RECONCEPTUALIZING MARKETING

In Today's Global Environment

SMA SOCIETY FOR MARKETING ADVANCES

CHARLOTTE, NC
November 2 – 5, 2022

LUCY MATTHEWS , PROGRAM CHAIR

Reconceptualizing Marketing in Today's Global Environment

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Alisha B. Horky, Co-Editor

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November 2022

Dear 2022 SMA Members,

It was amazing to have such an incredible turnout at this year's conference! With approximately 380 registered for the conference, that was close to 100 more than in 2021 in Orlando. It was exciting to have representation from over 25 countries spanning six continents and 37 U.S. states. The many full sessions and some with standing room only indicate that we are returning to face-to-face conferences in our post-pandemic work environment. With the help of a fantastic executive committee and direction from the Board of Governors and its chair, Pia Albinsson, the conference was well received.

Jie Fowler, Treasurer
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Holly Syrdal, Academic Placement Services
Dana Harrison, Proceedings Editor

However, it is not just these individuals that are instrumental in putting on the conference. I thank all the track chairs, session chairs, and reviewers. With your support, we can provide feedback to the authors submitting to the conference.

We had 30 students that attended the annual doctoral consortium led by David Hardesty from the University of Kentucky and Jonathan Hasford from the University of Tennessee. They created a program with a line-up of well-recognized scholars to guide these students in their next stages of academics. Many thanks to David, Jonathan, and all the guest speakers.

Barry J. Babin, Louisiana Tech University, and Nina Krey, Rowan University, conducted an SEM In-Depth pre-conference workshop to help our members stay up to date with the latest methodology. These workshops also help maintain research pipelines for future conferences. To Barry and Nina, we appreciate your continued support of SMA!

To the editor of our journal, Marketing Education Review, Seung Hwan (Mark) Lee, and editor of our associated journal, Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice, Raj Agnihortri, thank you for your presence and continued support of SMA. To the event coordinators: Chris Newman, who organized the Doctoral Dissertation Proposal Competition; Joe Hair, who decided on the Steven J. Shaw / Joe Hair Best Paper in Conference; Larry Neale, who was charged with the Innovations in Teaching Competition; and Barbara Wooldridge, who managed the Distinguished in Teaching Competition, your time and assistance in the conference is valued! Thank you for all your efforts.

Our many sponsors and exhibitors help us keep our expenses down for members. Many of these sponsors have supported SMA for years: Sharon Beatty, Mississippi State University, University of Alabama; Middle Tennessee State University, Department of Marketing & Jones College of Business; Idaho State University,

Walter P. Brown Center for Sales Excellence; University of North Carolina Wilmington, Center for Sales Excellence & Customer Delight; Journal of Marketing Analytics; Marketplace Simulations; Interpretive Simulations; Stukent; and our journal publisher Routledge Taylor & Francis Group. We look forward to your continued involvement.

Finally, I would like to thank everyone who attended the conference. All the planning in the world means nothing without the engagement of the attendees. Catching up with the many prior members and meeting the new participants was incredible. After working on this conference for the last year, my heart is full of fond memories making all the effort worthwhile. I look forward to next year when we can again share time together!

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Barry J. Babin, 2002

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Ronald D. Taylor, 2001

Michel Laroche, 2000

William J. Kehoe, 1998

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Fred D. Reynolds, 1987

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EVENT AND EVENT CHAIRS
Doctoral Dissertation Proposal Competition
Christopher Newman, University of Mississippi
34th Annual Doctoral Consortium
David Hardesty, University of Kentucky
Jonathan Hasford, University of Tennessee
Steven J. Shaw Best Paper in Conference Chair
Joseph F. Hair, Jr., University of South Alabama

TEACHING TRACKS & TRACK CHAIRS
Wessex Innovations in Teaching
Larry Neale, Queensland University of Technology
Distinguished Teaching
Barbara Wooldridge, University of Texas at Tyler
SMA Teaching Moments
Charles Drehmer, DePaul University Prachi
Gala, Kennesaw State University
Parker Woodroof, The University of Alabama at Birmingham

2022 SMA DISTINGUISHED FELLOW
Jeff Tanner

Dr. Jeff Tanner,
(Ph.D. University of Georgia) is Dean Emeritus, Old Dominion University (7 years) and Professor Emeritus, Baylor University (27 years). His first SMA was in 1985, as a doctoral student.

Jeff served as SMA track chair many times, co-founding the popular *Teaching Moments* track and tracks that led to special issues in the *Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice* and *Journal of Global Scholars in Marketing*. In 2013, he was named SMA's Axcess Capon's Distinguished Teacher. He served on SMA's Board of Governors, from 2014 to 2018 and 2019 to present. In addition, he was President of Southwest Marketing Association (2006-2007), chaired AMA's Faculty Consortium (2004), and tracks at multiple conferences, including TCR and AMA. He co-chaired the Global Selling Science Institute's conference in 2020, SWMA in 2005, and AACSB's Associate Deans' Conference in 2001. He served on expert panels for the US Department of Health and Human Services from 2005-2007.

Editor of *Marketing Education Review* (2016-2018), and 3 special issues of the JPSSM, in addition to JMTP and JGSM, he was Section Editor for JPSSM. MER, and *Consumer Psychology Communicator*. He was founding editor, *Careers in Professional Selling*, from 1999-2003. Named Reviewer of the Year at JPSSM in 2014 and won Best Paper at JPSSM in 2000, he serves on 7 editorial review boards.

Author or co-author of 15 books, he published 85 journal articles and over 100 conference papers. His research has appeared in the *Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *Journal of Business Research, Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, among others.

Currently, he serves on the board of VersAbility, a $56m organization that serves the disabled, and on Virginia's Horse Racing Commission in the Department of Agriculture. He hosted NPR's *Strome Business Minute* from 2018 to 2020.

2022 SMA DISTINGUISHED SERVICE AWARD
Greg W. Marshall

Dr. Greg W. Marshall,
Crummer Graduate School of Business at Rollins College

Greg attended his first SMA Conference in Atlanta as a second-year Ph.D. student at Oklahoma State in 1990. His faculty advisor and paper coauthor was supposed to join him on the presentation but had to back out at the last minute due to university obligations. So Greg ventured out to SMA on his own and immediately experienced the warmth and collegiality that has been a hallmark of SMA since its inception. And he's been back most every year since!

At SMA, Greg has served as Treasurer (1996-99), President-Elect and Program Chair (1999-2000), President (2000-01), and on the Board of Governors (2013-19, chairing from 2014-16). He was named an SMA Distinguished Fellow in 2005 and subsequently served on the DF nominating committee on several occasions. The Annual SMA Distinguished Scholar series was initiated by Arch Woodside during Greg's term as SMA president, with the first designee being Philip Kotler. That SMA conference (2000 in Orlando) holds a special charm for those who attended both because of Prof. Kotler's presence and also because the Bush v. Gore presidential election dispute was in full chaotic force at the time in Florida!

Over the years, Greg has contributed to the SMA Doctoral Consortium on many occasions including a long-running role-play with Bill Moncrief in which Bill played a department chair having to deal with a "challenging" new assistant professor (played by guess who). In recent years, the role-play carries on but with another Bill (now Locander) in the department chair role. Serendipitously, both of those gents actually were Greg's department chair at different points in his career.

Greg was instrumental in bringing the Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice (Taylor & Francis/Routledge) into the SMA sponsors portfolio during his time as JMTP editor, and to this day T&F continues to support the SMA Annual Distinguished Scholar Award. For the past seven years he has worked closely with the SMA leadership team to attract a diverse set of top scholars in the marketing field to come to the conference to share their insights at the doctoral consortium and in a plenary session.

2022 Research Track Reviewers

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Jasmine Parajuli
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Rachel Shinnar
Raj Srivastava
Ramendra Thakur
Ramin Bagherzadeh
Ran Liu
Rawley Heimer
Ream Shoreibah
Rebecca Dingus
Rebecca Reed
Reginald Sheppard
Rhett Epler
Richard Tarpey
Rob Peterson
Robert Evans
Robert Moore
Roland Leak

Sajani Thapa
Sam Fullerton
Samsun Knight
Samuel Staebler
Sandipan Sen
Sarah Lefebvre
Scott Swain
Semiramis Amirpour
Sereikhuoch Eng
Seung Bach
Shahidul Islam
Shannon McCarthy
Shehzala
Shelly Freyn
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Shikha Karamchandani
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2022 SMA / ROUTLEDGE-TAYLOR & FRANCIS DISTINGUISHED SCHOLAR AWARD RECIPIENT
DAVID WOOTEN

Dr. David Wooten,
Stephen M. Ross School of Business, University of Michigan.

David Wooten is Associate Dean for One-Year Master's Programs, Alfred L. Edwards Collegiate Professor, University Diversity and Social Transformation Professor, and Professor of Marketing at the Stephen M. Ross School of Business at the University of Michigan. Prior to joining the Michigan-Ross faculty, he served on the faculties of the Columbia Business School, the University of Florida's Warrington College of Business, and the Charles H. Dyson School of Applied Economics and Management at the Cornell S.C. Johnson College of Business.

David is an associate editor for Research Reports for the *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, an editorial review board member for the *Journal of Consumer Research* and the *Journal of Sport Management*, and a member of the scientific advisory committee for the *Consumer Psychology Review*. He currently serves as the Co-Chair of the 2023 SCP Doctoral Symposium. He previously Co-Chaired the 2013 AMA-Sheth Doctoral Consortium, the 2013 ACR Forums, the 2009 ACR Doctoral Symposium, and the 2009 CCT Conference.

AWARD WINNING PAPERS

Doctoral Dissertation Proposal Competition – Winner
The Roles of Temperature and Charity Efficacy in Consumer Wellbeing
  Josh Lundberg

Innovations in Teaching Competition- Winner
A Life Full of Billable Hours: How to Become S.M.A.R.T. and More Resilient by Auditing Your Time Like an Advertising Agency
  Amy Watson

Distinguished Teaching Competition – Winner
The Business Educator as Architect
  Kai-Yu Wang

Best Paper in Services Marketing
Optimizing Prolonged Coproduction: A Theoretical Typology and Research Agenda for Coproduction Habit
  Jennifer Taylor
  Katherine Roberto

Best Paper in Consumer Behavior Track
Attitudes About and the Propensity to Engage in Anti-Consumption Behavior Based Upon Country-of-Origin among Consumers in South Africa, South Korea, and the United States
  Sam Fullerton
  Jungki Lee
  Estelle van Tonder

Best Paper in Marketing Education
Using TikTok to Improve Students' Learning Outcomes in Marketing Classes Through Active Engagement: An Exploratory Study
  Mohan Menon
  Mitra Devkota
  Waros Ngamsiriudom

Best Paper in Marketing Strategy & Entrepreneurship
Revisiting the Performance Implications of the Power-Trust Relationship: Dependence, Performance and Loyalty in B2B Relationships
  Christopher Hopkins
  Daniel Padgett
  Emory Serviss

Best Paper in Personal Selling & Sales Management
Toward a Universally Applicable Measure of Frontline Employee Sales/Service Ambidexterity: Scale Development and Empirical
  Benjamin Britton

Best Paper in Products, Brand Management, & Pricing
How Mindful is Your Brand?
>Ellen Campos Sousa
>Jayati Sinha
>Shailendra Jain

Best Paper in Promotions
Do Customers Want to Think or Feel the Love? The Antecedents to Positive Word-of-Mouth in Loyalty Programs
>Henry Slubowski
>Laura Muñoz
>Michael Stodnick

Best Paper in Public Policy, Non-Profit, & Healthcare Marketing
Internet Pharmacy Whack-a-Mole: FDA Warning Letters in the Fight Against Unapproved or Misbranded Pharmaceutical Sales over the Internet
>Yam Limbu
>Bruce Huhmann

Best Paper in Research Methods, Data Analytics, and AI
Using Diffusion Models and MDS to Explain Clickstream Growth Patterns
>Jared Hansen
>Paul Wilso

Best Paper in Inclusion, Diversity, Equity, & Access (IDEA) in Marketing
Being Inclusive Means Being Accessible: Problems with Digital Media for the Visually
>Mary Anne Raymond
>Hillary Ruth Smith
>Leslie Carlson

Best Paper in Social Media & Digital Marketing
The Impact of Social Media Influencers on Consumer Behavior – The Role of Self-Discrepancy, Perceptions of Homophily and Authenticity, Self-Acceptance, and Mindfulness
>Shehzala
>Anand Kumar Jaiswal

Best Paper in Tourism, Hospitality, Food, Music, & Sports Marketing
Service Technologies as Service Agents: When Customer Experiences are Negative
>Ayse Banu Elmadag
>Wei Wang
>Kristina Harrison
>Mehmet Okan

Best paper in Markting Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility

Your Reputation Proceeds You: The Impact of Corporate Sociopolitical Activism on Consumer-Based Brand Equity

> Courtney Peters
> George Deitz
> Subhash Jha
> Jennifer Tatara
> Nicole Boylan
> Kawser Nahid

Best Paper in Reconceptaulizing Marketing in Today's Global Environment

The Impact of Culture on Brand Extension: The Specific Versus Diffuse Dimension and Product Category Similarity

> John D Branch
> Maansi Dalmia
> Ethan Mo

Best Paper in Retailing and eCommerce

The Differential Effects of Self-congruity and Functional Congruity on Shoppers' Well-being: An Empirical Study

> Haithem Zourrig
> Kamel El Hedhli
> Walid Chaouali

Steven J. Shaw - Joe Hair Best Paper in Conference

Do Customers Want to Think or Feel the Love? The Antecedents to Positive Word-of-Mouth in Loyalty Programs?

> Henry Slubowski
> Laura Muñoz
> Michael Stodnick

FROM THE EDITORS

During the Society for Marketing Advances 2022 annual conference, we explored and learned more about how marketing is being reconceptualized in today's global environment. Over 370 members registered for the conference and arrived from six continents, twenty-five countries, and thirty-seven U.S. states.

These Proceedings represent the insightful and innovative research shared at the conference. Research showcased in the following pages encompasses topics such as tourism and hospitality marketing, advertising, consumer behavior, digital and social media, retailing, supply chain, sales, marketing education, and marketing analytics, among others.

We want to thank the authors and presenters, reviewers, executive members, and the board of governors who participated in making this conference a success.

We sincerely appreciate your continuing support of SMA and look forward to seeing you November 8th – 11th in Fort Worth Texas. Please join us for the opportunity to advance how the wild west of big data and analytics is generating new ethical challenges for marketing.

Kind Regards,

Dana E. Harrison & Alisha B. Horky
SMA Proceedings Editors

Session 4D: The Future of Marketing and Its Vast Impact

Session 4E: Charity, Sustainability, and Motivations

Session 4G Special Session: We've Got the Power: An Analysis of Marketing through Analogy

Session 6C: It's a Sales Thing

Session 6E: Love, Hate, Power, & Pride

Session 6G Panel: So, You Want to Lead a Study Abroad: Insights and Advice

Session 8A: What Were You Thinking?

Session 8B: Let's Get Strategic

Session 8C: Innovations in Teaching Session I

Session 8D: If Marketing Were a Halloween Movie

Session 8E: Sales: Leader-Member Exchange and Impact on Firm Value

Michael Peasley, Middle Tennessee State University, USA

George Deitz, The University of Memphis, USA

Session 8G Panel: How to Develop Experiential Experiences in Sports Marketing Classes

James Blair, Eastern Kentucky University, USA

Geraldo Matos, Roger Williams University, USA

Delancy Bennett, Howard University, USA

Session 9A: Distinguished Teaching Competition

Kai-Yu Wang, Brock University, Canada

Dawn Edmiston, College of William & Mary, USA

Session 9B: Hedging Your Bets

Jingbo Zhang, University of Texas Permian Basin, USA

Robert Stassen, University of Arkansas, USA

Priyanka Singh, University of Memphis, USA

James Vardaman, University of Memphis, USA

Jingjing Wu, University of Memphis, USA

Eunyoung Jang, Ph.D., Midwestern State University, Texas, USA

Pramit Banerjee, Ph.D., Oklahoma State University, Oklahoma, USA

Session 9C: Vulnerabilities

Kelley Cours Anderson, College of Charleston, USA

Pia A. Albinsson, Appalachian State University, USA

Caroline Ducarroz, Catholic University of Louvain, Belgium

Falguni Vasavada Oza, MICA, India

Session 9D: It's Game Day

Session 9E: Desires & Wastes

Session 9F: IDEA Symposium Session 1

Session 9G: Cultural Appropriation in Marketing: Fashion and Fandom

Session 10A: Trust is Fake News…Funny Right?

