, 189) = .31, p > .5; M = 3.08$ vs. 3.04 for male vs. female students, respectively). The results also indicated that there is a significant and positive correlation between perceptions about online course and likelihood to take those courses ($r = .52, p < .001$). This result combined with those of the ANOVAs indicate that having a positive perception about online classes is associated with higher likelihood to take these courses.

Conclusion

Even though the initial results indicate that regardless of prior experience with online courses, a majority of participants (i.e., 68.4%) are interested in taking an online course, students' perceptions of online courses are neutral at most. Therefore, the results indicate that in general, the perceptions are not favorable, and as a result, do not generate enough momentum for strong likelihood to take online courses. Moreover, the results indicate that previous exposure and experience of taking online classes do not positively change students' perceptions. Thus, the reported interest in taking online classes cannot be associated with favorable attitudes and positive perceptions about online classes. They may be related to better course planning in terms of fit with student schedules, etc. and thus, unrelated to the quality of online courses. These findings raise a question regarding the quality of online course offerings and concerns over these courses as listed by students under the category of disadvantages.

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Summary Brief

The Incredible Shrinking Space: A Small Glimpse into the Minds of Millennial Travelers

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There has been a fresh focus in the hospitality industry towards hotel room designs that are less than 225 square feet, referred to as the micro hotel or tiny hotel rooms. This work will examine why Millennial travelers chose to stay in micro hotels and why they are a key market for hotel operators. Understanding the “why” behind this latest trend could significantly influence the way humans define travel, use spaces, and impact travel behaviors through social media use.

Introduction

Imagine spending one night completely encapsulated in tiny blue LED-lit sleeping pods in space station-style bunks that simulate an intergalactic space-station experience. Star Trek fans celebrate because the Pengheng Space Capsules Hotel in Shenzhen, China’s Bao’an District has opened for business. Staffed by robots, guests order food and drinks via tablet and have them delivered by robot. The 50 square foot capsules, the advanced technology and “great” rooms designed to attract guests in for socializing, are available for a modest \$11(U.S.) per night.

Modeled after the smaller style budget hotel rooms, micro-hotel rooms can be defined as utilizing less than 225 square foot of space. In fact, some newer rooms are as small as 50 square feet (Heim 2016).

Research propositions have been developed to guide this explanation into the phenomena of why guests chose to stay at micro hotels:

Research Propositions:

P1: Millennials will stay at micro hotels for the experience, and then later, share their experience via social media.

Millennials are one of the largest generations of all time. They are more engaged with friends than the two generational groups before them combined, and they are socially connected—nearly constantly throughout their day. This group cares about what their peers and friends think of them, and they are heavily influenced by their peers as well with a desire to impress their peers (Bolton et al., 2013) Caroline aged 28 who lives in Kansas City, Missouri, remarked on how she relates to her friends and her buying decisions, “I definitely care what my friends think, and that plays into the items I purchase or the things I do. I ask for advice or review of products, and I do a lot of shopping with my friends to observe what they are buying (Fromm & Garton 2013).”

Millennials want to look good in front of their peers and seek to gain a psychological boost from getting and giving advice. They measure their value and self-worth by the number of likes or re-tweets they get on a post or video (Fromm & Garton 2013). This makes Millennials the ideal demographic for frequenting a hip urban hotel that serves up tiny-hotel rooms to satisfy the not-so-tiny egos. How they see themselves is not nearly as important as how they are seen by others. Self-concept theory holds that there are three aspects of self-concept: actual self, ideal self and social self. The actual self refers to how a person perceives herself; the ideal self refers to how a person would like to perceive herself; and the social self refers to how a person presents herself to others (Sigry 1982). As it relates to hotel room purchases, this theory can be extended to hold that once an individual decides which image to express in a social situation, she looks for ways to express it and will purchase products that will support this image. In other words, what we consciously decide for ourselves as an image, we will move forward. For example, if a product has an image of “high status” and a corresponding link to the self- concept “I”, then the self-image may be something like “I am a high status person” or “I am not a high status person (Sigry 1982).

Millennials as a consumer group have only been seriously studied over the last 10-15 years (Bolton et al., 2013). Researchers have collectively assigned various attributes to this group. One of them is a strong need for attention, to be noticed, acknowledged and for one-up-manship on their peers (Fromm & Garton 2013). Narcissism may be the first notion that comes to mind when describing Millennials and perhaps this is valid. As a concept of the greater psychoanalytic theory first laid out by Freud in the late 19th century, narcissism is a personality style that stimulates a person’s desire to feel special and appreciated (Yarrow 2014).

A high-level self-concept coupled with Freudian narcissism results in the perfect demographic for the micro-hotel. Staying in a tiny hotel will fill a Millennials' need for attention, their need for feeling special (perhaps they are the first of their friends to stay at one), and gives them the feeling of doing something unique and special. Then, after their stay, they will post about it on multiple social media sites.

P2: Millennials are adventure-seeking travelers and will seek out staying at micro hotels.

Given the two distinctive characteristics defined by Millennials: the need for importance (Yarrow 2014) and the experience-seeking traveler; it is essential to connect the theories to the behaviors and preferences of these market segments.

Trait Theory (Ghougassian 1972) identifies various traits that all human beings possess also referred to as dispositions. There are three distinctive traits: cardinal, central and secondary. Cardinal traits are those that rule and form a person's behavior; their dominant passions and obsessions, such as a need for money, attention etcetera. Conversely, "central" traits such as honesty are characteristics found in some degree in every person; and finally, "secondary" traits are those seen only in certain circumstances (such as particular likes or dislikes that a very close friend may know), which are included to provide a complete picture of human complexity (Fleeson & Jayawickreme 2015).

Two of the sixteen personality traits listed under Allport's Trait Theory directly relate to the demographic group of millennials and adventure-seeking travelers. The first trait is openness to experience. This trait includes behavioral aspects having wide interests, and being imaginative and insightful, correlated with activity in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex and considered primarily a cognitive trait; the second trait applicable to the Millennial and adventure-seeking group is the trait of novelty seeking. This trait encompasses behaviors that are impulsive, exploratory, and excitable and at times, extravagant (DeYoung et al., 2005).

Conclusion

To date, no empirical research exists examining consumers' motivations behind their selections of micro hotels; there were only industry and popular articles written on the topic. For this reason, micro hotels are an area of study that begets continued research.

This paper will contribute to the literature by being first to provide correlations between the millennial traveler and micro hotel rooms. From a managerial perspective, hotel operators can take the information provided in this paper and create and modify marketing programs to attract the multifaceted Millennial. As Millennials are driven by self-concept and specific personality traits combined with the powerful effect of social media, this target segment could be the driving force in the future of hotel development.

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**SESSION 9.4: CUSTOMER PARTICIPATION AND PRICING
RELEVANCE**

Chair:
Jing Chen, The University of Texas at El Paso

Summary Brief

An Employee View of Customer Participation in Service Development and Delivery

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To reduce costs, many firms have increased customer participation as partial employees in their product creation and services deliveries. However, employees have contradictory views towards the extent of customer participation. Based on a job demands-resources (JD-R) and person-environment fit model, this study tests an inverted U-shaped curvilinear relationship between perceived customer participation and work engagement, which eventually affect organizational benefits. Also, customer orientation (CO) and service employee perceived fit with customer (PC-fit) positively moderate this relationship.

Introduction

In today's service-centered logic of marketing, many firms encourage customer participation in the creation and delivery of their products and services to improve frontline employee productivity (Chan, Yim, and Lam 2010). FLEs (frontline employees) who directly communicate with customers are the beneficiaries of customer participation and may work as mediators to connect customer co-creating efforts and positive organizational outcomes (Pounders, Babin, and Close 2015). Despite the importance and prevalence of FLEs in service industries, earlier studies examining the positive effects of customer participation mostly investigate from the customers' and companies' perspectives, yet investigation of the effect of customer participation on employee attitudes and behaviors has been limited (Bendapudi and Leone 2003).

Conceptual Framework

According to job demands-resources (JD-R) model, any work characteristics could be divided into two subgroups: job resources and job demands (Yoo and Arnold 2016). The motivational and affective potential of job-related resources (Bakker et al. 2007) are salient to motivate employee work engagement. Conversely, various job demands lead to employee energy resource loss in the form of health problems and burnout. Generally, job resources and job demands are negatively associated. High job demands, such as work pressure and emotional work overload, may impede the mobilization of job resources (Schaufeli, Bakker, and Van Rhenen 2009). In a similar manner, job resources, such as organizational and social support, can buffer the stressors from job demands (Chan and Wan 2012).

Job-environment fit (Maslach and Leiter 1997) claim that match/mismatch between employee and six dimensions of his/her job environment could influence employee attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, greater fit is mostly accompanied by more work engagement.

Methodology

This study surveyed 518 frontline employees from South Korean banks and insurance firms to test a model based on a job demands-resources model. Structural Equation Modeling is used to examine the relationship between perceived customer participation and work engagement. In addition, Moderated Regression is implemented to investigate the moderation effects of customer orientation (CO) and employee perceived fit with customer (PC-fit) on the focal relationship.

Findings

The results show that linear customer participation does not have a significant relationship with work engagement, but the squared term of customer orientation creates a significant and negative effect on work engagement (inverted U-shape). Results also suggest that CO and PC-fit have positive relationships with work engagement, and both of them positively moderate the relationship between squared customer participation and work engagement. In addition, work engagement will lead to more OCB (organizational citizenship behavior), job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Implications

From a theoretical perspective, the present study identifies the curvilinear effect of perceived customer participation on work engagement, signifying important implication to service marketing. This study also based on JD-R model to introduce a new construct “person-customer fit”, which works as an environmental resource to enhance work engagement. From a managerial perspective, examining the curvilinear relationships of customer participation and work engagement suggest that FLEs perceived customer participation does not necessarily enhance economic benefits or productive gains by using customers as substitutes for portions of employee labor. Another finding with managerial relevance indicates that service employees, who have more CO and PC-fit, show more tolerant attitudes toward unnecessary and excessive levels of customer participation and regard it as a job resource.

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SESSION 9.6: “UH OHS” IN SERVICE DELIVERY

Chair:

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Full Paper

Service Recovery Planning After Hurricane Rita

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The purpose of the research project was to assess how much disaster planning has been done by SWLA small businesses since Hurricane Rita eleven years later. After a review of the relevant literature, a questionnaire was developed and put into SurveyMonkey™. The second author developed a list of area small businesses. The URL and questionnaire were mailed out to the list of businesses via email during April 2016, In June more small businesses were identified using another source and mailed the questionnaire. A small response rate of 19 surveys was achieved. Inventory losses were reported along with the amounts, other pertinent facts were reported, and an insightful listing of verbatim responses concluded the findings section of this paper. Some interesting, but not significant, statistical findings revealed that firms with higher damages tended to have made plans after Rita.

Introduction

Hurricane Rita tore through Cameron Parish, Lake Charles, and southeastern Texas 11 years ago, one month after Hurricane Katrina tore through New Orleans, southeastern Louisiana, and southern Mississippi and Alabama. Hurricane Rita made landfall less than a month after Katrina (“Hurricane Rita” 2005, p. 1). The category-5 storms caused much destruction and displaced many residents for over a month due to flooding (Lam et al. 2012). Rita annihilated “the towns of Cameron and Grand Chenier” and caused “extensive damage in Lake Charles and Sulphur” as well as southeast Texas (Angers 2015, p. x).

When Rita hit the Gulf Coast the rainfall was more than 6 inches across most of Louisiana and Texas and the storm surge was over 8 feet in New Orleans where the levies had already been broken due to Hurricane Katrina (“Hurricane Rita” 2005). “Damage to the rice industry was estimated to be \$12 million.” Other crops fared worse: cotton (\$38 million), sugarcane (\$286 million), and timber (\$826 million) (Hennessy 2015, p. 128). “The most recent available estimate by the [Property Claims Services] PCS of the insured property damage in the United States caused by Rita is \$5.63 billion. This produces an estimate for total damage of about \$11.3 billion” (Beven, et al., 2008, p. 1155). Small businesses in the area were greatly affected by this natural disaster.

Southwest Louisiana (SWLA) is comprised of five parishes: Allen, Beauregard, Calcasieu, Cameron, and Jeff Davis. Cameron Parish is right on the Gulf Coast. The rest are close enough to be vulnerable to hurricanes and other natural disasters. Small and large businesses must be prepared for such disasters as a result. The purpose of the research project was to assess how much disaster planning has been done by SWLA small businesses since Hurricane Rita eleven years later.

Literature Review

Prior research has been done to study the factors that affect the ability of small businesses to recover and reopen after a major crisis. Many of the factors that have been seen to affect the outcome of small business success after a major crisis are as follows: Business characteristics, Pre-disaster preparation, Physical damage, and Post-disaster difficulties (Corey and Deitch 2011). Other factors include the importance of Emergency Response Agencies in rebuilding a community and re-establishing businesses post-disaster (Cigler 2007), and the importance of recognizing spatial dependence of firms in research data (Lam et al., 2012).

Smith et al (2006) focused on the results of hurricane Andrew to evaluate how people and housing markets respond to a large disaster. Kunreuther and Pauly (2006) explored the options to avoid large and poorly managed post disaster recovery programs. One option was the possibility of mandatory comprehensive private disaster insurance with risk based rates. They argued it is more efficient to have a pre-existing public program to insure against catastrophic losses rather than to have an expensive and inefficient post disaster relief system that is presently in place.

Runyan (2006) also examined the recovery of small businesses after Hurricane Katrina. He focused on what the barriers were that prevented recovery of a small business after a major crisis. He found that lack of planning, vulnerability of cash flow interruption, lack of access to capital recovery, problems caused by federal assistance, and serious infrastructure problems were the reasons many businesses had such a hard time recovering from the storm.

Cater and Chadwick (2008) studied two small businesses in terms of how they responded to Katrina. They found the following: “The inhibiting factors include limited financial resources, communication difficulties, supply logistic problems, and government bureaucracy. The enhancing factors [to improve recovery] include a sense of proximity, the ability to move rapidly, concern for employee welfare, versatility, networking, and concern for the community” (p. 55).

A recent survey from Harris Interactive, commissioned by Nationwide (“Most Small Business” 2015), found that over 38 percent of business owners of companies with less than 300 employees, believe it’s not important to have a plan for disaster preparation and recovery. Among small business with less than 50 employees only 18 percent have a formal plan for disaster preparation and recovery. Disaster recovery was a low priority for 34 percent of small business owners. This should be a major concern for those small businesses located in hurricane-prone areas of the USA, like Southwest Louisiana.

Madison Sloan and Deborah Fowler (2015), after 10 years of disaster recovery, examination identified shortcomings in each phase of disaster recovery process; from emergency services to short term recovery to long term rebuilding in small businesses. The research examined problems and made policy recommendations focusing primarily on the challenges surrounding administration and oversight of the long-term recovery process. It included disaster recovery challenges like failure to handle catastrophe, mass displacement, lack of federal guidelines, misallocation and delay of funds, poor data availability and their report provided recommendations to create stronger and resilient communities in social and economic sectors.

The United States Government Accountability Office (GAO) (Shear 2015) found that “the Small Business Administration (SBA) did not meet its timeliness goal (21 days) for processing business loan applications” (Shear 2015, p. 2). GAO spoke with six Small Business Development Centers and eight local business organization in New Jersey and New York to identify challenges businesses faced in receiving timely disaster assistance (p. 4). The GAO also analyzed Disaster Credit Management System (DCMS) data from 2005 to 2012 to compare approval, withdrawal and cancellation rates (p. 4). The GAO recommended that SBA revise its planning documents, get feedback from lenders and report to Congress (p. 2).

Methodology

A graduate student identified SWLA small businesses using telephone books and made personal phone calls to the owners to confirm email addresses. We were hoping to get a list of small businesses from the Chamber; however, we encountered resistance from several contacts, with the exception of Mrs. Morgan Turpin, who tried to help. We initially ended up with 126 businesses. Later, the lead author also identified other small businesses that had been missed and added them to our master list.

The graduate student helped with the design of a questionnaire based on our literature review. General topic areas were pulled from Corey and Deitch (2011, pp. 173-74.); these included emergency response plans, short-term vs. long-term elements of the plans, direct storm damage, communications, and barriers. Regarding the planning questions, responses were either yes or no. A mixture of yes/no and open-ended questions were asked regarding damages (flooding and inventory/equipment loss) and the dollar values of the losses. Yes/no and open-ended questions were also used to assess loan necessity, communication, and recovery information. Six barriers were offered up for respondents to choose the “biggest” from, and another open-ended question was also provided. Respondents were then asked to indicate how their business’ performance was after reopening and what advice they had for other small business owners. We decided to create our questionnaire on SurveyMonkey™.

From April 5th to May 8th, we emailed all the small businesses on our list that had email addresses. We included the IRB required language in the email message plus the URL for our online questionnaire. For businesses that did not have email addresses, we used the “contact us” on their web pages to write messages and include the URL.

Our first SurveyMonkey™ response came in April 9th. We got some calls that businesses were having problems with not receiving our email messages. On April 15th, the lead author resent email messages to those businesses with email addresses. We had a second response by April 16th. On April 20th, we resent emails to businesses, including the questionnaire Word file and a more detailed URL from SurveyMonkey™. We got another two responses over the next two days.

Fearing we had timed the distribution of our questionnaire at the worst time to do so – right before Tax Day, the lead author sent out another round of email messages on April 22nd, asking permission of recipients to send them the questionnaire. We ended up with two to three more responses, for a total of six to seven responses. The next plan of attack was to mail 50-60 questionnaires to small businesses, using our original list plus pulling firms from Lagniappe’s

small business issue (“Top 50” 2016). This mailing was done over several days in June and about 12 more responses were received, for a total of 19 responses.

Analysis of Results

Profile of Respondents

While there were 19 respondents, most of the time only 18 responded to each question. The small business owners responded that they had between three and 700 full-time employees. The median number was 23 (between 21 and 25) FTEs. Over three-fourths reported 2015 annual sales of over \$500,000. Eight businesses (38.9%) have been in business for 40 or more years while three (16.7%) have been in business for 15 to 19 years. Over half (10, 55.6%) have only one location, while three (16.7%) have two locations.

Six firms (33.3%) said Southwest Louisiana was their market coverage while four firms (22.2%) said the local area was their coverage. Five owners (out of 15, 33.3%) said they were in the Retail industry while four owners (26.7%) were in the Service industry. Sixteen out of 18 owners (88.9%) were Caucasians in terms of ethnicity. Most of the owners who responded were men (16/18, 88.9%).

Overview of Findings

Small business owners were first asked: “Did you have a formal disaster/emergency response plan before Hurricane Rita?” Eleven owners (11/19, 57.9%) did not have a plan in place. Fourteen owners (14/19, 78.7%) said they did now have such a plan in place. All who responded (14/14, 100%) said their plans have a short-term element and ten (10/14, 71.4%) said their plans had a long-term element as well.

Eleven owners (11/19, 57.9%) reported that they did not have any flooding. One reported having property flooding but none in the business itself. Another owner reported having five feet of water in the business. A third owner reported lots of flooding in his Lake Charles location but not in other locations. A fourth person reported flooding in one store and damage to three other store locations. A fifth owner reported having 18 inches of water in the building. Someone else reported more structural damage than flooding, while another said it was wind damage only. A seventh respondent reported having 1.5 feet of water, which did recede quickly. The last respondent reported total flooding.

Eleven owners (57.9%) reported the loss of equipment and/or inventory. Five reported losses from \$2,500 to \$1 million, and seven reported total losses. One reported losing food as well as parts of equipment. A second owner said mixing vials were lost due to lack of refrigeration. A third person said they lost all perishable food items, including frozen meat and dairy products. A fourth owner said there was building damage and total destruction of the office. Another reported the loss of a used mobile home office roof. A sixth owner reported the loss of computers. The owners were then asked, “How much needed to be replaced (in dollars)?” Thirteen owners responded, with costs ranging from \$0 to \$1,000,000; the mean was \$178,395 with a standard deviation of \$330,077.24, and the median was \$30,000.

Fifteen out of 18 owners (83.3%) said that their records were backed up on an offsite location while only one owner (5.6%) reported that records were lost. Sixteen out of 19 (84.2%) said they did not have to take out loans to repair damages and reopen; the same number (88.9%) said they were able to keep in contact with employees after the storm. Nine out of 15 owners (60%) reported being able to open and operate within two weeks after Hurricane Rita. Only two said it took them nine months or more to reopen.

Small business owners were asked “what was the biggest barrier to your recovery?” Eight out of 18 (44.4%) mentioned various “other” reasons including: “not being able to get to locations to service our toilets;” “qualified help;” “location;” “power;” “having a limited staff because people were displaced;” “building contractor, getting materials;” “loss of revenue;” “workload;” “No generator in place. Credit card processing was hit hard. We recovered quickly out of necessity. People needed food so we had to adapt;” “we depended on US mail for payments and the mail was suspended for 2 months;” and “lack of flood insurance.” Four owners mentioned employees being the biggest barrier. One reported “we had no problems.”

Half of those who responded (9/18) reported performances have been better than before since reopening. Four (22.2%) said it’s been worse than before. Finally, small business owners were asked “what can small business owners learn from Rita?” Please see Appendix 1 for their verbatim responses:

At the suggestion of a reviewer, the lead author conducted some crosstabulations and independent t-tests to determine the characteristics of small business owners who put plans into place. The small sample size created problems with the analyses. All the t-tests were not significant ($p > .10$); however, it did show that those who put a plan into place after Rita had suffered around an average of \$260,000 vs. those who did not create a plan (\$27,500). Standard deviations were high ($> \$493$ thousand vs. $> \$45,000$). The replacement figure was also higher for those who

created plans after Rita (almost \$248 thousand vs. \$21,875; standard deviations being >\$381 thousand vs. >\$38,000. The eight companies that had disaster plans in place before Rita tended to have more full-time employees than the 10 who didn't (174.13 vs. 22, $t = 1.754$, $p = .123$). The only crosstab that was significant indicated that firms in retailing or services did not have plans before Rita ($\chi^2 = 11.667$, $p = .02$); however, cell size problem was at 100%.

Discussion

There are limitations to this study. First is the low response rate. We assume the initial timing of the study, during tax season, hindered the response rate. Business owners were not approached as carefully and professionally as they should have been. Owners may not have wanted to remember such a painful time in their lives, so they backed away from responding. Getting access to a membership directory may have helped our research efforts. We now have access to such a directory and are planning on extending this study by attempting to survey more businesses pulled from the directory. We must first request a renewal of our human subjects approved proposal. A second data collection began in early August 2017; however, Hurricane/Tropical Storm Harvey has forced a shutdown. Finally the data collection method began as an online survey but morphed into a mixed-mode with the addition of a mail survey at the end of the data collection period.

While most of the owners did not have a disaster recovery plan in place before Hurricane Rita hit, most have one in place now. They reported both structural damage and flooding from the hurricane. Losses were in the hundreds of thousands of dollars for the most part. Most had backed up their records at offsite locations, so that was timely planning on their parts. Barriers tended to involve lack of access to employees, lack of power and generators, and cash flow problems (similar to what Runyan (2006) found). Performance has recovered for many of the owners, which is good. Verbatim comments (see Appendix 1) provide many insights for all small business owners to consider as they prepare disaster recovery plans in the future.

Appendix 1: Verbatim Responses to “what can small business owners learn from Rita?”

- Always be prepared (n=6)
- Do not expect insurance to sweep in and take care of everything and you can relax; it doesn't happen. You will need to be prepared to jump in and shoulder a significant burden to expedite and progress back to a degree of normalcy. Having cash readily available is a tremendous benefit, as insurance adjustors will be slow to respond due to the heavy demand. Better also to have relationships with companies which you might need to help you get back on your feet – i.e., contractors, and any other specialty companies which you would need to help you back up. Don't rely on transient providers unless you have a high degree of leverage regarding their compensation. Provide your staff an opportunity to assist with recovery, as they will be familiar with operations and can help speed up the re-opening. Also, having an insurance policy covering a loss of business/business interruption insurance is vital; as well as maintaining clear, concise business records to provide.
- To have a thought-out plan in place
- Advance and post storm plans
- Proper insurance for downtime
- Close and leave
- Have a plan and if you are a business that your community depends on, then get a generator and be able to function without electrical power + other obstacle(s).
- Have a plan of action, have capital, cash flow
- We have learned that we don't always have control over aspects of our business. We couldn't see our patients because they weren't able to come back. The Hospitals were in slow recovery mode as well. Everything really depended on the community itself to function in order for our Practice to function. Small Business owners need to review their Insurance Policies and open a line of credit to continue operations as the response time from any Insurance reimbursement is slow. Also, contact their vendors and request a deferral on accounts payable. Some SBO may be able to move to another location but since we are a Medical practice most other places are unsuitable for our needs. Be Flexible! Have Patience!
- Expect to work!
- Plan for not having access to facility for 2 weeks or longer

- Have a plan and work the plan (n=2)

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Summary Brief

Consumers' Diverging Responses to Service Transgression: Evaluations, Attitudes and Intentions of Relationship-oriented versus Transaction-oriented Customers

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This paper aims to investigate how customer relationship orientation affects customers' judgements about service transgressions, their attitude towards service providers, and their future intentions. Two types of customers are identified: relationship-oriented-customers (CROs) and transaction-oriented-customers (CTOs). A pilot study with 213 surveys was conducted to test the conceptual model. The results suggest that CROs tend to perceive service transgressions as less severe than do CTOs, and post-transgression attitudes are more positive than those of CTOs. When a transgression is mild or when the customers consider themselves the cause of it, CROs respond less negatively than do CTOs. When a transgression is severe, however, or when the service provider is considered the cause of the transgression, CROs respond more negatively than CTOs do. This study shows that although a relationship could result in negative customer responses, relationship benefits outweigh the drawbacks.

Introduction

It has been widely accepted that a relationship between customers and service providers can mitigate the negative impacts of service failures (Morgan & Hunt, 1993; Priluck, 2003). As a result, relationship-oriented customers (CROs) are expected to respond less negatively to a service failure than transaction-oriented customers (CTOs) will (Suh et al., 2013). This is called the "love effect." However, when customers believe that they have been treated unfairly, or when they focus on service providers' obligations, CROs are more likely than CTOs to take offense and react negatively. This phenomenon is termed the "love becomes hate effect" (Grégoire & Fisher, 2008; Tsai et al., 2014).

Customer relationship orientation clearly plays an essential role in both effects. Yet it is unclear whether one effect dominates the other or both effects exist simultaneously when a service transgression occurs. Furthermore, it is unclear how these effects influence customers' evaluation of a service transgression, their attitudes toward service providers, and future intentions. In addressing these questions, this study aims to explore the intricate role of customer relationship orientation in service transgressions.

Conceptual Development

Service transgression is defined as the violation of implicit or explicit rules guiding relationship performance in the context of a service (Zhu et al., 2004). The study is built upon an assumption that the customer's relationship orientation affects customer's evaluation of the transgression severity and transgression locus, attitude, and behavioral intentions.

To be specific, this study hypothesizes that when experiencing the same service transgression, the severity of the transgression perceived by relationship-oriented customers (CROs) is lower than that perceived by transaction-oriented customers (CTOs). Also, CROs are less likely than CTOs to attribute the cause of the service transgression to the service providers. When customers identify themselves to be the cause of a transgression, CROs will exhibit less attitude change than CTOs, and exhibit more intention to forgive, and more intention to continue patronizing the business than will CTOs. When customers identify the service provider to be the cause of a transgression, CROs will exhibit more attitude change than CTOs, exhibit less intention to forgive, and less intention to continue patronizing the business than will CTOs.