Session 10B: Reconceptualizing Marketing Globally

Session 10C: Getting Techy

Session 10D: Sports Make Me Happy

Session 10E Panel: Incorporating Personal Branding, Professionalism, and Workplace Preparation Across the Marketing Curriculum

Session 11C: Naughty, Naughty

Session 11D: Potpourri: A Sweet Blend

Session 11E: Let's Talk Retail

Session 11F Panel: Revisiting (and Reinventing?) Best Practices in Teaching and Student Learning for the Marketing Principles Course: A Two-Way Conversation with Veteran Principles of Marketing Textbook Authors

Session 11G Panel: Macromarketing and Technology

Session 13A: Sales, Ethics, & Dysfunction

Session 13B: Is That Any Way to Act?

Session 13C: Sustainability

Nguyen Pham, Monmouth University, USA

Session 13D: Marketing Education is Fun

Mohan K. Menon., University of North Georgia, USA

Mitra L. Devkota, University of North Georgia, USA

Waros Ngamsiriudom, University of North Georgia, USA

Gwen Achenreiner, University of Wisconsin – La Crosse, USA

Maggie McDermott, University of Wisconsin – La Crosse, USA

Kristy McManus, University of Georgia, USA

Gwen Achenreiner, University of Wisconsin, La Crosse, USA

Bryan Lilly, University of Wisconsin, Oshkosh, USA

Mary Jae Kleckner, University of Wisconsin, Stevens Point, USA

Andy Miller, University of Wisconsin, Oshkosh, USA

Chris Croft, Ed.D., The University of Southern Mississippi, USA

Wei Wang, Ph.D., The University of Southern Mississippi, USA

Session 13E: Healthcare Affairs

Yam B. Limbu, Montclair State University, USA

Bruce A. Huhmann, Virginia Commonwealth University, USA

Mario Gonzalez-Fuentes, Trinity University, USA

Emi Moriuchi, Rochester Institute of Technology, USA

Julie Moulard, Louisiana Tech University, USA

Nishant Renu, Westcliff University, USA

Session 15C: Promotion Effectiveness

Session 15D: Dissertation Proposal Competition

Session 15E: Money, Money, Money, Monnnneeeyy!

Session 15F: Teaching Moments Session I

Session 15G Panel: Leveraging Your Skills for Research, International Business or Entrepreneurship Center Success: How to Efficiently Integrate Center Engagement into Existing Faculty Responsibilities

Session 16A: Education Abound

Session 16B: It's All About the Service

Session16D: Be Our Guest!

Session 16E: Toward a Research Agenda for the Future of Social Selling in Business-to-Business Markets

Session 16F: Teaching Moments Session II

Session 19A: Will That Be Cash or Credit?

Session 19B: Education Successes & Fails

Session 19C: It's All About the Relationship

Session 19D: So, You Wanted a Saturday Morning Session Time

Session 19E: Show Me the Data

Session 19G: Human Trafficking Intervention Needs Marketing Research

Session 19F: IDEA Symposium Session II

SESSION 4A: FASHION, LIFESTYLES, AND LUXURY GOODS

CHAIR:

Murong Miao

Summary Brief

Unisex Fashion: Comparisons on Perceptions and Practices Between American and Chinese Consumers

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Fashion consumption is viewed to be either a means for consumers to express their identities (i.e., construction-through-consumption paradigm) or a daily routine, based on the theory of practice. Unisex fashion is now more mainstream globally, appeared in many fashion brands' collections. When consumers choose unisex fashion style, is it a personal statement or a daily routine of practice? By conducting individual depth interviews in the U.S. and China, we find that, depending on the specific approach of unisex fashion style and the consumers, whose choices are shaped by cultural and social factors, unisex fashion is a daily routine of practice for most American consumers, whereas a means of self-expression for most Chinese consumers.

Introduction

Many fashion brands have launched unisex lines (e.g., Zara's Ungendered collection and Fear of God's Essentials hoodies; Anyanwu, 2020). The key idea is "to be all things to all people", explained by Jerry Lorenzo, the founder and designer of FOG (Silva, 2020). Unisex design is described as "boundary-less" and "genderless" in media (Silva, 2020), and is embraced globally by young consumers (Thomas, 2021). Some consumers believe "you are what you wear", emphasizing the symbolic aspects of clothing, yet some others simply view choice of clothing as a daily act of getting dressed. Given the two opposing views and the increasing popularity of unisex fashion, questions arise: 1) How do consumers in different cultures perceive unisex fashion? 2) Do consumers use unisex fashion clothing to express themselves or treat it as a routine of practice? Answers to these questions shed light on how to understand perceptions and practices of unisex fashion from consumers' perspectives and how fashion managers can design and market unisex fashion clothing items across cultures.

Literature Review: Two Paradigms of Fashion Consumption and Unisex Fashion

In fashion consumption, one view is that consumer' choices are motivated and conscious. Under such a construction-through-consumption paradigm, research suggests that self-selected commodities, including fashion items, symbolize lifestyles, individuality, and autonomy of consumers' own lives (Woodward, 2007). An alternative view is that the existing construction-through-consumption paradigm has emphasized the symbolic aspects of clothing too much. Instead, grounded into the theory of practice, which focuses on doing more than thinking, the materials more than symbolic meanings, and routine more than decisions (Warde, 2014), researchers have demonstrated that consumers prioritize clothing's functionality, and the choice of clothing is more likely an inconspicuous routine of practice (Van der Laan & Velthuis, 2016).

The term unisex refers to "styles intentionally designed to blur or cross gender lines" (Paoletti, 2015, p. 30). In western fashion history, three unisex style approaches emerge. *Androgynous* approach that combines both masculine and feminine elements (e.g., a girl with a button-down shirt and a miniskirt) and *gender-neutral* approach that lacks either masculine or feminine element (e.g., jogging suits) blur gender lines. *Cross-dressing* approach crosses gender lines (Johansson, 2017). It is worth noting that, for cross-dressing, women could wear either man-tailored or actual men's clothing, but men wearing feminine clothes would be rare (Paolette, 2015). In East Asian societies, the concept of unisex is originally associated with cross-dressing in theatrical representations and is later used to describe the complicated gender performance and fashion transformation (Li, 2015; Ho, 2021). In China, *zhongxing*, literally middle sex/gender, emerges from the female queer stars in *Idol*-inspired reality shows whose tomboyish appearances were applauded as a norm-defying practice (Zhao, 2018). Specifically, the stardom of Li Yuchun, the first winner of this type of show, not only popularized the tomboyish images and the unique fashion style, but also normalized a new

womanhood (Zhao, 2021). As such, *zhongxing* style, featuring the masculinity on a female body, becomes commonly associated with and exclusive to female. Men, if dressed less manly or with traditionally feminine elements, are still considered less acceptable or even abnormal in the Chinese society. In this sense, it appears that unisex in western context and *zhongxing* in Chinese context are both more geared to female-to-male crossdressing than the opposite.

Methods

Using a snowball method, we interviewed fourteen American participants (8 women, age ranging from 21 to 33) from diverse racial groups and fifteen Chinese participants (11 women, age ranging from 18 to 32). Participants in both samples included working professionals, and college undergraduate and graduate students. They were all heterosexual and from suburban or urban areas. Each interview was conducted online (due to the restrictions of Covid) with only the participant and the researcher, lasting from 30 to 45 minutes. Interviews were semi-structured with questions capturing participants' perceptions and practices of unisex fashion, and their social recognition of this trend.

The interview transcripts were analyzed using the grounded theory method. We read through transcripts from both samples closely and summarized initial similarities and differences between American and Chinese participants. Then these initial comparisons were discussed and aggregated into three key findings.

Key Findings

First, the majority of American participants explicitly define unisex fashion as a design for both genders without addressing either femininity or masculinity, leaning towards to the gender-neutral approach, whereas Chinese participants do not reach a strong consensus. Among their unclear and diverse definitions, cross-dressing with the rule that women wear man-tailored and/or actual men's clothes, seems to be a dominant understanding. Second, although participants in both samples agree on typical items for both genders (e.g., t-shirts, sweatshirts and sweatpants, cargo pants, and jackets) and their shared features (e.g., loose-fitting to not reveal figure characteristics, inconspicuous colors, relatively rough fabrics, and minimalist design), their practices are different. In the U.S., a typical example of a unisex look includes an oversized sweatshirt and jeans, or athletic wear, associated with "lazy" and dress-down. In China, unisex style is further classified mainly into Western style and Japanese style. The former is consistent with American participants' descriptions and considered as dress-down. The latter is a basic, but subtle and sophisticated style, represented by MUJI, a famous Japanese brand featuring diversified textures, structured shape, simple patterns such as stripes or polka dots, and muted tones ("MUJI", n.d.). The unisex fashion featuring Japanese style is considered as dress-up. Thus, dressing in unisex style is more likely a daily routine in the U.S., but it is not always the case in China, especially with Japanese unisex style being the choice. Such different practices are reinforced by our third key finding. Unisex fashion carries more symbolic meanings in China. Since gender identities and expectations are more rigid in China, many Chinese participants view wearing unisex fashion as a conscious choice and a self-expression of individuality and autonomy. American participants rarely hold the same view.

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Summary Brief

Effects of Envy on Counterfeit Luxury Decision Making

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Counterfeited luxury products have been very popular in the global market in recent years. Particularly, the increasing use of counterfeit goods has become a growing concern in the luxury industry worldwide. Although many studies have been conducted to explore the motives behind counterfeited luxury product purchase, the social driver of purchasing counterfeited luxuries is not clear. Based on social comparison theory (SCT), this research explored the relationships between envy and consumers' purchasing intentions towards both counterfeit luxury products and authentic luxury products. Moreover, this research examined the mediating effect of achievement motives (hope for success versus fear of failure) and the moderating effect of counterfeit popularity and relative social status on these relationships. To test the hypothesized relationships, a series of three experiments were conducted.

Introduction

Counterfeited products refer to replicas of those that are made to resemble authentic products but with lower prices and lower quality (Lai and Zaichkowsky, 1999). Counterfeiting refers to the act of producing or selling a product containing an intentional and calculated reproduction of a genuine trademark. For now, counterfeits exist in a broad range of economic segments, from pharmaceuticals to electric appliances to leatherwear (Wilcox et al., 2009). Although many countries have pursued legal battles to fight against counterfeiting, counterfeit consumption is not decreasing, but increasing. Envy is a very common emotion that most people may possess in certain situations. Envy is an emotion that can predict the behavioral outcome of the envier. People tend to evaluate themselves based on how they compare themselves with the others, either consciously or unconsciously, to construct their self-identities and make personal decisions (Festinger, 1954). Based on Social Comparison Theory (Festinger, 1954), we evaluate the differential effects of two different types of envy (benign envy vs. malicious envy) on counterfeit purchases. Moreover, we hypothesize that the achievement motives (hope for success and fair of failure) mediate the relationships between envy and counterfeit purchase. Lastly, we hypothesize that the relationships between envy and counterfeit purchases are moderated by counterfeit popularity and relative social status.

Background

In this research, we set out to examine the role played by envy in the counterfeit purchase. To achieve this research goal, we develop our theoretical framework based on social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954). We propose that a benign envier is more likely to purchase an authentic luxury product and less likely to purchase a counterfeit than malicious envier. Also, the achievement motives mediate the relationships. Specifically, hope for success mediates the relationship between envy and authentic purchase intention and fear of failure mediates the relationship between envy and counterfeit purchase intention. At last, two moderators (counterfeit popularity and relative social status) are examined.

Key Findings

This paper investigated how different types of envy lead to different purchase intentions toward counterfeit luxury products and authentic luxury products. Hence, we used a Louis Vuitton bag as the research context and a female sample to test the relationships. This experiment found that compared to benign envious people, malicious envious people are more likely to purchase a counterfeit Louis Vuitton bag ($\beta = 0.65$, $R^2 = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$). The results also show that fear of failure (FF) mediates the relationship between envy and counterfeit purchase intention ($95\%\,\mathrm{CI}=(0.0488, 0.5500)$). Moreover, a significant interaction effect of envy and counterfeit popularity for counterfeit purchase intention indicates that when counterfeit is popular, the relationship between envy and counterfeit purchase intention becomes stronger ($\beta = 1.62$, $p < 0.05$).

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SESSION 4B: LOVE IT OR HATE IT – I'M TELLING EVERYONE

CHAIR:

Laure Munoz

Summary Brief

Do Customers Want to Think or Feel the Love? Antecedents to Positive Word-of-Mouth in Loyalty Programs

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Customer loyalty and its associated behavioral outcomes have become focal points for firms looking to drive a deeper, identity-based relationship with their customers. Yet, few studies have examined how specific loyalty program mechanics can be used to create these relationships and whether they can result in the outcomes firms seek, such as positive word-of-mouth (PWOM). The purpose of this research is to better understand whether the financial benefits of a loyalty program and the feelings of status a program can invoke lead to the formation of customer-company identification (CCI), or the psychological attachment that a customer forms to a company based on the perceived overlap between their perceptions of self and their perceptions of the company. The findings showed a positive, significant relationship between perceptions of status and financial benefits and affective CCI and a positive relationship between CCI and PWOM. The results have important implications as it broadens the discussion of CCI as a two-dimensional construct as well as implications for loyalty marketers looking to use the programs they run to create deeper, identity-based connections with their customers.

Introduction

As an alternative to customer satisfaction, CCI has garnered a great deal of attention from researchers looking for a construct that can more consistently predict customer loyalty as well as loyalty outcomes (Brashear-Alejandro et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2020). Because CCI is based on a perceived overlap between how consumers define themselves and their perceptions of a firm, it helps consumers fulfill various self-definitional needs such as cognitive needs for self-distinctiveness and self-certainty and affective needs for self-enhancement and self-esteem. CCI has been found to have positive relationships with customer loyalty (Kang et al., 2015), so if a company wants to actively stimulate CCI among its customers, a loyalty program would a logical place to start, especially given expenditures for customer loyalty programs are likely to exceed $50B annually (Fortune Business Insights, 2019) and loyalty marketers are consistently looking for ways to demonstrate a positive return (Fruend, 2017). Yet very few studies have focused on how loyalty program mechanics can be used to create stronger, deeper relationships like CCI would imply. Further, many of the studies investigating CCI have only examined CCI from a cognitive perspective however, Wolter and Cronin (2016) have demonstrated that CCI has a distinct affective and cognitive dimension. Therefore, in this study, we examine the impact of two key loyalty program mechanisms, status and financial benefits, on both affective and cognitive CCI, as well as the effects of both types of CCI on PWOM.

Background

Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) applied the concept of organizational identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) to the relationship customers have with the companies they patronize to create a new construct called CCI which focuses on how relationships with companies can be one of the ways customers fulfill their self-definitional needs based on a strong, favorable identification with the firm. Because organizational identity is considered a cognitive construct and because it has largely served as the foundation for CCI, most of the studies using CCI also measure it as a cognitive construct (Homburg et al., 2009). More recent research, however, has suggested that CCI has both an affective and cognitive dimension. Wolter and Cronin (2016) found that the difference between the two lies in the notion that cognitive CCI, or how a customer *thinks* about their relationship with a company, is largely used to reduce identity uncertainty in customer self-categorization and provides a mechanism for customers to achieve self-distinctiveness whereas affective CCI, or how a customer *feels* about their relationship with a company, focuses more on self-enhancement and the positive feelings that come along with it.

Studies examining antecedents to CCI generally fall into a few categories. The first category is where the bulk of the literature resides and includes studies that have focused on corporate social responsibility (CSR). These studies have uncovered positive links between perceptions of CSR communications and CCI (Edinger-Schons et al., 2019; Kim, 2019) as well positive effects between the general perceptions consumers have of a company's CSR image and CCI (Pérez et al., 2013). A second category are those studies that focus on non-CSR firm or employee characteristics. These studies have found positive relationships between characteristics of a firm and CCI as well as positive relationships between the firm's employees and CCI (Ahearne et al., 2005; Netemeyer et al., 2012). Finally, only a few studies have looked at CCI in a customer loyalty context. Brashear-Alejandro et al. (2016) found that perceived feelings of status and a sense of belongingness had positive significant effects on a cognitive CCI. Kang et al. (2015) showed that programmatic loyalty or loyalty to the program itself mediated the effect of financial benefits on cognitive CCI.

While much of the antecedent discussion is critical to understanding how CCI is formed, firms would not pursue establishing CCI with customers if it did not lead to positive firm outcomes. CCI has been shown to have a positive effect on several outcomes from purchase, repurchase intention, and willingness to pay more (Fatma et al., 2015; Haumann et al., 2014) to product utilization and percent market share (Ahearne et al., 2005) to actual purchase volume and frequency (Edinger-Schons et al., 2014). CCI has also been positively linked to non-financial outcomes like customer emotions, attitudes, or customer commitment (Pérez and Rodríguez del Bosque 2015; Ma, 2018) and customer loyalty (Kang et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2012). Finally, CCI has also been shown to have positive effects on customer extra-role or prosocial behaviors like PWOM. Brown et al. (2005) found that consumer commitment partially mediated the relationship between CCI and both PWOM intention and PWOM behavior whereas, in a study in the banking industry, Pérez and Rodríguez del Bosque (2015) demonstrated that while CCI was not significantly linked to repurchase behavior, it did positively predict recommendation behavior.

Key Findings

We found a significant, positive main effects for several of the relationships tested in this study (p < .0001). Of particular note was the significant, strong effect of status on the formation of both affective and cognitive CCI. Similarly, both affective and cognitive CCI had a significant, positive main effect on PWOM (p < .0001), however, affective CCI's effect size was much stronger.

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Summary Brief

The impact of social media influencers on consumer behavior – the role of self-discrepancy, perceptions of homophily and authenticity, self-acceptance, and mindfulness

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With the proliferation of handheld devices and access to the internet, social media influencers have become constant companions of a large audience of young consumers, and the nature of this "on hand" exposure to social media marketing presents the case for seeking a better understanding of how influencers impact consumer behavior. The present study seeks to examine if and how individuals experience self-discrepancy when exposed to other social media users, in particular influencers, and the impact of this discrepancy on their affect, cognition and behaviors towards the influencers and the brands they endorse. We conduct 17 semi-structured interviews with participants from India, and by understanding the meaning making processes of individuals when they consume social media content shared by other users, particularly influencers, provide rich insights to current understandings of the nature of the influencer-follower relationship. We also examine the differential impact of perceived homophily with influencers and perceptions of authenticity of influencer content on the relationship with influencers, their ability to influence and the resulting behaviors. In addition, we identify two important variables that determine the nature of affect and thoughts experienced on comparing oneself to an influencer, namely self-acceptance and mindfulness, and extend existing understandings of the self-discrepancy theory and its application to the influencer context in an emerging market subculture.

Introduction

Online opinion leaders, social media celebrities, micro-influencers, or simply, social media influencers, have been found to play an important role in promoting products and services, and their impact on consumer experiences and behaviors has assumed focus in academia and practice under the domain of influencer marketing (Lim et al., 2017). As of 2021, the global value of influencer marketing stood at USD 13.8 bn (Statista, 2021), and according to a Nielsen Marketing Survey, the ROI for influencer marketing was found to be 11 times higher in comparison with digital marketing (Tapinfluence, 2017), supporting the manifolds increase in spending on social media influencer marketing (Carter, 2016; Launchmetrics, 2015). However, despite the widespread buzz and dramatic increase in spending, and the managerial focus on influencer marketing across the globe, our understanding of the processes and mechanisms that shape and affect the effectiveness of influencer marketing continues to be limited (Evans et al., 2017). The causal pathways through which influencers exert their influence remain under-examined, and there is a need for more nuanced understandings of how influencers shape consumer behavior (Lee Coco and Eckert, 2020).

In particular, a crucial direction of examination that demands attention relates to the impact of exposure to influencers on the individual's self-concept and self-guides. Consumption of content on social media platforms can shape perceptions of one's self concept and self-guides by offering a new space to individuals for making social comparisons, such as evaluating oneself with respect to the people one follows (Wesseldyk, 2017). Of increasing interest to both practice and theory then is the phenomenon of identity reconstruction in online environments whereby individuals carefully present the (virtual) self as distinct from their offline or actual self. At present, there is limited research that examines the nature of these comparisons and the resulting self-discrepancy on exposure to influencers and other social media users. Extant research is yet to examine the implications of experiencing self-discrepancy arising out of exposure to influencers on consumer behavior, the drive to reduce this discrepancy, and the variables impacting this link. In particular, the type of affect and thought experienced upon realizing a gap between one's self concept and self-guides requires more attention.

In addition, there are differences in the types of targets of comparison that individuals are exposed to on social media. While traditional media studies have focused primarily on comparisons made with ideal images of models or celebrities, the presence of attractive peers is a noteworthy feature of social media, presenting a compelling new area for

consideration. The differences in perceptions of "closeness" or "similarity" with influencers vis a vis other content creators can have varying impacts on individual's perceptions of relatability and intimacy in relationships with influencers, and while there is a substantial body of literature examining how celebrity promotions through traditional media impact consumer behavior, the impact of influencer or peer promotions via social media platforms (like Instagram) is relatively understudied (Lenhart, 2015). In addition, while there is some examination of perceptions of authenticity in influencer-follower relationships, there exists substantial scope for improving our understanding of followers' perceptions of authenticity, how influencers develop and maintain intimacy and authenticity, and how perceptions of authenticity differentially impact consumer behavior in response to content shared by more-similar/closer and less-similar/more distant users (Lou et al., 2019).

Present study - findings and contributions

The present study seeks to fill these gaps by examining if and how individuals experience discrepancy when exposed to other social media users, in particular influencers, and the impact of this discrepancy on their feelings, thoughts and behaviors. Findings from our study involving 17 semi-structured interviews with participants from India can contribute to literature in one of several ways. By understanding the meaning making processes of individuals when they consume social media content shared by other users, particularly influencers, we provide rich insights to current understandings of the nature of the influencer-follower relationship, and identify the presence of a two-way interaction involving an active co-creation of value. We extend the application of existing theoretical and practical understandings of self-discrepancy by studying how individuals interpret and express their self-concept in virtual space, in response to exposure to content shared by others. We also examine the differential impact of perceived closeness/similarity with some users as opposed to others, and of perceptions of authenticity on the relationship with such users, their ability to influence and the resulting behaviors. In the process, we also identify two important variables that determine the nature of affect and thoughts experienced on comparing oneself to an influencer, namely self-acceptance and mindfulness, and extend existing understandings of the self-discrepancy theory and its application to the influencer context. In addition, our study has several implications for practice – it provides a nuanced perspective on the factors affecting influencer-follower relationship strength, and in turn, offers insights for enhancing the effectiveness of influencer marketing initiatives. By observing individuals' response to different types of content, the nature of the relationship built with different types of users, and personal factors like mindfulness and self-acceptance, we add to the extant knowledge on when and why influencer marketing will be effective, and the resulting managerial and welfare implications of such relationships.

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Summary Brief

Why Consumers Share Social Media Information and How Sharing Impacts Brand-Specific Social Media Attachment

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This study developed a new construct in social media marketing, namely, brand-specific social media brand attachment. The authors build on brand and social media attachment to investigate the antecedent motivational factors of social media information sharing that lead to eWOM. The analysis of a cross-sectional survey found a complex relationship among social media usage motivations, information sharing, brand attachment, and eWOM. Results of the partial least squares structural equation modeling showed consumers have self-enhancement and brand connection incentives to share brand-related information. Thus, social media marketers should consider messaging and content to encourage sharing to strengthen brand-specific social media attachment.

Introduction

Social media (SM) is ubiquitous and has dramatically altered who controls a brand's narrative. Brand content, which was once the province of marketers, is now created and shared by community members within a brand's SM ecosystem (Breves et al., 2019). Although anyone can use SM to share content about brands, marketing scholars are increasingly interested in understanding how information sharing impacts brand attachment (BA), specifically regarding brand advocacy in the form of electronic word of mouth (eWOM) (Kim & Kim, 2021). While there is a growing stream of conceptual and empirical research exploring the antecedents of social media usage (Vander Schee et al., 2020) the extant empirical literature has largely ignored important motivational drivers of the quantity and valence of information sharing behaviors (Schaefers et al., 2021). Even less is understood regarding the mechanisms through which SM information sharing leads to eWOM.

Literature Review

As an emerging theoretical construct, social media attachment (SMA) theory focuses on how attachment to SM in general is established, and how it may impact brand advocacy and other important behavioral measures (Baboo et al., 2022). Pertinent to the current study, there is interest in how SM usage motivations and brand social media information sharing (BSMIS) influence attachment to a target brand's SM, and in turn, their advocacy behaviors. To date, there is only limited conceptual and empirical research related to brand-specific social media attachment (BSSMA). Vander Schee et al. (2020) propose that attachment is a consumer disposition that may drive content consumption, contribution, and creation regarding desired SM brands, which may then influence six brand outcomes: brand connection, brand disposition, brand affirmation, brand status, brand attributes, and brand aversion. We define BSSMA as the *strength of an individual's relational bonds and emotional connections associated with a target brand's social media platforms and messaging content*.

Methods

We used a cross-sectional survey research design to capture respondents' SM usage motivations, BSMIS, BSSMA, and eWOM. Respondents were told to consider their favorite brand when answering questions related to the constructs of interest. Scales used in the survey were adapted and extended from the extant literature. All survey items

were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Following a pilot test, the survey was distributed online to a convenience sample of undergraduate students from a Midwestern U.S. university. The sample included 229 responses (75% response rate).

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory composite factor analysis were conducted to evaluate the measurement model to estimate factor loadings, assess indicator and composite reliability (CR), capture average variance extracted (AVE), and to determine convergent discriminant validity. The EFA confirmed the dimensionality of the items, which were then evaluated in the confirmatory composite factor analysis measurement model. The measurement model analysis eliminated two items, leaving 26 items.

Results and Discussion

Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) via SmartPLS was used for hypothesis testing. Seven of the nine hypothesized relationships were significant as hypothesized, with one path significant but in the opposite direction. To confirm mediation, we compared the significance of the direct and indirect effects. BSSMA fully mediates (i.e., indirect effect exists, but no direct effect) the effects of BSMIS on eWOM, confirming the importance of establishing BSSMA to motivate brand advocacy. An interesting case of competitive partial mediation (i.e., significant negative direct effect and significant positive indirect effect exist) is noted when it comes to SM experience seeking and eWOM. The finding suggests that consumers motivated by SM experience seeking may engage in BSMIS primarily for personal promotion, rather than advocating on behalf of a brand unless the brand's content shared on SM increases their BSSMA.

Marketers should focus their SM efforts on cultivating and supporting consumers' self-actualization of their self-brand connection. Since consumers use their SM profile to express their identity, brands may help consumers communicate their individuality by providing mechanisms for consumers to build a unique social presence. For example, brands offering badging or community standing recognition may help consumers publicly display their level of brand connectivity. This approach encourages engaged consumers to become broadcasters within a network of followers based on brand knowledge or user personality. Brands can foster the relationship by providing engaging and relevant brand content for influencer consumption and dissemination. The ensuing symbiotic relationship provides benefits for both.

Future Considerations

Although this study contributes to the BA and SMA literature, more research is necessary that contributes to our understanding of BSSMA and consumer brand engagement. Research is necessary that examines the complex relationship between SM experience seeking motivations and eWOM. Consumers' SM usage motivations may also evolve, going beyond the cognitive need for information to the more hedonic and social dimensions of interacting with others through SM experience. Thus, future research may investigate how SM usage motivations evolve, and how this affects BSSMA.

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SESSION 4C: ALL FOR THE CAUSE AND ITS IMPACTS

CHAIR:

Sandipan Sen

Summary Brief

Your Reputation Proceeds You: The Impact of Corporate Sociopolitical Activism on Consumer-Based Brand Equity

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To evaluate the impact of corporate sociopolitical activism on consumer-based brand equity, we collect examples of CSA events from RavenPack Analytics from 2007-2020. Using daily brand equity data from YouGov as the measure of consumer-based brand equity, we analyze the impact of CSA on CBBE and, then, we use a cross-sectional regression to evaluate how a firm's CSR reputation and specific branding characteristics will impact this relationship. Results suggest that firms can mitigate the negative effects of CSA on CBBE when they have a strong reputation for CSR. Additionally, we show that firms can further mitigate the negative effects using specific brand characteristics such as dynamic and asymmetric logos.

Introduction

When questioned in various polls and research, younger shoppers consistently claim that their purchasing behavior is tied to their beliefs. Moreover, these belief-driven buyers do not just expect brands to take a leadership role in environmental sustainability, but they also expect brands to be leaders on key social and political topics. Corporate sociopolitical activism (CSA) is defined by Korschun et al. (2016) as activism undertaken by an organization or its executives that delineates a public position on a polarizing social or political issue. In this research, we explore the relationship between corporate sociopolitical activism and consumer-based brand equity (CBBE).

Conceptual Development

In this research, we suggest that consumers use source credibility cues based on the firms' CSR reputation to make judgements about CSA stances that subsequently impact brand equity. Furthermore, we propose specific branding elements will influence this relationship. Research suggests that CSA initiatives are often seen as opportunistic attempts to enhance brand equity rather than true efforts to make a societal impact (Hess & Warren, 2008). Although prior literature suggests that CSR positively impacts consumers' brand perceptions (Rust et al., 2004), literature specifically investigating CSA has found it is negatively associated with firm performance (Bhagwat et al., 2020). Therefore, we suggest that due the controversial and bipartisanship nature of CSA initiatives, in the absence of source credibility, it will have a negative impact on CBBE. Thus, we propose (**H1**) firms' engagement in corporate sociopolitical activism (CSA) will be negatively associated with CBBE. Source credibility can be used as a mechanism for judging corporate actions related to social initiatives (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005). CSR activities not only build ethical reputations, but they also strengthen corporate reputation and, subsequently, brand equity (McWilliams et al., 2006). Therefore, (**H2**) for firms' engaging in CSA, a firms' corporate social responsibility reputation will be positively associated with CBBE. Next, we extend the idea that source credibility can mitigate the negative effects of CSA on CBBE through the symbolism of brand names and logo styles that are reflective of the brand. We suggest that front vowels, which are correlated with sincerity in brand personality literature (Klink & Athaide, 2012) and contribute to the brand's perceived ethicality, will strengthen the positive relationship between a firm's CSR reputation and CBBE in the context of a CSA event. In other words, (**H3**) the relationship between brand reputation for CSR and consumer response to CSA announcements will be moderated by vowel type, such that the relationship will be strengthened for brands with front vowels. Additionally, we suggest that effective logos will moderate the relationship between the existing CSR reputation of a firm and the CBBE in the context of a CSA event. Because logo asymmetry is perceived to be more arousing and exciting (Locher & Nodine, 1989), we suggest that it will be perceived as a more credible representation regarding CSA. Finally, prior research suggests that logo dynamism plays directly into strength of source credibility (Lowry et al., 2014). Thus, we suggest that logo dynamism will reinforce the relationship between

CSR reputation and CBBE in the CSA context because it is a source of credibility and a characteristic of the logo that comes to mind in the context of a CSA announcement. Based on the preceding evidence, (**H4**): The relationship between brand reputation for CSR and consumer response to CSA announcements will be moderated by (a) logo symmetry and (b) logo dynamism such that the relationship will be strengthened for brands with asymmetric and dynamic logos.

Methods

This research uses RavenPack Analytics and search terms established in prior literature (Bhagwat et al., 2020) to create a database of 608 events related to corporate sociopolitical activism from 2007 until 2020. These events are matched to YouGov's daily brand rating data that serves as a measure for CBBE. Because there is not an exact match between the events covered by RavenPack Analytics and the companies or brands covered by YouGov, there are approximately 461 events in the final sample. We compare the CBBE from a period following the CSA event to the CBBE in a period prior to the CSA event to test H1. Following this comparison, we use a cross-sectional regression to analyze additional conditional effects and the remaining hypotheses.