Conclusion and Policy Implications

The study has the following findings: First, when facing the same service transgression, severity of transgression perceived by CROs is always lower than that perceived by CTOs. So the "love effect" dominates when customers evaluate the severity of the transgression. When the transgression is not severe, CROs are less likely than CTOs to

blame service providers, no matter who is the genuine cause of the transgression. However, when the transgression is severe, CROs are more likely than CTOs to blame the service providers, regardless of the genuine cause of the transgression. In one word, both the “love effect” and the “love becomes hate effect” exist simultaneously when customers decide the cause of the transgression.

Second, customers’ attitudes after service transgressions is negatively and significantly influenced by severity evaluation. When customers identify themselves to be the cause of a service transgression, CROs experience less attitude change than CTOs do. When customers identify the service provider to be the cause of the transgression, CROs experience more attitude change than do CTOs. Thus, the “love becomes hate effect” plays a role in influencing customers’ post-transgression attitude. However, the mean value of CROs’ post-transgression attitudes is always higher than that of CTOs’, regardless of the identified locus of transgression. In sum, relationship orientation plays a positive role in influencing customers’ attitudes, although CROs react more negatively than CTOs when they blame the service provider for the transgression. CROs still have better overall attitude than CTOs do.

Third, when customers identify themselves to be the cause of a transgression, CROs exhibit more intention to forgive and return to a business than CTOs do. When customers identify the service provider to be the cause of a transgression, CROs exhibit less intention to forgive and continue patronizing a business than CTOs do. However, the difference between CROs and CTOs’ intentions is not an obvious one, probably due to the small sample size of this study.

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Summary Brief

The Influence of Customers' Accents on Employee Recovery Behavior

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The objective of the proposed research is to examine the influence of customers' accents and language correctness on service employee recovery performance and recovery outcomes offered. Specifically, this study will explore whether customers' accents might result in accent discrimination bias or preferential treatment that extend beyond the recovery guidelines dictated by service firms.

Introduction

Service recovery is a second chance for companies to win customers back. This is also considered a “moment of truth” when a customer decides either to continue or terminate his/her business with the service company (Holmqvist and Gronroos, 2012). Accordingly, many service firms empower their service employees with a wide range of possible compensations/recovery outcomes to offer to customers when service failures occur. While most service companies have detailed outlined procedures towards recovery, the inconsistent and unique nature of service situations leave room for employee discretions to 1) assess the credibility of a claim and 2) offer the appropriate recovery ranging from an apology to monetary compensation. Usually, the nature and magnitude of service failure should be the driving factor towards the recovery offered (Hess et al.2003). However, because any service recovery involves a human interaction, other factors become prevalent in the type of recovery offered. These include 1) customer characteristics 2) service provider characteristics (e.g. Babin and Boles, 1998) 3) the message/ verbal communication 4) nonverbal cues (Henning-Thurau et al. 2006). The first two factors listed are of interest in this study. Specifically, this research tries to answer the following questions 1- Do customers' accents and language correctness influence service employee perceptions of the recovery claim credibility, in-role and extra role behaviors? 2- Do these have interaction effects? Does service employee cultural intelligence and (dis)identification moderate these relationships?

Literature Review and Study Contributions

This research contributes to the body of knowledge in by reducing these research gaps highlighted in Table 1. The study is highly prevalent to managers especially in an era of globalization, decrease in air fare prices, increase in consumer budgets for tourism, and rise immigration where the interaction between non English first language speakers customers are part of any service providers business. Service companies must ensure that customers are fairly treated without any discrimination bias or preferential treatment. This challenge is quit complex given that service companies must also ensure customers are empowered and have discretion to deal outside dictated and recorded service scripts. Researching and understanding the relationship between accent, perceptions of the credibility of the claim and service recovery behavior is under-researched and necessary, if service companies want to improve service recovery and design training programs that make service employees impartial experts in service recovery.

Table 1: Summary of Research Gaps & Study Contributions

What we know?	Research Gap
Language and accent impact customer evaluations in a <i>service delivery context</i> (=normal encounter) (Holmqvist and Gronroos, 2012).	Language and accent impact on customer evaluation in a <i>service recovery context</i> (after a negative service failure) is under researched
Choice of language triggers <i>some stereotypes and halo effects</i> beyond the communication content itself in <i>indirect communication</i> like branding and advertising research (Luna and Peracchio, 2005)	Research on how do language and accents influence customer evaluations in <i>direct communication setting service recovery</i> is scant
Accents and language used by service employees influence customers' evaluations of service (Hill and Tombs 2011) Employee → Customer	How customers' language and accents influence employees' offered recovery offered unknown. Customer→ Employee
Cultural intelligence (= the capability to relate and work effectively in culturally diverse situations) has been explored in <i>organizational behavior research</i> (Earley and Mosakowski, 2004)	Cultural intelligence has not been explored in employee – customer interaction.

The study will use social identity theory and theories of stereotypes (in-group versus out-group) to build ground for the research hypotheses (Tajfel, 1982). The main idea these theories postulate is that individuals will favor and might also identify with those who possess characteristics (race, language, accents, religion, customs, and their country of origin) like their own. These become a basis to categorize an “in-group” versus “out-group” member, which can then result in a negative discrimination bias (e.g. Baker, Meyer and Johnson, 2008) for “out-groups” or positive behavior and attitude, if the accent triggers a positive country of origin effect (e.g. Azab and Clark 2017) or higher identification. The extent to which an employee identifies with customers and employee customer intelligence might influence the perceptions of the credibility of a customer’s claim (Josiassen, 2011).

Research Design

The study will use a 3x2 between subject design, where accent (American, British, Indian), language correctness (correct grammar, grammar mistakes), will be manipulated in an audio online experiment (scenario of a complaint). A scenario will be written in a way to allow variation in recovery behavior and raise doubt in customer’s claim. s (Smith, Bolton and Wagner 1999). A panel of service employees in the retail sector will be approached. MANCOVA and partial least squares (PLS) will be used to analyze the proposed relationships.

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Presentation

When Talking Matters: The Impact of Managers' Employee and Customer Directed Organizational Citizenship Behavior Discourse on Service Quality

Jason Flores, Oklahoma City University, USA

Marisa Flores, University of Oklahoma, USA

When customer service employee managers communicate with their customer service employees, the managers must be aware of the impact their discourse topics have on employee behavior. While the importance of discourse topic selection (i.e., whether to discuss employee and/or customer directed organizational citizenship behaviors) may be evident for required, or role-prescribed, behaviors such as required service delivery behaviors, the present research examines the impact of discourse pertaining to discretionary behaviors such as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). In this investigation it is hypothesized that an explicit discourse emphasis on OCBs positively impacts the performance of employee and customer directed OCBs; this then positively impacts employee willingness to engage in required, or role-prescribed, service delivery behaviors.

Introduction

Understanding customer perceptions of service quality can support the development of organizational knowledge (Zeithaml et al. 1990). However, research examining internal communicative behaviors that are unobservable from the customer perspective, and the influence of this communication on service quality-associated behaviors of service employees, has received limited attention. The purpose of this paper is to investigate these research questions: (1) what is the impact of management's organizational discourse pertaining to service quality-related OCBs on the performance of OCBs?; and, (2) what is the impact of management's organizational discourse pertaining to service quality-related OCBs on role-prescribed, or required, service quality behaviors? This study aims to offer guidance for the management of customer service contact employee discourse topic selection.

Conceptual Foundation and Hypotheses

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) enhance organizational effectiveness yet are not formally recognized via a reward system (Bolino 1999). OCBs include helping a coworker with a problem, being courteous, and so forth (Organ 1977). OCBs directed at customers include, for example, willingly going beyond job requirements to assist customers (Bettencourt and Brown 1997).

OCBs, Organizational Discourse, and Service Quality

The extent to which employees interpret OCBs as a part of their job can be determined in part by organizational discourse related to OCBs. Bisel and Barge (2011) identified "little-d" discourse which is language that serves as a catalyst for shaping our identities and making sense of our experiences. "Little-d" discourse creates a shared experience that reinforces the shared perspective of how organizational life "should be." The sharing of values, or organizational identification, enhances employees' "desire to choose the alternative that best promotes the perceived interests of that organization" (Tompkins and Cheney 1985, p. 194).

Thus:

H1: "Little-d" discourse from managers pertaining to customer service related OCBs will be positively related to the performance of said OCBs

Bettencourt and Brown (1997) characterize cooperation among customer service contact employees as "extra-role" [or an OCB] when cooperation is not a formally evaluated behavior and not part of the formal job description. The importance of cooperation is evident given Bettencourt's and Brown's (1997) finding that customer contact employee cooperation is positively related to customer satisfaction. Thus,

H2: "Little-d" discourse from managers pertaining to customer service contact employee cooperation will be positively related to the performance of cooperation.

Kelly and Hoffman (1997) found that cooperation positively impacts customer-directed OCBs, which positively impact employee perceptions of the service quality provided by the organization. Kelly and Hoffman also found that positive affect positively impacts employee perceptions of service quality which is due in part to the tendency to perceive their jobs and work-related tasks more favorably when experiencing positive affect. Perceiving one's job more favorably leads to a reciprocal response in which employees engage in more OCBs (Van Dyne et al. 1994). Presumably, being motivated to engage in customer and/or employee directed OCBs positively influences the desire to engage in role-prescribed behaviors. Thus:

H3: Enhanced levels of OCBs (as supported by OCB-related discourse) are expected to positively impact employee willingness to engage in role-prescribed (or required) service quality behaviors:

Method

(Note: Data has not been collected at the time of submission)

Research Design and Context

A between-subject experimental design was used to control and test the impact of discourse related to OCBs on the performance of OCBs.

Target Sample

The target sample population includes respondents who have experience working in a customer service contact role.

Measures

Willingness to perform customer-directed OCBs was measured using a five-item scale for extra-role customer directed behaviors developed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997). Willingness for cooperation was measured using Bettencourt's and Brown's (1997) modified scale which was adapted from Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) five item subscale derived from the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale. Each set of scales were measured using seven-point Likert scales. Service Quality was assessed using a six-point scale for the 22-item SERVQUAL scale (Parasuraman et al. 1988) and administered to capture the extent to which respondents indicated their willingness of engaging in service quality associated behaviors.

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**SESSION 9.8: CONSUMER INSIGHTS – UNDERSTANDING THE
CUSTOMER IN A RAPIDLY CHANGING ENVIRONMENT**

Chair:

Pam Richardson-Greenfield University of Texas at Arlington

Presentation

A Qualitative Investigation of Deceptive Advertising

Pam Richardson-Greenfield, University of Texas at Arlington, USA

The exact number of daily advertisements that consumers are exposed to remains an enigma. Nevertheless, advertisers are constantly challenged to break through the barrage of advertising messages in order to influence consumers' buying behaviors. Advertisers employ a wide array of attention-grabbing tactics. One such tactic is the use of deception in advertising messages. Several types of deceptive advertising tactics exist—greenwashing, implied superiority claims, covert marketing, puffery—all of which have an element of “falsity” within them. This research attempts to understand the phenomenon of deceptive advertising, from the perspective of advertising and public relations professionals, who are at the forefront of the development of such communication, and the effectiveness of company responses following accusations of deceptive advertising.

Introduction

Marketers are constantly searching for new and more efficient opportunities to increase sales volume (Strutton, Hamilton and Lumpkin 1997), arouse interest and build trust that encourages consumers to buy their products or services (Zhou 2012). It is critical that an advertisement be able to cut through the clutter and capture consumers' processing attention (Campbell 1995). Unfortunately, consumers may fall prey to the unethical manipulation (i.e., deception) of some advertising executions (Amyx and Amyx 2011).

The purpose of this essay will be to explore deceptive advertising and the effectiveness of different company responses accused of deceptive advertising. These issues will be examined from the perspective of those at the forefront of the creation and dissemination of these messages—advertising and public relations practitioners. Research questions include, but are not limited to, the following: (1) How deceptive are different types of deceptive advertising? (2) How do consumers respond when they are targeted with deceptive advertising? (3) What is the impact of deceptive advertising, as perceived by advertising practitioners, on their company, and industry? and (4) What are the most effective response strategies following accusations of deceptive advertising?

Theoretical Background

Various regulatory agencies, associations and legal bodies have offered several definitions for deceptive advertising. According to the Federal Trade Commission's (FTC) Deceptive Policy Statement, an ad is judged as “deceptive”, if there is a representation, omission, act or practice conducted by a corporation that will or is likely to mislead a consumer. The ad judged to be deceptive must be examined from the perspective of a consumer acting reasonably in the circumstances. Additionally, the representation, omission or practice must be a “material” one (Moutinho and Nisel 1989).

Deceptive advertising can fall within three categories: unconscionable lie, claim-fact discrepancy, and claim-belief interaction (Gardner 1975). These three categories have common characteristics, such as concentrating on the focus of deception from the consumer's viewpoint. An advertisement is considered an unconscionable lie if it makes a claim that is completely false and could not be a true, even if properly qualified. An advertisement would be identified as a claim-fact discrepancy, if some qualification needs to be placed upon the claim for it to be properly understood and evaluated. A claim-belief interaction is an advertisement that interacts with the pre-existing attitudes and beliefs of the consumer, in such a manner as to leave a deceptive belief about the product or service being advertised (Gardner 1975).

Qualitative Research Strategy

Although a number of scholars have investigated deceptive advertising with consumer samples using empirical and qualitative methodologies, there are very few studies that qualitatively explore the point of view of advertising and PR practitioners (Erdogan, Baker and Tagg 2011).

Participants

The participants in this study will be theoretically selected because of their professional knowledge and experience pertinent to the research questions. The researcher will use a semi-structured interviewing technique; asking open-ended questions to the advertising practitioners about their experience and understanding of deceptive

advertising. Potential participants will be identified from personal industry contacts and colleagues of the research team, from the LinkedIn database, and from an university alumni database. To be considered, the individual must have an advertising, a communications, or a public relations professional background.

Data Collection Procedures and Rigor

A qualitative methodology will be employed to examine the perspective of advertising practitioners of the impact of deceptive advertising and potential response strategies of companies following accusations of deceptive advertising. To undertake this exploration, the researcher will draw from grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss 1967), which is one of the most commonly used qualitative techniques in marketing research (Johnson 2015). A questionnaire will be designed to help facilitate the interview. The researcher intends to use a style of interviewing comprising open-ended questions, which will allow her to have the freedom to digress and enable the voice of the participant to offer deeper insight (Johnson 2015). Reliability and validity in quantitative research, and rigor in qualitative research are standards used to establish trust, confidence, and credibility of research findings. Rigor exists when research demonstrates a consistent pattern for the methodologies of studies and illustrates an authentic representation of the population studied (Thomas and Magilvy 2011). For this study, participants will receive a formal invitation to participate—the invitation will state the purpose of study, the expectations of the participant, the time required to complete the interview, and a profile of the researcher. Prior to each interview, each participant will receive a consent form to review and a link to complete a survey (in order to capture demographic information). Each participant will be asked all questions, as depicted in the discussion guide, which consists of open-ended, rank-oriented, and scaling questions. All interviews will be recorded and transcribed.

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Summary Brief

CSR Issues and Consumers' Attitudes: The Role of Inoculated Message, Involvement, and Past Issues.

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Extending previous research on the communication strategies an organization can use to moderate the impact of inconsistent corporate social behavior on consumers' perception, the present research examines the use of inoculation strategies an organization can use to mitigate negative customers attitudes towards the firm following a certain corporate social irresponsible act given the customers' involvement in the issue and the number of times the issue has occurred.

Introduction

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has become an important driving force in organizational strategies, as stakeholders are becoming increasingly sensitive towards social and environmental issues (Murray & Vogel, 1997). As CSR has been traditionally associated with doing positive actions, it is also considered as attempting to avoid negative outcomes from happening to prevent corporate social irresponsibility (CSI). CSI can be defined as "corporate actions that result in (potential) disadvantages and/or harm to other actors" (Lin-Hi & Muller, 2013, p. 1932). Therefore, it could be argued that CSR can be seen as a strategy that an organization uses to mitigate against potential or occurred CSR issues, in order to maintain positive consumer's attitude towards the firm (Simonin and Ruth, 1998), because they cannot guarantee a CSR issue will not happen again in the future.

Despite the extensive research conducted in CSR (Wagner et al., 2009), there is a lack of research in the role of three variables converging at the same time: First, inoculation messages, which involves "exposing individuals to a weak attack on their beliefs about an attitude object along with arguments countering the attack" (Einwiller & Johar, 2013, p.2), in order to reduce perceptions of corporate hypocrisy (Wagner et al., 2009). Second, consumer's involvement, which is defined as "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests" (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342). In this case, if customers identify with a particular organization's CSR cause, they tend to get more involved with it, as compared to if they do not identify with the cause. And third, the number of times CSR issues have occurred in the past. It could be argued that the more times a certain CSR issue has occurred, the less likely the customer will believe the organization's message, leading to a change of attitude towards the firm. Thus, the current research suggests that these three variables (inoculation messages, consumer's involvement, and the number of past issues) are relevant constructs which explains customers' attitude towards after a CRS issue occurs.

Theoretical Background

Previous research has shown that attitudes are fairly stable psychological constructs (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). According to Simonin and Ruth (1998) the pre-existing attitudes the customers have towards the brand (firm) will be associated to attitudes following exposure towards the same brand (firm). Therefore, it could be argued that if the customers believe that the organization is devoted to CSR causes, this attitude will remain constant if the organization remains devoted to its previous cause. However, if the organization suffers from a CSR issue, this may result in changes of customers' attitudes towards the organization due to these new issues. Furthermore, according to information integration theory (Anderson, 1981), attitudes are developed and altered as individuals obtain, understand, assess, and then incorporate stimulus information with their existing attitudes. Drawing on attitude theory (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), the aim of the study is to examine the effects of customer's attitudes towards an organization's use of inoculation strategies to solve potential or occurred CSR issues. Furthermore, this study aims to demonstrate the effects of both customers' involvement and number of times a CSR issue has occurred on the given relationship.

Methodology

A 3 (CSR issue: natural environment vs. employee treatment vs. national economy) x 2 (inoculation message: proactive vs. reactive) x 2 (Involvement: stronger vs. weaker) x 2 (Number of past CSR issues: twice vs. more than twice) between-subject lab experimental design will be adopted. A web-based survey will be sent to 455 participants from Amazon's Mechanical Turk who will be randomly assigned to the different scenarios. Participants will be given three statements and asked to rank their own personal involvement in the three CSR issues: the natural environment

(reduction of wastage that are potentially harming the environment), employee treatment (organization's inclination to provide all employees with healthcare services), and support of national economy (organization's willingness to produce domestically rather than outsourcing abroad) (Wagner et al., 2009). If a participant ranks, for example, environment as being most important issue from them, in the high involvement case, they will be assigned for the rest of the questionnaire to the scenarios and manipulations involving the environment. If assigned to low involvement, they will be assigned to one of the two alternative CSR issues scenarios and manipulations. Next, the participants will supposedly be taking part in a different study based on Xanaloo (a fictitious multinational corporation).

Participants will then be randomly allocated to different conditions where the inoculation message and the number of times the CSR issue occurs is manipulated. For inoculation message, two conditions will be used; proactive (organization's efforts to broadcast a message to position itself as being socially responsible before any CSR issue happens (Wagner et al., 2009)) and reactive (organization undergoes a CSR issue of socially careless behavior and then puts out a statement to protect their image after the fact (Murray & Vogel, 1997)). In regards to the number of times a CSR issue has occurred, the participants will be given a newspaper article (the behavior), which will include the number of times a CSR issue has occurred. Next, the participants will be shown different messages to determine which CSR issue they are more involved with and care about. For a proactive inoculation strategy scenario, participants will be shown the organization's inoculation message following the newspaper article (with the number of times a CSR issue has occurred). For a reactive inoculation strategy, participants will be shown the newspaper article, followed by the organization's inoculation message. Participants, after reading the scenario, will indicate their attitudes towards the firm using a seven point bipolar scale adopted from Wagner et al., (2009).

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Summary Brief

Customers' Perceived Value towards Different Levels of Customization

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In recent years, focus on customization has been increased. Some customers perceive customized products as a closer fit of their needs. However, some customer may prefer not to customize products that have high-risks. Moreover, different level of customization may lead to different level of customers' perception of value. These issues will be addressed in this study by (a) defining low and high level of customization and its effect on customers' perceived value (b) examining the moderating role of customer's participation level in customization process and the level of product risk they perceived.

Introduction

Over the past decades, specific attention toward marketing strategy of customization has grown. Philip Kotler (1989) states that "mass market" is dead and "segmentation has now progressed to the era of mass customization", therefore, marketers know that they should focus on individual customers' needs rather than target wide variety of customers. The advent of the Internet has increased the practical importance of customization. Many companies have started offering customized products by providing websites and enabling customers to participate in designing what they need such as laptops, watches, T-shirts, or sneakers (Franke, Schreier, and Kaiser 2010).

Creating value through customization for customers is essential if companies seek to build successful long-term relationship (Franke, Keinz, and Steger 2009). Customization can be strategic value for firms as it creates customer loyalty (Ghosh, Dutta, and Stremersch 2006), purchase intention, and positive attitude toward customized products (Franke et al. 2009), which increases sales revenue. However, some researches have questioned the advantages of customization because first, customers do not participate effectively in customization process (e.g., Simonson 2005; Wind and Rangaswamy 2001). Second, customized products might be risky as they would not be close to what customers customize and order (Ghosh, Dutta, and Stremersch 2006).

The aim of this study is not to investigate why customers prefer customized products rather than standard ones but to explain what factors make more value for customers when they choose to buy customized products. I believe that customized products may provide superior value if customers (1) participate in customization process effectively, and (2) could reduce the risk of the product they receive.

Theoretical Background

Researchers have paid more attention to perceived customer value as a critical factor in pre-purchase and post-purchase behavior (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1985). Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991) develop a theoretical framework of customers' perception of value, suggesting social, emotional, functional, epistemic and conditional value as different dimensions of perceived value, which have different contributions. This research examines social and emotional dimension of perceived value, as I only investigate on pre-purchase evaluation of customization.

I propose that customization process could be divided into two levels. Low level of customization happens when companies offer some options to customers. In high level of customization, in addition to what offered to customers, they can offer and design a product completely. Controlling over the customization process can decrease such risks, as well as, it can make its own risks (Etgar 2008). Simonson, Kramer, and Young (2004) propose that when customers face low-risk, low-return and high-risk, high-return options, they have a tendency to select products that have lower risks. Therefore, I hypothesize that high level of customization creates more value for customers and leads to high level of customer participation. The relationship between customizing a product and customers' perceived value will be stronger for customers that have higher level of participation and for products that have lower perceived risks. Moreover, Return policy moderates the moderating role of perceived risk such that easy way to return products facilitates customizing high-risk products leading high level of customization to be perceived as having higher customers' perception of value.

Methodology

I will employ a 2 (low vs. high level of customization) \times 2 (low vs. high perceived risk) \times 2 (liberal vs. restrictive procedure) between subjects. Customer participation and perceived value will be measured by scale items. Data will be collected from customers, who have previous experience in customizing a product.

Participants will be randomly assigned to eight different conditions. They will be asked to read the scenario and then complete the scale. In low level of customization, participants will be asked to imagine they want to design a watch. In this condition, the toolkit will allow them to choose among options offered by the company. On the other hand, in high level of customization, in addition to options offered by the company, participants can offer what they desire by uploading a picture for background, writing a note on strap and creating new design (Franke, Schreier, and Kaiser 2010). In low-risk condition, the company guarantees customers will receive exactly what they design and order. Whereas, in high-risk condition, customers will be responsible for the watch they customize. Moreover, participants will be exposed to different return policy. In liberal return procedure, they can return customized watch in a simple way within long time period. In contrast, participants will face difficult steps to return within a short time period in restrictive return procedure. Structural equation modeling (SEM) and MANOVA will be used to analyze the data.

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**SESSION 9.9: INTERNATIONAL BRANDING AND MARKETING
SEGMENT**

Chair:
John Branch, University of Michigan

Summary Brief

An Exploration of Brand Biographies in India

John Branch, University of Michigan, U.S.A.

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A brand biography, not unlike a human biography, chronicles a brand's emergence, its experiences, and its evolution. We speculated that brand biographies might be influenced by culture. To test this speculation, we explored the brand biographies of fifty companies in India, across a variety of industries, using a grounded theory approach. We identified six brand biography patterns, which seemingly reflect three core cultural values of Indian society.

Introduction

In 2010, Avery et al. introduced the concept of brand biography “to describe an emerging trend in branding in which firms author a dynamic, historical account of the events that have shaped the brand over time” (p. 213). A brand biography, therefore, not unlike a human biography, chronicles the brand's emergence, its experiences, and its evolution. We speculated, however, that brand biographies might be influenced by culture. Indeed, do different cultural-historical factors render different storylines, different tropes, different motifs? Consequently, we explored the brand biographies of fifty companies in India, across a variety of industries, using a grounded theory approach.

Research Methodology

The research followed a grounded theory methodology. We began by searching for companies with Google using several search terms: brand, brand position, brand positioning, brand history, brand story, brand philosophy, brand biography, and corporate brand. This search occurred concurrently with the data collection and data analysis procedures. In the end, the search resulted in fifty companies from across a variety of industries, including pharmaceuticals, agricultural, textiles, consumer packaged goods (CPG), infrastructure, power, and logistics.

Data collection was limited to online sources only, primarily the official websites of the companies and their subsidiaries. But we also collected data from non-company websites such as MBA skool, LinkedIn, and Scribd; business blogs; and business portals such as Economic Times, Rediff Business, NDTV Profit, and VC Circle. And we incorporated data from company videos on YouTube and Vimeo.

The data analysis occurred in two separate but inter-related phases. First, we analysed the data at the individual company—or emic—level, the purpose of which was to uncover the meaning of the brand biography of an individual company. The second phase of the data analysis moved up to the cultural level. Its goal was to understand the distinct pattern (or patterns) of meanings of the brand biographies across the fifty companies.

Finally, in order to lend credibility to the research, and to elevate the trustworthiness or believability of the results of the data analysis procedures, we employed two common verification methods: triangulation and auditing. First, we drew on multiple data sources, a variety of information types, and two researchers. Second, we called on two auditors who were both active at the time conducting grounded theory research, and who together had knowledge of and experience with a variety of research methods, to scrutinise the research methodology and the research results, suggestions about which led to several changes in substance and narrative.

Brand Biography Patterns

The result of the second phase of the data analysis was the identification of six brand biography patterns across the fifty companies: 1. struggle, 2. humble beginnings, 3. social impact, 4. inspiration, 5. fraternalism, and 6. championship. Struggle, refers to the struggle of establishing and operating the company. It encompasses the notion of failure, a seemingly necessary experience in the run-up to the company's success. It emphasises the resolve—the determination, the ‘stick-to-it-ness’—which was required of the company in order to not only survive but thrive. And it points to the hardship, challenges, and misfortunes which were part and parcel of launching and running the company.

We also identified the brand biography pattern of humble beginnings across the fifty companies in India. Indeed, the words humble, modest, and small were used frequently, and often in the opening sentences of a brand biography, in order to highlight the unassuming genesis of the company. The humble beginnings of the company are often characterised by small spaces, limited mechanical resources, and petty amounts of cash. They also often include references to narrow by-lanes of city neighbourhoods, or to ‘backwater’ Indian villages.

The ambition by a company to achieve greater social impact is the third brand biography pattern which we identified across the fifty companies in India. Social impact was mostly typified by ‘people over profits’—the quest by a company to develop Indian society, at the expense of financial gain. Social impact also captures the notion of nationhood, the building of which many companies claim to have contributed. And social impact points to human rights which, many companies insist, is a fundamental reason for their existence.