Results

We tested for differences in mean CBBE scores using a t-test by calculating a variable that captured the difference between a period following the CSA event and a period prior to the CSA event and then comparing that to zero. If there are differences between the pre- and post-event CBBE scores, the mean difference of these scores should be statistically different from zero. We conducted this test using a series of different time periods and found statistical significance among most of those time periods. Therefore, we conclude that CSA events do have a negative impact on CBBE as, on average, the CBBE scores following an event are less than those prior to the event. Thus, we find support for H1. Next, we used a cross-sectional regression to evaluate the remainder of the hypothesized relationships. The dependent variable in this regression is the change between the CBBE following a CSA event and the CBBE prior to the CSA event. The independent variable is the firms' CSR reputation. The moderators are the vowel position in the brand name, and the asymmetry and dynamism associated with the brand logo. With the exception of H3, all hypotheses are supported. The results of this analysis suggest that there are specific brand associations that can attenuate or amplify the negative impact on CBBE when a firm has an existing strong CSR reputation.

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Summary Brief
Impact on Purchase Intention by Cause Related Marketing Participation in the Black Lives Matter Movement

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In the management and marketing literature, many constructs have been examined that affect new product purchase. This study utilizes a quantitative and qualitative assessment to address benefits gained from historical and current events to evaluate the relationship between purchase intention, cause related marketing, and the Black Lives Matter movement.

Introduction

In the management and marketing literature, many constructs have been examined that affect new product purchase. There has been little research examining the effects of purchase intention based on CRM and BLM. In 2013, three female Black organizers created a Black-centered civil rights movement and advocacy project called Black Lives Matter (BLM). The Black Lives Matter movement began with a social media hashtag, #BlackLivesMatter. Black Lives Matter, like its predecessor movements, embodies flesh and blood through local organizing, national and global protests, hunger strikes, and numerous acts of civil disobedience (Cameron 2021). The rise and controversy of the Black Lives Matter (BLM) movement has significant potential on marketing and business, especially as potential audiences grow. This study utilizes a quantitative and qualitative assessment to address benefits gained from historical and current events to evaluate the relationship between purchase and CRM.

Cause Related Marketing

Cause related marketing (CrM) has been increasingly becoming a mainstream of corporate marketing plan (Patel et. al. 2017). Some argue that Cause Related Marketing has become a preferred choice over other forms of marketing communications targeting consumers.CRM is the affiliation of a company's identity with non-profit firms, good causes and important social issues through corporate marketing and fundraising programs. Varadarajan and Menon (1998, p. 60) define CRM as "the process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when consumers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives".

Companies across the globe have increasingly adopted Cause Related Marketing due to its capacity to leverage company's social performance (Liu 2013) and their disagreement on effectiveness of traditional forms of marketing communications such as advertising, direct marketing, sales promotions, etc. (Patel 2017).

Cause marketing was on the rise prior to the pandemic, as consumers increased their expectations for brand transparency, sustainability, fair treatment, and standing up for their beliefs — but in a post-pandemic world, that's only truer. Consumers are both more likely to support your brand if it supports a cause, and more likely to stop purchasing from your brand if they suspect you aren't living up to their standards (Refuel Agency).

When effectively designed and executed, cause related marketing campaigns can be a win-win-win situation for all parties involved. For-profit and non-profit brands achieve higher awareness, more consumers and supporters, and an increase in traffic, profits and/or donations. Similarly, the community that the campaign is targeting will also receive a boost in popularity and recognition, which can sometimes prove invaluable when it comes to social justice and environmental causes (rockcontent.com).

Black Lives Matter

According to Coates (2014)he world is being asked to reckon with demands for social transformation, as captured by the rallying cry of "Black Lives Matter." Millions have marched in protest under the banner of Black Lives Matter. World leaders have taken a knee in support of this societal demand.

A bevy of the world's best-known brands have used their marketing channels to offer support for BLM. "To be silent is to be complicit. Black lives matter," said Netflix on Twitter. "We have a platform, and we have a duty to our Black members, employees, creators and talent to speak up."

Similar tweets have come from Disney-owned Fox and Hulu. Apple Music joined the "Black Out Tuesday" campaign to raise awareness about issues of systemic ethnic inequity.

Nike has repurposed its famous slogan with its "For once, Don't Do It" advertisement (Hurst).

Most Americans say brands should respond to social issues related to the Black Lives Matter (BLM) movement. Almost three-quarters (71%) of U.S. adults said brands have a role in responding to the issues of racial injustice and police brutality, per survey results that researcher Opinium shared with Marketing Dive. Opinium's survey results come as a variety of brands have made stronger efforts to address BLM-related issues, including donations to nonprofit groups, pledging to support equality in the work place and participating in boycotts to denounce online hate speech. Among those brands, coffee chain Starbucks recently reversed a ban on wearing BLM apparel at work, and it's still too early to tell whether the company caused long-term damage to its brand. The company's experience provides lessons on how brands need to manage delicate social issues (William.

As the Black Lives Matter movement continues to sweep the United States, brands have attempted to take a stand against systemic racism and show their solidarity.

More than ever, consumers are holding brands accountable and asking them to do better and take action—and we want to help shed light on how you can do so (Collins).

Purchase Intention

For many companies, long term prosperity depends on the constant pursuit of product and process innovation (Lynn and Akgun 1998). Research on product adoption has provided critical information to marketing practitioners in determining the probability of success for brand extensions, reformulations, and product introductions. Environmental conditions increasingly force organizations to innovate and bring new products and services to market (Frambach et. al. 1998).

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Summary Brief

Feel being there: Consumers' different reactions to service providers and good producers with low CSR

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The corporate social responsibility (CSR) literature suggests that low CSR negatively impacts the relationship between firms and consumers. Adding to this research stream, we investigate how degree of this negative impact in service providers differs from good producers and explain why via experiments. We show that when firms are service providers, low CSR leads to more negative consumers' reactions, and this effect is mediated by a sense of presence and emotional intensity.

The corporate social responsibility (CSR) literature suggests that low CSR negatively impacts the relationship between firms and consumers (e.g., Li, Liu, & Huan, 2019), but the effect of firm's type (i.e., service provider vs. good producer) on this relationship has been underexplored. We intend to fill this research gap. In the following, we first review key constructs to develop hypotheses and then report two studies and key findings.

Inseparability

One unique feature that differentiates services from goods is inseparability, defined as service production and consumption occur simultaneously (Berry, 1980). In many cases, customer participation is mandatory in services (Mustak et al., 2016), resulting in employee-customer interaction as a critical factor to influence consumption experience. Service employees who experience low pay and long working hours may demonstrate low work engagement, deliver poor service, and treat customers unfairly (Kim & Kim, 2021). Unlike services, goods are first produced at a manufacturing site, sold at a store, and then consumed by consumers (Moeller, 2010). Good producers and consumers are normally physically separated with no direct interactions. Employee-customer interaction is less relevant in choosing a good, thus goods producers' CSR in social conduct may be less important for consumers.

H$_1$: CSR in social conduct is perceived as more important when consumers choose a service than a good.

Presence

Originated in media studies, presence suggests that a medium (e.g., virtual reality) can create a mediated environment, yet people can feel "being there", a sense closely resembles the feeling in the real world both physically and psychologically (Heeter, 1992). Physically, people feel personal presence (i.e., detect sensory cues to feel their own existence), social presence (i.e., existence of other people), and environmental presence (existence of solid object such as a room; Heeter, 1992). Psychologically, people feel that they can attend to the mediated environment and involve with objects or other people in it, and generate corresponding emotions (Lessiter & Freeman, 2001).

Applying the concept of presence to the context in which consumers imagine a service consumption. Although there is no external medium, we argue that presence can be created internally through consumers' mental images. Physically, due to the inseparability, it is safe to assume that consumers mentally transport themselves to a service setting (environment presence) and communicate with the employees (personal and social presence). Psychologically, interactions with others and subsequent emotions will emerge in their mental images, which are recreations of experiences that resembles those in real life. Based on external cues and memory of past experiences, mental images can trigger emotions (Horowitz, 1978), considered as a direct "felt effect" (Gendlin & Olsen, 1970).

In the decision-making process, if consumers encounter descriptions of unfair treatments to service employees (i.e., an external cue), these descriptions and their past unpleasant experiences of interacting with service

employees will be sources of constructing vivid mental images, creating a strong presence and intense negative emotions, and consequently, a low purchase intention. This may not be the case when consumers consider purchasing a good. Lack of first-hand experience in sweatshops may reduce the possibility of forming detailed mental images. Feeling less "being there" diminishes the intensity of negative emotions, leading to less extreme reactions. Thus:

> H_2: Consumers are less likely to purchase from service providers (vs. good producers) with low CSR in social conduct. This effect is mediated by consumers' sense of presence and emotional intensity.

Studies and Key Findings

Study 1 was a choice experiment based on conjoint analysis. Participants from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) were randomly assigned to one of two conditions: choosing either a pasta restaurant to dine in (n=175, 57.9% male) or a pasta sauce to buy for home cooking (n=190, 55.5% male). In each condition, participants completed 12 tasks. In each task, participants were provided with a set of three business profiles for restaurants/sauce manufacturers and selected their preferred profile. Each profile included four attributes (the restaurant's/sauce manufacturer's rank in environment conduct and in social conduct, meal/sauce price, and quality) with multiple levels. The four attributes were constant in the profiles, but the attribute levels were systematically appeared based on the orthogonal design. Finally, we measured participants' support for CSR (5-item scale, Maignan, 2001) and collected their gender and age. A two-step transformation approach was first used to correct for non-normality of each attribute importance variable. A one-way MANCOVA was conducted using the four transformed attribute importance variables as dependent variables, firm's type (0=service, 1=good) as independent variable, and participants' support for CSR as covariant. The importance perceptions of the four shared attributes based on the firm's type was significant, after controlling support for CSR ($F(4, 359)=27.48$, $p<.001$, Pillai's Trace=.234). A series of one-way ANCOVAs on each of the four transformed dependent variables was followed. With the importance perception of firm's social conduct being the focal variable, we found that it was more important when firms were service providers ($M=33.92$) than when they were good producers ($M=25.67$, $F(1, 362)=39.47$, $p<.001$), in support of H_1.

Study 2 consisted of a single-factor between-subject design with two levels (dye hair at a hair salon vs. buy a hair dye for DIT at home). Participants from MTurk were randomly assigned to one of the conditions. In both the service (n=101, 59.4% male) and the good (n=96, 70.8% male) conditions, participants read news about how the hair salon/the hair dye manufacturer treated their employees poorly, followed by a purchase intention item, measured on a 7-point scale (1=Extremely unlikely, 7=Extremely likely). Next, we asked participants to recall thoughts when they imagined the scenario and read the news. We measured the sense of presence by using 10 items from the ITC-SOPI scale (adapted from Lessiter & Freeman, 2011) and intensity of four negative emotions (upset, empathetic, sad, and sorrowful). Finally, gender and age were collected. An average presence score of the 10 items ($\alpha=.963$) and an average of emotional intensity score of the 4 emotion items ($\alpha=.824$) were created. A serial mediation analysis using 5,000 bootstrapped sample (Hayes, 2017, Model 6) was conducted, with firm's type as independent variable (1=service provider, 2=good producer), presence and emotional intensity mediators, and purchase intention as the dependent variable. Control variables were gender and age. Results revealed three significant direct effects: 1) As firm's type changed from a service provider to a good producer, presence decreased ($a_1=-.38$, $p=.029$); 2) Stronger sense of presence led to more intense negative emotions ($m=.21$, $p=.001$); and 3) More intense negative emotions resulted in lower purchase intention ($b_1=-.79$, $p=.000$). Finally, the entire indirect effect was significant ($\beta=.064$, $SE=.041$, 95% CI= [.003, .163]), such that firm's type significantly impacted purchase intention through the sense of present and emotional intensity, in support of H_2.

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SESSION 4D: THE FUTURE OF MARKETING AND ITS VAST IMPACT

CHAIR:

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Summary Brief

Reconceptualizing Marketing Landscape in India: From Colonialism to Quantum Marketing

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Marketing is passing through much turbulence due to the simultaneous play of globalization and anti-globalization forces (Bremmer 2014). In addition, digitization advancements (e.g., social media, data analytics, mobile marketing, and IoT [Internet of Things]) have changed the landscape of marketing (Weill and Woerner 2018). Thus, there is a need to reconceptualize marketing's fundamental purpose, premise, and consequences (Webster and Lusch 2013). As such, this research aims to analyze the evolution of marketing in India through a historical analysis. It provides insights into the marketing journey of developing markets. To this end, we endeavor to uncover the complexity of the marketing landscape in India.

Introduction

Marketing emerged as an academic discipline at the beginning of the twentieth century (Bartels, 1968), and it has evolved through three major paradigms. The first paradigm focused on justifying the existence of the concept of marketing and its economic value. The second paradigm emphasized inter-related perspectives of (a) functions/activities marketing institutions performed (b) the various levels of distributors/institutions and their marketing performances, and (c) the need for different marketing techniques and activities for various classes of products/commodities (Shaw and Jones 2005). Nevertheless, such an approach has been criticized for being descriptive, trade-oriented, and with little scientific and theoretical foundation (Ansary *et al*. 2017).

Today, marketing is passing through much turbulence due to the simultaneous play of globalization and anti-globalization forces (Bremmer 2014). In addition, digitization advancements (e.g., social media, data analytics, mobile marketing, and IoT [Internet of Things]) have changed the landscape of marketing (Weill and Woerner 2018). Thus, there is a need to reconceptualize marketing's fundamental purpose, premise, and consequences (Webster and Lusch 2013). As such, this research aims to analyze the evolution of marketing in India through a historical analysis. It provides insights into the marketing journey of developing markets. To this end, we endeavor to uncover the complexity of the marketing landscape in India.

Marketing Journey in India

Chattopadhyay (1997) explains how markets and marketing flourished in Indian urban spaces amidst physical infrastructure limitations. During the 16th-18th century, the marketplace advanced from mass production. As a result, sellers, artisans, farmers, and emerging merchants (especially from Punjab, Rajasthan, and Gujarat) became influencers of political and economic development (Bayly 1953). A prime component driving the market was the "moral economy," based on the mercantile community's caste, status, and honor.

This era was followed by colonialism, which impacted the marketing system and consumption patterns. The merchants (e.g. local market acquainted *banyas/interpreters,* high caste and company employed *dewans,* the commission agents/*dalals,* and independent traders or financers/*pykar*) served a crucial role in controlling the availability of goods and services). The highly decentralized market led to market segmentation (into *haats, bazaars, and gunges.* In the 19th century (with the industrial revolution), Indian market dynamics changed when the government coerced exports from fine textiles to primary objects and imported cheaper industrially produced materials. This brought a sharp divide in the rural-urban class. In addition, temples also served as institutional buyers in the 17th century; thus, the prime aspect of colonial India routed around royal courts' ritualistic consumption (Bayly 1983).

The early 20th century transmuted the consumption market as an important site for the enactment of nationalism and for consumers to recast their identity. Nevertheless, due to language barriers and state-controlled

media, advertising for nationalism was not feasible. As Westfall and Boyd (1958) stated, "*There are some fifty-one dialects spoken by one or more million people each. No one language is spoken by more than about 50 million of the almost 400 million population. Only 15 percent of the population is literate in any language*" (p.15). Thus, Westfall and Boyd (1960) deemed the Indian marketing practices insufficiently developed and asserted the need for modernization. For instance, manufacturing was primarily restricted to small establishments. In the urban regions, shops clustered together, but in rural areas people still traveled door to door, often making barter exchanges. In line with this thought, marketing practitioners and theorists started permeating ideologies of individualism and rationalism, which were far removed from the collectivist culture of Indians. That said, marketing practice in India calls for a further examination of historical and cultural perspectives.

Discussion: The Complexity of Marketing Landscape and Quantum Marketing

There has been a revolutionary shift in the marketing landscape: from the focus on transactional exchange to relationship management, from the relationship paradigm to data science. This shift transformed the marketplace into a segmented/personalized space (Kotler et al. 2001). New strategies such as metaverse showrooms emerged to adapt to the fragmented market. Yet, these developments and value appropriation have also resulted in increased complexity in consumers' decision processes, affecting sales and profitability (Dellaert and Stremersch 2009). Additionally, privacy associated with personalization and data science has become a central concern and debate. Governmental regulations, technological advancement, socio-economical and geographic tranformation, and environmental changes also impact the marketing landscape (Wichmann et al. 2022), resulting in complexities in formulating and executing marketing strategies.

The problem is that the ideologies which propel prevailing marketing practices in India originate from the socio-economic context of the West (Eckhardt *et al.* 2013). For instance, youth perceive their identity as tussled between colonial legacy and a globalized world (Ramamurthy 2008). That said, colonial remnants can still be found in India's shopping mall culture. Varman and Belk (2012) described this hybrid site as a spectacle of Westernness and global modernity that allows consumers to transcend their third-world reality and create an alternate identity that suspends the norms of everyday life.

Despite the rich history of markets and marketing in the country, knowledge pertinent to nuances of the Indian context has been overlooked, even by its own academicians. Anchored to the Eurocentric understanding, resident scholars do not consider domestic marketing practices to be sufficiently developed, modern, or worthy of scholarly pursuit. This has resulted in promoted theories and adopted practices that are far removed from the realities of the country's economy and its consumers' behaviour (Varman *et al*. 2011). As a result, marketing practices born from theoretical applications not properly adapted to or studied in the Indian market has led to inconsistencies and impediments. The consequence of which has been a widened gap between the outcomes and productivity of marketing practices in the Indian and Western markets over time. This paper draws upon the rich history of marketing in India to explore these tensions and serves as a backdrop for understanding the complexities of the present.

References are available upon request.

Summary Brief
Disruption Responses in SME B2B Supply Chains: Theory and Analysis

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Relying on mixed methods, more specifically a two-year-long netnography of online communities and a quantitative survey to test a hypothesized model, this study examines small firms' behavior during a supply chain disruption. We carry out this purpose through two theoretical lenses, the resource-based view of the firm (RBV) and Real Options Theory (RO). The responses suggested a strong relationship between the two theoretical approaches, with the conditions described by RBV leading to a complex variety of real options. Responses to disruption included hoarding, developing new suppliers, price changes, and product mix changes. Respondents also showed a version of coopetition. This research showed that small firms adapt quickly to supply chain disruptions and often cooperate in dealing with the issues. They use technology to communicate on supply issues and often cooperate to solve common problems. The research could be replicated in other industries, with medium-sized firms, and with large firms. A key contribution of this research makes is that almost all previous research has used simulations while this research relies on data collected from business owners during major supply disruptions.

Introduction

Supply chains have undergone disruptions from several sources in recent years. We approach the research from two theoretical perspectives, the resource-based view of the firm (RBV) and Real Options Theory (RO). We gathered data from 118 firms in the bath/body/candle industry. We used the data from these survey responses to test a structural equation model of supply chain adaptation in this industry during COVID19 and the simultaneous war. We used a two-year netnography to support the development and the conclusions drawn from the model.

We use 'deceptive supplier' to mean abusive, opportunistic, unethical suppliers. Also, we refer to the respondents as buyers or a focal firm. The literature review first discusses buyer-supplier relationships, supplier deceptions, and supply chain adaptations, then RBV and RO as they have been applied to SMEs, especially smaller firms. It also covers the literature on the role of technology in developing supply chain adaptations, the nature of marketing adaptations to supply chain disruptions, and the role played by small firms in developing these adaptations. The paper then describes the methodology and the results. It discusses the theoretical and practical implications of the results and puts them in the context of supply chain strategies for small firms. It closes with a call for additional research and a brief discussion of the current study's limitations.

We found that RBV and RO combined to help understand how markets and marketing might adapt to future disruptions. Small firms used digital platforms, notably Facebook and email, to improve their positions in the market and adapt to supply disruptions. These firms also used many tactics and strategies.

Background

This study used mixed methods. First, the authors conducted a two-year-long qualitative netnographic study that guided quantitative model development. Second, we developed and tested a survey questionnaire based on prior theory and qualitative findings. The participatory nature of the netnographic part of the study required one of the authors to become a member of social media groups (on Facebook) specifically for small businesses in the bath/body and candle industry. The raw materials for producing candles, bath, and body products overlap, so many businesses in the industry focus on more than one product. The immersion allowed for a better understanding of the culture, language, behaviors, and dynamics of relationships among the group members. Prolonged engagement also allowed uncovering potential shifts in conversation topics and areas of concern.

The quantitative model of the study was developed based on qualitative findings and theoretical background. TO collect data we used survey method. Data were collected from 118 buying firms/manufacturers of bath/body/candle products. Over 200 participants attempted the study. Of these, 118 were completed, a 75%

completion rate. Most small business owners sold exclusively to consumers (62.4%), others directly to end consumers and through retail channels (34.2%).

Key Findings

Based on netnographic findings and an SEM model, we were able to address pressing questions with respect to SMEs mitigation of supply chain disruption. In this research, buyer-supplier relationships constituted SCAs within the RBV of the firm. When the supply chain floundered the buyers reacted by using RO based behaviors. The trigger for this chain was often unethical behavior by the supplier with the intent of maximizing profit. Interestingly, this assumes that buyers will not realize what is transpiring and will continue to buy. The findings from this study indicate that buyers not only realize what is transpiring but also participate in collaboration with their competitors thus strengthening the power of the buy side. This also results in the buy side players blacklisting the supply side player trying to take advantage of a crisis. The result of the initial bad behavior results in driving up the resources expended by buy side players to stay in business. The resulting defections and negative word of mouth in turn threaten the sustainability of the bad actor's business. The net result is a triple loss scenario. Suppliers and buyers make less due to the additional cost of carrying excess inventory and the stress that uncertainty introduces into the system. Consumers are forced to pay more for less and are given less variety from which to choose. This raises the question of how to educate or police potential bad players to the folly of their ill-conceived and ethically challenged actions in the future.

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Summary Brief
Customer Reuse Intention: Measuring Post Usage M-loyalty among Mobile Instant Messaging Users

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This paper aimed to identify the factors that lead to m-loyalty among the users of MIM applications. Data were collected from 600 MIM users of the Delhi NCR region (India) using a structured questionnaire and analyzed using the structural equation modeling method. The study finds that vital factors such as satisfaction and trust influence m-loyalty among the users of MIM applications. Perceived value and commitment are the significant factors that also influence m-loyalty. Factors such as usability and enjoyment have no association with the m-loyalty of the users towards the MIM application.

Introduction

Advancement in mobile technology and mobile commerce has grown tremendously in the past few years in India. The rapid growth of this advancement is due to the variety of m-commerce services or activities available to users on mobile devices using a wireless internet network. These are m-shopping, mobile banking, downloading music or video, and chatting on social media. The introduction of m-commerce launched advanced communication like mobile instant messaging (MIM). MIM is an interactive service where the individual can communicate with others instantly at any time from any place in the world. Some popular MIM applications like WhatsApp, Facebook Messenger, Instagram, Snapchat have redefined communication between people. India had more than 467 million active internet users in 2022 (Mehner, 2022). 89% of internet users in India used different mobile messaging apps in 2018 to communicate with their family and friends (Soeyuenmez, 2022). Zhou and Lu (2011) revealed that perceived satisfaction and loyalty toward MIM are indicators of long-term usage. It has become very competitive in a brief time due to the remarkable growth in the MIM market. Every MIM service provider wants to attract the maximum user and retain the existing user by persistently providing new features in MIM applications. Hence, the present study attempts to identify the influencing factors of m-loyalty among MIM application users.

Background

Past studies are to understand the impact of existing literature and relevant theories on consumer reuse intention concerning MIM users. The study considered cognitive absorption (CA) theory and the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) theory to assess MIM user reuse intention. The CA theory discusses the involvement and use of technology in virtual platforms (Mpinganjira, 2019). The UTAUT theory is to understand individual user behavior and intention toward adopting technology (Gruzd et al., 2012). Jen et al. (2011) highlight that quality of service and customer reuse intention has influenced customer satisfaction. They also pointed out that perceived value allows for predicting the customer reuse intention. Usability is the time taken by the users or customers to make themselves familiar with the new tools or technology. Consumer acceptance of technology has influenced the use of modern technology.

Trust influences the adoption of m-commerce (Kalinic et al., 2016) and has a significant role in rising technology-focused actions (Hegner et al., 2019). A customer journey has become enjoyable due to the interaction between human-human (customer-seller) and human-computer (customer–virtual seller) (Mandryk et al., 2006). The variables such as trust, enjoyment, satisfaction, usability, perceived value, and commitment found in past research are adopted to develop the conceptual framework.

Key Findings

The present study uncovered the influencing factors that have affected customer reuse intention toward MIM applications. We applied the SEM technique to the 600 survey responses collected through a structured questionnaire. The results showed that satisfaction and trust towards the services provided by MIM applications play the most vital role in developing the loyalty of mobile users. Perceived value and commitment significantly impact m-loyalty towards MIM applications. Usability and enjoyment factors have no significant impact on m-loyalty. We found that

m-loyalty and satisfaction significantly impact customer reuse intention towards MIM applications. The present study also identified the relationship between m-loyalty and satisfaction with customer reuse intention. The result provided a base for all service providers to develop strategies to retain long-term customers with their MIM applications. The MIM application developers must consider user satisfaction as it plays a vital role in developing m-loyalty. Reliable and consistent quality services develop satisfaction and trust among the users. Also, the MIM application must provide services that satisfy the user's needs and add value to the user. The overall experience of using the MIM service needs to be cultivated among the user to increase customer reuse intention through satisfaction and loyalty.

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Summary Brief

What Leads to Productive Procrastination in Salespeople?

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Over 15% of adults suffer from chronic procrastination (Shatz, n.d.). Procrastination has been shown to detrimentally impact motivation, confidence, happiness, and self-esteem (e.g., Hensley, 2014; Shatz, n.d.; Steel, 2010). Most research focuses on college students rather than organizational employees (e.g., Choi & Moran, 2009; Hensley, 2014; Mortensen, 2014; Shatz, n.d.). However, considering over 80% of college students engage in procrastination behaviors (Shatz, n.d.), it is likely this continue as students enter the workforce.

Even though procrastination is typically considered to be a negative, it is possible for employees to still be productive while procrastinating (Choi & Moran, 2009). In this study, this type of procrastination is called productive procrastination. It occurs when an employee satisfactorily performs lower important items while voluntarily delaying completing more urgent tasks. One example of productive procrastination within sales is when a salesperson opts to answer customer emails rather than engage in required cold-calling.

The focus of this study is to investigate five potential antecedents including grit, family-work conflict, cognitive and emotional engagement, and emotional exhaustion that might lead to productive procrastination in salespeople. A Qualtrics panel consisting of 305 business-to-business salespeople from a variety of industries was used. This study used measures taken from the extant literature. Partial least squares structural equations modeling was employed to test the hypothesized model.

Results indicate that grit positively impacted cognitive and emotional engagement while negatively impacting productive procrastination. Family-work conflict positively impacted both emotional exhaustion and productive procrastination. Cognitive engagement positively impacted emotional exhaustion while negatively impacting productive procrastination. Emotional engagement negatively impacted emotional exhaustion while positively impacting productive procrastination. Finally, emotional exhaustion positively impacted productive procrastination. These results highlighted that the type of engagement has a direct impact not only on the usage of productive procrastination but also on the development of emotional exhaustion. Managerial implications of these results are discussed.

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Summary Brief
Ring the Alarm: Modifications to Higher Education Negatively Impacting Full-Time Faculty

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Higher education has experienced some significant changes over the past few years including a highly competitive landscape, use of new technology, managing COVID protocols, and guiding students to resources that ensure their success. This research uncovers some trends in employees within higher education. A mixed methods approach is utilized. Significant differences are found between full-time and part-time faculty which suggests alarming concerns for institutions regarding their full-time faculty.

Introduction

Recently several significant external factors have positively and negatively impacted work organizations as well as individuals in the workplace. One industry that has seen significant changes recently is higher education. With the demographic drop-off approaching, more competitors entering the industry, and increasing popularity of online education (Neuwirth, Jović, & Mukherji, 2021; Palvia, 2018), traditional higher education institutions have been forced to adapt to the changes in the marketplace as well as the shifting wants and needs of their customers (students). This has resulting in the offering of new services on-campus (like more mental health offerings), flexible course schedules (with more online, hybrid, and short-course options available), and the inclusion of more technology (Zoom, Google Drive, and other online collaborative tools) (Tesar, 2020).

Higher education institutions would benefit from understanding how their employees, specifically faculty are responding to this changing work environment. With human resources being the most valuable assets in organizations (Gabčanová, 2011), it is imperative to understand how the employees of higher education institution currently perceive their working conditions, compensation, and benefits. Prior to these recent environmental changes, there were significant concerns involving the working conditions, compensation, and benefits of part-time faculty throughout higher education. This research explores the differences in these perceptions between both full-time and part-time faculty utilizing a mixed-methods approach of quantitative and qualitative techniques.

Background

Higher education has changed over time, but practitioners may suggest they have been slow to change in the past (Tesar, 2020). That has not been the case recently. COVID forced faculty members and higher education institutions to shift the way courses were offered. Instructors needed to redesign courses into online formats, become familiar with digital technology seemingly overnight, and guide students to resources who were experiencing life challenges outside of the classroom (Tesar, 2020). Many of these changes to the workplace of faculty appear as though they will remain a part of their job responsibilities into the future (Benito et al., 2021; Ewing, 2021).

This has significantly impacted faculty workplace conditions and perceptions of their compensation as well as benefits. We explore this by measuring several variables including work-family conflict (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996), pay perceptions, compensation opportunities, online teaching experiences, overwhelming work activities, technology provided, travel funding provided, perceived satisfaction of a faculty advocate, and perceived benefits of a faculty advocate. With part-time faculty previously experiencing undesirable work conditions by often teaching large course sections, being employed by multiple universities, and receiving low amounts of compensation (Berrett, 2012), we anticipate that they have reached a floor of poor ratings across these variables. As a result, we anticipate full-time faculty to have significantly lower ratings because of the recent external environmental changes.

The Faculty Welfare Committee for a medium-sized, public, regional university located in the United States conducted a survey to measure faculty perceptions on these key variables of interest. The survey was sent out to two listservs of current employees. One for full-time faculty and another for part-time faculty. For the quantitative

data, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to detect group differences. The qualitative data consisted of open-ended questions on the survey, which identified themes in employee experiences and workplace perceptions.

Key Findings

Significant main effects of employment status on work-family conflict (F (1, 417) = 41.64, $p < .01$), pay perceptions (F (1, 417) = 8.15, $p = .01$), compensation opportunities (F (1, 417) = 6.32, $p = .01$), online teaching experiences (F (1, 417) = 30.18, $p < .01$), overwhelming work activities (F (1, 417) = 96.51, $p < .01$), technology provided (F (1, 417) = 4.72, $p = .03$), travel funding provided (F (1, 417) = 14.07, $p < .01$), and perceived satisfaction of a faculty advocate (F (1, 417) = 7.60, $p = .01$) were observed. A marginally significant main effect of employment status on perceived benefits of a faculty advocate (F (1, 417) = 3.18, $p = .08$) was observed.

Full-time faculty had significantly higher work-family conflict levels ($m = 3.26$, $SE = .06$) than part-time faculty ($m = 2.46$, $SE = .10$). Full-time faculty had significantly lower pay perceptions ($m = 2.45$, $SE = .04$) than part-time faculty ($m = 2.68$, $SE = .07$). Full-time faculty had significantly lower perceptions of compensation opportunities ($m = 2.25$, $SE = .03$) than part-time faculty ($m = 2.43$, $SE = .07$). Full-time faculty had significantly lower perceptions of online teaching experiences ($m = 2.79$, $SE = .04$) than part-time faculty ($m = 3.25$, $SE = .07$). Full-time faculty had significantly higher perceptions of overwhelming work activities ($m = 3.90$, $SE = .04$) than part-time faculty ($m = 2.98$, $SE = .09$). Full-time faculty had significantly lower perceptions of technology provided ($m = 3.42$, $SE = .05$) than part-time faculty ($m = 3.63$, $SE = .08$). Full-time faculty had significantly lower perceptions of travel funding provided ($m = 2.18$, $SE = .06$) than part-time faculty ($m = 2.61$, $SE = .09$). Full-time faculty had significantly lower perceptions of perceived benefits of a faculty advocate ($m = 2.98$, $SE = .04$) than part-time faculty ($m = 3.17$, $SE = .06$). Full-time faculty had marginally significantly lower perceptions of perceived benefits of a faculty advocate ($m = 3.49$, $SE = .05$) than part-time faculty ($m = 3.67$, $SE = .08$). Qualitative results provided further support for the quantitative findings. This qualitative data highlighted themes of employees feeling overworked (burned out), underpaid, less committed to their employer, and less satisfied with their employment.