The fourth brand biography pattern which we identified across the fifty companies in India is inspiration. A prototypical brand biography with this pattern often begins with an introduction of the founders of the company, underlining their role as visionaries. Inspiration was also linked to curiosity, and in some cases stoked images of the swashbuckling entrepreneur who is bold, daring, and fearless.

Fraternalism—of brotherly friendship and actual brotherhood—is the fifth brand biography pattern which we identified across the fifty companies in India. Indeed, several companies were started by brothers or by close friends, and their brand biographies highlight these relationships. The sixth and final brand biography pattern which we identified across the fifty companies in India is championship. It refers to a company claim’s of market leadership. It highlights a company’s achievement of some feat. Or it points to a company’s successful industry innovation.

Discussion

Our inkling—in line with our speculation that brand biographies might be influenced by culture—is that the meanings of the six brand biographies which we identified across the fifty companies in India, are culturally-bound. It ought not to be surprising that the brand biographies of the fifty companies in India which we sampled resonated so strongly, even emotionally, with Suhina (and much less so with John). After some contemplation, Suhina realised that the reason for these feelings which the brand biographies generated is that they reflect three core cultural values of Indian society: Tyaga (sacrifice), Upeksha (tolerance), and Parivarik (familial).

Tyaga (as an adjective tyagana) is a Sanskrit word which means sacrifice, renunciation, resignation, abandonment, donation, forsaking, withdrawal. In the Bhagavad Gita, for example, it is suggested that “those who relinquish the fruits of their actions are said to be truly renounced” (Chapter 18, Verse 11). But unlike sannyasa, which suggests relinquishing everything or withdrawing entirely, tyaga is often more about giving up something with generosity...something which could have been kept (Fowler, 2012). Tyaga has also been adopted into Hindi, and is used colloquially to suggest withdrawal, renunciation of the common ways of life, abstention from the rules, and liberality.

A second core cultural value of Indian society which is reflected in the brand biographies of the fifty companies in India which we sampled is Upeksha. It suggests forbearance, tolerance, patience, fortitude, and endurance, and is linked closely to the word vinamrita (humility). Upeksha is rooted deeply in Indian faiths and practices. Buddhism, for example, whose origins date to sometime between the 6th and 4th centuries BCE, preaches compassion, tolerance, humility, and forgiveness. The Ramayana, an ancient Indian epic poem, tells the story of Indian lord Ram, who struggled for nine years to rescue his wife Sita from a demon king. And the Dalai Lama was recently quoted as saying “India is the best example of religious tolerance”.

Parivarik refers to the familial bonds within India society. Indeed, look closely into any Indian household, and the links between people are perceptible. These links often extend beyond immediate family members to include friends and neighbours, who are given the titles of chachaji (uncle), chachiji (aunt), bhaiya (brother), or didi (sister). Parivarik is particularly notable in Indian movies, including Kabhi Khushi Kabhi Gham, Slumdog Millionaire, and even the latest Oscar nominee Lion. Many brand biographies of the fifty companies in India which we sampled spoke, explicitly or implicitly, of parivarik.

Conclusion

This research was triggered by the speculation that brand biographies might be influenced by culture. And indeed, the results support our inkling that culture matters...that brand biographies are culture specific. From a theoretical perspective, these results intimate that a brand biography reveals the nuances—the vernacular, the beliefs, the unwritten rules—of the cultural milieu within which it was written. The practical implication is that marketers might be able to connect with customers by leveraging culture-specific brand biographies which resonate with them.

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Company	Industry	Year of Founding	HQ
A V Thomas & Co. Ltd/ AVT Natural Products Ltd	CPG	1925	Kerala, India
Amrutanjan Healthcare	Healthcare	1893	Chennai, India
Bajaj Group	Automotive	1926	Maharashtra, India
Dr. Reddy's	Healthcare	1984	Hyderabad, India
Bonn Group of Industries	CPG	1985	Ludhiana, India
CavinKare	CPG	1983	Tamil Nadu, India
HUL	CPG	1933	Maharashtra, India
Raymond Limited	Textile	1925	Maharashtra, India
Tata Power Limited	Infrastructure	1911	Maharashtra, India
Tata Steel Limited	Infrastructure	1907	Maharashtra, India
Tata Salt	CPG	1983	Maharashtra, India
Ajanta Soya Ltd	Agro based Products	1992	New Delhi, India
Falcon Freight	Transportation	1989	New Delhi, India
LT Foods	Agro based Products	1990	Gurgaon, India
Parle Agro Private Limited	CPG	1984	Mumbai, India
Dabur India Limited	CPG	1884	Ghaziabad, India
REI Agro Limited	Agro based Products	1996	New Delhi, India
Amar Remedies Ltd (Swami Aushadalya Ltd)	Health Care	1984	Mumbai, India
Amul	Agro based Products	1946	Anand, India
Zydus Wellness	Health Care	1994	Ahmedabad, India
ANS Limited or Ans Agro Industries Limited	CPG	1994	Delhi, India
Godrej Consumer Products Limited	CPG	1987 (as a part of the Godrej Group)	Maharashtra, India
Jaypee Group	Infrastructure	1979	Noida, India
Escorts Group	Industrial	1960	Haryana, India
GMR Group	Infrastructure	1978	Karnataka, India
ADF Foods Limited	CPG	1932	Maharashtra, India
Vardhman Textiles Limited	Textiles	1973	Punjab, India
Bombay Dyeing	Textiles	1879	Maharashtra, India
Nirma Limited	CPG	1990	Gujarat, India
ITC FMCG	CPG	1910	West Bengal, India
Britannia Industries Limited	CPG	1997	Kolkata, India

Company	Industry	Year of Founding	HQ
Haldiram's	CPG	1937	New Delhi,, India
Pidilite Industries Limited	Adhesive Manufacturing Company	1959	Maharashtra, India
Himalaya Welness	CPG	1930's	Karnataka, India
Jyothy Laboratories Limited	CPG	1983	Maharashtra, India
Kohinoor Foods Limited / Satnam Overseas Limited	CPG	1976	Delhi, India
Asian Paints	Paint Company	1942	Maharashtra, India
Bikano/ Bikanervala	CPG	1950	New Delhi, India
KRBL Limited	Agro based industries	1889	Noida, India
Arvind Limited	Textile Company	1931	Gujarat, India
Emami Limited	CPG	1974	Kolkata, India
CTC Freight Carriers Limited	Transportation	2002	Mumbai, India
Cipla	Pharmaceutical	1935	Mumbai, India
Reliance Industries Limited	Conglomerate-Transportation/Power	1966	Mumbai, India
Ador Group	Industrial Infrastructure	1908	Mumbai, India
Aditya Birla Group	Industrial	1857	Mumbai, India
Amartex	Textiles	1988	Haryana, India
Ambuja Cement	Industrial	1983	Gujarat, India

Summary Brief

An International Examination of Private Sector Perspectives on City Brand Architectures

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This research examines private-sector stakeholders' views on city brand architectures and overall strategic city brand management in two cities, one in the United States and one in Germany. The results reveal that private sector leaders in both countries perceive a city to have a house of brands architecture if a different architecture is not intentionally managed. It additionally finds that private stakeholders perceive a branded house architecture as the city brand architecture with the greatest social and economic benefits. The exploratory analysis examines private stakeholders' intentions to financially support a single brand identify for a branded house architecture and the factors influencing these intentions. It also examines private stakeholders' views on factors influencing the success of a single brand identity for a city and views on the specific potential outcomes of overall strategic city brand management.

Introduction

Cities compete on an increasingly global basis to attract and keep businesses and individuals that can help sustain their economy and culture (Zenker et al, 2013), and cities of all sizes increasingly seek best practices for designing and implementing marketing strategies, particularly with regard to branding (Lucarelli and Berg, 2011; Kavartzis et al, 2015). A city brand architecture is one of several brand related concepts, such as brand image, brand identity, brand experience, brand communication, and positioning and equity, which are considered important concepts in city branding (Hankinson, 2015). City brand architecture is defined as “the process of designing and managing portfolios of the brands owned by communities associated with the place” (Hanna and Rowley, 2015a, p. 88).

Literature Review

The three general architecture structures are a branded house, a mixed form, and a house of brands. A branded house is a corporate dominant brand structure in which all products primarily utilize the corporation's brand markers, such as logos and brand names (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000). The dominant brand is referred to as a corporate brand or umbrella brand (Laforet and Saunders, 2005). At the other end of the spectrum is a house of brands structure (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000). This structure is dominated by product brands, where a corporation markets various product offerings as unique brands, with very little or no reference to a corporate or umbrella brand (Laforet and Saunders, 2005). In the middle are hybrid or mixed forms (Laforet and Saunders, 2005; Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000). Mixed forms retain some degree of reference to the umbrella brand while also utilizing brand markings that are unique to each product.

Research Hypotheses and Questions

The following hypotheses and research questions were formulated:

H1: In the absence of a clearly articulated city brand architecture, private sector leaders perceive that a house of brands architecture describes their city more than does a branded house architecture or mixed brand architecture.

H2: Private sector leaders perceive the (a) economic benefits and (b) social benefits of a branded house architecture as being higher than those of a house of brands architecture and a mixed brand architecture.

RQ 1: What factors might influence private-sector leaders' intentions to monetarily support a single distinct brand identity to act as an umbrella brand for the city?

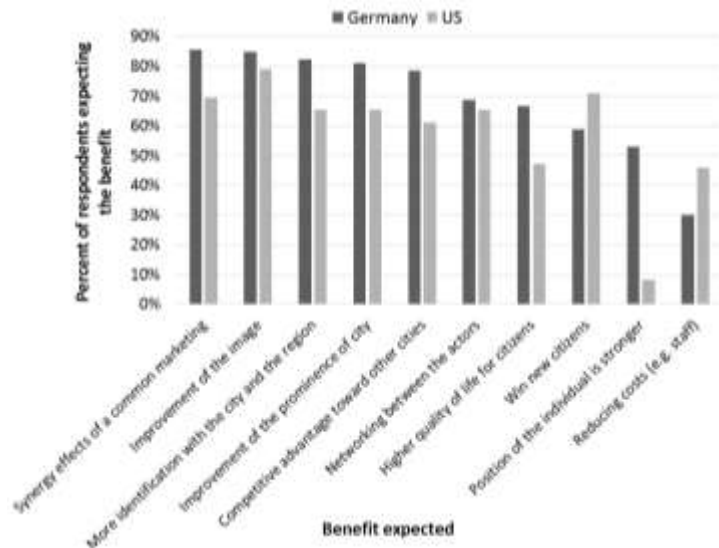
RQ 2: What specific benefits do private-sector leaders expect their city to realize if it adopts a strategic brand management approach?

Results

Data was collected from business leaders from two cities, one in Germany and one in the US. The cities were of comparable sizes, and the final sample sizes were 142 and 72 respectively. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported and

the results reveal that although house of brands was the predominant city brand architecture, business leaders in both countries believe that a branded house will result in higher economic and social benefits. In the US, business leaders would be willing to help financially a city brand architecture if it would contribute to more economic benefits. On the other hand, the expected social benefits appear to lower the odds for financial support. In Germany the motivation for financial support was different: business leaders would support financially a city brand architecture in larger cities and in the presence of large local companies. Finally, business leaders expect to see the benefits in Figure 1 if their city adopts proactively a brand management approach.

Figure 1: Expected Benefits for a City Adopting a Strategic Brand Management Approach



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Full Paper

Cause Related Market Segment Alienation

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In an effort to be socially responsible firms provide support to causes that fit their mission and promote a positive corporate responsibility appearance thus, gaining market share, sales, and ultimately profits. What is less known are the effects of selecting causes do not have universally agreed upon public support. This research examines the practice of cause-related marketing (C-RM) and the effects of creating alienated market segments as a result of associating with polarizing social causes. In doing so we explore brand implications resulting from strategically aligning with causes that evoke strong emotional reactions or have controversial socio-political agendas for the purpose of attracting like-minded market segments. Promoting a controversial cause risks alienating market segments that hold opposing social views or support alternative causes. The negative effects from consumer alienation are theorized to impair brand equity, diminished brand loyalty, and reduced community engagement reflecting alienated market segment disenfranchisement.

Introduction

Cause-related marketing (C-RM) was first identified in practice by American Express during the early 1980s as a viable tool that could harness basic marketing principles to help address social issues (Carroll 2013; Gourville and Rangan 2004). However it likely owes its origin as does corporate social responsibility (CSR) to early work in the field of social marketing by Farley and Leavitt (1971), Kotler and Zaltman (1971), and the others who participated in the July, 1971, Journal of Marketing issue, edited by Eugene Kelly that focused on social marketing and, as he eludes, the segmentation of markets in accordance to the “consumer-citizen concept” (Kelley 1971, p. 1).

Today popular culture is largely defined by commercial brands which provide normalcy as they have become an inseparable feature of popular culture. They help provide support and confirm the social identity of their users and as such come to hold a place of meaning to the markets they serve. If however the brand’s identity contradicts with one’s self-identity then the natural reaction would be to reject the brand and all it represents culturally. Therefore, firms have gradually come to realize greater social impact as they provide solutions to customer needs while balancing the goal of returning to the shareholder profits and society solutions to its troubles.

Since American Express’s strategic adoption of C-RM many firms have increasingly used the marketing function to promote worthy social causes such as curing diseases like AIDS (Fischer 2012), feeding the hungry with programs such as the “Dine Out for No Kid Hungry” campaign (Caggiano 2013), supplying safe drinking water in India with the Unilever “Swachh Aadat, Swachh Bharat” campaign (Nair 2016), supplying clothing and wearables like Toms shoes (Naeini et al. 2015), and building awareness for sex-trafficking with Tinder’s pairing with advertising agencies to show the effects of sex trafficking (Berman 2014). These examples provide a small sample of the innovative approaches taken by organizations to pursue profit objectives in concert with social objectives.

By the involvement of business in social causes government organizations, NGOs and traditional charities have generally welcomed the financial support, distribution capabilities, innovation and the ability to generate awareness. However, while society benefits as a whole from a focused effort to solve social problems for-profit firms also benefit from such involvement. It helps them relate to specific market segments by humanizing their product or brand. Certainly, these are outcomes any firm would hope to achieve as reward for the good work performed to solve a social problem. However a darker side of C-RM exists. Some profit-driven firms that compete in aggressive, competitive industries specifically build C-RM into their business plan for less-than altruistic reasons. Beyond ‘feel-good’ experiences firms seek to manage their public image, build a brand concept, and align their image with that of profitable market segments.

An aggressive and risky application of C-RM is the support of causes that are not universally accepted such as gay marriage rights, abortion, gun ownership, and immigration protocol in the United States. Given the appropriate social context many social causes have proponents and detractors. In an effort to stake out an avant-garde position a firm could position itself in front of progressive social causes yet by doing so they run the risk of following a trend that eventually never materializes. Conversely a firm that fails to embrace an emerging trend could be misidentifying a legitimate change their market is making leaving them vulnerable to competitors who are more nimble, flexible and

willing to accept a new social paradigm. If a firm supports such a cause they implicitly position or align their brand with that of the causes' supporters while distancing themselves from its detractors. This research examines how cause-related marketing can effect brand image and ultimately loyalty, commitment, positive word of mouth, and intention to buy in the context of polarizing social causes.

Background

Cause-related marketing (C-RM) was originally defined as a firm activity where financial contributions are made to a designated cause on behalf of customers who engage in revenue-producing transactions with the firm (Varadarajan and Menon 1988). More recently it has been defined as "a commercial activity in which businesses and charities form a partnership with each other to market an image or product, for mutual benefit" (Demetriou, Pappasolomu and Vrontis 2010, p. 268). Research in C-RM has sought to measure the effect of C-RM on feelings toward the firm, product, charity being supported (Berger Cunningham and Kozinets 1996; Ross, Patterson and Stutts 1992), purchase intention, brand switching (Smith and Alcorn 1991), and price premiums (Krishna and Rajan 2009). Also it has been investigated in the context of gender, negative public relations events (Creyer and Ross 1996; Ross, Patterson and Stutts 1992), and luxury products versus necessities (Strahilevitz and Meyers 1998). The many benefits of C-RM include improved competitive advantage (Porter and Kramer 2002), improved reputation (Demetriou, Pappasolomu and Vrontis 2010), customer retention and positive brand perception (Crane, Matten and Moon 2004), increased affinity toward brand, brand equity, loyalty and purchase behavior (Mottram 1998).

Brand-Cause Congruence

Describing C-RM as a corporate strategy Drumwright (1996) provides three guidelines that outline the adoption of a cause marketing campaign. First, firms should plan to commit to C-RM initiatives over a long period of time. Second, every member of the firm should buy-in to the initiative and that it not be merely a top-management directive. Third, the cause should logically fit within the industry or product-market of the firm. That is, the cause should hold genuine meaning to the stakeholders of the firm for whom the firm sincerely wishes to help. Conversely, relationships between firms and causes that pose a negative fit should be avoided especially if the for-profit mission is in conflict with that of the non-profit (Gourville and Rangan 2004).

Such congruence is reinforced by the relationship formed among the firm, the cause, and the customer. Such a unique pairing or fit among the three creates an enduring point of differentiation leading to a competitive advantage for the firm (Grau and Folsi 2007; Demetriou, Pappasolomu and Vrontis 2010). Moreover, such compatibility has been shown to moderate the relationship between cause related activity and positive consumer feelings toward the firm. In an effort to strengthen stakeholder relationships Adkins (2005) suggests that C-RM provides a viable method to demonstrate a firm's commitment to the evolving social needs of its constituents while such activities also create positive association linkages between the firm and the cause(s) it supports (Pringle and Thompson 1999). As a result when the firm supports a cause that resonates with a profitable market segment they help alleviate a social problem while creating loyal, brand aware customers who enjoy being part of a social solution (Ellen, Mohr and Webb 2000; Landreth, Pirsch, and Garrison 2004; Smith and Stodghill 1994).

Cultural branding (Holt 2004) is the practice of developing brand associations with social elements so that meaning-imbued brands become synonymous with a social movement or political position. The effect of culturally branding is an alignment between consumers and firms social mission (Kravets 2012). Brands that do so come to represent consumer's own passions and by participating with the brand consumers feel they are engaging in the social cause to help promote and financially support it.

Relatedly, self-congruency theory suggests that consumers compare their self-concept with the image that a brand projects and, in turn, preferred brands are those that are consistent with the consumer's self-concept (Parker 2009; Sirgy 1982). It follows that if a consumer and firm follow the same social causes then they will share self-concept ideals. Many studies have found supporting evidence for this consumer-brand congruence effect (Dolich 1969; Ericksen and Sirgy 1992; Gould 1991; Heath and Scott 1998; Hong and Zinkhan 1995). Moreover, the emotional tie consumer's form with brands extends to brand attachment and loyalty. Brand attachment happens when an affective bond is formed and the brand becomes a part of one's self, thus establishing a 'cognitive link' between the two (Park et al. 2010, p. 2). Research suggests that self-brand connections (SBCs) increases emotional brand attachment (Escalas 2004; Malär, Krohmer, Hoyer, and Nyffenegger 2011). Such emotions as love, anger, hope joy and excitement demonstrate a strong association with brand attachment (Flight and Coker 2016). Therefore, if a consumer expresses strong feelings toward a cause supported by a specific brand the same affective response transfers accordingly to the brand they associate with the cause.

Consumer Alienation

Alienation refers to a sense of psychological self-estrangement from society and culture. Karl Marx initially argued that humans come to a state of alienation when they are so absorbed in their work they disengage from others and lose sense of their surroundings. Expounding on the idea of social isolation, Fromm (1955) defined alienation as a social experience whereupon people sense themselves as strangers or aliens. Moreover alienation in the social sciences is examined as a psychological state of mind which is reflected by individual's attitudes and feelings (Clark 1959) and includes a sense of disownment or estrangement from the culture in which one belongs (Nettler 1957). It is also studied in behavioral modeling as an intermediate psychological state between social or cultural conditions and behavior that includes social withdrawal and self-isolation (Shuptrine, Pruden, and Longman 1977). Finally, Lambert (1981) contends that alienation helps explain disaffection, disgruntlement, deviance, and other feelings of isolation.

To examine social alienation many researchers call on original work by Melvin Seeman (1959, 1975) who identifies five components of social alienation including powerlessness, normlessness, meaninglessness, isolation, and self-estrangement. Seeman (1959) brought forward the notion of modern alienation as the discrepancy between personal expectations and reward. Dean (1961) added to the literature by applying his scale to a higher order construct consisting of powerlessness, normlessness and isolation.

Factors said to affect social alienation include demographics such as age and relationship status (Burns 2011), education (Neal and Groat 1974), ethnicity (Amyx, Bristow and Schneider 2004), and the emotional traits of loneliness (Cacioppo and Patrick 2008), anxiety, guilt, and negative feelings (Kim 2014). Meanwhile consequences of alienation include work absenteeism, turnover, alcoholism, drug use and other social deviations (Shuptrine, Pruden and Longman 1977). Given the significant social implications alienation has been studied from multiple perspectives including employment, politics, religion, the military, and education (Blauner 1964; Dean 1960; Olson 1969; Shuptrine, Pruden, and Longman 1977; Photodias and Biggar 1962; Thompson and Horton 1960). Interestingly, from the consumer perspective recent increases in social contact and relationship networking behavior through digital and social media have not been found to solve social exclusion and other related social isolation issues (Duclos, Wan and Jaing 2013). Relatedly, social exclusion is the state of being alone, isolated, or ostracized by other individual or social group. Being deprived of social acceptance can have significant impact on one's psychological well-being. Social exclusion can lead to aggression, decreased helping behavior, and desire not conform (Baumeister et al. 2005). Wan Xu and Ding (2013) suggest that when people possess a strong self-image or feel personally unique they will seek products that strengthen their self-image or personal view of themselves to reflect their unique self. This happens as a result of a coping mechanism in reaction to social exclusion. Therefore, it is well within the power of an alienated, or estranged individual to choose self-identity or pity and experience the negative effects of social exclusion. Its application to consumers is focused on the idea that markets by their nature exclude consumers for whom the product is not suited or who cannot afford the product. Consumer alienation generally occurs when the consumer fails to realize that a firm's product offering is not intended for them which they interpret to mean that they are to be excluded from the brand community fostered by the firm. Such feelings encourage the consumer toward cultural estrangement which pertains to a dislike for many of the trappings of a culture particularly those that mirror the tastes and values of the masses (Nettler 1957; Seeman 1959). As one feels greater alienation from a market it affects their participation as a result of the degree to which they feel alienated (Johnson 1995).

Research Study

Objectives

This study investigates the role self-concept plays in drawing individuals toward or away from brands that use cause-related marketing to align with social causes that either support or refute the individual's social views. The goal of this research is to examine the effect C-RM activities have on producing consumer alienation and the net effect such alienation has on firm-consumer relationships, consumer behavior and brand performance. It should be noted that while the risk of alienating specific market segments by supporting socially provocative causes exists the firm also stands to gain by attracting market segments that are sympathetic to the cause. Therefore, strategic choices made in cause selection have considerable implications for long-term sales, brand equity, customer loyalty, and brand community engagement. In this study we examine the effect the degree to which personal belief and cause congruence (or alignment) has on attraction and alienation to a product.

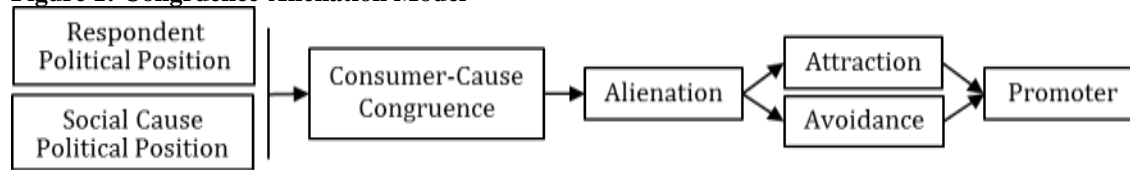
Outlined earlier we rely on self-congruency theory to suggest that consumers compare their self-concept with the image that a brand projects and, in turn, preferred brands are those that are consistent with the consumer's self-concept (Parker 2009; Sirgy 1982). We further postulate that if both a consumer and firm concern themselves with the same social causes they will share self-concept ideals supporting the consumer-brand congruence effect. Furthermore, the bond formed between consumer and brand (product) as a result of shared social interests will extend positively to

attraction, promotion and ultimately purchase intention. The theoretical model conceived in this study illustrates a direct positive relationship between self and social cause congruency and alienation followed by a direct path to feelings of attraction and avoidance which then result in a behavioral outcome which in this case is product promotion.

To summarize the effect alienation has on consumers we propose the following theoretical model. (Figure 1) Alienation is expected to be the outcome of an inconsistent or incongruent relationship between self-image and brand-image. The effect of alienation we measure in this study is avoidance and attraction behavior, which in turn leads to the consumer's likelihood to promote the product or brand to others. Prompting the following hypotheses:

- H1:** Consumer-Cause congruence and alienation are negatively related.
- H2a-b:** Alienation and attraction to product are negatively related while alienation and avoidance of product are positively related.
- H3a-b:** Attraction to product and product promotion are positively related while alienation and product promotion are negatively related.

Figure 1: Congruence-Alienation Model



To operationalize and then measure incongruence we use political and social causes. Webb and Mohr (1998) conduct qualitative research that measures political philosophy and attitude toward C-RM activities toward both the firm and charitable organization. In their research they identify one group of participants as skeptics whose view of C-RM activities was generally negative and appeared to be predisposed toward distrust of C-RM offers. Driving these feelings is uncertainty that the firm would follow-through and make a contribution to the charity, a perceived triviality of the monetary amount being donated, a discrepancy between what the firm would benefit in comparison to what the charity might gain, and finally a sense of consumer manipulation leading to an overarching sense that the firm was taking advantage of consumer and the charity underlies the distrust this consumer has for the firm.

Method

The design of the study first requires a measurement elements of the consumer's self-concept which is then compared to a social cause that has been adopted by a hypothetical firm. Once this comparison is formed the degree of consumer-cause congruence may be estimated which then is used to explain feelings of alienation and in-turn leads to negative product relationship consequences. To operationalize consumer-cause congruence we measure and compare the political attitude of each subject to several common social causes that have political connotations. In an important step we associate each social cause with a fictitious product. Therefore, we call on an associative linkage to be made between the social cause and the product such that the product's image is reflected by the cause it supports. Through this two-step association the respondent can compare their political position (self-concept) to that of the products as a result of the social cause association.

The data collection was performed through an online survey. Subjects first responded to scales measuring their liberal and conservative political position then they read four scenarios involving products that were actively supporting social causes. The causes were very carefully selected so that they varied by type of cause (animal, health, environment, human services) and political position (liberal, conservative). Therefore, a 4 x 2 design was created using eight different scenarios. Respondents were randomly assigned to read four of the eight scenarios ensuring that they saw one of each social cause type. In addition, the political position of each treatment was also rotated so that two of each respondent's scenarios were pro-liberal and two were pro-conservative. By doing so the manipulation was developed to create (and measure) feelings of both alienation and attraction. Upon reading each scenario the respondents then answered a series of questions that measured the degree to which they were drawn to (attracted) the product, pushed away from (avoidance) the product, felt alienated, and would promote the product.