With concerns highlighted about the workplace compensation and benefits provided to part-time faculty in the past (Berrett, 2012), the recent shift of full-time faculty perceiving their workplace situation to be significantly worse than their part-time colleagues are alarming. These changing perceptions may be due to external environmental trends, but higher education institutions should take steps to mitigate these negative perceptions by their full-time faculty. We are seeing some concerning trends involving professionals leaving academia and entering the private sector (Anonymous, 2022). Future research should attempt to replicate these studies and identify consequences for these current working conditions. This includes exploring employer turnover metrics, number of people leaving higher education for other industries and implications for employee mental and physical health.

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SESSION 4E: CHARITY, SUSTAINBILITY, AND MOTIVATIONS

CHAIR:

John Story

Summary Brief
The Effect of Motive Appeals and Regulatory Focus on Food Waste Prevention Messages

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In order to achieve sustainable growth, raising awareness of the societal, environmental, and economic consequences of food waste is needed. This study intends to help design effective food waste prevention campaigns. For this purpose, different message appeals with varying motives and frames were compared for their persuasiveness. The study presented no significant differences in consumer responses between messages conveying a financial or a moral motive to avoid food waste. On the other hand, regarding the regulatory focus of the ads, consumer responses differ significantly. When the losses of food waste are emphasized with a prevention-focused message, consumers' attitude, perceived argument quality, and attitude toward the ad were more favorable compared to when the gains of avoiding food waste were emphasized with a promotion-focused ad. Consequently, it can be deduced that the effectiveness of food waste prevention campaigns can be improved by employing prevention-focused messages.

Introduction

Due to increasingly high food prices, the war in Ukraine and continuing negative financial consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic, world hunger is soaring (Worldbank 2022). Food waste, which is defined as edible food that is thrown away and not consumed by people (Thyberg & Tonje, 2016), is one contributing factors to the hunger problem.

The financial aspect of food waste is also alarming as the cost of global food waste is considered to rise to approximately $1,5 trillion by 2030 (BCG, 2019). Moreover, a rise in the amount of food waste will result in an increased negative impact on climate change through the ineffective use of agricultural land and water (FAO, 2019).

In this study different message appeals with different motives and frames are compared for their persuasiveness to prevent food waste. Specifically, the responses to the messages addressing financial and moral aspects of food waste are compared. Also, consumer responses to prevention-focused messages focusing on losses of food waste and promotion-focused messages focusing on the gains of avoiding food waste are analyzed.

Background

Several studies investigated the persuasiveness of addressing different motivations for not wasting food in messages (Quested et al. 2013; Hebrok & Boks 2017; Chen & Jai 2018). A considerable amount of attention has been given to the ethical consequences of food waste (Brook Lyndhurst 2007; Graham-Rowe et al. 2014). What can be described as "*doing the right thing*" refers to avoiding harm to one's conscience and the environment (Doron 2013; Graham-Rowe et al. 2014). On the other hand, several studies examined the appeal of the financial aspect of food waste (Brook Lyndhurst 2007; Mavrakis 2014; Graham-Rowe et al. 2014;).

In addition to the message appeal, the regulatory focus of the message might also be influential in the persuasiveness of the food waste prevention messages. Promotion focus is associated with eager means and striving to achieve positive outcomes whereas prevention focus is associated with vigilant means and striving to avoid negative outcomes (Crowe & Higgins 1997; Cesario et al. 2004). Even though the regulatory focus is a dispositional state, it can also be induced through message frames (Higgins et al. 1994; Liberman & Higgins 2000). Accordingly, while a promotion-focused state can be induced with a gain-framed message, a prevention-focused state can be induced with a loss-framed message.

In this study, the effects of motive appeal and regulatory focus of food waste prevention messages on perceived argument quality, attitudes towards the message, and issue attitude are analyzed.

Key Findings

As predicted, an ANOVA on perceived argument quality revealed a significant main effect of regulatory focus of the ads ($F[1,148] = 5.607$, $p < 0.05$). Specifically, the perceived argument quality of the message was significantly higher for the prevention focus ads ($M = 5.62$, $SD = 0.13$) than the promotion focus ad ($M = 5.21$, $SD = 0.12$). Neither the main effect of message motives ($F[1,148] = 0.35$, $p > 0.05$) nor the interaction between regulatory focus and message motive ($F[1,148] = 0$, $p > 0.05$)
was statistically significant.

Regarding the issue attitude, there was a main effect of regulatory focus of the ads ($F[1,148] = 9.567$, $p < 0.05$). Issue attitude was stronger for prevention focus ad ($M = 6.59$, $SD = 0.11$) than the promotion focus ad ($M = 6.09$, $SD = 0.10$). Once more, the main effect of message motives ($F[1,148] = 0.197$, $p > 0.05$) and the interaction between regulatory focus and message motive ($F[1,148] = 0.024$, $p > 0.05$) was statistically not significant.
Lastly, there was a significant main effect of regulatory focus of the ads on attitude toward the ad ($F[1,148] = 4.335$, $p < 0.05$). Specifically, the attitudes toward the ad was significantly higher for the prevention focus ad ($M = 5.85$, $SD = 0.14$) than the promotion focus ad ($M = 5.46$, $SD = 0.13$). The main effect of message motives ($F[1,148] = 0.810$, $p > 0.05$) and the interaction between regulatory focus and message motive ($F[1,148] = 1.454$, $p > 0.05$) was statistically not significant.

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Summary Brief

Getting Connected: Exploring the Role of Sustainability Labels in Tourism Marketing Communications

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This research examines the role of sustainability labels in increasing consumer positive attitudes toward sustainable travel destinations. Drawing on relationship marketing theory, we propose that sustainability labels increase consumer visit intentions, willingness to spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination, and willingness to pay price premium for the sustainable product/service. Goal congruence and connectedness are two mechanisms that mediate relationships between presence of sustainability labels and positive behavioral intentions.

Introduction

Over the past few decades, sustainable development has become a source of competitive advantage for many businesses (e.g., d'Angella and de Carlo 2016; Lansing and de Vries 2007). Tourism is one of the industries that both negatively impact natural systems and threaten cultural heritage (Lansing and De Vries 2007) and are impacted by other global environmental issues such as climate change, deforestation, and an excessive amount of waste. However, although many tourism sites prioritize the development of sustainable tourism, they seldom or never communicate sustainability to their potential customers in form of sustainable labels and symbols. In fact, Tourism businesses communicate to consumers only 30% of their sustainable initiatives (Font et al., 2017). This paper seeks to examine how sustainability labels affect consumer behavioral intentions in the context of tourism, including word-of-mouth, intention to travel, and willingness to pay a premium, using relationship marketing theory (Morgan and Hunt 1994).

Conceptual Framework

The academic literature currently available on sustainability in tourism offers contradictory results on the impact of sustainability labels on customer behaviors and intentions. However, sustainability labels were found effective in changing consumer attitudes in other areas, such as the food industry (e.g., Howard et al. 2006) or the energy sector (Banerjee and Solomon 2003). We therefore postulate that:

H1*:* Presence (vs. absence) of a sustainability label in a sustainable tourism communication will increase a) intention to visit a destination, b) intention to spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination (WOM), and c) willingness to pay price premium (WTP).

Tourists can start interacting with destinations long before a visit even occurs. As a result, consumers may get connected with a destination before they book or purchase a trip. Relationship marketing theory predicts that the seller and the buyer (Morgan and Hunt 1994) or the brand and the customer (Fournier, 1998) establish relationships based on the similarity or congruence of lifestyle, goals, and values. Vice versa, when feeling connected with a destination, consumers will perceive that their goals are congruent with a destination's goals. Additionally, it was discovered that goal congruence led to positive emotions, such as happiness, and reduces barriers to sustainable consumption related to perceived lack of benefits, convenience, and comfort (e.g., Baker, Davis, and Weaver 2014). Thus:

H2: Consumer connectedness with a travel destination will mediate the effects of sustainability label on a) intention to visit a destination, b) intention to spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination, and c) willingness to pay price premium.

H3: Perceived congruence between the consumer's and travel destination's goals will mediate the effects of sustainability label on a) intention to visit a destination, b) intention to spread positive word-of-mouth about the destination, and c) willingness to pay price premium.

Research has shown that, despite the growing quantity of information on sustainable consumption, only a small portion of environmentally aware consumers really comprehend how their consumption affects the environment (Rettie, Burchell, and Barnham 2014). We suggest that environmentally aware consumers are more likely to be influenced by sustainable messages and are more likely to feel emotions that motivate behavior, specifically, attachment to a destination and the alignment of their personal goals with the objectives of the destination.

H4: Consumers environmental awareness will moderate the effects of sustainability label on a) consumer connectedness with a travel destination and b) perceived congruence between the consumer's and travel destination's goals.

Methods

We tested our hypotheses with a controlled between-subjects online experiment using a sample form Amazon Mechanical Turk CloudResearch panel. A series of One-way ANCOVAs was conducted to examine effects of the presence (vs. absence) of sustainability label on intention to visit a destination, WOM, and willingness to pay price premium, controlling for age, and familiarity with the brand and the product, and anthropomorphic tendency.

Findings

There was no main effect of sustainability labels on consumer behavioral intentions. However, effects of sustainability label on intentions to visit a destination, to share positive information about it and to recommend it to others, and to pay a price premium occur indirectly, when consumer goals are perceived to be congruent with the destination's goals and when consumers perceive connectedness with a destination. Effects of sustainability labels on connectedness and goal congruence depend on how much an individual is aware of environmental problems. Specifically, higher levels of environmental awareness increase connectedness and goal congruence. Moreover, moderated mediation appeared to have no effect in a relationship between connectedness and willingness to pay price premium.

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SESSION 4G: WE'VE GOT THE POWER: AN ANALYSIS OF MAKRETING THROUGH ANALOGY

CHAIR:

R Wixel Barnwell

Special Session
We've Got the Power: An Analysis of Marketing through Analogy

R Wixel Barnwell, Longwood University, USA
Kenneth Graham, University of Wisconsin-La Crosse, USA
Alisha Horky, University of North Alabama, USA
Michael Levin, Otterbein University, USA
Mark Pelletier, University of North Carolina-Wilmington, USA
Kevin Shanahan, Mississippi State University, USA

In the eighth annual special session of the Analysis by Analogy Series, the panelists will use the lens of the French and Raven's Forms of Power (1959, 1965) to offer fresh perspectives on marketing. Creativity inspired by the intersection of disparate disciplines and the relevance of analysis through analogy is well documented. Applying the recognized forms of influence to the larger marketing world, additional insight might be gained. This special session extends the well-received panel discussions going back to 2014.

Referent Power

In the digital world in which we now reside, it seems that "Influencers" are everywhere. Influencers rely on referent power, or the power of an individual to inspire or influence others based on admiration or respect of that individual or identification with that individual. This presentation will examine referent power in regard to varying influencer types, including micro-influencers and celebrities, and discuss the role of identification in regard to influencer impact.

Legitimate Power

Legitimate power is often used in marketing to motivate consumer behavior or to justify advertising and marketing claims. This power is embedded in social norms that compel people to be obedient to those who hold superior positions within a formal or informal social structure. For example, Trident Gum's claim that 'four out of five dentists surveyed recommend Trident gum' is only effective is the consumer accepts the legitimate power of a dentist to make such a recommendation

Reward Power

Reward power is a consistent aspect of marketing. The promise to move one or a group from their perceived state to their desired state is a consistent motivator. Yet, there is a rapidly fragmentation of what represents the desired state. Generationally, regionally, culturally, socially, and politically, stimuli once considered obvious rewards (money, etc.) have seemingly declined in universality. This presentation will focus upon an examination of what represents a reward, or even happiness, in our current marketing context.

Information Power

Raven (1965) added information as a source of power beyond the initial five (French and Raven 1959). Information though extends beyond a collection of facts. Indeed, the conceptualization and ensuing discussion better fits the conceptualization of knowledge rather than information within the data-information-knowledge-wisdom hierarchy. In the context of power, individual market orientation could provide additional understanding of the role of human and, separately, information as sources of competitive advantage. By using knowledge, an employee can make decisions, affect change, and/or control access.

Coercive Power

Coercive power is when an authority figure controls another entity using fear and threats. Coercive power is absolutely present in the exchanges between the firm and the customer; however, the concept of which sides of the exchange function as the authority figure is not always clear. Discussion will take place describing situations where marketing firms use coercive power to influence customers and modern-day pressure on firms by customers turning the tables and instilling fear and issuing threats.

Expert Power

Expert power comes from a relative relationship between those who have, or are assumed to have, a high level of knowledge within an area of expertise and those who do not have such expertise, and are not challenged for doing so. Faux expert power occurs when someone with expertise in one area assumes a position of knowledge in one area because of expertise in another. Often such faux expert power is simply accepted by those with no expertise. This is particularly prevalent in social media with influencers; many who are experts by numbers of followers and exert faux expert power.

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SESSION 6C: IT'S A SALES THING

CHAIR:

Veronica Thomas

Summary Brief
The Role of Salesperson Bricolage When Dealing with Technological Uncertainty and Pandemic Disruption

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This study presents and tests a conceptual model demonstrating how the salesperson bricolage capability can enhance the performance of retail salespeople as they are dealing with change brought upon by the COVID-19 pandemic and technological integration. Dyadic data were collected from both managers and salespeople representing 205 Brazilian retailers and were analyzed using PLS-SEM. The findings supported the study hypotheses that bricolage mediates the effects of managerial acquiescence and functional customer orientation on role ambiguity and post disruption performance. These findings support the notion that bricolage helps salespeople to better understand their rapidly changing roles and perform better in the covid-19 environment that has seen new technologies rapidly introduced into retail operations.

Introduction

The disruptive and challenging retail environment brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic has hastened the introduction of new technologies that have affected the role of employees on the frontline (Voorhees et al., 2019), such as retail salespeople. Many of these salespeople work on a commission basis, and the "new normal" requires salespeople to adapt their approach to provide sustainable sales results. For example, with a variety of available channels, consumers can customize their shopping experience in a manner that suits their individual preferences (Brynjolfsson et al, 2013), but purchases made through online or mobile applications can have a detrimental effect on salesperson compensation. As such, salespeople must find creative ways to adapt to their selling approach as needed (Wang and Miao, 2015).

We developed a conceptual model grounded in the job demand-resources (JD-R) framework (Baker and Demerouti 2007). This model suggests that employees' jobs have demands that require employees to exert sustained physical and/or psychological effort. Though not directly measured in our research model, the increased demands experienced by retail salespeople are of primary interest in this study. The onset of the COVID-19 pandemic was a clear shock to the market which sped the onset of technologies that have rapidly altered the roles of these frontline employees (Vorhees et al. 2020). Resources can help to mitigate the strain or stress caused by these job demands and increase employee engagement and motivation (Baker and Demerouti 2007). These resources may be characteristics of the job or organization, relate to interpersonal work relationships, or be traits of the individual employee (Xanthopoulou et al. 2007). As such, our model considers a resource that is derived from the organization (i.e., managerial acquiescence) and a resource that is personal to the retail salesperson (i.e., functional customer orientation).

Role ambiguity and salesperson bricolage respectively represent the states of engagement/motivation and strain/stress the JB-R model. The conceptualization of these constructs in the current research is similar to how Miao and Evans' (2013) treat these latter states of the JD-R framework in a context involving salespeople. For instance, both studies represent the stress/strain mechanism in JD-R model with role ambiguity. Whereas Miao and Evans represent the engagement/motivational aspect of the JD-R model with adaptive selling behavior, we use salesperson bricolage construct for this component. These two constructs similarly reflect a greater level of investment by salespeople, though adaptive selling reflects customer or micro level adaptations while salesperson bricolage reflects environmental or macro level adaptations (Epler and Leach 2021). Both models consider the influence of these states on salesperson performance, though our measure of performance is specific to period since the onset of the covid 19.