As noted earlier the cause a firm selects to endorse has significant implications. Lafferty and Edmonson (2013) find that four types of causes are most likely to be the focus of C-RM campaigns; personal health, human services, animal rights, and environmental activism. The personal health category includes health-related issues such as disease control, birth defects, and personal health ailments. Human service causes include issues that involve how people live and crises that must be managed such as disaster assistance, reducing crime and homelessness. Animal causes are

those associated with the protection and preservation of animal interests and rights. Finally, Environmental causes include issues with preserving and protecting the natural state of environmental concern (aside from animals) such as ocean protection, saving rainforests, preventing forest fires, and reducing negative atmosphere chemicals.

Given that each scenario incorporates a different social cause and is viewed as a treatment or condition of the study we conducted a pilot test to measure where a specific position regarding each social cause fell upon a liberal-conservative continuum. Our first goal in doing so was to be able to select causes that differed significantly across the liberal-conservative spectrum and our second goal was to ascertain a measure for each cause that could then be used to form the consumer-cause congruence measure. In all 20 causes were evaluated by 96 respondents. The respondents were undergraduate seniors and master's level students (49% female, 22.54 years old, 37% Republican, 25% Democrat, 38% no party affiliation). The respondents were simply asked to consider a position relating to a cause and identify on a 7 point staple scale using bi-polar anchors if they viewed the position to be more liberal or conservative. The scores that resulted from this test produced a wide range from -1.72 to 1.76 which represent the most liberal position to the most conservative. In choosing the appropriate study positions we wanted causes that possessed fairly even counter-balanced positions illustrated by marriage rights, abortion, animal preservation, and energy exploitation. (see, Table 1)

Table 1: Social Cause Item Bank with Liberal-Conservative Score*

Score	Position	Cause Type
-1.72	Equal marriage rights for the LGBTQ community.	Human Services
-1.37	Women's reproductive choices during an unexpected pregnancy.	Health
-0.93	Ethical treatment and rights of animals.	Animal
-0.75	Solar, wind, and other renewable energy sources.	Environment
-0.70	An 'open-boarder' immigration policy.	Human Services
-0.54	Hybrid and electric vehicles.	Environment
-0.50	Restrictions on oil fracking and the use of fossil fuels.	Environment
-0.47	Increased taxes on the 1%.	Human Services
-0.31	The equal re-distribution of money through taxes and social services.	Human Services
-0.13	A vegan lifestyle.	Health
0.76	Veteran's health needs.	Health
0.88	A free-market economy where people are free to earn as much money as they can.	Human Services
0.93	Cattle ranchers and cattle production for beef, pork and chicken.	Animal
1.17	Expanded oil drilling and the use of fossil fuels.	Environment
1.25	Oil production and increased drilling and pipeline construction in the U.S.	Environment
1.33	The promotion of full-term pregnancy and adoption during an unexpected pregnancy.	Health
1.50	The enforcement strong illegal immigration laws.	Human Services
1.54	Gun possession and the right to bear arms.	Human Services
1.76	Traditionally defined marriage as that of one man and one women.	Human Services

* Note: Liberal was the left anchor (-3) and Conservative was the right anchor (3) with a neutral midpoint (0). Causes used in study are bolded.

Measures and Results

To capture a glimpse into the respondent's self-concept we use their liberal-conservative position to better understand the social perspective from which they view themselves and their social surroundings. To do so we use the liberal-conservative spectrum measured on a seven-item Likert scale following Mehrabian (1996). By design the consumer liberal-conservative scale used to measure their political position and the scale used to measure the study's social causes political position employs the same scale points (-3 to 3 with a neutral 0 center point). To calculate each individual respondent's score the average of their liberal and conservative score was taken.

$$\text{Political Position Score}_{\text{individual}} = [(\sum \text{Lib}1-3/3) + (\sum \text{Con}1-3/3)]/2 \quad \text{eq. 1}$$

Given corresponding scale points measuring both respondent and cause political position consumer-cause congruity is measured by taking the difference between the two. When a consumer is exposed to a scenario position that is closely aligned with their own personal views then a great amount of congruence is observed. Conversely, if their political position is in opposition to the cause position described then incongruity is produced to the extent that they disagree.

$$\text{Congruity} = \text{Political Position Score}_{\text{individual}} - \text{Political Position Score}_{\text{cause}} \quad \text{eq.2}$$

By measuring (in) congruity as the gap between the individual and cause political position scores the larger the gap the greater the incongruence between how an individual views their self-concept and how the social cause is generally perceived. Other measures in this study include a single item for alienation measured after the respondent was given a definition for both attraction and alienation then asked to rate their feelings given the product described from zero to one hundred. Alienation is defined as “the state or experience of being isolated from a group or an activity to which one should belong or in which one should be involved” and respondents are instructed that “if you do not support the cause or organization that the company or brand is supporting you would be alienated from them.” Promotion was measured using the 11-point scale (0-10) single item net-promotor question following Reichheld (2003). To operationalize this scale in the analysis, respondents were not re-grouped as promoters (those scoring 9-10) or detractors (those scoring 0-6) as tradition suggests. Instead, the response provided (0-11) was used as a single item variable. Attraction was measured using a three item, seven point likert scale: I would be attracted to this product; This product would be appealing to me; I would try this product. ($\alpha = .978$) and avoidance was also measured by a three item, seven point likert scale: I feel like this product would not be for me; I would not support this product; This product does not promote my ideals. ($\alpha = .953$)

The study sample consists of recent graduates of a mid-sized university in the United States Midwest region. In total, the survey was sent to 3,670 people and 219 people responded. 31 surveys were incomplete or otherwise unusable due to significant break-offs providing a final sample of 188 completed responses (5.1% effective response rate). Of the responses, 59 were males and 127 were female at an average age of 26 years old. Because the majority of the respondents were associated with a university 92% had some college education or college degree the average family income was between \$60,000 and \$69,000. 31.4% identified as Republican and 42.8% identified as democrat, while the remaining 25.9% identified as neither or other.

To measure the proposed model we used a series of regressions that were specified such that:

$$\text{promotion} = c + \Lambda 1 (\text{attract} (\beta 1 | \text{alienation} (\Gamma 1 | \text{incongruence}))) \quad \text{eq.3}$$

$$- \Lambda 2 (\text{avoid} (\beta 2 | \text{alienation} (\Gamma 1 | \text{incongruence})))$$

$$\text{where, alienation} = c + \Gamma 1 (\text{incongruence}) + e \quad \text{eq.4 (model 1)}$$

$$\text{avoid} = c + \beta 1 (\text{alienate}) + e \quad \text{eq.5 (model 2)}$$

$$\text{attract} = c - \beta 2 (\text{alienate}) + e \quad \text{eq.6 (model 3)}$$

$$\text{promotion} = c + \Lambda 1 (\text{attract}) - \Lambda 2 (\text{avoid}) + e \quad \text{eq.7 (model 4)}$$

Table 2: Model Specification and Results

Regressors	Model 1 (H ₁) (alienate)	Model 2 (H _{2a}) (attract)	Model 3 (H _{2b}) (avoid)	Model 4 (H _{3a-b}) (promotion)
incongruence	0.440 (<.001)	-	-	-
alienate	-	-.891 (<.001)	-	-
alienate	-	-	.806 (<.001)	-
attract	-	-	-	.749 (<.001)
avoid	-	-	-	-.134 (<.001)
constant	0.44	1.54	5.95	-.44
	$r^2 = .194$	$r^2 = .794$	$r^2 = .649$	$r^2 = .739$
	$F = 147 (<.001)$	$F = 2374 (<.001)$	$F = 1137 (<.001)$	$F = 1030 (<.001)$

Discussion and Conclusion

Marketing has come to include very powerful tools capable of motivating social behavior. Wielding such power should not be taken lightly. In the early beginning of social marketing authors supported the argument that the tools of marketing are applied for a variety of purposes sought. If one uses it for malice or other sin (the promotion of cigarettes, alcohol consumption, extreme religious positions, texting (which distracts drivers), etc.) then it's not fair to blame the science of marketing, but rather the social actors that apply the science to their interests. Lusch, Lacznia, and Murphy (1980) point out that marketers have an ethical responsibility to keep their trade out of use for socially unacceptable causes however as these authors also ask whose ideas we should limit. “If we say no to promoting

pornography or abortion why not regulate the promotion of nuclear energy, auto safety or preventive health?" (pg 163), and yet, consumers expect that businesses today contribute toward solving the social problems of our time (Demetriou, Pappasolomu and Vrontis 2010).

This study concludes that CSR tactics including C-RM can backfire if a polarizing cause is chosen. Consumers view such collaborations similarly to co-branding efforts and they attach social meaning which must be reconciled within the consumer and their image of self. If brand and self-image incongruence exists then the consumer will feel like the brand isn't intended for their consumption.

Future research should build and extend on the strategic implications of cause-related marketing and its long term effects. Questions regarding the long-term effects on loyalty (both pro and con), profitability of attracted versus alienated market segments and the impact on internal stakeholders (e.g. employees) and external stakeholders (e.g. supply chain partners and shareholders). In addition to primary benefits of the relationship (increased sales and a willingness to pay more or be less price sensitive) secondary benefits from the relationship are sought too. Finally, the non-profit stands to benefit from an elevated profile along with increased funding/donations while the for-profit firm will experience increased employee morale and productivity, Investors have a stronger allegiance to the firm along with elevated levels of corporate pride as a result of an elevated perception of corporate responsibility (Gourville and Rangan 2004) and in general positive public sentiment. Likewise, future research should also include the non-profit or cause should carefully evaluate the benefits that they receive as well.

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SESSION 10.10: SMA TEACHING MOMENTS IV

Chairs:

D. Joel Whalen, DePaul University
Kesha Coker, Ball State University
John F. Tanner Jr., Old Dominion University

Turkey Attack! An Introduction to Cialdini's Six Principles of Persuasion

Scott Swanson, University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire, USA

Persuasion is a process aimed at changing a person's (or a group's) attitude in a desired manner. Based on the study of social influence, Dr. Robert Cialdini has identified six principles of persuasion. Prior to discussing these underlying factors that influence the consumer decision process, I create student engagement by demonstrating how a single cue can act to trigger a response. Specifically, I have student volunteers' act out a study (with appropriate props) by M. W. Fox (1974). Specifically, the mothering methods used by turkeys with their chicks when confronted by a natural enemy, a polecat (i.e., skunk).

You are in Charge!

Komal Karani, Lamar University, USA

I created an assignment for my graduate level class, International Business. Students, working in groups were asked to identify an article from a business magazine, newspaper or journal, addressing any of the topics being studied as part of this course. These articles were shared with the classmates using Blackboard. The following week, each group was asked to lead a class discussion pertaining to their chosen article. The rest of the class graded each group based on quality of selected article and the group's skill at leading the discussion. This grading was done by students voting on their cellphones and results were displayed instantaneously.

It's a Movie Night

Prachi Gala, University of Mississippi, USA

When teaching product placements in Consumer Behavior or in any Marketing Course, the traditional way is to show some movie clips and tell them, how the products are placed in the movies. I tried to revise this tradition and come with a whole activity worth 20 points on teaching this concept. The students were asked to select their own movie – I specifically tell them, choose a movie with most product placements. Then they in groups watched the movie at their own convenience (outside the class). They were asked to list down all the products they saw in the movie. I ask them to evaluate the placement and mention the best placed product and worst placed product. Also they were asked to evaluate the timing the product was placed and whether it was an apt placement. The presentations became so interesting. The whole class watched them carefully and they even had questions for each group. Students and I both enjoyed this activity as it had a lot of takes away along with knowing new movies. This also added to my evaluations, as they enjoyed this activity a lot.

Practical Phone Survey Assignment for Marketing Research Courses

Jim Blair, University of Rhode Island, USA

This is an assignment for marketing research courses where students choose an organization and create a telephone survey script. They call the instructor who simulates a disruptive customer completing the survey. This gives students experiences creating surveys, improving writing skills, identifying areas of weakness in the survey design, and obtaining practical marketing research experience. The assignment is aimed to improve students' critical thinking skills, give them a document to add to their professional portfolio, and provide them an experience to talk about with employers during job interviews.

Global Marketing, Digital Technologies and Virtual Collaboration

Luis Torres, Georgia Gwinnett College, USA

Teaching Global and Digital Marketing in one course can be a challenge because several fast-paced topics need to be covered. The X-Culture project facilitates that. It connects more than 3,000 students from 80 different universities in over 40 countries. Students work on global virtual teams and use technology to collaborate and develop an international business proposal. Successful participants earn an invitation to a student's symposium. Positive student

feedback includes “I can truly say this was a life changing experience that I will never forget” and “I’m pretty sure it just opened up several doors for my career and education.

“Real World” Marketing Strategy Feedback

George Allen, Asbury University, USA

To provide a more “real world” experience, I give my MBA students feedback on their strategic marketing plan drafts in the form of a memo from their VP of Marketing. Depending on their strategy choices, I might question the wisdom of their plan, give them bits of info overheard in executive meetings, or provide rather vague direction that could affect their final strategy. For their final grade, I assess whether the student made a good choice in either staying with their original idea (and defending it) or making a strategy change based on the VP memo.

Two Exercises Bringing Real-World Context into the Classroom

Mark Mayer, Indiana University, USA

Judith Wright, Indiana University, USA

Students appreciate when class theory is tied to real-world events or developments. We provide two examples of doing so: one that deepens coverage of the material, so that students can explore latest-and-greatest developments (in this case, by assigning industry whitepapers exploring latest trends in digital marketing and having students present them to each other in small groups) and one that broadens students’ horizons, exploring how marketing interacts with other functional areas (in this case, using a real-world business issue—Takata Airbag recalls—and having student teams role play how different functions, like marketing and operations and finance and human resources, etc., would address the situation). We find that using real-world contexts like these can be helpful in going “deeper” into material to supplement basic course marketing topics, and also in “broadening” the material so that students see how marketing fits into a larger scope.

A Big Bang Approach to Teaching the Consumer Decision Making Process

Julie Steen, Middle Georgia State University, USA

The consumer decision-making process is a model taught in most principles of marketing classes. This teaching moment outlines a fun and effective way to illustrate the consumer decision-making process to students. A five minute clip from the Big Bang Theory shows Sheldon (one of the main characters) trying to decide whether to purchase an Xbox One or a PS4 gaming system. While the video is funny, it also illustrates the steps in the consumer decision-making process as well as sociocultural, psychological and situational factors that influence the process.

SESSION 10.1: ALL THE WORLD'S A STATE: CULTURE, CONSUMER CHOICE, AND BRAND EVALUATIONS

Chair:

Frank Gregory Cabano, The University of Kansas

Full Paper

The Artworlds of Consumer Culture

Brandon McAlexander, University of Arkansas, USA

This study attempts to understand how art emanates from subcultures of consumption by exploring the context of consumers building their own computers and modifying their cases. Data was gathered using participant-observation and in-depth interviewing. As art is a difficult concept to define, this article draws on social theory from both Danto and Bourdieu to help understand this phenomenon. Both argue that art cannot be defined directly, but is defined by the institutions that surround it, called the Artworld. In this article, it is argued that artworlds can and do exist in subcultures of consumption. The article then describes the analogous artworld institutions that exist within the chosen subculture to demonstrate the existence of a subculture-level artworld, and understand the vital roles of those institutions. Using this information helps managers understand how to create and sustain a marketplace that encourages creative consumers to develop products that the subculture itself considers art.

Introduction

In a great number of sub-cultures of consumption, consumers engage in creative endeavors to express themselves. Car enthusiasts create hotrods, motorcyclists create choppers, and beer brewers create distinct and new beers for their friends and family. Even something as simple as cooking has an entire artistic discipline that was formed around a consumption context. This research conceptualizes these creative ventures as art, and aims to understand the institutions that cultivate and encourage these makers in the greater context of Personal Computers. This research could be of interest to brands looking to create more brand equity by enticing consumers to become more engaged, and create more visibility within their product category. As described through Service Dominant Logic, Vargo and Lusch (2004) state that all firms should consider themselves service based, and should be focused on the co-creation of value with their consumers. Following this perspective, creating a space for consumers to make and display their artwork creates value not only for the makers, but for the audience as well. This is partially supported by the IKEA effect (Norton 2011), where consumers expressed increased valuation of products that the consumer helped to make.

Context

To understand this phenomenon more clearly, I focused on the consumer group building their own personal computers (PCs). The PC building marketplace has been growing steadily in the past few years. While there is no hard data on how many home-built PCs there are in the marketplace, the substantial growth of websites such as “pcpartpicker.com” and “tomshardware.com”, and the major success of newegg.com can be attributed, in part, to this movement.

Additionally, a social news aggregator used to develop cultural competence has more than 420,000 subscribers to their page dedicated to the “buildapc” community. This page is ranked 104th out of over 1 million different page topics on that social news aggregator. By no means is this a completely accurate indicator of the number of consumers engaged in this practice, but it sheds some light on the popularity of the movement.

These consumers pick parts and design PCs to their needs. They pick parts based on computing power, costs, and how well each part interact with one another. The PC building marketplace has created a social network in which people converse about the metrics of new parts, the efficiency of a build, and troubleshooting problems that arise as they build their computers. The difficulty of the process isn’t particularly high, but given the expense of the parts and the complications that can arise, many are intimidated by the process. These consumers tend to be gamers, coders, graphic designers, and video editors that need higher powered computers for their respective activities. These PC builders are drawn in by lower prices, higher degree of control over their build, and the general appeal of building something themselves.

Within this context, there is a small group of people engaging in something called “case modifying” (or “case modding”). These consumers go beyond just designing the guts of their computer, but build something more creative. Cases have been designed to look like objects from video games, cars, and other culturally relevant objects. Not all cases have been modified to “imitate life”, as some cases are designed to look technically impressive, with water cooling tubes, and other LED’s that make the design look very impressive and “futuristic”. In a sense, these computers are the hot rods of computer culture. In examining this context, this research seeks to answer the following questions:

How does art emanate from a consumption context? How can we conceptualize these movements? What institutions support this art?

Theory

Art is something that is historically difficult to define. Every attempt to define it simply leads to an artist subverting that definition with a smug grin. Some attempts at defining art have suggested that art is simply imitation and mimesis. Arthur Danto (1964) suggested that the imitation theory of art is insufficient for art to exist, as then a mirror would be classified as art. The imitation theory was more heavily questioned after the advent of photography and its subsequent inclusion in the “canon” of art as well. Additionally, any “art-for-arts-sake” argument is rejected, as architecture and other interactive exhibits provide function and use value. The argument can also be perceived as tautological.

What Danto suggests is that defining art as a class of objects is impossible. To see art requires something beyond just the empirical senses. Instead, art is viewed using the knowledge of art history and an atmosphere of artistic theory. He conceptualizes this as the “Artworld”, which was the first steps toward developing an institutional theory of art. He suggests that the Artworld provides what instrumentally could be described as “acrylic paint on canvas” with value beyond its instrumentation – art value. This value is created within the eye and mind of the observer who can identify a piece of art within the “canon” of the Artworld, as historically and theoretically grounded. The establishment of that theory and that historicity is a result of art institutions and museums that have supreme power in determining what art is. This is continually socially negotiated within the Artworld, with the final say of what constitutes art being squarely on the lap of those major institutions.

Pierre Bourdieu latched on to this idea of the Artworld, and suggested ways in which cultural and social capitals can be expressed (1986). He argues that art schools, museums, and critics all constitute this continuous cultural reproduction that we consider the Artworld (1987). Much like Danto, Bourdieu suggests that the museum is both consecrated and consecrating. Art is endowed with meaning based on a cultured habitus within the artistic field. Following his practice theory, the Artworld is defined as a field of art, and to be culturally versed enough to determine what objects belong in the artworld, one must have developed a habitus well oriented to that field, as well as the necessary cultural and social capitals either through education or through practice to establish one’s self as an authority on art. Thus, these institutions determine what art is, and what art is not, within the culturally established field of art, or the Artworld.

Bourdieu lists several actors that constitutes the artworld: connoisseurs, museums, curators, artists/creators, critics, historians, art analysts, techniques, etc. He categorizes them as places of exhibit (galleries, museums), institutions of consecration or sanction (academies, salons), instances of reproduction of producers and consumers (art schools, etc.), and specialized agents (dealers, critics, art historians, collectors, etc.). Each one of these agents are endowed with the appropriate habitus to help shape the Artworld.

Another element that Bourdieu emphasizes as important to the Artworld is the elaboration of an artistic language. He claims that the way of naming the artist, of speaking about her/him, about the nature of her/his work establishes a definition of artistic value that is independent of any use value. By the same logic, the biography of the work is of equal importance, playing a determining role in the artistic value of the object. The biography of the work creates a value that wasn’t there before, and makes both the artist and the work worthy of historical account.

Not satisfied with this conception of one monolithic Artworld, Howard Becker suggests that there are many artworlds, which are distinguished by disparate cultures. For example, the Artworld that Bourdieu and Danto largely reference is very westernized. The cultural hubs are located in Paris, Los Angeles, and New York. Despite this western canon of art, there are many, many other cultures of art that would not find their way in the museums at these locations. China and Brazil, just as two examples, have distinctly different art cultures than does the western canon. Ultimately these artworlds are distinct, and culturally unique. Additionally, Becker claims that these artworlds can be stable or ephemeral.

Given that we can conceptualize consumer markets as subcultures (Schouten and McAlexander 1995), this research aims to demonstrate that we can find artworlds inside of a consumer culture, and by extension can understand the roles firms and individuals have within the artworld of the subculture.

Methods

My methods followed from the tradition of multi-sited ethnography (Falzon, 2016; Kjeldgaard, Csaba, & Ger, 2006), in which complex phenomena are explored in and across connected social worlds. From April 2014 through September 2017, data has been collected and analyzed from several internet sites, QuakeCon, and from interviews

done via a VOIP program (Kozinets, 2014; Falzon, 2016). Much of the data from online sources were to further develop a core cultural competency to aid in interpreting interviews. QuakeCon is a convention that takes place annually in Dallas, which has a case mod competition, as well as one of the largest “LAN Parties” (where gamers link their computers to play games together) in the world. The majority, if not all, of the computers brought to QuakeCon are consumer built. Thousands of people attend the convention each year, and there are typically 2500-3000 seats available at the LAN party section.

While at QuakeCon I spent time wandering around the convention, speaking with people who weren’t hyper-focused on the games they were playing. Additionally, I made note of locations of case modifications and made special efforts to check back, and talk with individuals who had modded a case. After speaking with a few case modders, I asked if they had any friends that had also modded their case, and thus followed a snowball sample. These interviews were informal, but most of them were recorded and transcribed.

Many informants are from Texas and Oklahoma, as they lived near the convention. Additionally, much time was spent on a social media aggregator (reddit.com) focusing on the subtopic of “buildapc”, primarily to develop a core competency of the subculture. I also browsed the internet to see case modifications and the reactions that were generated from their viewers. Lastly, in February 2017, I built a new computer of my own to make sure I was up to date on my processual knowledge, terminology, and technical competence. Data collection work is summarized in Table 1. My data set consists of transcripts, field notes, and photos taken on site. These data are supplemented with pamphlets, promotional materials, and magazines collected at QuakeCon. Data collection and analysis have occurred iteratively and simultaneously throughout this study.

Given that the research question focuses on establishing the existence of an artworld in a consumer culture, understanding the art institutions that surround the marketplace and the ways in which the artists feel supported by those institutions was paramount to the investigation. Thus, analysis began with a focusing on the interviews with informants that had modded a case, and identifying actors that could constitute the institutions as described by Bourdieu, Danto, and Becker. Other ways were also identified in which the informants could be described as artists. The last piece of analysis focused on interviews with informants that did not engage in case modding, but were generally aware of the practice, to see what they had to say as patrons and critics of the works. A hermeneutic process of revisiting the data iteratively was used until full saturation and intra/intertextual agreement was reached (Arnould and Fischer 1994; Thompson 1997).

Data analysis occurred throughout and subsequent to the data collection process in an iterative way. Given the pointed nature of my research question, I identified the actors and agents which analogously contribute to the conceptualization of the artworld embedded in PC building. Codes were developed iteratively between data and literature (Corbin and Strauss 1990), with dimensions of the artworld emerging from the data. These data were categorized as “artist”, “institutions”, and “audience”.

Table 1 - Summary of Data Collection

Data	Sites	Details
QuakeCon	-Roughly 25 informants, all male -Field notes taken about the details of the conventions and the presence of businesses on the convention floor -Attended August 2015/2016	-informants asked about their experiences building a PC, what they thought about case modding, the personal story of their builds.
Interviews with scratch case modders	-2 adult informants, male, mid twenties, college educated (Michael and Eric). -One interview done on-site (Michael), one interview done via VOIP	- informants asked about their experiences building a PC, what they thought about case modding, the personal story of their builds. Also asked about how they felt during evaluation of their builds during the competition.
Self-reflective build	-Author built an i5 PC for work/personal use.	-Brief notes were made reflecting on how the author felt, and what the author learned. -PC being used to write dissertation
Participant observation: electronic field work	-Subreddit /r/buildapc browsed on a daily basis -Occasional checking of forums related to case modding	-Author’s personal reflections -Predominately used to get a sense for community and get immersed into the language of the field.

Findings

Using a lens of the institutional theory of art, many of the elements that Bourdieu, Danto, and Becker identify as integral to the artworld were very much present in the context of PC builders and case modders. Becker defined the complete roster of the social world of art as individuals who: conceive of the idea (composers/playwrights), execute the idea (actors/musicians), provide the equipment for the creation (instrument makers), and consist an audience (playgoers, critics). Danto and Bourdieu also heavily emphasize the consecrating and replicating effects of museums and art institutions, which need to be included in the conception of an artworld as well. Per these institutional theories of art, art is a social and institutional process that relies on all of these agents for an artworld to exist and self-replicate. If these actors can be identified within a cultural context, according to Becker, then an artworld is established. One thing to note – in many cases, those who conceive of the idea are also those who execute the idea (the artist). In the case of building a computer, those two entities are very frequently the same, and I will just refer to them as the artist. Thus, I found artists, institutions, and audiences.

Artists

One thing that needs establishing here is that the computers themselves are considered art, and not just the cases. In this way, it's not creating art, and then placing a computer in it. It's a matter of the computer-as-art.

Eric: *...it is a case mod competition. It's not a sculpture competition.*

Here, Eric makes it very clear that he is building a computer first, not just a sculpture with a computer in it. This delineates this context from a well-established artistic context like sculpture, or painting. Figuring out how to make a functioning PC out of these creative and sometimes bizarre designs is paramount to the context.

Eric: *I wanted at least it to be very obvious to any viewer that it is my computer, rather than this Eyebot where it could just be a model...*

These artists are very adamant that they are not creating sculptures and just placing computer parts in them. The computer is part of the artistic object. This is particularly evident in cases that are designed to look like futuristic computers. An example of a “futuristic” is shown with image 1.



Image 1: Case from QuakeCon.

The clean interior, the colorful purple lighting, and the tubing scheme make this computer very unique. The computer is not made to look like something else, or take the form of another object, it simply is a computer, designed

as a piece of art. Additionally supporting the conceptualization these computers as art is that many of the attendants at QuakeCon (modders and non-modders alike) refer to these computers as art.

The existence of artists is quite clear from the data. Simply by virtue of case mods being classified as their own category of computer design is evidence to that fact. These artists are creating something by hand that has an expressive value to themselves, and to their audiences. There are even questions of legitimacy.

Eric: *I don't see how you could take pride in it. It's just 'look what these companies did for me.'*

Eric had a substantial amount of pride in his hand built PC that he painted and crafted himself. He took great exception to people that sent their computers off to a company to have the case painted for them.

Eric: *...all together that looks great, but it's not a throw money at your computer contest, or it shouldn't be.*

He clearly felt that the process needed to be far more personal than designing something then sending it off to someone else to let them take care of the construction. The author needed to be the creator as well. Additionally, this text lends credence to Bourdieu's conception that the biography of the product helps to create artistic value.