Method

We developed and administered two questionnaires to retail stores Brazil. All questionnaire items were initially translated from English to Portuguese, and then translated back to English to ensure that the intended meaning was captured.

To collect the data and to identify retail stores for the survey, researchers had the support from a local credit/debit card machine operator. Two sales supervisors from the company visited the retailers in person to encourage participation in the research study. The final sample was comprised of 205 salesperson-manager dyads, each from a different retail store. In terms of the scope of their retail operation, 12 companies compete only in their

local area, while 76 operate regionally, 98 operate nationally, and 19 operate internationally. With reference to the number of employees, 10 retailers have between 2 and 9 employees, 48 have from 10 to 49 employees, 28 have between 50 and 99 employees, and 119 have 100 employees or more. Five-point scales were used to assess all constructs. To measure salesperson bricolage, we used a 7-item scale from Epler and Leach (2021) anchored by "never" and "always". We measured functional customer orientation using a 6-item Likert scale following Homburg, Muller and Klarmann, 2011. Managerial acquiescence was measured with a 5-item Likert scale from Ramaseshan et al (2015). We used five items from Delpechitre et al. (2015) to measure role ambiguity anchored by "very certain" and "very uncertain". Finally, post disruption salesperson performance was captured by a 4 item Likert scale adapted from Epler and Leach (2021).

Key Findings

To test our hypotheses, mediation analysis was performed using PLS-SEM. Specifically, we examine the mediating effect of salesperson bricolage on the relationship between managerial acquiescence and role ambiguity; the mediating effect of salesperson bricolage on the relationship between salesperson functional customer orientation and post disruption performance; and the mediating effect of role ambiguity on the relationship between salesperson bricolage and post disruption performance.

Results supported the hypothesized mediating roles of bricolage. Specifically, bricolage fully mediated the negative influence of managerial acquiescence on role ambiguity as it pertains to technology. This finding suggests that bricolage is a vital capability to help retail salespeople manage the introduction of new technologies that are changing their role. Salespeople high in bricolage are able to effective use their existing resources to make sense out of their revised roles. Findings further demonstrated that bricolage partially mediated the relationship between functional customer orientation and post disruption performance. Functional customer orientation still maintained a positive influence on salespersons' performance after the onset of covid 19 after accounting for the mediating effect of bricolage. This illustrates that salesperson bricolage functions similarly to adaptive selling in the post covid environment (Goad and Jaramillo 2014), as functional customer orientation directly enhances the performance of retail salespeople, and affects performance by motivating the efficient and effective use of available resources.

Finally, our findings enhance the understanding of how salesperson bricolage influences post disruption performance in the retail sales context by suggesting that role ambiguity is a partial mediator of this relationship. This finding suggests that managers in the covid 19 era should place a high priority on clarifying the roles of retail salespeople to help them perform better in the face of changing technologies.

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Summary Brief

Using PLS-SEM to test Social Identity Theory Predictors on Behavioral Outcomes for Direct Sales Representatives

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Using partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM), this project tests how Social Identity Theory (SIT) components predict outcomes for direct selling microentrepreneurs by analyzing data from the Direct Selling Association Salesforce Survey. As a secondary data analytic tool, proxy variables from the survey are chosen to represent the cognitive, evaluative, emotional, and behavioral components of SIT. The SIT is then used to predict independent sales representatives' likeliness to recommend and continue with the organization. PLS-SEM is also used to perform multi-group analysis to compare age groups of direct sales representatives and discovered differential effects of the importance of certain SIT predictors across age groups. Implications for recruitment and training of different aged representatives will be discussed.

Introduction & Background

Independent sales representatives are essentially microentrepreneurs, running their own businesses but selling a specific company's branded products to customers; these salespeople are not company employees and their sales income depends on their own motivation. Direct selling organizations (DSOs) should be particularly interested in how the sales representative integrates into the larger group, in this case, the DSO. How the representative experiences and understands the way the organization and the sponsor facilitate a feeling of belongingness and integration may be particularly significant to direct selling microentrepreneurs' brand affiliation and success.

Social identity theory (SIT), introduced by Tajfel and Turner (1986), as expanded upon and cited in Gammoh, Mallin, and Pullins (2014) has four components relevant to direct selling and the data included in the *2018 Direct Selling Salesforce Survey (DSSS)*:

1. Cognitive Component – a cognitive awareness of one's membership in a social group-self categorization
2. Evaluative Component – a positive or negative value connotation attached to this group membership – group self-esteem
3. Emotional Component – a sense of emotional involvement with the group – affective commitment
4. Behavioral Component – behavioral tendencies in support of the group

SIT has been used as a guide to study more company-employed salesperson identification with the brand and company (Gammoh et al., 2014). Gammoh et al. found that the better the match between salesperson's values and the values of the brands and companies they work for, the more salespeople identified with the brand and company. This led to salespeople having higher job satisfaction and job commitment, as well as having better behavioral (clearer communication) and outcome (higher overall sales) performance. To our knowledge, no research has been conducted to study SIT in relation to direct selling microentrepreneurs and no research has tested components of the SIT on salesperson outcomes using PLS-SEM.

Key Findings

Proxy variables were chosen from the 2018 *DSSS* to represent the SIT components (see Altobello, Collier, & Glackin, 2022). Data from 8305 current direct sales representatives was collected, however, once model proxy variables were chosen, only 2252 respondents had complete data. The model presented in Figure 1, panel A was tested using *SmartPLS* software. Overall, the four SIT components combined to explain 48.2% of the variance in outcomes. For all respondents with complete data, the evaluative component of the SIT was the strongest predictor of likelihood to recommend the DSO and likelihood of remaining with the DSO (β= 0.57, p < 0.001, t = 25.79), followed by the behavioral component (β= 0.146, p < 0.001, t = 7.44). Cognitive and emotional components were also significant but with small βs of .066 and .073, respectively. See Figure 1, panel B for path loadings and t-values.

To provide insight into DSO recruitment, we used PLS-SEM multigroup analysis to explore age effects in direct sales representatives' outcomes. Respondents were categorized into three age groups: under 35, 35 to 54, and older than 55. Comparing sales reps under 35 to those 35 to 54, the evaluative component was significantly more important for younger sales representatives ($\beta= 0.652$ vs $\beta= 0.565$, $p < 0.05$). This effect was even more pronounced when comparing the youngest sales representatives to the oldest age group ($\beta= 0.652$ vs $\beta= 0.487$, $p < 0.05$). No difference between the middle age group and oldest age group emerged for the evaluative component. For older sales representatives, the behavioral component of SIT was significantly stronger than for the middle age group (($\beta= 0.244$ vs $\beta= 0.128$, $p < 0.05$) and significantly stronger than for the younger sales reps ($\beta= 0.244$ vs $\beta= 0.136$, $p < 0.05$).
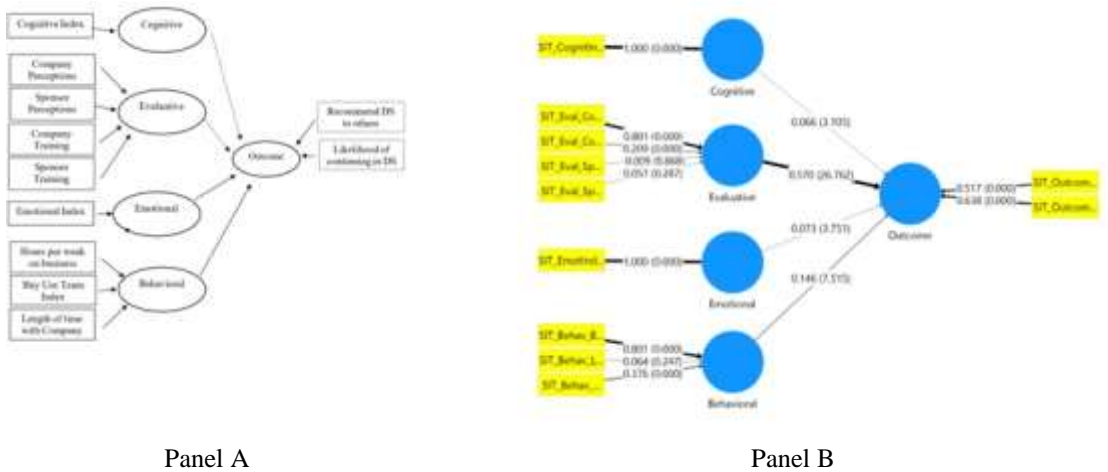
Panel A   Panel B

Figure 1: Proxy variables used to test Social Identity Theory components on behavioral outcomes (panel A) and PLS-SEM model testing results (panel B)

Conclusions

The PLS-SEM results show strong support for SIT components in predicting likelihood to recommend direct sales to others and likelihood of continuing in direct sales. Moreover, interesting differences emerged based on the age of the direct sales representative, which have intriguing implications for recruitment and retention of direct sales representatives. Based on our findings, for young sales reps under 35, DSOs should focus on strengthening perceptions that the company values the sales reps and is interested in the personal development of the sales rep (items that reflect the evaluative component of SIT). For older sales reps, DSOs should also demonstrate strong evaluative perceptions, but encouraging more hours per week spent on the business, purchasing and using the company's products, and retaining veteran sales reps (items that reflect the behavioral component of SIT) are particularly important for these older sales reps.

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Summary Brief

The Effect of Salesperson Favor Requests on Consumers' Perceptions of the Negotiation Process

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Consumers often ascribe negative stereotypes to salespeople, such as dishonest, unethical, overpowering, and conniving (DeFries 2017). These negative stereotypes trigger consumers' defense mechanisms and can result in consumers actively avoiding sales environments (Guo & Main 2012). Thus, consumers in a B2C context are often reluctant to approach the negotiation process as they anticipate a negative experience.

This reluctance to negotiate and negative attitudes toward the negotiation process is problematic as when consumers negotiate, they receive a better deal than when they do not (Jindal & Newberry 2018). Moreover, many product categories (e.g., cars, furniture, service agreements, etc.) use negotiations to facilitate exchange, putting consumers at a disadvantage when they avoid negotiations. Therefore, negative perceptions of the negotiation process have a clear, adverse impact on consumers' wallets. While some research investigates how to encourage consumers to engage in negotiations (Bagchi et al. 2016; Shaughnessy et al. 2015), more is needed to understand how firms and salespeople can empower consumers to negotiate.

We propose that a salesperson's actions before the start of the negotiation (in the form of a favor request) can positively influence the negotiation process. Drawing on interpersonal relationship literature, we demonstrate that a favor request positively influences consumers' approach toward and perceptions of the negotiation process. Thus, favor requests serve as a tool, encouraging consumers to pursue their own best interests by negotiating.

Theoretical Background

A favor represents the act of helping another even when there is no obligation to do so, while a favor request is the ask for that act of kindness (Han et al. 2005). Favors are effortful as the helper "usually has to go out of his or her way to spend time, effort, and sometimes even money" (Niiya & Ellsworth 2012, p. 273). Further, there is no assumption that, by completing a favor, the requester (i.e., the person providing the favor) will be the recipient of a similar act of kindness (Aknin et al. 2019), underscoring the altruistic nature of the act.

Within the marketing literature, most sales-related research focuses on influencing sales interactions by *doing a favor* for the consumer (Cialdini 2001; Guo & Main 2012). Research on the salesperson *asking for a favor* from the consumer (the focus of this work) does not exist. However, work does exist that examines sales requests, which are distinct from favor requests. Sales requests are asks by the salesperson for the consumer to engage in an act to move the negotiation process forward. Sales requests do not represent acts of kindness as, by fulfilling the request, the consumer receives something in return (typically a product). Commonly, a sales request comes from asking the consumer to make a purchase (e.g., foot-in-the-door technique; Cialdini & Goldstein 2004, door-in-the-face method; Cialdini 2001).

To support our conclusion that favor requests will positively frame the consumer-salesperson negotiation process, we draw on research from the interpersonal relationship literature which demonstrates that asking for a favor increases the requestee's positive affective reactions and decreases negative affective

reactions toward the requestor (Niiya et al. 2006). Moreover, the requestee is more likely to indicate a greater liking for the requester (Niiya 2016). We suggest that in the context of a consumer-salesperson interaction, a salesperson's favor request will similarly frame the negotiation process. Supporting this assertion, research shows that a salesperson's actions serve as cues that positively affect perceptions of negotiations: a salesperson's verbal and nonverbal communications and physical appearance affect consumers' perceptions and approach behaviors (Barney et al. 2020; Shaughnessy et al. 2015; Wood et al. 2008). Thus, we suggest that a favor request serves as a consumer cue and, consistent with the interpersonal relationship literature, will positively affect the negotiation process in terms of willingness to negotiate (approach), anticipated negotiation outcomes (expectations), perceptions of the deal after the negotiation has ended (satisfaction). Therefore, we propose:

H1: The salesperson requesting a favor (no favor) prior to the negotiation process will result in **a)** an increased (decreased) willingness to engage in the negotiation process **b)** more positive (negative) expectations of the negotiation process, and **c)** more positive (negative) perceptions of the negotiation process after the deal is complete.

Study 1

Study 1 examines if a favor request can increase consumers' willingness to negotiate (H1a). A sales context was employed where negotiations are not automatically assumed to occur. Graduate students (n=98; M_{age}=35, 37% male) were asked to assume they were shopping in a local boutique where negotiating is optional. Participants read a scenario and favor manipulation (absent, present) to which they were randomly assigned (see Table 1 for all favor manipulations used in this research); participants indicated their likelihood of trying to negotiate the price of an item that they wanted to purchase on a one (very unlikely) to seven (very likely) scale.

A one-way ANOVA shows that participants were significantly more likely to negotiate when a favor request was present (M=5.18, SD=1.73) versus absent (M=4.24, SD=1.95; F(1,96)=6.35, p=.013). Thus, favor requests increase willingness to engage in the negotiation process (H1a), a finding especially germane when negotiating is not automatically assumed.

Study 2

Study 2 examines the effect of a favor request on consumers' expectations of the negotiation process (H1b). MTurk participants (n=168; M_{age}=39, 60% male) were asked to assume they were in the market for a new vehicle. The context was based on precedent within the literature (Bagchi et al. 2016). Participants were asked to assume that they were going to a dealership with the goal of negotiating for and purchasing a particular vehicle. Participants were then randomly assigned to a favor condition (absent, present). After reading the scenario, participants rated their negotiation expectations (Dutta 2012): "I am confident that I will get the vehicle at the lowest price possible if I buy from this salesperson," "I anticipate that this salesperson will offer me a good deal on this vehicle," and "I will not overpay for this vehicle if I purchase from this salesperson," which they rated on a one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree) scale (α=.86).

A one-way ANOVA with the favor condition as the independent variable and negotiation expectations as the dependent variable was significant (F(1,166)=4.26, p=.04). Participants in the favor present condition (M=4.67, SD=1.20) were more likely to anticipate getting a good deal than those in the favor absent condition (M=4.26, SD=1.35). Thus, a salesperson favor request results in consumers expecting that they will receive a better deal than when no favor is requested (H1b). Demonstrating the robustness of the favor request effect, two additional studies (not reported due to space constraints), where we varied the context (local retailer and electronic store) and favor request (watch the store dog and hand salesperson a product), also support H1b.

Study 3

Study 3 examines the influence of a favor request after the negotiation process has ended and a final price is determined (H1c). Participants (n=285: M_{age}=20, 50% male) read the same vehicle purchase scenario used in study 2 but were also provided pricing information and a final price (Bagchi et al. 2016). After reading the scenario and favor manipulation (absent, present), participants indicated their perceptions of the final deal (α=.81), using the same items as Study 2 except worded to be past tense (e.g., "I got this vehicle at the lowest price...").

A one-way ANOVA shows that participants were significantly more likely to perceive that they received a better final deal when a favor request was present (M=4.70, SD=1.19) versus absent (M=4.43, SD=1.18; F(1,283)=3.88, p=.050), supporting H1c. These results demonstrate that after the negotiation has ended, consumers still perceive that they have indeed received a good deal.