Many of these case modders also engage in a practice of "logging the build". Many of these artists will take photos of the process of building their PC and share it with the rest of the community on a blog, or other community website. These aren't just work in progress logs either. In many cases, the difficulties and challenges that these artists run into are explained in depth, which helps give the computer more artistic value. One of my informants, Michael, is heavily into 3d printing, and 3d printed a device from a video game as the case for his computer. He created a build log that he shared on his website.

Michael: *...I then had to figure out the scale of the model so that it will fit the dimensions of the computer components.*

Here he explains one of the challenges that he faced while building his PC. Rather than just showing things as they were happening, he was creating the story of what happened, where he made mistakes, and describes each painstaking step to build his PC. These stories, pictures, and challenges are all part of building a narrative and biography around the final product and the artist, which helps to create the artistic value of the work, according to Bourdieu.

Howard Becker described four different types of artists as well. He described integrated professionals (those who conform to the norms of the artworld), mavericks (those who ignore the institutions and create something new, but stick with the form of the artworld), naïve artists (those who lack connection to the artworld, but get lumped in because what they're doing fits within the concept of the artworld), and folk artists (who don't even recognize that they've made art in the first place). These archetypal artists can be found in the case modding community.

Image 1 is an example of the integrated professional. They've created a work of art that resembles the norm for the artworld. In this case it's a computer that looks aesthetically pleasing as a result of the parts placed inside the PC. My informant Eric is a maverick. In his design, he hollowed out a mannequin and used the whole of the mannequin as a case. He then painted and dressed the mannequin to look like a character from a well-known video game. He defied the norms of the artworld, and created something unexpected and unique. His case won in his category of the case competition at QuakeCon that year, and drew quite a large crowd when he first brought it in.

A naïve artist would be someone who creates their own style completely by accident because they haven't been conditioned to the norms of the artworld, and thus make creations free of the constraints of the artworld. In several instances, consumers have built cases that were initially built as desks. These builders simply wanted to save space by integrating their computer design into that of a desk. Unwittingly, these builders have created a unique type of case mod. An example of a pc/desk is found in image 2.



Image 2: Desk PC – the PC parts are found in the left panel.

Lastly, the folk artist would be someone who doesn't even know they've made art. This is reflected in a computer builder who makes purchase decisions and cabling decisions that have an effect on the aesthetics of the case. While they may not have modded their case, or painted the outside, or even concerned themselves too much with what the insides looked like, these builders have created art all the same. As an example, many of the praises coming from critics of case mods tend to revolve around cable management. Power supplies come with cables that can't be removed, but also aren't always necessary, so hiding them to create a clean look and do not disrupt airflow is a big plus. Most computer parts these days also include LEDs, some of which have colors you can change on demand (my current graphics card and my previous power supply both did this). Simply by picking parts and constructing the computer, these engineers have created art.

***Roger:** There are things in that... computers as far as routing it for air flow and stuff that you take personal pride in, but you're probably never going to go show someone, except for maybe at QuakeCon. If you have a big window, like, look, I routed my cables in way that it's not just a mess in here.*

Even though design may not have been the first thing in mind for Roger, he very clearly had an interest in how cable management was taken care of. He even states explicitly that QuakeCon is a unique place where people take an aesthetic interest in the airflow scheme.

Institutions

Many institutions exist that aid the PC building marketplace in their artistic endeavors. One primary type of institution Danto and Becker describe are the material merchants. There are manufacturers for CPUs, Cases, Fans, Power Supplies, Motherboards, Disc Drives, etc. These companies all have assorted designs that go far beyond just their instrumental need, especially when it comes to fan and case design. Additionally, there are plenty of companies that provide the tools that are necessary to mod cases. Both Eric and Michael, for example, called out their Dremel tools by name. Dremel is a company that makes tools specifically for do-it-yourselfers, and case modders are no exception. Also, many consumer-bought cases also come with glass, plastic, or plexiglass siding which allows for the interior to be visible to the user. This is one of the driving factors behind the cable management and lighting evaluations given out by critics. Without the "guts" of the computer being visible to others, none of these things would matter in an aesthetic evaluation. By making these sorts of aesthetically pleasing objects available, and visible while in use, these companies have provided the tools necessary to present computers as art.

Another category of actors that constitute the artworld are the cultural institutions that help create a self-replicating effect for the artworld. For the "canon Artworld" described by Becker and Danto, this means art schools to inculcate techniques into the art culture, and museums that curate and display the art. These institutions can also be found in the PC building community. NVIDIA has a frequent presence at QuakeCon with their "GeForce Garage", where they teach consumers individual skills that would allow them to design custom cases. The "GeForce Garage" is a resource that many PC builders can go to, to learn how to put their parts together as well as basic "How-to" videos on modifying cases. Additionally, there are thousands of videos found on YouTube that can instruct these builders on how to

assemble their PC, as well as how to modify it. These “schools” helps to reinforce the practices that are shared and replicated throughout the community.

Michael, a case modder, talked a lot about his experience at the Dallas Makerspace. The makerspace is a community driven workshop. Michael’s experience revolved specifically around 3d printing. Not all of the members there are designing case mods, but Michael made it clear that several of the competitors at QuakeCon that year were also from the Makerspace. This is quite similar to an art school, where artists would congregate and teach each other about their process, and try to create a unified aesthetic or method, resulting in something resembling a movement.

Michael: *“How would you do this for the power supply?” He’ll have the old school way of doing it and I’ll have like the new school way of doing it*

Describing his experience with his most recent build, Michael asked his father (who is a 3d printer as well) a question about his building process, and both have drastically different solutions to the same issue. This implies that there are different methods that have developed and been passed on within a specific method of case modification - in this case, 3d printing.

Michael: *...with Makerspace I have such a huge community at the Makerspace that everybody encourages everybody about everything like, “Oh man, that’s the coolest project ever.”*

With the members encouraging each other, teaching each other, and working together, they resemble an art school that helps induct new members, and replicate the movement into the future. These Makerspaces are also not unique to Dallas. Makerspace is a bigger entity that has 565 different institutions listed across the United States.

One fundamental component of an artworld is the audience. Without ways of displaying their work, artists would not find the audience they need. Several institutions play this role of displaying the work. QuakeCon itself acts as a potential museum for case mods. These PCs are put on display, with markers placed on the computers to identify them as part of their mod competition. The computers are usually used by their owners during the LAN party, but these PCs are given special status by these markers. These computers are usually placed at key points in the convention, particularly at the ends of aisles, allowing for many observers walk by these cases and stop to observe them and appreciate them as an individual piece of art. They can usually be found near exits, entrances, and near booths that usually get a lot of foot traffic. In many ways, this mirrors the behavior that one would expect at a museum. Works of art are placed among peers for them to be observed and critiqued. It can also be thought of as an art showing where the artist is present, allowing for feedback from their audience.

There are also several magazines that feature case design and computer building as their primary features. An example would be Computer Power User. Many of their articles feature discussions about specifications of new parts, and interviews with people in the computer industry, but they regularly have articles that feature case mods as well. Computer Power User will often show designs that have recently won competitions, as well as have interviews with the artists themselves. In many ways, it looks a lot like a publication that follows a specific medium of art. In one copy, the magazine interviews the CEO of Modders Inc. who describes the inception of the company as “for the sole purpose of allowing others to have a place where they could show off their work, talk about projects, and help others learn about modding.” There are other online spaces where these artists’ work can be shown as well.

There are also companies that specialize in case modding. One company, “Modders Inc.” promotes the practice of case modding by providing tutorials, forums, and other resources for people interested in case modding. They also are the driving factor behind many of the case design competitions that the modders enter. Modders-Inc also runs a competition called “24 hours of Le Mods” (a play on the Le Mans race) at QuakeCon, where PC designers are given 24 hours to design an entirely new PC from scratch. They’re given some parts and put on the clock. This event happened on the convention floor for everyone to see, and all three of the builders would explain their thought processes and what they were doing to their build to any passers-by that would listen. This is another example of a potential avenue through which someone interested in the form could learn more about the craft. Finally, Modders Inc. also creates commissioned case mods, typically for companies using them as prizes for events.

Audiences

Becker suggests that the old adage “If a tree falls in the forest, did it make a sound?” applies to the art and its admirers. Without an audience, he suggests that art fails to be art. In the context of computer builders, it is no different. Many of the participants at QuakeCon got a chance to marvel at the newest builds being brought in. As mentioned earlier, cases that were entered into the mod competition had special markers on them that let everyone at the convention know they were entered. Given the layout of the space, one would be hard pressed to miss these computers. Modders-Inc and several other companies continually have a presence on the convention floor as well.

Oscar: *I'll go and chat with them every time I'm here. It's really cool what they do.*

When asked about Modders-Inc, Oscar demonstrates that he's not only aware of their presence, but also expresses excitement about the opportunity to hear about new designs and relishes the opportunity to learn what he can about case modding. Oscar is not a modder himself, but he does think the designs are cool.

Oscar: *I have not delved into it. I have gone and checked out forums and stuff and just see other people.*

Oscar is an example of the audience for which these computers were made. He clearly respects the effort and the ingenuity that comes with case design. He doesn't do it himself, but he enjoys the aesthetic that is applied to something he has a passion for. All the others who hadn't modded before had similar responses when asked if they had thought about case modding.

Marcus: *Not too much. I'm not a very artistic personality. I can play a few instruments terribly, but beyond that I'm definitely slim mentally. I've got a huge appreciation. There's some sexy shit around here.*

Not only do people really appreciate the aesthetic qualities of the builds, but they also have a great deal of respect for the challenges the designers must face when creating such a design. The respondents I spoke with seemed very impressed with the technical know-how that comes with case modding.

Marcus: *...but my thinking is just the engineering behind it. Honestly, the fact that those things hold together so well that you can transport them from home to here and there's a lot of detail, there's a lot of very fragile parts. Putting all that together is quite the talent.*

It's clear that there's a sense of respect that these onlookers have for the design and the struggle of the artist. Many of the informants had expressed some level of inspiration that came with seeing these designs, too.

Brent: *I've been wanting to do it. I've had friends that have done cardboard cases. I have friends that have done 3D-printed cases, so it's like "That's really interesting."*

Michael and Eric also both claimed that they had gotten their start in case modding when they saw various mods at QuakeCon themselves. Once they realized that something like this was possible, they became inspired to make their own designs. This is very similar to other art contexts, where one work of art stimulates another potential artist into creating their own piece or interpretation.

Not only do these case modders have an audience that they aim to please, they also have critics that they must appease as well. Sometimes it's as simple as having your work judged against others for a competition, and other times it comes down to evaluating the work for its own sake.

Eric: *They have such good poker faces. They don't sit there and like "Wow, damn, you're going to place". They look like they hate everything. It's awful. Getting judged by them is awful. They're so good at not revealing what they think. I say I painted it all by hand and sanded it all and cut it all, sculpted the face by myself and all this. If I say that it's not like I see their eyes light up, you know? They're just like who cares? I could tell them I conjured it into existence with sheer willpower and they'd be like okay...and?*

Eric felt intimidated by the eyes of the judges of the case modding competition at QuakeCon, who had a very critical eye for all the details in his case. In evaluating Eric's cases against the others at QuakeCon, the judges took on the essential role of a critic. These judges also judged three different divisions of cases. The "Classic Case Mod" consists of any mod that is built from a retail PC case, a "Scratch-Build" Mod consists of any mod built from anything other than a PC case, and the "id/Bethesda Themed" Mod consists of any mod (classic or scratch) themed about id Software/Bethesda or any of their games (id Software and Bethesda were the primary hosts of QuakeCon). Past modders were allowed to enter, but previous entries were not allowed to resubmit. Many of the entrants had submitted builds in the past.

Eric: *I walked up dressed as Ash to the CPU booth, and the CPU magazine guy is always a judge, and he said, "Oh, hey, you're the guy who did the big spherical mod last year." I'm like, well, I'm amazed that you A, recognized me, because I had green hair in 2014. I looked so different. Again, dressed as Ash. He said, "I actually owe you an apology." I was like, "Why?" He said, "Because as soon as you got your mod out under the bright lights of the convention hall after we were giving away prizes I feel like we had made a mistake. There was just so much detail that we just couldn't see in there."*

Eric's mod the year prior was a spherical mod that was designed to look like an object from a popular Bethesda game. It should be noted that building a spherical computer is not something easy to do. The judge, upon seeing the

case in better lighting had regrets over choosing a different case as the winner. Eric was very proud to have come in third, and even to have gotten recognized was a feat for him.

Eric: The fact that you remembered me and felt the need to go out of your way to tell me that is like—that's better than any prize. That was so cool. This dude travels the country looking at this shit. He works for CPU magazine. That was awesome. It felt so good."

Much like any artist, Eric was not looking for an exchange of money or any other value to come from his case mod. He just really appreciated that his design resonated so well with someone that they could recognize him, even while dressed up as a character from a TV show. Having that acknowledgement of his work and getting recognition from a major critic was more rewarding than anything that could have been given to him.

Discussion

This research is the first to suggest that the institutional theory of artworlds can be applied to a consumer culture context. While the "western canon Artworld" would likely reject this work as art, for the smaller culture of PC builders, this absolutely is art. While many of the institutions necessary to creating an artworld aren't appearing in their expected form (a museum, for example), they do appear in an adapted form that fits the context, with many companies filling those roles. Rather than a museum, these works are shown in conventions, online, and in magazines. Each of these outlets have critics that evaluate whether the work deserves to be shown in their forum, magazine, or otherwise. According to the institutional theory of art, without each of these institutions filling the roles of museums, schools, and materials merchants, this ecosystem of artists would be unsustainable. Additionally, these gatekeepers determine what is and isn't art within this context of PC builders, and allow for expressions of the narrative of the work of art, bestowing some of the artistic value on the created object.

Conclusion

Evidence shows that an artworld exists within a consumer subculture. Using this information, marketing managers can identify important roles that sustain and foster an artworld in their consumer subculture by cultivating the institutions that constitute an artworld. By providing artists the resources to create their art, and a forum for which their art can be observed and critiqued, the firm aids in development of an artworld for their product category. Based on Service Dominant Logic, this is a worthy and desirable goal for a marketing manager to achieve (Vargo and Lusch, 2004; Ramsey et al. 2009), as consumer engagement leads to improved value creation. This can also be considered an extreme example of Brand Use and Community Engagement in the process of collective value creation in Brand Communities (Schau et al. 2009).

One potential caveat is that most of the product categories that have been explored as having an artworld (computers, cars, motorcycles), have been extremely modular in their design. It is possible that modularity is a pre-condition for artists to appear. This merits more investigation to determine whether fostering the institutions that constitute an artworld would be sufficient for a self-sustaining artworld to exist. Additionally, more work needs to be done to understand boundary conditions of this research.

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Presentation

The Effect of Social Identity Threat on Consumer Choice of Name (vs. Generic) Brands

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The current work demonstrates a novel influence of social identity threat (a predicament where an individual's social group is devalued by others) on consumer brand choice. We theorize that experiencing a social identity threat reduces consumer's self-worth and causes them to experience a discrepancy between their desired (positive) and current, threatened (negative) sense of self. This self-discrepancy leads consumers to display heightened impression management motivation whereby they are motivated to signal their self-worth to others. As a result, social identity-threatened consumers are more likely to be brand reliant (i.e., exhibit greater preference for and choice of name (vs. generic) brands). We show that this effect only holds for consumers who have low levels of identification with the threatened social identity, as they are not adequately buffered against the psychological threat. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Introduction

Social or group identity threats have been ubiquitous throughout human history (Kurzban and Leary 2001). Unfortunately, such threats are becoming increasingly commonplace and problematic in the U.S. and throughout the world. For example, 2016 statistics show that once about every 95 minutes in the U.S. someone is attacked because of their group membership(s), which represents a 6% increase over the previous year (Lichtblau 2016). In many other parts of the world, the frequency of these crimes is even higher and more challenging for national governments to address (Greenblatt and Massimino 2016). At the same time, brands have become a central component in most consumers' lives, leading marketing scholars and practitioners to refer to brands as the 'new religion' (Tomkins 2001). Indeed, national data suggests that Americans spend an additional \$44 billion dollars on name brands when there are similar quality and cheaper generic substitutes (Bronnenberg, Dube, Gentzkow, and Shapiro 2014). May these seemingly distinct phenomena—social identity threats and choices of branded products—actually be related? The current work address this possibility.

Theoretical Background

According to social identity theory, individuals can and do define themselves in terms of the social groups to which they belong (Tajfel and Turner 1986). Accordingly, people derive much of their self-worth and sense of self through their group memberships (Turner and Onorato 1999). Threats that devalue or marginalize a group's identity, as is the case with social identity threats, are highly aversive and hinder members' feelings of self-worth (Baumgardner 1990). As such, a social identity threat creates a discrepancy between the image a consumer would like others to hold of himself and the image others purportedly already hold. For example, exposure to threatening information that suggests that being a part of a religious group equates to being prejudiced and close-minded might hinder a religious consumer's self-worth and force him to view himself as an unworthy person. Broadly, this would create a self-discrepancy between how he currently views himself (as a bad and worthless person) and how he wishes to see himself (as a good and worthy person). Consequently, drawing on the theory of impression management (Leary and Kowalski 1990), this discrepancy between one's desired and current image should heighten one's impression management motivation. Support for this prediction is partially derived from Braun and Wicklund's (1989) work that demonstrated that university freshmen reported owning more university-branded clothing articles than did seniors at that university. Given that they were freshmen, they were not as secure in their standing at their university as they would prefer, giving rise to consumption (i.e., consuming university-branded attire) that could positively communicate their identity to others.

Building on the above reasoning, we propose that a downstream consequence of an increase in impression management motivation stemming from a social identity threat may be heightened brand reliance. A substantial body of research has documented that name brands can help consumers show a sense of self-worth to others (e.g., Aaker 1997; Berger and Heath 2007; Escalas and Bettman 2005). Name brands allow consumers to express that they are "meaningful, worthwhile beings, and deserving of good things in their lives" (Shachar, Erdem, Cutright, and

Fitzsimons 2010, 95). Taken together, we propose that if a consumer's social identity is threatened by others, he would experience an increase in impression management motivation to signal a sense of self-worth to others. As a means to communicate a sense of self-worth (i.e., that one is a meaningful and worthy individual), the consumer should be more likely to purchase name brands (vs. unbranded products or generic brands).

Moderation by Group Identification

The literature offers competing predictions on how group identification may moderate the effect of social identity threat on impression management motivation and, consequently, brand reliance. On the one hand, consumers who identify less strongly with a social identity are less likely to integrate that identity in their desired social image, and are thus less likely to feel significantly threatened when others devalue the given social identity (Ellemers, Spears, and Doosje 2002; Roberts 2005; Schmader 2002). On the other hand, there is substantial evidence that high group identification has the ability to act as a source of social support and self-esteem that buffers against the negative effect of identity threat on one's self-image (Branscombe, Schmitt, and Harvey 1999; Cohen and Garcia 2005). As a result, highly-identified consumers would likely not feel the need to strategically signal their self-worth to others. Conversely, this line of work suggests that consumers who instead display low levels of identification with the target group would be likely to exhibit heightened impression management motivation following social identity threat. These consumers do not enjoy the buffering-effects of identification with the target group and, thus, are more vulnerable to experiencing a need to display to others that they are worthy individuals. Siding with the latter theorization, we posit that social identity threat will activate impression management motivation and, thus, increase brand reliance for consumers with low levels of group identification. We come to this conclusion because these consumers do not enjoy the group identification that can provide them with social support and self-esteem that can buffer against the identity threat.

Findings

Thus far, we have conducted two studies and found that social identity threat significantly increases both impression management motivation and brand reliance. We also gained evidence for the moderating role of identification with the threatened identity, such that social identity threat only increases impression management and brand reliance for consumers with low (vs. high) levels of group identification. Although in its infancy, the current work finds that social identity threat has implications on consumer brand choice and helps to extend the growing body of consumer research on social identity threat.

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Summary Brief

When Fashion Choice Is Influenced by Human Biological Stages

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This study investigates the impact of female sexy hormones on women's consuming behaviors. In particular, it explains how the peak level of these hormones when women are near ovulation influence their attitudes and purchase intention towards sexy and revealing appearance-related products. This research is based on three theoretical frameworks: Ovulatory Shift Hypothesis (OSH), Theory of Reason Action (TRA), and the impacts of some key psychological characteristics and demographic traits on fashion consumption. A survey design will be used to examine the proposed topics.

Introduction

In the marketing literature, there are quite a number of applications of sociology, psychology, anthropology, and economics into explaining marketing phenomena. However, only a handful of empirical studies exist to understand how biological process influences business decision in marketing. Particularly, the question of how women's ovulation influences their purchase intention toward sexy and revealing appearance-related products still calls for further investigation. Previous studies such as Durante et al. (2008; 2011) demonstrated the shifts in women's preference and selection of sexy and revealing outfits when they are at peak fertility. However, these researches were conducted only in the lab setting and on American women. In this study, the impact of women's ovulation on their purchase intention toward these products with attitude as a mediator will be examined. Also included in the investigation are the moderating effect of key demographic characteristics (i.e. age, income, education, and occupation/occupational formality) and how the two psychological traits of fashion consciousness and self-control play as moderators on this relationship. Therefore, we proposed three research questions:

- RQ1:** How does women's ovulatory cycle influence their attitudes, and subsequently their purchase intention towards revealing and sexy appearance-related products?
- RQ2:** What are the moderating effects of self-control and fashion consciousness on the relationship between ovulation and choice of these products?
- RQ3:** What are the moderating effects of education, income, occupation (occupational formality), and age on this relationship?

Literature Review

In order to answer these research questions, we review four areas in the literature: (1) Ovulatory Shift Hypothesis (OSH), (2) Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), (3) the influence of fashion-consciousness and self-control on fashion consumption, and (4) the impact of age, income, education, and occupation/occupational formality on appearance-related expenditure.

Methodology

Research Design

Different from the earlier studies that were limited only to the lab setting and American women, this research will attempt to conduct a survey research on foreign women, particularly Asians to obtain a higher degree of generalizability and external validity.

The participants will be asked to fill up a survey at two different times in their ovulatory cycle (i.e. peak fertility and low fertility) to capture the shift in their attitudes and purchase intentions toward the sexy and revealing fashion products given in the survey.

Survey Design

Once participants' fertility condition is determined, they will be given a survey designed to understand their opinions on how the clothing and accessories they will be shown are more or less suitable for specific occasions. A scenario based on Durante et al. (2008; 2011) will be employed to define a specific occasion.

Measurements

Measures for attitudes, purchase intentions, fashion consciousness, and self-control are adapted from existing scales in the extant literature. Following Baker and Churchill (1977) and Miniard et al. (1991; 1992), we will measure attitudes towards sexy and revealing fashion products with five items on a seven-point semantic scale (extremely dislike/extremely like, extremely unappealing/extremely appealing, extremely awful/ extremely nice, bad/good, and negative/positive). Purchase intention will be rated on responses to five items (e.g., "It is possible that I would buy this product") that assess how likely participants will be to purchase selected clothing accessories. The five items are adapted from Baker & Churchill (1977) and Lu, Chang, & Chang (2014). Sexy fashion consciousness will be measured using three items based on Steven Parker et al. (2004) to assess to what extent participants will be interested in wearing fashionable clothes or fashion-related accessories. Furthermore, to evaluate self-control (i.e., participants' emotions, thoughts, and behaviors in the face of temptation and impulse), four items are adapted from Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone (2004). Finally, the demographic traits (i.e. income, occupation, education level, and age) of the participants will be recorded as observed variables.

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**SESSION 10.2: COMPETITION, CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING AND
RISK**

Chair:
Jared Wolfe, LIU Post

Presentation

The Shifting Influences of Perceived Social Significance and Perceived Quality of Products in Consumer Decision-Making

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This research in progress aims to explore when the perceived quality of a product in itself may predict consumers' decision to consume a product, and when the perceived "social significance" of a product (e.g., the extent to which the product provides the opportunity to engage with others or even simply provides the opportunity to have the feeling that one is currently part of a larger social phenomenon) in itself may have an even larger influence.

Introduction

The Digital Age has provided consumers with the ability to access an unprecedented amount of information regarding more products than ever before, as well as flexibility regarding when and how to consume products that would have likely been unimaginable to previous generations. For instance, consumers can now access most media coverage (e.g., reviews) of a contemporary television show on the Internet, as well as watch television shows at just about any time they would like to due to digital technology, such as digital video recorders. However, the increasing amount of information consumers can now access regarding an increasing variety of products, and the flexibility regarding when and how products can be consumed, has arguably contributed to a more fragmented society that is not only less likely to be consuming the same products in general (e.g., the same television shows), but is also less likely to be consuming the same products during the same general time period.

In the current era, there are arguably decreasing amounts of traditional opportunities for consumers to engage in mass shared experiences (e.g., experiences to discuss with others the next day around the proverbial water cooler), but also an increasing number of potentially new ways to use digital technology in an attempt to engage in such experiences (e.g., "live-tweeting" during television shows). Thus, it may be more important than ever to better understand the importance that consumers may place on such opportunities, and how and when they may affect consumers' decision-making. This research in progress aims to explore when the perceived quality of a product in itself may predict consumers' decision to consume a product, and when the perceived "social significance" of a product (e.g., the extent to which the product provides the opportunity to engage with others or even simply provides the opportunity to have the feeling that one is currently part of a larger social phenomenon) in itself may have an even larger influence.

The extant literature suggests that products can indeed provide value from the product itself and/or from what consumption of the product can provide in a social sense. For instance, Cova (1997) argues that due to the atomized structure of contemporary society, a product's value derives more in general now from its ability to link a consumer with others than from the product itself. Sunstein and Ullmann-Margalit (2001) compare "solitary goods" (goods that provide the same value in general regardless of the number of other people consuming them, such as a cup of coffee) with "solidarity goods" (goods that have increasing value based on the number of other people consuming them in general, such as a movie). Solidarity goods can be consumed either privately or publically, and therefore can provide value through interacting with others or simply by knowing that others are also consuming the same product; either way, value can come in the form of feeling more socially connected and similar to others.

I propose that there are circumstances under which a product is selected by consumers primarily based on its perceived inherent quality, and other circumstances in which the same product may be selected by consumers primarily based on its perceived "social significance." More specifically, I propose that during a product's life cycle, in general, the initial launch and publicity and buzz that can come with it can begin an "event" phase, when consumers perceive the product to have particular social significance at that time, making the product more of a solidarity good, and that consumers are predominantly motivated by the social value that can come from being part of the "event" (simply in terms of feeling socially connected and/or actually using the consumption experience to directly connect with others). Eventually, as publicity and buzz for a product fades, the "event" phase ends, and consumers perceive the product to

have less social significance at that time, making the product more of a solitary good, and consumers are then predominantly motivated by the value from the product itself.

Initial Study

An initial study was run to explore the possibility of shifting influences of perceived social significance and perceived quality of products in consumer decision-making using films. In general, films arguably have a relatively clear “event” phase (when they are playing in movie theaters; most publicity and buzz is occurring during this time period, and there would be the greatest potential for feeling socially connected to others and/or actually using the consumption experience to directly connect with others who would also see the film during the same general time period) and a relatively clear “post-event” phase (when the same film is later released in various formats to watch out of theaters, such as at home). I hypothesize that when a film is playing in movie theaters, and thus in in the “event” phase, the film will be viewed as a solidarity good, and the perceived social significance of the film will predominantly predict whether consumers take part in this consumption experience. However, I hypothesize that when the same film is later released in various formats to watch out of theaters, such as at home, perceived inherent quality will predominantly predict whether consumers take part in this consumption experience.

Data was collected on the top 20 domestic grossing films from the first half of the 2010’s (2010-2014). For each of the 100 films, the film’s overall critical consensus score from a popular film review aggregator site (the percentage of favorable reviews among a large collection of critics’ reviews, which arguably serves as a proxy for the inherent quality of the film) was recorded, as well as the total number of reviews from various sources (e.g., newspapers, magazines) listed on the site (a number displayed next to the critical consensus score, which, by indicating the amount of publicity in itself the film is getting, arguably serves as a proxy for the films “social significance”). For each film, the amount of money the film made while in theaters (domestic box office sales), and the amount of money each film made later in DVD/Blu-ray sales was recorded from a leading movie industry data site (all sales numbers were adjusted for inflation to 2017 numbers based on the year each film was released).

Results from a multiple regression analysis (dependent variable: domestic box office sales; independent variables: overall critical consensus score and total number of critic reviews) indicate that the total number of critic reviews statistically significantly predicts domestic box office sales ($\beta = 823072.49$, $t(97) = 4.79$, $p < .001$), but that the overall critical consensus score does not ($\beta = 112768.65$, $t(97) = 0.29$, $p = .77$). However, results from a multiple regression analysis (dependent variable: total DVD/Blu-Ray sales; independent variables: overall critical consensus score and total number of critic reviews) indicate that the overall critical consensus score statistically significantly predicts DVD/Blu-ray sales ($\beta = 634385.70$, $t(97) = 2.02$, $p < .05$), but that the total number of critic reviews does not ($\beta = 54329.15$, $t(97) = 0.39$, $p = .70$). Thus, the perceived social significance of the film predominantly predicted whether consumers took part in the consumption experience during the “event” phase, while perceived inherent quality predominantly predicted whether consumers took part in the consumption experience after the “event” phase, supporting the hypothesis.

Future Studies and Contributions

Future studies can include a controlled experiment to determine direct causality, including various levels (e.g., high vs. low) of a product’s critical consensus and total number of critic reviews during a hypothetical “event” phase or during a hypothetical “post-event” phase, with likelihood of consuming the product then being assessed for each group of participants. Participants could also be asked about their expected sense of social connectedness from consuming the product to directly determine mediation. In addition to its potential theoretical contributions (e.g., regarding product life cycles, solitary and solidarity goods), this research could have practical implications for both marketing managers (e.g., how best to promote products during different phases) and consumers (e.g., a better understanding of, and therefore potentially better control over, their motivations during different phases of a product’s life cycle).

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Summary Brief

Will Traffic Light Influence Purchase Intention on Food? The Moderating Effect of Health Risk Perception

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Most extant nutrition labeling studies examine how different nutrition labels affect customers' purchase intention, or how nutrition knowledge influences shoppers' final decisions. However, most scholars have ignored that customers could perceive the health risk when they are looking at the nutrition labels, and this risk perception would moderate their attitude and purchase intention. The authors directly address these important issues; the findings of an online experiment indicate that the high health risk perception shoppers are less likely to buy the food with a Traffic Light nutrition label. However, shoppers' attitude toward the products mediates the effect of Traffic Light nutrition label and health risk perception on purchase intention. Implications for customer health, public health officials, and food manufacturers.

Introduction

Today, almost one out of every three U.S. adults (35.7%) is obese (Flegal et al. 2012), 68.7% of all adult Americans are either overweight or obese (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC] 2016), and this obesity trend keeps growing at an alarming rate. Obesity is the essential factor which increases the risk of diabetes, high blood pressure, a variety of cancers, (i.e., breast cancer, kidney cancer, colorectal cancer), and cancer-related mortality. Thus, preventing obesity and getting people to eat healthier has become imperative.

Food producers now take actions to present the nutrient content of foodstuffs more prominently in the nutrition labels, e.g. the detailed Nutrition Facts Panel (NFP). However, a survey done by the International Food Information Council (IFIC 2012) reported that many customers still believe it is harder to distinguish healthier products at the point of purchase than to do their own taxes. Therefore, this complex food purchasing environment provides excellent opportunities for market researchers to assist customers in making healthier consumption decisions by presenting more useful and simpler nutrient information (Bettman, Luce, and Payne 1998). The Traffic Light label (TL label), as one of the major instruments in trying to bring about healthier eating patterns, has been recently introduced. The TL approach uses an interpretive color-coded scheme of red, green, and yellow circles to alert customers to levels of fat, saturated fat, sugar, and salt in foods. This nutrition labeling enables consumers to choose nutritionally appropriate food at the purchasing point.

Risk perception is our human being's perception to the potential threat. This perception works like an alert when people feel danger. When the alarm sounds, it will affect people's belief and behavior (Rosenstock 1974; Weinstein 1993). The extant research, however, has only focused on how the TL labeling system influences customers' consumption behavior. Very little research has tested whether health risk perception influences how the TL label affects shoppers' purchasing decisions. Therefore, this research mainly provides insight into whether the effect of the TL approach on the consumption of food is influenced by customers' health risk perception. It also examines whether the customers' health risk perception affects consumers' attitude and purchasing food behaviors.

Method

To explore these issues, we did an online experiment to examine the effect of health risk perception on food choices at the purchasing point. We randomly assigned subjects into two different groups, one is TL label group, and another one is no label group. Consistent with the retail marketplace, all participants, regardless of condition, could choose to see the entire Nutrition Facts Panel (NFP) on the back of the package. For the TL group, specific nutrient information (i.e., calories, sugar, saturated fat and salt) is taken directly from the NFP and presented in the TL icon. All package information will be invariant for these two groups other than the Traffic Light labeling manipulation. We choose frozen pizza for this study because it has a broad range of nutrient levels.

Conclusion

Findings from this study show that nutrition label and health risk perception work together to influence customers' attitude toward the product and final purchasing decisions; the indirect effect for Traffic Light vs. No Label on purchase intention is strong and this indirect effect fully mediates the direct effect. Our findings indicate that for different levels health risk perception, participants will behave differently at purchasing point.

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Summary Brief

Patterns of Competition in Emerging Industries: Lessons Learned from the Early Automobile Industry

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Industry-creating innovations have profound impacts on society, both in business and in the daily lives of consumers. Automobiles, airplanes, radio, television, antibiotics and personal computers are some examples of innovations that spawned new industries and have had transformative effects on the world during the 20th Century. In many cases, the leaders of these emergent industries grew to take their place among the world's largest firms. The early histories of many of these industries have proven to be fertile ground for scholars who have sought to understand the factors that led to the success and failure of various competitors. The goal of this paper is to add to our understanding of emerging industries by identifying certain macro patterns of competition and marketing that emerged in the early automobile industry, and posit that these patterns might not be unique to this one industry. Rather, they may be symptomatic of industries spawned by transformative innovations. If this proposal is correct, then knowledge of these patterns may be useful to managers and marketers as they choose to enter new industries, commit to technologies and markets, join alliances, invest in plant and equipment, and plan strategies to compete in industries spawned by these innovations.

Thomas (1977) divides the early automobile industry into four eras: invention (pre-1900), product development (1900-1908), rapid expansion (1908-1918), and replacement demand (1919-1929). Early automobile manufacturers were assemblers, putting together cars from parts that were readily available in the marketplace. As such, no one had a real cost advantage and therefore, there were few barriers to entry. Nearly 2200 companies entered the US auto industry through 1980, most prior to 1929 (Carroll et al. 1996). Technology varied by firm in a number of key areas: propulsion, body style, steering and braking. This leading edge of the Introduction stage of the product life cycle was characterized by, "a wave of entering firms with many varied, experimental versions of the product" (Utterback and Suárez 1993, p. 1). However, sales were generally slow as consumers were confused about what to buy (Thomas 1977). The prevailing thought in the early automobile industry was that if engineers could not agree on the best design, i.e., an industry standard, then how could a consumer decide what product was best to buy (Epstein 1928)? Furthermore, because these cars were hand crafted, one at a time, with experimental technology, they were quite expensive. Also, the network of roads that exists today could hardly have been imagined a century ago and the ready availability of gasoline, tires and repair shops was decades away.

The emergence of an industry standard, the basis of design that most companies adopt, is a key milestone in an industry's development. This dominant design emerges through, "the interplay between technical and market choices" (Utterback and Suárez 1993, p.6). In the auto industry, the competing technologies coalesced during the Era of Product Development (1900-1908) agreeing upon a gasoline powered, tonneau body, with a steering wheel and drum or disc brakes. One significant result of the adoption of an industry standard by most manufacturers was that it facilitated mass production and the emergence of a network of suppliers for parts and components. As a result, the cost of production decreased resulting in lower prices for consumers, leading to take-off in new product adoption. As a leader in manufacturing its own parts, Ford quickly became the market leader using a low cost leader strategy (Porter 1980). GM eventually overtook the number one position by introducing new models each year, or using a differentiation strategy (Porter). By 1929 the Big Three had 80% of the US market. Many of the competitors left after the standard emerged in a shakeout pattern that followed in several industries created by innovations including tires, televisions and penicillin (Klepper and Simons 2005). The shakeout in the auto industry was 97%.

There are other patterns that we can observe in the early auto industry that can be seen in the industries that emerge from transformative innovations. These include Marshallian Industrial Districts (Cantu 2017; Mudambi et al. 2017), the role of complementary capabilities (Teece 1986), lock-in, complementary products, and network externalities/public goods. Please refer to the Table for a summary of a comparison of these factors in the auto and personal computer industries.

Table: Common Patterns in the Early Automobile and Personal Computer Industries

Pattern	Automobile Industry	Personal Computer Industry
Early Competitors	Assemblers of readily available parts. Carriages, bicycles,	Assemblers of readily available parts. Kits, integrated circuits
De Alio Entrants	Carriage makers, engine manufacturers	Mainframe (IBM), Mini-computer (DEC), Video Game (Atari)
De Novo Entrants	Two thirds of the entrants including Ford, GM	Apple, Commodore, Osborne, Compaq
Marshallian Industrial Zone	Begins scattered from New England to the Midwest. Settles near Detroit.	Begins with Albuquerque (MITS/Altair), NY, MA → Silicon Valley
Industry Standard	Gasoline Engine, Tonneau Body, Steering Wheel, Drum Brake	IBM PC/MS DOS
Complementary Resources	<u>GM</u> : Distribution/Supplier networks; Design creativity; Financial <u>Ford</u> : Manufacturing; Brand equity <u>Chrysler</u> : R&D	<u>Apple</u> : Category defining; Early mover; Customer loyalty <u>IBM</u> : Mainframe experience; B2B brand equity; Open architecture (also a vulnerability)
Lock-in	Steam and electric motors Failure to adopt production line Ford's commitment to low cost	Non-IBM proprietary operating system (Apple is exception)
Complementary Products	Tires, Gasoline	Peripherals, Software, Entertainment (movies, music)
Network Externalities/Public Goods	Roads (1916 Federal Aid Road Act and 1921 Federal Highway Act), Gas Stations/Repair Shops	Internet, Email, File Sharing, Browsers, Web

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SESSION 10.3: NON-PROFITS AND RELATIONSHIPS

Chair:

Adam Farmer, Mississippi State University

Presentation

Non-Profit Marketing Capabilities for Consumer Well-Being

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While marketing capabilities have been shown to positively impact firm performance, the goals of non-profit organizations (NPOs) tend to differ, and therefore have different outcomes. This study seeks to examine the impacts of marketing capabilities on the main goal of NPOs, consumer well-being. It is argued that this consumer well-being can be achieved through the proper formation and integration of transformative services. Studies will be conducted to examine how companies learn to create transformative services, and also how marketing capabilities affect the desired outcome of consumer well-being.

Introduction

Transformative Services Research (TSR), a topic area growing in popularity among academicians, refers to a goal by which service organizations seek to improve the well-being of those involved in the service being offered, including customers, employees, and other stakeholders (Anderson et al 2013). Given how integral services are to the everyday life of individuals, there has been a great deal of research on services and their managerial implications. The natural well-being implications inherent in services necessitate more consideration to the underlying mechanisms and effects of transformational services. This study attempts to answer calls for more research in TSR, and fill the gap in the literature by investigating the impact of non-profit marketing capabilities on the well-being for those involved by answering the following research questions: (1) How important is learning, and the ability to adapt to a changing environment in the non-profit sector? (2) How are marketing capabilities utilized to create effective transformative services? (3) How is organizational learning leveraged to better employee development, and how does this impact their delivery of potentially transformative services?

Conceptual Foundation and Hypotheses

A review of extant literature reveals the importance of learning in the ability of the organization to be adaptable and prepared for change in a dynamic environment. Learning in the form of critical reflection by managers of these organizations of currently held beliefs can lead to the transformational leadership qualities that inspire employees, leading to higher service innovation behavior and experience higher levels of job satisfaction (Kao et al. 2015), which can translate to consumers through their interaction with employees. When translated properly, this could lead to the creation and implementation of services that influence the well-being of all stakeholders (i.e. consumers and donors), known as transformative services (Anderson et al. 2013).

The main goal of NPOs is usually to provide quality services in hopes that these services result in well-being of some variation (Baba 2015). There are two categories of well-being in which these NPOs can impact their stakeholders: eudaimonic and hedonic well-being. While hedonic focuses on general happiness, eudaimonic well-being includes making the lives of the stakeholders better in some form, including access, literacy, decreasing disparity, and health (Anderson et al. 2013).

For NPOs, effectively allocated resources will be integral in creating services that impact the well-being of both consumers and donors. Once these stakeholders are positively influenced, economic outcomes (e.g. donations, operational profits, financial targets) will also be positively influenced (Baba 2015).

- H1:** There is a positive relationship between organizational transformative learning and marketing capabilities.
- H2a:** There is a positive relationship between marketing capabilities and non-profit eudaimonic consumer well-being.
- H2b:** There is a positive relationship between marketing capabilities and non-profit hedonic consumer well-being.
- H3a:** There is a positive relationship between eudaimonic consumer well-being and economic outcomes in non-profit organizations.
- H3b:** There is a positive relationship between hedonic consumer well-being and economic outcomes in non-profit organizations.

It is proposed that there is a positive relationship between organizational transformational learning and marketing capabilities. This means that as the organization learns through challenging and building upon their existing beliefs, they are better equipped to allocate resources effectively. Following the logic behind the relationship between marketing capabilities and firm performance (Morgan, Vorhies, and Mason 2009), it is proposed that marketing capabilities will lead to the achievement of the non-economic NPO goal of consumer well-being in both the hedonic and eudaimonic form. Marketing orientation has been shown to lead to the achievement of non-economic outcomes of NPOs in the form of program implementation, stakeholder satisfaction, and the number of clients/beneficiaries/volunteers (Baba 2015), followed by economic outcomes. Following this logic, it is proposed that the achievement of the non-economic goal of consumer well-being (in both forms) will lead to an increase of economic outcomes as well.

Methodology and Expected Results

Study 1

This study will qualitatively examine the motivations and thought processes behind generating transformative services from the organizational viewpoint. Employees will be asked open-ended questions regarding the link between knowledge, marketing capabilities, employee development, and transformative services.

Specific themes that may arise from an inductive analysis in this study may be unknown prior to the interviews, but assumptions can be made. It is assumed that the respondents will give detailed answers about their reasoning for providing transformative services.

Study 2

This second study will attempt to measure the previously described relationships and hypotheses in a quantitative manner. Participants will include employees and customers from a national NPO. This organization both sells material goods as well as providing a form of service with intentions of improving well-being. While few NPOs sell material goods, having a sample including one would improve generalizability.

All primary data collection will include answers to particular items on a 7-point scale. Employees from the NPO of study will be given questionnaires including questions on organizational learning, economic performance, and marketing capabilities. For hedonic well-being, a satisfaction with life scale will be used. Similar to previous research using this scale, participants will be asked to consider their lives prior to experiencing the service/product associated with the NPO of study, as well as after the experiences before answering items from the satisfaction with life scale. Given the somewhat complex nature of eudaimonic well-being, multiple scales will be used in measurement. These scales include items measuring self-esteem, locus of control, and personal expressiveness. Once the data has been collected, it will be analyzed using a confirmatory factor analysis, as well as inserted into a structural model to test the hypothesized relationships.

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Summary Brief

Relationship Motives and Advertising Evaluations

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The authors extend research on the physical attractiveness of sources in marketing communications by examining how relationship motives impact ad evaluations featuring attractive models. Using research from evolutionary psychology, we examine how three fundamental relationship motives (mate attraction, mate retention, and parenting) influence consumer evaluations of these advertisements. Specifically, individuals with a parenting motive, relative to a mate attraction or mate retention motive, are less favorable in their evaluations of ads featuring attractive sources. We provide evidence that this effect is due to a resource shift where individuals with a parenting motive are less involved with self-enhancement and affiliating with attractive others. This research contributes to the consumer behavior literature by providing new insights on when physically attractive models may negatively impact consumer responses to advertising.

Introduction

Attractive models are omnipresent across many forms of persuasive communication. Advertisers have noted for decades that attractive individuals are more likely to sell products than unattractive individuals (Brumbaugh 1993; Dion, Berscheid, and Walster 1972) and many studies of source attractiveness have also identified that an individual's physical appearance can have a powerful effect on consumer attitudes toward products featured in the message (e.g. Baker and Churchill 1977; Chao, Wuhler, and Werani 2005; Kang and Herr 2006; Till and Busler 2000). The use of attractive models in advertising is often based on the favorable inferences that consumers make about these individuals (Reingen and Kernan 1993) and the ability of attractive individuals to elicit a contagion effect on associated and nearby products (Argo, Dahl, and Morales 2006). While the physical appearance of models thus exhibits an important influence on how consumers respond to advertising, research has yet to examine how an individual's relationship motives impact responses to advertising featuring these individuals. Relationship motives is particularly important given that one's relationship motives are fundamentally linked to the importance of physical appearance in others (Buss 1988; Toma and Hancock 2010). Furthermore, relationship motives provide an ongoing source of influence in judgment and decision making throughout one's life (Kenrick et al. 2010). Thus, by examining how individuals with various relationship motives respond to attractive models in advertising, insights can be gained on issues related to segmentation, the choice of a brand's spokesperson, and whether attractive models do indeed enhance advertising evaluations.

We examine how three fundamental relationship motives (mate attraction, mate retention, and parenting) influence evaluations of the ads featuring attractive models. Findings indicate that individuals with a parenting motive, relative to those with a mate attraction or mate retention motive, are less favorable towards advertising featuring attractive models of the opposite sex. This finding is attributed to an evolutionary shift in an individual's focus away from self-enhancement and affiliating with attractive others. As a result, these individuals are less involved with products and advertisements featuring attractive models. Together, these findings provide several contributions to evolutionary psychology and advertising research.

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SESSION 10.4: RESPONSES TO SERVICE FAILURES

Chair:

Shannon McCarthy, University of Central Missouri

Presentation

Customer Complaining Behavior in Public Social Media Contexts: The Moderating Role of Fear of Negative Evaluation

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Although much research focuses on customers' post-complaint behavior and firms' service recovery efforts in traditional settings, research on customer responses to firms' service recovery efforts on social media (SM) platforms has received far less attention. Customer complaint behavior, as well as firm responses, may be different on social media platforms due to the publicly observable aspect of such behavior. The present research investigates whether customers' fear of negative evaluation (FNE) affects their complaint behavior on social media platforms. Additionally, this research investigates the interaction of customers' FNE and firms' service recovery responses on customers' evaluation of the firm and future intentions.

Introduction

The emergence of social media (SM) has empowered customers in a number of different ways. Of interest in the current research is how SM has created a new channel for customer complaining behavior (e.g., Grégoire, Salle, and Tripp 2015; Tripp and Grégoire 2011). For example, customers can now more easily share their negative experiences and complaints with other customers – or directly with the offending firms (e.g., posting complaints on firms' social media pages). Firms have developed a variety of response strategies to customer complaining behavior, such as offering certain forms of compensation and/or apologies (Cambra-Fierro, Melero, and Sese 2015). Importantly, customer post-complaint behaviors are impacted by the quality of these recovery responses provided by firms (Hess, Hanesan, and Klein 2003). A poor recovery following a service failure can indicate further evidence of a firm's incompetence and/or lack of effort (Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault 1990), potentially resulting in customers seeking vengeance against the firm and switching to competitors (Keaveney 1995).

To date, a plethora of studies have examined customer post-complaint behaviors, as well as firms' service recovery efforts (e.g., Hess, Hanesan, and Klein 2003; Cambra-Fierro, Melero, and Sese 2015). However, the vast majority of this research has taken place within the context of the traditional complaining environment (e.g., a private, dyadic interaction between the customer and firm). By contrast, customers' responses to firms' public recovery efforts in an SM context have received far less attention. This change of context (private vs. public) is important to consider because consumers' online complaining behaviors and/or firms' online service recovery efforts may be considerably different in the presence of others. In particular, individual customer characteristics, such as fear of negative evaluation (FNE) may affect customer complaining behavior in SM settings. Fear of negative evaluation (FNE) defined as an anxiety a person might have toward negative assessments (Watson and Friend 1969). For this research, we examine how FNE interacts with firms' service recovery responses to customers' SM complaints on several key post-complaint outcomes (i.e., attitudes toward the firm, vengeance intentions, and switching intentions).

This research contributes to existing literature in three important ways. First, it builds on previous research that has provided valuable insights into firms' recovery efforts in traditional customer complaint contexts. (e.g., in a private manner) (e.g., Hess, Hanesan, and Klein 2003; Cambra-Fierro, Melero, and Sese 2015). We extend this knowledge by providing an understanding of customer behaviors in SM contexts, where other customers can publically monitor the firm/customer exchange. Second, we explore whether FNE moderates the effects of firms' SM service recovery efforts. Third, we provide valuable suggestions to firms regarding how to respond to customers' complaints in public SM settings most effectively.

Conceptual Development

Previous research shows that customers show more switching and vengeance intentions when offered a poor service recovery after a service failure (Keaveney 1995). Specifically, numerous studies demonstrate that when firms fail to recover from an initial service failure, customers are more likely to spread negative word-of-mouth and switch to alternative brands in an attempt to hurt the firm (e.g., Bechwati and Morrin 2003; Grégoire and Fisher 2008; Bitner

1990; Folkes Koletsky, and Graham 1987; Hess, Ganesan, and Klein 2003). Similarly, extant studies show that failed service recovery efforts have a positive impact on customers' vengeance intentions (e.g., treating customers rudely during the recovery process causes more desire for revenge) (Bechwati and Morrin 2003). When customers receive poor service recovery responses, they are more likely to attribute such responses to firms, resulting in increased desire for vengeance.

However, customer responses to failed service recovery efforts in SM settings may depend on the characteristics of individuals (e.g., they may worry about being negatively evaluated or judged by others). Previous research shows that those with higher FNE tend to work harder to get approval from others (Watson and Friend 1969). Additionally, they are more socially anxious compared to those with lower FNE. Thus, we propose that customers with high FNE do not receive the response they desire after posting complaints on SM, they are likely to think that their social status is damaged and will display more unfavorable behaviors toward the firm and increased vengeance intentions. We explore this interaction using an online study, as outlined below.

Proposed Methodology

Study 1 will use a 3 (Firm response to SM complaint: Excellent vs. Poor vs. No Response) X 2 (Fear of negative evaluation: Higher vs. Lower) between-subject design. We will test six dependent measures: attitude toward the restaurant, repatronage intentions, switching intentions, vindictive negative WOM, desire for vengeance, and fear of negative evaluation. All scales are adapted from the previous studies. Study 1 will use a sample of 180 adult subjects recruited through Amazon Turk. Participants will be asked to read a scenario entailing experienced with the firm, their complaining behavior on SM in response to these problems, and finally, the firm's recovery response to their publicly displayed complaints (Hess, Genesan, and Klein 2003). To facilitate the public nature of the experimental setting, respondents will be explicitly told that their complaints, as well as the firm's response to the complaints, are publicly available on Twitter for anyone to see. To date, a number of studies have successfully implemented this role-playing approach (e.g., Blodgett, Hill, and Tax 1997). The restaurant industry was chosen for this scenario because this industry is frequently the subject of service failure and service recovery (e.g., Hess, Ganesan, and Klein 2003; Weun, Beatty, and Jones. 2004).

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Presentation

The Role of Prefactual Thinking in Consumers' Decisions to Voice Their Complaints after Service Failures

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This study looks at individuals' decision-making process when debating whether to complain or not after a service failure. More specifically, this study looks at the role of prefactual thinking in complaint decision making. This constitutes a novel forward-looking perspective to the study of complaint behavior. Forward-looking cognitions in decision making has increasingly been shown to play a critical role in decision making and has, thus far, received no attention in the realm of complaint decision making. First, a qualitative study looking at the prefactual thoughts generated by customers before the act of complaining was conducted to be able to test its effects on complaining. These results will also be compared to those of attitudes towards complaining.

Introduction

Poor service incidents, or service failures, that is, when the service delivered departs from the service promised to the customer, are an unavoidable possible outcome of service provision from which no company can escape, regardless of their efforts at anticipating service problems. Given the potential negative consequences of consumer dissatisfaction and possible benefits obtained through successful service recoveries (Singh & Wilkes, 1996), companies would prefer that, after a service failure, customers raise their complaints directly to their company representatives. However, given the same potential anger-provoking situation, individuals may or may not voice a complaint to the service company. In fact, research has shown that the majority of customers do not complain to the firm. Some sources report that as much as 70% of customers abstain from complaining even though they experience negative emotions stemming from the service failure incident itself (Oliver, 1997). This is intriguing. If individuals experiencing a service failure very frequently experience negative emotions and, as a result, their motivation to seek redress increases, why aren't complaint rates higher?

When customers experience a service failure, they are faced with a decision to make, whether to raise their concerns to the company, either at that time or later, do nothing and deal internally with the issue, or hold on until a later time and employ one of the available indirect forms of complaining. In most circumstances, individuals are seemingly free to decide what to do. It is at this point that thinking about complaining may trigger a number of cognitions related to alternative outcomes. Thus, when one entertains the possibility of complaining, potential consequences are anticipated. For example, when thinking about complaining, one may think, "If I complain, I would hurt the employee's feelings or jeopardize his/her employment." Looking at complaint behavior from the perspective of decision making constitutes a novel undertaking involving the study of complex future-oriented cognitive processes, concomitant with or independent from the service failure event-triggering emotions and cognitions, which are retrospective in nature.

Background

Cognitive processes that relate to mental simulations, such as prefactual thinking, have been studied for quite some time in the decision-making literature (For a review, see Epstein, Scholl & Roese, 2016). This type of thinking involves mental simulations of alternative outcomes to future expected end results. This type of mental simulation provides significant assistance to individuals insofar as they facilitate decision making and behavior regulation. By analyzing future consequences, individuals can decide on the course of action that would be most helpful in realizing their desired goals.

This research endeavor contributes to the service and decision-making literatures by providing a novel account to explain the complaining behavior of dissatisfied customers, particularly the "complain/not complain" decision making process. One of the main objectives of this research is to explore the underlying processes that either deter or encourage customers to complain to service providers, known as voice behavior. Following the cognitive model of regulatory functions developed by Barbey, Krueger and Grafman (2009), this study proposes that thinking about the future act

of complaining can impact the decision whether to complain or refrain from it, independent from the initial event-triggering emotion experienced directly as a result of the service failure and the general attitudes towards complaining held by the individual.

This study advances our understanding of service failures and complaining behavior in a number of ways. It underscores the importance of future-oriented thinking as a cognitive process taking place after the service failure and before a decision to complain is made. In this sense, it demonstrates that decisions to complain can be more complex than originally thought of. A classification of prefactual thoughts relating to the consequences of direct complaining most frequently used by customers is developed. From a practitioner's point of view, this study aims to provide the necessary tools for companies to be able to design programs that encourage customers' to complain by influencing their decision making process. Understanding that service failures trigger a cognitive process regarding the consequences of complaining can help in the design of these programs. In addition, understanding the cognitive mechanisms underlying the act of complaining can help companies reduce the negative effect of negative word of mouth. The starting point of NWOM is customer dissatisfaction. Service recoveries after a complaint aim at ameliorating customer discontent. NWOM can be reduced once the complaint process is better tailored to address individuals' concerns and barriers to complaining.

One of the most widely studied antecedents of complaint behavior has been attitudes towards complaining. In general, the relationship between attitudes and behavior has been widely investigated in the psychology and other research fields, typically based on the tenets of the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Positive/negative attitudes towards complaining were generally shown to lead to a higher/lower likelihood of complaining (Richins, 1982). A distinction between attitudes towards complaining and prefactual thoughts about the consequences of complaining is proposed here under the premise that the latter will be a stronger predictor of voicing behavior. While attitude is defined as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1), prefactual thinking relates to a form of hypothetical thinking that consists of mentally simulating alternatives to future events by considering what may actually happen and thinking of a possible outcome or outcomes (Mandel, Hilton & Catellani, 2005; Roesse, 1997; Roesse & Olson, 1995). Because attitude toward complaining encompasses a general feeling of the "goodness" or "badness" of complaining and is not restricted to a specific episode of dissatisfaction (Kim, Kim, Im & Shin, 2003), the attitude/behavior hypothesis has been somewhat weak in predicting actual behaviors. Richins (1987) found that attitudes towards complaining predicted 14% of the variance in actual complaining behavior. This is because a general preference towards a certain behavior does not account for the specific circumstances surrounding the event and may not be a strong predictor of the actual behavior. Results of empirical studies typically show a low predictive ability of attitudes in the prediction of actual behaviors. Prefactual thinking, being related to imagined behaviors in specific circumstances and closely connected to specific goal-directed behaviors, as opposed to general tendencies, is expected to be more likely to account for an individual's actual behavior than attitudes towards complaining.

Methodology

Through a qualitative study, a list of the prefactual thoughts most frequently generated by customers prior to making a decision about complaining to the organization was generated.

Due to the wide variety of mental simulations that individuals can articulate, prefactual thinking has typically been measured qualitatively by asking participants to write down the thoughts that come to their minds when considering a certain action and subsequently having independent judges code the answers into prefactual thoughts (i.e., as opposed to other types of thoughts) (see Roesse & Olson, 1995; Sanna & Turley, 1996; Sanna, 2006; McConnell, Niedermeier, Leibold, El-Alayli, Chin & Kuiper, 2000). This presents a challenge if one wants to incorporate prefactual thinking in any type of quantitative model. This study solves this challenge by creating an index of prefactual thoughts. Two independent judges generated a list of the most frequently mentioned and relevant prefactual thoughts. In order to be included, the thoughts mentioned had to be present in at least 10% of the cases (following Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Next, this index will be used to examine the effect of prefactual thinking on complaint behavior and also to compare its effects with attitudes towards complaining. This analysis is underway.

It is expected that this study sheds light into the important role of prefactual thinking in complaint decision-making, a research area that has not received any attention thus far.

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Presentation

We're Sorry...Again: Analyzing Twitter Responses for Multiple Apologies Following a Publicized Service Failure

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Discussion of offline service failures can rapidly spread through social media. Online social network structure allows for quick distribution of information, regardless of accuracy. This ease of sharing of complaints by users considerably increases the potential impact of each complaint. As such, firms must more actively engage in service recovery through both traditional and social media. To facilitate message spread, firms may initially apologize online, however when these responses are not well thought out, they can easily backfire, leading to online consumer backlash. The choice of service recovery message can significantly affect consumer response and opinion. Systematically random sampled tweets from 200 social media users responding to a firm's apology for a viral service failure will be collected from five large-firm apologies. Collected tweets will be coded for sentiment and valence, with response patterns to be analyzed. Results and future research directions will be presented.

Introduction

Negative word of mouth spreads quickly through social media sites. The structure of online social networks allows for the quick distribution of information, regardless of the information's accuracy (Doerr et al., 2013). The ease of sharing complaints by other users considerably increases the potential impact of each complaint. Thus, the complaint process has evolved from a private matter to a greater public process using social media (Ward and Ostrom, 2006). With over 70% of Fortune 500 companies currently operating Twitter accounts (Slegg, 2013), firms can leverage the social media platform to speak not only to customers individually but also to a mass audience without the need for an intermediary. The growth in this medium, as firms continue to expand their usage and consumers continue to incorporate the medium into their every day lives, necessitates further study of how the brand can use online interaction to both protect and grow the consumer brand relationship. As the interweaving of brands into consumers' lives continues, the added online touch points serve as platforms to both enhance and repair potential consumer-brand relational issues.

Social media users are quick to post, share, and comment on social media posts of firms committing perceived service failures. These interactions create the need for the firm to engage in the appropriate image repair (Benoit 1997) and service recovery strategy. In April 2017, videos of United Airlines employees dragging a bloodied passenger from his seat on an airplane by security guards were posted to social media. United issued three different apologies to try to calm the negative publicity and social media outrage in response to their handling of the situation. The first apology, released on United Airlines' Twitter account, put the focus of the blame on the "disruptive and belligerent" passenger while insisting employees had "followed established procedures." One day after that apology failed to quell the rising anger, United CEO Oscar Munoz released a second apology via Twitter, stating the passenger removal was an "upsetting event to all of us here at United" and apologized for "having to re-accommodate these customers." In this second apology, the use of the benign term "re-accommodate" used to drag out a bloodied passenger generated the largest amount of social media ire. Finally, two days after the event went viral, a third, significantly more conciliatory apology was released from the United CEO. This third apology called the event "truly horrific," and the CEO stated that United "take(s) full responsibility" and promised their customers that "we will do better." After the incident, United Airlines was widely mocked and ridiculed for its multiple responses. CNN Money's (2017) Alana Petroff summed up much of the coverage United Airlines received from this incident and the multiple apologies with the headline "United Airlines shows how to make a PR crisis a total disaster," while BBC News' (2017) Leisha Chi described it as "Not so friendly skies: United Airlines' public relations disaster."

The United Airlines example demonstrates a new world of public relations where controversies get started and then are resolved through social media platforms. While the service firm does not necessarily control how viral service-based communications start, they certainly have control over their responses. Is it more advantageous for the

firm to come out strongly with one firm apology or should the firm begin with more carefully worded language? While it is easy to look at recent examples and praise brands for quick and decisive action, it is equally easy to understand United's more cautious approach. Issuing too hard of an apology could indicate the firm is overreacting to the social media, giving the sometimes mobbish mentality of the "Twitter-verse" too much power. Issuing a firm apology could open the firm up to further liability by admitting they acted inappropriately. There also exists the potential, with the "hot and fast" nature of viral social media outrage that the problem itself will eventually go away without the firm needing to apologize strongly. With these concerns, this proposed research looks to examine social media responses to corporate apologies following a viral service failure. Does the valence of an apology change the tone of the proceeding social media communication? Do apologies from firms decrease negative social media connection, or is the viral nature of the communication something impossible to stop? Do social media users become less outraged after multiple apologies? This proposed research looks to explore these questions.

Conceptual Development and Proposed Method

Justice theory is often used to understand consumers' response to the level of fairness ascribed to the firm's service recovery response. Justice theory is comprised of three components: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Clemmer and Schneider, 1996; Blodgett et al., 1997). Distributive justice relates to the perceived fairness of the outcome; procedural justice relates to the fairness of rules and procedures; and interactional justice relates to the fairness of the interpersonal treatment experienced (Blodgett et al., 1997). Justice theory has relevance not only in the brick-and-mortar setting but also to online behavior. Given the scope of apology and acceptance in this proposed research, the distributive aspect of justice theory will be used to guide this research forward.

A set of 200 systematically random sampled tweets (public Twitter comments) from social media users responding to a firm's apology for a viral service failure will be collected from five separate firm apologies. The apology tweets come from large, multinational corporations, occurring within the past two years. After the tweets are collected, they will be analyzed and coded for sentiment and valence using SentiStrength sentiment detection software and results will be reported. Overall, it is our hope this research will add to the knowledge of the effect of multiple apologies following service failures and the nature of social media communication following multiple social media apology statements. It is our intention to present the tweets themselves, the analysis of the tweets, and finally hypotheses, driven by justice theory, for a further empirical study driven by the qualitative research.

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SESSION 10.5: PERSONAL AND SOCIAL WELL-BEING

Chair:

Cassandra Ditt, Louisiana Tech University

Summary Brief

Antecedents of Enjoyment, Approach Intentions, and Helpful Feedback: Website Design and Aspects of Consumer Psychology

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This paper studies how need-for-cognition, product category involvement, and mindfulness facets affect online customer engagement in the forms of enjoyment, approach intentions, and provision of helpful feedback. A study involving the website of a fictitious, though ostensibly bona fide, online retailer shows that, across low-versus-high levels of need-for-cognition, product category involvement, and mindfulness facets, website aesthetics, website security, and product assessment occur frequently as antecedents of enjoyment. However, notable differences were observed. Namely, information quality and website friendliness do not appear, at least in the customer experience provided through this study, particularly relevant to engagement. Furthermore, provision of helpful feedback is quite unlike approach intentions as a potential aspect of customer engagement. In a general sense, it is valuable for marketers to recognize that sensitivity to aspects of website design, in terms of their likely impact on the online customer experience, varies on the basis of consumer psychology constructs.

Introduction

Customer engagement is regarded as both an essential market-related business objective and a vital research priority. For a business, engagement is desirable because of the behavioral correlates of engagement. For example, engaged customers visiting the website of an online retailer may behaviorally differ from those more cognitively, affectively, or relationally disconnected from the website/online retailer. Conceivably, engaged customers may also exhibit a greater willingness than unengaged customers to make valuable contributions through feedback on aspects of website design. In this research, need-for-cognition, product category involvement, and mindfulness are assessed for their respective impacts on the associations between website perceptions (namely, information quality, product evaluation, as well as website aesthetics, security, and friendliness) and manifestations of customer engagement (enjoyment, approach intentions, and enjoyment).

Methodology

To facilitate data collection, a website for a fictitious, though ostensibly bona fide, online retailer in the clothing category was developed using Google Sites. In total, 176 useable responses were generated from the 195 undergraduate students who participated in the research. With one exception, measures were derived from existing research (e.g., Baer et al. 2006; Bart et al. 2005; Cacioppo, Petty, and Kao 1984; Darke and Ritchie 2007; Deng and Poole 2010; Holzwarth, Janiszewski, and Neumann 2006). Helpful feedback was garnered using the following prompt: "In order to help the company, please indicate ALL specific improvements to its website that, in your opinion, should be made and that you are willing to recommend." Participants were advised to separate each individual improvement recommendation with a hyphen, and an overall index of improvement recommendations was determined by summing the hyphens. All in cases, psychology groups (low versus high) were determined using the median split technique. Overall model validity was assessed using multiple goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2 = 675.63$, $p < .001$; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .08).

Discussion

This research has uncovered interesting differences in the antecedents of customer engagement on the basis of need for cognition, involvement, and mindfulness. However, the evidence presented here indicates that helpful feedback is quite unlike approach intentions as a potential aspect of customer engagement. For enjoyment, website aesthetics, website security, and product assessment are relatively popular as antecedents across consumer psychology levels, but some notable differences were observed. For example, consumers high in need-for-cognition are responsive to the perceived level of security in the website of an online retailer, whereas those low in that need are not. Instead, people low in need-for-cognition base enjoyment more on the perceived quality of the products available on the website. In a similar sense, enjoyment for consumers high in involvement depends exclusively on perceived product

quality, whereas for consumers low in involvement enjoyment derives from website aesthetics and website security. With respect to mindfulness, consumers low in describing are sensitive to website aesthetics, website security, and product assessment in forming enjoyment, whereas consumers high in describing only appear sensitive to website aesthetics for forming enjoyment. In a general sense, it is valuable for marketers to recognize that sensitivity to aspects of website design, in terms of their likely impact on the customer experience, varies on the basis of consumer psychology.

A number of unexpected results were obtained during hypothesis testing. Namely, information quality and website friendliness do not appear, at least in the customer experience provided through this study, particularly relevant to engagement. Additionally, whereas aspects of website design appear to explain approach intentions very well, they do not appear to relate to helpful feedback to a similar extent. Moreover, with the exception of consumers high in involvement (who offered greater feedback with higher levels of enjoyment), consumers generally appeared more likely to offer helpful feedback with less favorable evaluations of website design.

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Summary Brief

Increasing Customer Citizenship Behavior: Do Life Events Matter?

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How can firms increase customer citizenship behavior, a critical component of customer value co-creation behavior? This study addresses this issue by examining how life events, which are managerially actionable individual difference variables, influence customer citizenship behavior.

Introduction

The notion of customer citizenship behavior, “a person’s self-willingness to engage in unsolicited, helpful, and constructive behaviors toward other customers and the firm” (Anaza 2014, p. 251), has garnered growing attention from marketing researchers and practitioners alike. Previous research in this area has provided valuable insights on external or social factors that encourage more citizenship behavior (e.g., Bettencourt 1997; Bove et al. 2009; Yi, Natarajan, and Lee 2013). However, scant extant literature exists on internal or personal factors as predictors of customer citizenship behavior. Yet, individual difference factors are likely important in predicting citizenship behavior that is discretionary or voluntary in nature (Anaza 2014). In light of this, this study investigates life events (an internal and personal factor) as predictors of customer citizenship behavior.

Critical life events refer to markers of life transitions, such as marriage, giving birth, divorce, starting career, or loss of job (Lee, Moschis, and Mathur 2001). Previous literature in this stream has documented the significant impact life events have on consumer needs, preferences, behaviors, and lifestyles (Andreasen 1984; Lee, Moschis, and Mathur 2001; Mathur, Moschis, and Lee 2008). These studies give credence to the possibility that life events may influence customers’ willingness to engage in citizenship behavior. Thus, this study set out to advance research understanding of drivers of customer citizenship behaviors by exploring the impact of different types of life transitions on customer citizenship behavior.

Conceptual Background

When a critical life event occurs, an individual usually experiences life transition in the form of entering a new role or exiting a current role (George 1993; Light and Visser 2013). For example, an individual enters the employee role when first joining the workforce, and exits the employee role when getting laid off. Previous research has linked life transitions with volunteering in community services in the non-commercial context (Omoto, Snyder, and Martino 2000). Extending this line of reasoning to the commercial context, it can be argued that life transitions are positively associated with customer citizenship behavior. Another intriguing question emerges as to what underlying mechanism is responsible for the positive impact life transitions have on customer citizenship behavior. The social psychology literature has found that stress usually increases during life transitions (Monroe 2008). Thus, it can be expected that consumers experiencing life transitions also experience stress. Given that engaging volunteering or prosocial behavior is a way for consumers to cope with stress created by life transitions (Lee, Moschis, and Mathur 2001), it can be argued that customer citizenship behavior may be viewed as an outcome of consumer efforts to cope with stressful life events. A conceptual framework investigating the relationships between life events, stress, coping, and customer citizenship behavior is proposed.

Methodology

A survey was administered to test the proposed conceptual framework. A list of common life events which is well established in the literature was used. Respondents who did not experience any life transitions on the list within the last 12 months were not retained in the final sample size (n = 331). Data analysis was carried out using structural equation modeling in Amos 24.0.

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SESSION 10.7: MOTIVATION, MORALITY, AND A META-ANALYSIS

Chair:

Toni M. Bennett, Jacksonville University

Presentation

Consumer Purchase Motivation in Digital Environments

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Based on a review of the current body of literature, there appears to be a need for further research on the extent to which intrinsic psychological motivators impact the success rate of digital marketing campaigns designed for intangible products/services. By focusing on the first component of motivation, which is activation, and utilizing the Steven Reiss' theory of 16 basic desires, a model may be identified for incorporating high value intrinsic motivators as themes in a marketing campaign for intangible goods/services to increase the likelihood of consumer engagement as evidenced by the consumer's decision to initiate a behavior. Quantitatively, the level of engagement can be measured by defined conversion metrics and maximized ROI for the tested digital marketing advertisements. The potential model would be adaptable to various levels of intangibility; therefore, applicable to multiple service industries (i.e. education, financial services, health care, consulting, etc.).

Introduction

Marketing is the practice of motivating and influencing consumer behavior. Digital marketing channels which include search engines, email, social media, and websites now provide marketers with an unprecedented ability to target and reach a larger number of consumers and ultimately control motivators through tailored ad content (Vien 2015).

Based on an initial review of the literature, there appears to exist a gap in the body of research on motivational theories applied to marketing strategies for intangible products and services. Much of the current research focuses specifically on extrinsic motivation, tangible product marketing tactics, and motivational theory as it relates to management. Given the elusive nature of marketing intangible products and services, due to the lack of ability to test or inspect in advance, consumers must rely on other factors of motivation, often intrinsic in nature. As a marketing professional, this type of research will be advantageous and applicable across various levels of intangibility. By bridging the gaps between motivational theory, marketing strategy, and fundamentals of intangibility, marketers can utilize digital marketing to potentially control intrinsic motivators by incorporating them as themes in digital marketing campaigns, such as banner advertisements.

Literature Review

Changing technology, consumer habits, demographics, and marketplaces have prompted marketers to reevaluate the effectiveness of traditional advertising theories and methodologies (Kerr, et al. 2015). During the 1950's to 1980's, mass media reigned supreme with the primary focus on television and some print advertising. Notably, there were few media options and limited consumer choice. During this era, the prevalent train of thought was advertising is something one does to people. Fast forward to 2013-2014 and a noticeable shift began to emerge toward online and digital marketing channels, including mobile media. Quantifiable proof of this shift is clearly noted in a review of advertising expenditures for this period, with an 18.5% increase in Internet marketing nationally in 2014. By the end of 2014, over \$143 billion was spent on digital advertising in the United States alone. Predictions are for this total to reach \$268 billion US dollars by 2020 (Taiminen, Karjaluo 2015).

When it comes to the effectiveness of digital marketing, Varnali (2010) claims that not all products and services are equal when it comes to suitability for online marketing and retailing. He presents a list of seventeen characteristics to gauge the success of a product or service utilizing a digital marketing strategy, which includes: tangibility, tactility, information intensity, efficiency of delivery, instant gratification, differentiability, level of retailer added-value, importance of owning, difficulty of finding, having a trusted brand name, price sensitivity, price, margin, involvement level, pleasantness of shopping experience, gift orientation, frequency of purchase, perishability, and personal nature of the product (Varnali 2010).

Intangibility

Tangibility is the degree to which a product or service can provide a clear and concrete image prior to purchase. Therefore, the degree of tangibility relates to the physical and mental components as well as an ability for the consumer

to picture the object (McDougall, Snetsinger 1990). On the other hand, the definition of intangibility is the lack of physical evidence which complicates the consumer decision making process due to the forced reliance on personal information sources to grasp what they will receive from the intangible product or service (McDougall, Snetsinger 1990). If we delve deeper into Vernali's first characteristic of suitability for Internet marketing strategy; tangibility, we find there is limited research in the area of product/service intangibility and what is available is largely attributed to intuition and anecdotal evidence (Koppius 1999).

Using McDougall and Snetsinger's (1990) chart of tangibility continuum, we find that most services, such as consulting and education, fall on the intangible dominant end of the spectrum. Services marketing requires that the marketer identify the tangibility rating of their service and utilize strategies to make the service more concrete in the minds of the target consumer (McDougall, Snetsinger 1990). The onus then rests with the marketer to employ the advertising components and marketing strategy that leads to a more tangible brand offering. Since services are considered an immaterial product that cannot exist or be produced independent of its producer and consumer, the relationship building process begins at the earliest stages of customer generation and engagement (Hill 1999).

Consumer Motivation

Motivation is defined as the internal and/or external forces that illicit enthusiasm in an individual to pursue and persist in a certain task or course of action (Daft 2014). Therefore, motives can be defined as reasons or purposes for performing a behavior or action that may express a value(s) while also affecting the individual's perception, emotion, and cognition (Reiss 2004). The components of motivation are relevant to the discussion of consumer behavior and marketing strategies. Activation is the first component and relates to an individual's decision to initiate a behavior or action. The second component is persistence and points to the continued effort an individual makes in pressing toward a particular goal or motive. Finally, intensity speaks to the level of vigor and concentration an individual devotes towards pursuing the goal or motive (Daft 2014).

Although there are relatively few studies on motivational factors and the consumer purchase decision process, Taute, Peterson, and Sierra (2013) argue that consumers are behaviorally influenced by their motivational needs. As consumers become aware of their motivational needs and wants, they seek to acquire or satiate the need by assessing alternatives and choosing the product or service that best fits their perceived need. The resulting emotions drive consumer response to marketing and ultimately lead to a brand relationship or product avoidance depending on the positive or negative emotional reaction to the advertising. These motivational needs are seen as fundamental to a consumer's intrinsic motivation.

Deci and Ryan (1985) are credited with distinguishing between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation based on their Cognitive Evaluation Theory. Further explanation of the two categories classifies intrinsic motivation as motives of the mind (ego motives), which are viewed as superior to motives of the body (drives), also known as extrinsic motivation (Reiss 2005). From a consumer perspective, extrinsic motivation can be defined as a motivation to engage in a behavior or activity that produces a perceived and desired outcome that is separate from the behavior or activity (Garrity, et al. 2007). Whereas, intrinsic motivation relates to the consumer's perceived inherent reward and direct reinforcement that results from engaging in a specific behavior or activity. Bhagat and Williams (2008) breakdown the differences between the two motivators even further by indicating that intrinsic motivation focuses on content and the satisfaction of higher order or internal needs. Intrinsic motivators are considered an end, rather than a mean, that is largely self-controlled. On the other hand, extrinsic motivators are context focused and centered about lower order or external needs. In contrast with intrinsic motivators, extrinsic motivation is a means to an end with external rewards as the goal (Bhagat, Williams 2008). Aristotle proposed that individuals seeking an end will perform a behavior simply because it is what they desire to do, whereas, a means leads individuals to perform an act for its accompanying value or reward (Reiss 2004).

Theoretical Background

So how can marketers identify the nature of consumer motivation in order to influence consumer choice? According to Reiss (2005), the guiding factor in predicting human behavior is the identification of individual differences in motivational needs. If you can identify what consumers desire and what will satisfy those desires and motives, then you can begin to predict consumer behavior. The tools for this level of identification can be found in a review of personality theory. History's most influential personality theorists such as William McDougall, Abraham Maslow, Frederick Herzberg, and David McClelland based their theories of motivation on theoretical reasoning and patient observations; yet, none were based on large scale surveys of an individual's self-reported driving forces (Havercamp, Reiss 2003). Prior psychology research on motivation lacked instruments to assess a person's

motivational needs. Leading theories on motivation, therefore, linked personality and behavior, not motive and behavior (Reiss 2005).

In contrast, the line of study on trait motivation, known as sensitivity theory, was developed to provide an analysis of personality centered on what people voluntarily reported as the motives for their behavior. Professor of psychology and psychiatry at Ohio State University, Steven Reiss, took sensitivity theory a step further to examine the multifaceted nature of human motivation, particularly intrinsic motivation, and its interrelatedness of goals to develop his theory of end goals, also known as the theory of 16 basic desires (Reiss 2004). Reiss completed four-factor studies (three exploratory and one confirmatory) that included over 6,000 participants who were administered the Reiss Profile of Fundamental Goals and Motivation Sensitivities which was a 128-item self-report instrument to assess the 16 genetically distinct, basic motives or life end goals developed from prior research. Reiss' (2000) definition of a basic motive is three-fold: intrinsically based with an end purpose, universal in nature and of psychological importance. The Reiss profile and theory is based on a scientific approach and has been shown to have good test-retest and internal reliability for the study of motivational traits (Havercamp, Reiss 2003). Reiss' theory of 16 basic desires includes the following intrinsic motives: power, curiosity, independence, status, social contact, vengeance, honor, idealism, physical exercise, romance, family, order, eating, acceptance, tranquility, and savings (Reiss 2000). Table 1 provides a full definition of each motive as well as the accompanying intrinsic feeling and value associated with each motive. Reiss (2000) theorized that the 16 basic desires listed above are fundamental intrinsic motives that induce a drive to substantiate or reinforce daily behaviors and actions in most people.

Table: Steven Reiss Theory of 16 Basic Desires

Motive	Description	Intrinsic Feeling	Intrinsic Value	Behavior
Acceptance	Desire for approval	Self-confidence	Self	Assertive Behavior
Curiosity	Desire for knowledge	Wonderment	Ideas	Problem solving
Eating	Desire for food	Satiation	Sustenance	Cooking
Family	Desire to raise own children	Love	Children	Homemaker
Honor	Desire to obey a traditional moral code	Loyalty	Duty	Principled behavior
Idealism	Desire to improve society	Compassion	Fairness	Fair play
Independence	Desire for individuality, autonomy	Freedom	Self-reliance	Rely on own power
Order	Desire to organize	Comfort	Stability	Compulsive
Physical Exercise	Desire to exercise muscles	Vitality	Fitness	Participatory sports
Romance	Desire for courting	Ecstasy	Sensuality	Courting
Power	Desire to influence	Self-efficacy	Achievement	Leadership
Saving	Desire to collect	Ownership	Frugality	Collecting
Social Contact	Desire for companionship	Fun	Belonging	Join groups
Status	Desire for importance	Attention	Reputation	Showing off
Tranquility	Desire for inner peace	Relaxation	Caution	Avoid stress
Vengeance	Desire to get even	Vindication	Winning	Revenge

(Reiss, 2004)

Research Question

To what extent do intrinsic psychological motivators impact the success rates of customer engagement for integrated digital marketing campaigns (banner ads) designed for intangible products/services?

Research Hypotheses

Based on the 16 Basic Desires Theory (Steven Reiss), the following hypotheses will be tested: There is a positive correlation between the incorporation of "Acceptance", "Curiosity", "Family", "Honor", "Idealism", "Independence", "Order", "Power", "Social Status", "Social Contact", and/or "Tranquility" themes in a digital marketing campaign for an intangible product/service and the likelihood of response to the corresponding call to action. Each of the above-mentioned themes will be represented in a separate hypothesis for the purposes of testing.

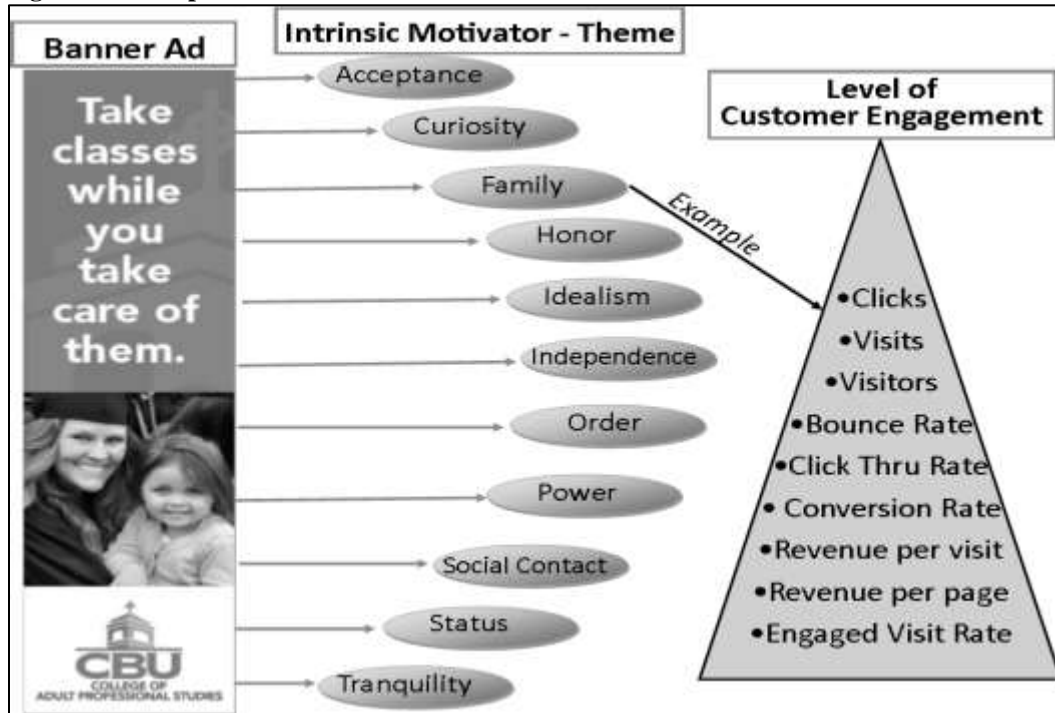
Methodology

The first stage of testing will consist of the selection of 15-20 banner ads from one service industry and controlled for number of impressions, reach, cost per impression and cost per click to ensure tested ads are equal. In the second stage, a survey will be administered to participants, face to face, in order to rank the prominent intrinsic motivating theme represented in the digital banner advertisement. Utilizing random sampling, survey participants will be divided into groups and the previously selected banner ads will be displayed via projector. Participants will then be asked to rank the dominant theme of each ad based on the Reiss 16 Basic Desires Model. Based on the compilation of survey

results, the digital banner ads ranked highest for each of the intrinsic motivators listed above, will be included in the third round of testing.

During the third stage of testing, archival data, specifically web/campaign analytics will be assessed for the tested banner ads to measure the level of customer engagement. The metrics below will be used during this stage of testing and analysis to support or refute the corresponding hypotheses. Refer to Figure 1.

Figure 1: Conceptual Research Model



Implications

As a marketing professional, this type of research will be advantageous and applicable across various levels of intangibility. By bridging the gaps between motivational theory, marketing strategy, and fundamentals of intangibility, marketers can utilize digital marketing to potentially control intrinsic motivators by incorporating them as themes in digital marketing campaigns.

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Summary Brief

Emotional Aspects of Ethical Decision Making and the Impact of Religiosity

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An overwhelming amount of marketing and consumer ethics literature assumes that consumers follow cognitive, rational processes in decision making. Whereas, this is a logical and valid approach, it overlooks the emotional state of the individual at the time of the decision, which is an integral part of ethical decision making. Research regarding the role of emotions in ethical decision making has increased recently. This paper serves to examine the relationship of emotions in ethical decision making and the antecedent effects of religiosity.

Introduction

Research in the field of marketing/consumer ethics has made considerable advances in understanding both the conceptual and theoretical aspects of ethical decision making processes. Consumer ethics research often utilizes ethical beliefs as a proxy for behavior or behavioral intentions, theorizing that these ethical judgements largely determine the consumer's intention to engage in ethically questionable behavior. Although consumer ethics research has greatly enhanced understanding of consumer ethical decision making, a potentially important component of ethical decision making has been overlooked, namely emotions (Vitell et al., 2013). Emotions significantly influence how people conduct themselves in their daily lives and interactions with others, especially in ethical decision judgements across a variety of situations. Previous research has called for the inclusion and examination of the emotional component in marketing ethics research (Kim et al. 2009). Ethical decision making by consumers is an essential component of consumer behavior, and can be impacted by emotions, therefore the study of exactly how emotions can influence consumer behavior is worthy of further examination.

Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

The Hunt-Vitell theory of ethics is designed to address a situation in which an individual is faced with a problem that is perceived as having ethical content. If the situation does not contain ethical content then the subsequent elements of the model are not engaged. In a situation where ethical content is perceived, the next process in the model is the perception of various alternatives or actions that might be taken to resolve the ethical problem. The Hunt-Vitell model identifies several personal characteristics that might influence specific aspects of the ethical, decision making process. The personal characteristics identified in the model are religion, value system, belief system, strength of moral character, cognitive moral development, and ethical sensitivity. Of particular interest to this study is religion as an influence on ethical beliefs. Hunt and Vitell (2006) state that is without question that an individual's personal religion influences ethical decision making, and when compared with nonreligious people it can be expected that highly religious people will have more clearly defined deontological norms and that such norms will have a greater influence in ethical judgements.

Hunt and Vitell's (1993) general theory of ethics considers religion to be an important factor in influencing ethical judgements. Religious beliefs will guide and influence individual ethical decision making processes. Allport and Ross (1967) also distinguished between intrinsic and extrinsic religiosity, in which "The extrinsically motivated person uses his religion whereas the intrinsically motivated person lives his religion." Intrinsic religiosity indicates a person having a religious commitment and involvement for more inherent, spiritual objectives. Extrinsically religious individuals are influenced by social factors and therefore tend to participate in religious activities to meet social goals or to meet personal needs.

H1a: Consumers who are higher in extrinsic religiosity will tend to show lower levels of self-control.

H1b: Consumers who are higher in intrinsic religiosity will tend to show higher levels of self-control.

Emotions

Much of the previous research in the field of consumer ethics has been predominantly focused on examining the role of rational thought in consumer decision making, several studies have considered the role of emotions in questionable consumer behaviors (Vitell et al, 2013). The affective state of emotion is described as either positive or negative affect (Fillenbaum and Rapoport, 1970). Negative affect encompasses emotions such as anger and fear, while

positive affect includes emotions such as happiness and joy. Gaudine and Thorne (2001) suggest that positive emotions will increase the likelihood that individuals will recognize ethical dilemmas, possess ethical intentions congruent with moral development, and act consistent with intentions if emotional arousal is present.

The theory of appraisal tendencies of emotions, states that each emotion is defined by a set of dimensions that are central to a particular emotion (Smith and Ellsworth, 1985). According to the appraisal tendency theory, anger and fear are different on the basis of the appraisal tendencies and hence will lead to different influences on information processing, decision making, and choice. Anger is described as an extremely unpleasant state that is associated with a high amount of anticipated effort typically resulting from an individual engaging in an activity that has negative consequences for the subject. Happiness is described as an extremely pleasant emotional state that involves very little effort, a high level of certainty about the situation, and a strong desire to pay attention. Because of these differences, incidental emotions of fear and anger will have different influences on ethical judgements and intentions, and similarly positive emotions such as happiness and hope are likely to have differing impacts on ethical judgements and intentions. Based on these relationships of emotions and judgement with behavioral intention the following hypotheses are presented:

- H2a:** Ethical judgements are a function of emotions such that individuals who are experiencing negative valence emotions, such as anger, will be more likely to make unethical judgements than individuals in a neutral emotional state.
- H2b:** Ethical judgements are a function of emotions such that individuals who are experiencing positive valence emotions, such as happiness, will be more likely to make ethical judgements than individuals in a neutral emotional state.

Discussion

Research in consumer ethics has recently begun to examine the role of emotions in ethical decision making. The objective of this research is to further examine how emotions can influence consumer's ethical judgement and behavioral intentions with the moderating effect of self-control. This also considers religiosity as an important antecedent of self-control and will impact the individual levels of self-control available. The extent that decision makers faced with situations involving ethical issues can be influenced by emotions and the individual emotional states then a model that includes emotional constructs is appropriate. The model proposed in this research serves to represent emotions and ethical decision making in a manner consistent with existing research and to act as a guide for future research involving emotions. This study is focused on emotions that are at opposite sides of emotional valence with anger and happiness. Consistent with other research on specific emotions, it may be appropriate to consider the impact of other, more similar emotions on ethical decision making.

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SESSION 10.9: COGNITIVE EFFECTS OF SOCIAL MEDIA

Chair:

Shuang Wu, Louisiana Tech University

Summary Brief

Like the Brand, Trust the Brand? Social Media Engagement and Consumers' Privacy Concerns

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As consumers' concerns about online privacy grow, it is critical for retailers to be aware of and try to proactively address these concerns. The focus of this research is to examine consumers' perspectives and concerns related to the different sections of retailers' privacy notices. The concerns of consumers who engage with a retail brand on social media are specifically examined to understand the impacts of social media engagement on privacy concerns.

Introduction and Background

The growth of e-commerce has made it easier than ever for consumer information to be collected, sold, and shared, leading to rising consumer concerns about privacy. 89% of consumers say they avoid doing business with companies they do not believe protect their privacy (TRUSTe 2014). A retailer's privacy notice is the primary disclosure through which consumers are provided information about its (the retailer's) privacy policies. This research extends the literature on online privacy by examining consumers' perspectives about the different sections of retailers' privacy notices, including their views on the policies themselves and the information provided. Social exchange theory is used as a theoretical framework to analyze the trust relationship between a consumer and a retailer. Since consumers may interact with retail brands not only in transactional exchanges but also through engagement on social media, the impact of social media engagement with the brand on the trust relationship is also examined.

Background and Research Questions

Consumers that engage in any type of business with a retailer, whether online or in a physical location, are participants in an exchange (Bagozzi 1975). Given the interaction between a consumer and an agent of the retailer (either the website or a sales person), consumers are likely to view that exchange as a restricted exchange between two parties, the consumer and the retailer. Consumers provide their information and payment in order to gain a product or service from the retailer, and the retailer collects sales revenue and information about the consumer. The "rules of the exchange" are provided in the retailer's privacy notice which informs consumers how their information is collected, used, and retained (Reidenberg et al. 2015). Consumers' perceptions of the fairness of the exchange may be violated when the retailer is perceived to be unfairly benefitting from use of consumers' information. Perceptions of inequity can generate privacy concerns (Ashworth and Free 2006). Thus, Research Question 1 is posed.

Research Question 1: What sections of privacy notices generate the most concern for consumers?

Prior research suggests that consumers' privacy concerns are mitigated when they are provided a priori notice of information being collected (e.g., Miyazaki 2008). However, privacy notices are not always easy for users to understand. Consumers often complain that privacy notices are written using terminology which is too complex or ambiguous (e.g., Bakos, Marotta-Wurgler, and Trossen 2014). The information provided about third party use of information is usually generalized and offers little insight about the identity of third parties (Asay 2013). Therefore, consumers may not only have concerns about the collection and use of their information but also concerns about the privacy policies themselves including how information is presented and what is disclosed. Therefore, Research Question 2 is proposed.

Research Question 2: In what ways, from a consumer perspective, can privacy notices be improved?

Finally, it is posited that consumers' awareness and affinity for a retailer's brand is likely to impact their privacy concerns. Consumers who have positive brand affinity tend to perceive a deeper relationship with the brand (Fournier 1998) and are more likely to "like" content on a brand Facebook page or engage with the brand online (John et al. 2017). Users who actively engage (e.g., post comments) are more likely to have positive behavioral outcomes related to the brand such as actual purchase of products and services (John et al. 2017; Manchanda, Packard, and Pattabhiramaiah 2015). Extending this view to privacy, it is possible that individuals who engage with a retailer through online social networks will perceive their exchange relationship in terms less dictated by reciprocal exchange due to the familiarity gained through this online relationship. They may have less privacy concerns or different

concerns compared to consumers who have a purely transactional relationship with the retailer brand. Therefore, Research Question 3 is offered.

Research Question 3: How does social media engagement with a brand impact consumers' privacy concerns?

Methodology and Findings to Date

An online retail context was selected due to the growth in e-commerce and the ease of consumer data collection through online channels. A survey was conducted with 200 participants to understand common consumer concerns related to privacy. The participants were all over 18 years of age, lived in the United States, and had made an online purchase in the past six months. The survey questions examined consumers' perspectives related to standard sections of privacy notices. Open-ended questions were also provided so participants could describe their concerns about the policies disclosed and about the notices themselves. Three main areas of concern emerged: Information collected: What information was collected by online retailers and why it was shared with third parties Information use: How the information was used (e.g., use in targeted advertising) by third parties The primary concerns stemmed from information being shared with and used by third parties. Privacy notices: Participants found retailer's privacy notices unclear and hard to understand.

Using the insights gathered from the first survey, a second large-scale survey is being conducted to understand the impact of social media engagement on privacy concerns.

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Presentation

Social Media Word of Mouth (WOM) Effects and Intention to Join Artist Pages: American Millennials' Perceptions

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This study aims to provide insights into American millennials' perceptions of foreign pop artist pages on social media, specifically on factors that influence their intentions to join them. The results reveal that American millennials' intentions to join foreign pop artists' pages on social media are influenced by entertainment gratification, pop music familiarity, attitude toward foreign pop music, and intention to share the foreign artist's music on social media. However, the escape gratification is not a predictor of intentions to join and there is no direct relationship between attitude toward foreign pop music and intentions to join the artist pages.

Introduction

Web-based music services increase foreign pop consumption and advances in web technology and social media has accelerated it. Foreign pop artists utilize social media as a marketing channel to attract music fans (Vega 2013). They allow fans to share their information with peers and motivate them to join their profile pages on social media. Based on these phenomena, this study aims to examine U.S. millennials' perceptions of foreign pop artists' profile pages on social media by measuring their pop music consumption motives including gratifications of entertainment and escape, familiarity with pop music, attitude toward foreign pop music, intentions to share foreign pop music on social media, and intention to join foreign pop artists' profile page on social media. The theory of reasoned action (TRA) and uses and gratification theory (UGT) were used for forming the theoretical foundation.

H1: Entertainment gratification on pop music is positively related to attitudes toward foreign pop music.

H2: Escape gratification on pop music is positively related to attitudes toward foreign pop music.

H3: Familiarity with pop music is positively related to attitudes toward foreign pop music.

H4: Attitude toward foreign pop music is positively related to intention to share foreign pop music information on social media sites.

H5: Attitude toward foreign pop music is positively related to intention to join foreign pop music artist pages on social media sites.

H6: Intention to share foreign pop music information on social media sites is positively related to intention to join foreign pop music artist pages on social media sites.

Research Methodology

Respondents' data were collected using Amazon's Mechanical Turk which has been providing a diverse, reliable, and heterogeneous sample (Casler, Bickel, and Hackett 2013). The final sample size consisted of 186 millennial respondents. The sample frame is appropriate since millennials are heavy users of social media and they embrace social media platforms as their communication channel with peers (Duffett 2015; Pempek, Yermolayeva, and Calvert 2009; Turri, Smith, and Kemp 2013). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was run for the overall validity of the measurement model using the AMOS software. The CFA results indicate an acceptable fit with $\chi^2 = 418.43$, $df = 303$, $p\text{-value} = .000$, $CFI = .98$, $RMSEA = .05$, and $TLI = .97$. Further, construct validity is evaluated based on the factor loading estimates, construct reliabilities, variance extracted percentages and inter-construct correlations. All loading estimates are significant ($p < .000$) with the lowest being .72 and the highest being .95. The variance extracted estimates are .73, .71, .68, .88, .75, and .85 for escape, entertainment, familiarity, intention to join artist page, attitudes toward pop music, and intention to share foreign pop music information, respectively. In addition, the construct reliability estimates are all adequate, ranging from .89 to .97. Discriminant validity is measured by comparing the variance-extracted percentage for any two constructs with the square of the correlation estimate between these two constructs. The results indicate that the convergent validity of the model is supported and good reliability is also

established. The next step was to examine the overall theoretical model specification and the hypotheses by using the structural equation modeling (SEM). The SEM results indicate a satisfactory fit of data with $\chi^2 = 467.10$, $df = 309$, p -value = .000, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .05, and TLI = .96. Regarding the hypotheses tests, the SEM structural path results reveal that not all the relationships among the constructs are significant. Entertainment ($\beta = .31$, $p = .001$) and familiarity ($\beta = .61$, $p = .001$) are related to attitude toward foreign pop music. Thus, H1 and H3 are supported. No relationship is detected between escape and attitude toward foreign pop music. Therefore, H2 is not supported. The path of H4 also indicates a significant result. Attitude toward foreign pop music is a predictor of intentions to share on social media ($\beta = .53$, $p = .001$). There is no significant relationship between attitude toward foreign pop music and intention to join artist pages. Therefore, H5 is not supported. Hypothesis 6 is supported as the path indicates that the intention to share on social media is positively related to intention to join brand pages ($\beta = .58$, $p = .001$). Thus, H6 is supported.

Discussion and Future Study

The findings show that American millennials are motivated by entertainment gratification to consume foreign pop music. Similarly, familiarity with pop music enhances American millennials' favorable attitude toward foreign pop music. American millennials' positive attitudes also strongly influence their intentions to share the music and artists' information on social media, which in turn motivate them to join the artist's pages on social media. From the findings, social media WOM effect is a crucial factor to increase music fans' intentions to join a pop music artist's fan page. Evidence from previous research shows that a single WOM activity, such as posting or sharing commercial product related content, accelerates multiple sharing of the same content, that subsequently helps to increase the product engagement, and to drive both immediate purchase and future purchase intention of the product (Kim, and Johnson 2016). The findings provide practical implications for social media marketers by explaining how millennials' familiarity with general pop music influences their attitudes toward foreign pop music, and how information-sharing, a WOM effect, motivates Americans millennials to follow foreign pop music artists on social media. For the future research, a construct about trust among peers needs to be added to examine how trust in peers affects millennials' attitudes toward foreign pop music and WOM effects on social media.

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Presentation

Understanding Psychological Technology Effects on Source Credibility in Image-Oriented Media through a Heuristic Approach

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This paper aims to examine the psychological effects of combined technology affordances on online consumers' global trust toward new media information sources. The authors propose that digital technologies' navigability affordance will have dual psychological effects on online consumers' perceptions of global trust on new media information source. This study takes hashtags (#) in Instagram as an example to examine how hashtags' navigational functions increase online consumers' perceived source credibility toward Instagram posting.

Introduction

Personal broadcasting technologies (e.g., social media) raise questions about the veridicality of information and assessment of credibility because much of the information is customized and published easily without any universally accepted gatekeepers (e.g., government, journalists, or newspapers). Moreover, digital technologies switch information receivers' attentions to global trust from specific trust in mass media communication (Green 2007, Metzger et al. 2003). Prior research suggests that in addition to considering source credibility and message credibility, online users also should consider credibility of the medium as a whole (Metzger et al. 2003), known as global trust toward internet source (Green 2007). Digital technology itself, serving as mediums, tends to become parts of the source of marketing communications for credibility assessment.

Modality, one of the technology effects, has been widely discussed in marketing research. For example, visual presentation (Xie et al. 2016) facilitates consumers' automatic mental simulations without awareness (Barsalou 2008), thus it attracts their attention, encourages their engagement, and changes their attitudes. Sundar (2008) also indicates that technological affordance (e.g., the modality of technology) has the ability to directly trigger online users' heuristic information processes (Chaiken 1980) and then positively influences their quality and credibility judgments. The structure, rather than content, of digital technologies seems to be more and more salient to affect online consumers' behaviors nowadays.

The navigability affordance, an interface feature that transports online users from one location to another, has the twofold ability to directly trigger heuristic processes with the navigational function as well as to guide systematic processes through the generated content (Sundar 2008). The authors propose that digital technologies' navigability affordance will have dual effects on online consumers' perceptions of global trust on new media information source.

This study takes hashtags (#) in Instagram as an example to examine how hashtags' navigational functions increase online consumers' perceived source credibility toward Instagram posting. Study 1 directly examines the influences of navigability cues on perceived source credibility by manipulating hashtags in captions (no hashtag, hashtags relevant to image, and hashtags not relevant to the image). Study 2 will manipulate the number of hashtags (#) to examine the degree of technology effects on the credibility assessment. Study 3 will test how the matches among product types, images, and hashtags affect online consumers' perceived source credibility.

Theoretical Background

Credibility Assessment

In internet-based media, the source credibility is a global feeling toward the whole information receiving process due to the multiplicity of sources embedded in numerous layers of online transmission of information (Sundar and Nass 2000). In addition to senders, receivers, and contents, the mediums are even conceptualized as sources of information (Sundar and Nass 2001) and the determinations of credibility assessment (Metzger et al. 2003). Therefore, digital technologies, serving as mediums of online information, are important sources of online consumers' perceived credibility.

Technological Heuristic Cues – Navigability

Sundar (2008) demonstrates the power of technology effects on users' attitudes in the MAIN model. Technology, in a given medium, can shape the quality and credibility of content due to its affordances or capabilities (Gibson 1977). The affordances of each technology determine the ways information is presented and receivers' psychological states when they are using the technology (Csikszentmihalyi and Kubey 1981). Each affordance is a set of cues that can trigger users' mental shortcuts (heuristics) to judgment rules that are already stored in memory. At the same time, a heuristic directly stimulates a snap judgment, or otherwise leads to systematic processing of information (Chaiken 1980).

Navigability is one of the four key affordances (i.e., Modality, Agency, Interactivity, and Navigability) that have significant psychological technology effects on online consumers' information processing (Sundar 2008). To be more specific, the sheer presence of hyperlinks on a Web site triggers the consumers' browsing heuristic and encourages them to skim the Web site and browse the links. Online consumers then have the assumption that easily navigable sites are more credible (Sundar 2008). On the other hand, the content or information appearing on the hyperlinks themselves may generate different heuristics, called elaborating cues. Elaborating cues may guide online consumers to "elaborate" the relationship between the content of a given link and the Web site's content and further lead to systematic information processing. If the contents of the link and of the Web site are matching, the elaborating and browsing cues have enhanced effects. Otherwise, there will be a tradeoff effect between browsing cues and elaborating cues.

Instagram, an image-oriented machine, facilitates online consumers' heuristic information processes, captures consumers' attention, and then impacts their judgments. Matching with visual stimuli, hashtags (#) have been adopted by users for their navigation in the caption of their images. Therefore, by adding hashtags (#) Instagram owners can invoke online consumers' heuristics and influence users' perceived credibility toward posts and the owners. On the other hand, the elaborating cues of the contents of hashtags (#), combined with the content of posts, may lead consumers to systematic processing and cause two opposite outcomes. When the contents of the hashtags are relevant to the contents of the posts, consumers' perceived credibility toward the posts and sources will be enhanced by the related information and knowledge. When the contents of the hashtags are not consistent with the contents of the posts, consumers may question about the posts and the sources, which will harm the consumers' perceived credibility.

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Presentation

Visual Complexity of Posts on Attention, Attitude, and Recall

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This study is a work in process that provides a literature review on the effect of visual complexity of posts on customer attention, attitude and recall of the brand through mental simulation, and proposes a conceptual model to be studied. Visual complexity as a factor of posts could influence the effectiveness of creating positive outcomes. Other situational factor, such as goals to search or browse, could moderate the relationship between visual complexity and mental simulation.

Introduction

Instead of getting out of bed and preparing breakfast, how many of you start the day with grabbing the phone and checking emails and social media? According to the newest research data from Pew Research Center (2017), the percentage of the public in the United States who use some type of social media increased from 5% in 2005 to 69% in 2016. One mobile platform of social media, Instagram, is gaining increasing usage with picture and video sharing as the primary function, compared to other major social media platforms, such as Facebook, Twitter, Pinterest, and LinkedIn. This research aims to investigate the effect of visual complexity of the post on mental simulation which further influences the effectiveness of social media marketing on Instagram including attention, attitude, and recall of the sender and the post.

Visual complexity has been studied in advertising literature, examining processing fluency of online advertising (Wu, Vassileva, Zhao, Noorian, Waldner, and Adaji, 2016), attention and brand attitude (Pieters, Wedel, and Batra, 2010), and processing fluency and satisfaction (Sohn, 2017). Mental simulation has been demonstrated to enhance behavioral intention when the stimulus is positive (Elder and Krishna, 2012), to influence choice and preference for hedonic products (Shen, Zhang, and Krishna, 2016), and to impact food choice (Xie, Minton, and Kahle, 2016). This current study purports to investigate the relationship between the visual complexity of the posts and the mental simulation with users' searching versus browsing goal as a moderator. Further customer outcomes, such as search intention, enjoyment, and brand recall, are included in the conceptual model. The research design also includes brand familiarity and advertisement familiarity as control variables. This study contributes to the research on the content of posts in social media marketing, especially in visual-dominated platforms such as Instagram.

Theoretical Framework and Research Hypothesis

Visual Complexity

As previously stated, users are scrolling the social media feeds when they have spare time in the early morning, during lunch or a coffee break, or before bedtime. There is a variety of posts on the social media page to attract a large amount of users' attentions. When marketers study Instagram, specifically, they focus on how the post of a brand catches viewers' attentions in the visual-dominated platform. Previous research has examined the effects of the attributes of pictures in advertising on attention and attitudes (Pieters et al., 2010). Pieters et al. (2010) define the two types of visual complexity based on the dense perceptual features or creative design features. The results of their study show that feature complexity hurts a user's attention to the brand and attitude toward the ad while design complexity increases his or her attention to both the ad and the brand, and benefits his or her attitude toward the ad. In the mobile shopping environment, visual complexity negatively influences processing fluency, which further impacts the satisfaction of the shopping experience (Sohn, 2017). Wu and colleagues (2016) demonstrate the mediating effect of perceptual and conceptual fluency in the relationship between visual complexity and pleasantness. In their study, visual complexity of the image is defined by the amount of information conveyed by the elements in the image, and it is the subjective perception by the users (Wu et al., 2016).

Mental Simulation

The theory of grounded cognition developed by Barsalou (as cited in Elder and Krishna, 2012) advocates that individuals perceive objects with or without consciousness and further store the knowledge in memory. According to Elder and Krishna (2012), these perceptions are simulated when not only the objects but also the representations of

the objects, including visual depictions, are presented. For instance, when we wear swimwear, we are always near the pool and enjoying the sunlight (e.g., on the beach) or the coolness in the water. We can feel the environment and even think about the activities we could do on the beach. Later, when we see a picture of swimwear, we think about the weather and occasions wearing it. An association between the visual stimuli that depict mental simulation and handedness increases purchase intention of the product advertised (Elder & Krishna, 2012).

Research by Xie, Minton, and Kahle (2016) on the interaction of automatic and instructed mental simulation suggests that using different communication elements in marketing food could influence consumers' healthy food choices. When marketers use instructed mental simulation (text) to influence consumer healthy food choice, the type of automatic mental simulation triggered from visual cues affects the influence (Xie et al., 2016).

When browsing visual oriented posts on Instagram, it is crucial to stop the users from scrolling down and missing a brand image. Mental simulation that triggers positive outcomes, such as attention, enjoyment, and recall, are important for marketers.

Goal to Search or Browse

The relationship between visual complexity and processing fluency is proposed as a bell-shaped relationship; however, the evidence is mixed (Orth and Wirtz, 2014). Researchers have investigated multiple moderators in studying visual complexity, mental simulation, and consumer outcomes. The current study includes the goal to search or browse as the potential moderator. As Schlosser (2003) suggests that individuals have various kinds of reasons of using Internet, and the two main reasons are searching for useful information and browsing for entertainment. This is the same as the users of social media. According to Schlosser (2013), searching is instrumental and involves purposive, task-specific behaviors, while browsing is experiential oriented and includes recreational behavior and nonlinear search. The results suggest that users with searching goal are more motivated to process information and have more positive attitudes than users with browsing goals when the information requires cognitive elaboration.

In this study, the authors propose the goal to search or browse as the potential moderator in the conceptual framework. When the user of social media is browsing for entertainment, the negative relationship between visual complexity and mental simulation is stronger than users with a search goal.

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