General Discussion

This research demonstrates that requests unrelated to the sale (i.e., a favor) still impact the negotiation process and favors can be used to benefit the consumer, encouraging them to engage in the negotiation process. Next steps will include exploring relevant mediators and moderators.

Table 1. Favor Request Manipulations

	Favor Absent	Favor Present
Study 1	Welcome to our newly designed store.	Welcome to our newly designed store. Would you do me a favor and tell me what you think of it?"
Studies 2 &3	Great, before we go out to the lot, let's walk through the dealership. It has a new layout and store design	Great, before we go out to the lot, would you do me a favor and walk through the dealership with me and let me know what you think of our new layout and store design?
Unreported Study A	This is my dog, Charlie.	**Would you do me a favor and keep an eye on my dog, Charlie?**
Unreported Study B	Hi, I am just going to grab this small box behind the product you are looking at.	Hi, would you do me a favor and hand me the small box behind the product you are looking at?

Note: Unreported Studies A and B were mentioned in the discussion of Study 2.

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SESSION 6E: LOVE, HATE, POWER & PRIDE

CHAIR:

Christian Barney

Full Paper

Attitudes About and the Propensity to Engage in Anti-Consumption Behavior Based Upon Country-of-Origin among Consumers in South Africa, South Korea, and the United States

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An aggregate sample of 1,743 adult consumers comprising 513 South African, 292 South Korean, and 938 American residents provided insight regarding the perceived appropriateness of a consumer's use of country-of-origin as a basis for engaging in anti-consumption behavior; they also provided the frequency in which they personally exclude a marketer from their own evoked set, thus engaging in a personal boycott because of country-of-origin concerns. The results indicate that consumers in all three countries deem country-of-origin as an appropriate consideration when making the decision to punish a marketer. However, the frequency in which they choose to boycott a marketer for that reason tends to be relatively small. Comparisons of the three countries, with a focus on each country's 2021 balance-of-trade, documented some differences, as well as some similarities. A positive correlation was documented for the two variables under scrutiny, but the so-called Attitude-Behavior (A-B) gap was also in evidence.

Introduction

Country-of-Origin (CoO) has long been a topic of discussion among both academicians and practitioners. Consumers may attempt to purchase only domestic goods thus refusing to purchase products that are of foreign origin or from retailers that call another country home. Alternatively, they may focus on goods from countries that are viewed in a positive light (Japanese automobiles). Perhaps more problematic is the reality that CoO may be a reason for engaging in anti-consumption that has little, or nothing, to do with the product per se; rather, it is the country itself (Russia), or it might simply be a matter of economics. Consumers may see purchases from foreign marketers as an economic drain that costs workers in their own country jobs (US automobiles) while contributing to myriad problems that are associated with large deficits in their home country's balance-of-trade. One question that might be asked is how do opinions and behaviors regarding CoO differ between countries with a balance-of-trade surplus and one with a significant deficit in its balance-of-trade. That question is the focus of the current research. As such, it examines two countries that had a surplus in their balance-of-trade in 2021 (South Africa and South Korea) and one which experienced a massive deficit (United States).

Literature

There are three key issues under scrutiny in this study. First is the act of engaging in anti-consumption behavior. Second is the issue of country-of-origin. The final issue germane to the current study is a country's balance-of-trade. So, the literature review will begin with an overview of recent research that has identified various forms of anti-consumption. It continues with an overview of research that has focused on country-of-origin, and it concludes with a brief overview of the most recent trade statistics for the three countries upon which this study focuses.

Anti-Consumption

Research on consumer behavior tends to examine why consumers select a particular product or brand when seeking to resolve a perceived problem. The current study, however, focuses on why those same consumers reject the offerings of a marketer or engage in other actions designed to influence the purchase decision of other consumers. In this regard, it has been stated that "the proliferation of collective consumer movements rooted in anti-

consumption, and the accompanying rise in negative emotions toward brands, are key features of the contemporary branding landscape" (Dessart et al. 2020, p. 1761). Anti-consumption behavior may represent a decision by one aggrieved consumer, or it may be enacted by virtue of the influence of one's affiliative, aspiratory, and non-aspiratory reference groups. There are myriad actions that one might take in this regard, but when these actions target a specific product, or a particular brand, it is characterized as *anti-consumption*. Whereas the decision to make a purchase is essentially rewarding a company that projects a brand personality and/or a company philosophy that is congruent with the consumers' values, anti-consumption is viewed as a way of punishing an organization engaged in and/or supporting behavior deemed unacceptable by the consumer (Friedman 2002; Sudbury-Riley and Kohlbacher 2018; Smith, 1990). So, consumers can not only reward marketers with whom they can relate or otherwise agree, but they can also punish those same marketers if they detect a lack of congruence between the marketer's philosophy and their own (Nebenźahl, Jaffe, and Kavak 2000). The more common approaches to anti-consumption are delineated in the following paragraphs.

Perhaps the best-known approach to engaging in anti-consumption is via a boycott. A *boycott* is well understood by most consumers across the globe. According to Friedman (1985), a boycott is "an endeavor by at least one gathering to accomplish certain goals by asking singular buyers to avoid making chosen buys in the commercial center." Alternatively stated, Friedman characterized a boycott as "an attempt by one or more parties to achieve certain objectives by urging individual consumers to refrain from making selected purchases in the marketplace" (Friedman 1985, p. 97). And while a boycott typically relates to an individual's behavior, there are a multitude of ways by which an individual can attempt to influence the purchase behavior of other consumers. In Brazil, disenchanted consumers were urged to "come out and join the protest" as they demonstrated in opposition to Fiat automobiles (Suarez and Belk 2017).

In addition to boycotts and protests, myriad other actions fall within the realm of anti-consumption. They include retaliation, avoidance, sharing, rejection, voluntary simplicity, alternative consumption, lobbying, defection, target consumption, self-producing, counter-marketing, posting false reviews on online rating sites such as Yelp or on the websites of virtual retailers such as Amazon, online petitions, and the dissemination of negative word-of-mouth via both traditional (WOM) and electronic formats (eWOM) (Hines 2021; Indibara and Varshney 2020; Cambefort and Roux 2019; Andersch et al. 2018; Gárcia-de-Frutos et al. 2018; Basci 2014; Otto, Parry, Payne, Huefner, and Hunt 2004; Huefner, Parry, Payne, Otto, Huff, Swenson, and Hunt 2002; Payne, Parry, Huff, Otto, and Hunt 2002; Huefner, Parry, Paige, Otto 2001). Information disseminated by these individuals may be true, or it may also be false. Regardless of the accuracy of the claims, it appears that grudge-holding that precipitates anti-consumption behavior falls within this category (Aron 2001). It has been stated that *dysfunctional behavior* may allow dissatisfied consumers to reduce the level of dissonance that they possess regarding the targeted marketer (Aron and Kultgen 2019); however, it is highly unlikely that the individual consumers who engage in such behavior deem it to be dysfunctional. The literature documents a multitude of ways in which a disgruntled consumer can engage in anti-consumption behavior. Whether done on an individual basis or as part of a group, the intent is the same – punish a marketer with which the consumer has an issue. With these actions identified, the literature review continues with an overview of research on the country-of-origin as a basis for rejection.

Country-of-Origin (CoO)
As stated by Russell et al. (2011), country-of-origin "is an important determinant of consumer attitudes, purchase intentions, and behavior" (Gürhan-Canli and Maheswaran 2000). In this regard, "consumer boycott organizers often adopt nationalistic appeals that rely on conscience rather than beneficiary campaigns. These appeals create a public impetus for achieving societal and national goals. Because societies tend to shun non-patriotic behavior, nationalistic appeals pressure consumers, as conscientious citizens, to participate" (Yan and Hyman 2020, p. 504). Country-of-origin can become as important as a brand name as the consumer seeks to establish their own consideration set as a prelude to a purchase. Studies have documented that CoO can result in brand hate (Bryson et al. 2013; Lee et al. 2009), an attitude that can result in brand-avoidance, thus anti-consumption. Likewise, Khan and Lee (2014) concluded that CoO moderates a consumer's prepurchase decision to engage in brand avoidance. In line with this thinking, CoO may serve as a surrogate for quality; the result is the perception that any product from a particular country is likely to be of poor quality, thus a reason for brand avoidance (Bloemer et al. 2009). This phenomenon has been referred to as brand-country association (Al Shebil et al. 2011). Another rationale for brand avoidance is moral avoidance whereby a consumer links the brand to the overarching moral image projected by the country (Agrawal and Kamakura 1999). For this reason, many consumers in 2022 are avoiding products from Russia (invasion of Ukraine), Saudi Arabia (human rights), and China (COVID-19). Hoffman (2013) went so far as to refer

to a consumer's home country bias as a precursor to a moral obligation to avoid offshore organizations. The CoO may reflect a departure from one's home culture, thereby making a foreign brand vulnerable to ethnocentric behavior which translates into anti-consumption behavior (Bryson and Atwal 2019). It has been stated that "past studies about ethnocentrism show that most ethnocentric people will show negative behavior toward foreign brands" (Naveed et al. 2021). Anti-consumption behavior, especially in countries where Islam is the dominant faith, often engage in boycotts of products from countries dominated by religions that run counter to the Muslim faith (Naveed et al. 2021; Dekhil 2020). In light of COVID-19, Australians set out to engage in crisis protectionism, in essence limiting purchases of products from countries where their importation might contribute to spreading the virus domestically. That action was characterized as "selective (de-)globalization" (Branicki et al. 2021, p. 243).

In two comparative studies, it was shown that the power distance index (distance between those with and without power) is inversely related to the CoO effect (Wang and Ding 2021; Sharma 2011). In a study that compared the perception of German, Japanese, Korean, and American products, significant differences were documented (Fong and Fullerton 1994). Another study measured images of products imported from New Zealand and the Philippines to Australia; the results showed CoO bias with the products from New Zealand receiving the higher marks (Lu et al. 2020). While there is an abundance of literature on the impact of CoO on consumer attitudes and behavior, there are comparatively few that are cross-national in scope. Furthermore, no research that focuses on how consumer sentiment might be impacted by their own country's balance-of-trade was documented.

Balance-of-trade for the Three Countries in the Current Study
South Korea had a modest surplus in its 2021 balance-of-trade. The surplus of USD 29.3 billion was primarily derived from the export of consumer electronics, automotive products and refined petroleum products (statista 2022). South Korea's primary trading partners are China, the United States, and Vietnam (OEC 2022). The trade surplus for South Africa was similar to South Korea's with their 2021 balance-of-trade surplus at a slightly lower figure of USD 28.23 billion. South Africa's inflow was greatly enhanced by its export of gold, platinum, and coal (SARS 2022). South Africa's primary trade partners are China, the United States, Germany, and Japan (OEC 2022). Finally, 2021 was a record year for the United States as the country's trade deficit reached a staggering $1.09 trillion (Scott 2022). America's primary exports were food and beverage products, petroleum products, and civilian aircraft while its primary trading partners were China, Canada, and Mexico (Petroff et al. 2022).

Research Objectives
There are five separate objectives associated with this research. First is the assessment of the differences in the mean scores for the variable that measures the perceived appropriateness for a consumer using CoO concerns as a basis for the decision to engage in punitive anti-consumption behavior against the offending marketer. Next is the assessment of the differences in the mean scores on the variable that measures the self-reported frequency in which a respondent uses CoO as a basis for engaging in a personal boycott. Third is the assessment of the correlation between the two aforementioned variables (appropriateness and frequency) for the aggregate sample and the three individual countries under scrutiny (South Africa, South Korea, and the United States). Fourth is the determination as to the extent to which the differences across the three countries might be associated with each country's 2021 balance-of-trade. The final objective is to determine a logical explanation for the presence of any observed Attitude-Behavior (A-B) gap.

Methodology
A questionnaire on anti-consumption was developed by an international team of researchers. The survey included seven demographic questions, 24 questions on rationales and behaviors germane to anti-consumption behavior, and 13 psychographic scales (comprising 51 itemized rating scales). The survey was pretested with a sample of 175 university students from two universities in the United States. Slight modifications were made to the base survey, and three quality control questions were inserted. The modified survey was placed online by Dynata, a large international provider of online research services. The questionnaire was beta tested by the project's primary investigator and the project manager. It was determined that the completion of the survey by a respondent taking time to read the instructions, read the questions, and answer the questions in a forthright manner would take approximately eight minutes. The time estimate was the basis for a time check to be used as the fourth quality control measure for the identification – and deletion – of inattentive respondents. It was then ready for dissemination to prospective respondents.

The questionnaire was edited for spelling and terminology differences in South Africa and also translated into Korean in order to facilitate data collection in those two countries. Independent samples were drawn from each of the three countries. Data collection was achieved by virtue of an online protocol that was implemented somewhat differently in the three countries. In South Africa, the data collection process was orchestrated by Consulta Research Agency using its national consumer panel. Potential respondents were asked two qualifying questions. Those who met the conditions imposed by the South African research team were then directed to the website where they could access and respond to the questionnaire. In the United States, the consumer panel for Dynata provided the basis for outreach to prospective respondents. An email was sent to a demographically representative pool of panel members. The recipients were asked to participate in a survey, offered compensation in the form of research points that can be redeemed for select goods and services, and directed to the survey via a link in the email. The lone qualifying question was the third question on the survey, age. For anyone indicating they were under 18, they were thanked, partially compensated, and the procedure was terminated. Intermediate results from the US surveys were monitored as they were completed so that the demographic composition of the sample could be controlled. In light of insufficient numbers of two demographic groups, younger respondents and those with lower levels of education, a disproportionate number of invitations was sent to them in order to have the final composition of the sample serve as a microcosm of the aggregate adult population of the United States. In South Korea, a team of data collectors engaged in purposive sample selection that was designed to reach out to prospects on a face-to-face basis; those who agreed to participate were asked to use an electronic device to respond to the survey. Upon what was thought to be the completion of the process in South Korea, it was discovered that there was an insufficient number of older respondents. To correct this deficiency, another individual was hired to collect data from older respondents – baby boomers and the silent generation – again using a purposive sample design.

With data collection completed, the initial task was that of cleansing the data in order to extract the inattentive respondents from the database. This task was accomplished by examining the four quality control measures, including the time check which used five minutes as the point of demarcation (though the team estimated it would take most respondents at least eight minutes to complete the task at hand). Data analysis began with One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with a probability of .05 being used as the benchmark for the rejection of the standard null hypothesis of equal means for the two dependent variables (appropriateness and frequency) across the three countries under scrutiny. When the hypothesis of equal means was rejected, the Scheffé Method of Multiple Comparisons was used to identify pairwise differences between two countries at a time. Completion of this task called for the comparison of three contrasts for each of the two dependent variables. Again, the benchmark for the rejection of the hypothesis of equal means for the two countries being examined at any given time was .05.

The relationship between the appropriateness variable and the frequency variable was measured using Pearson's bivariate method of correlation analysis. The unsegmented coefficient of correlation and coefficient of determination, irrespective of the respondent's residency, were first calculated. Then the values for r and r^2 were calculated for each country.

Results

After cleansing the dataset and eliminating inattentive respondents, the final sample comprised 513 respondents from South Africa, 292 from South Korea, and 938 from the United States. Thus, the aggregate sample comprised a total of 1,743 respondents. With the final composition of the respondent base established, the task turned to the analyses of the data.

Analysis began with an examination of the dependent variable that measured the perceived appropriateness of a consumer using country-of-origin as a basis for a consumer's decision to engage in anti-consumption behavior. With a probability metric of .000, the results from ANOVA indicated that the hypothesis of equal means should be rejected. Thus, we can conclude that the three countries do not view appropriateness of the use of CoO as a basis for anti-consumption behavior in the same way. A quick look at the means provides some evidence of the nature of this inequity. With lower mean scores representing a greater level of appropriateness being indicated, the United States led the way with a mean of 2.36. They were followed by South Africa and South Korea with means of 2.49 and 2.76, respectively. Recall that mean scores could range from 1.00 to 6.00. Thus, it is apparent that consumers in all three countries view country-of-origin to be an appropriate consideration for the decision to engage in anti-consumption behavior. Comparison of the contrasts resulted in the identification of two significant group differences. The mean for the United States was significantly lower than the mean score for South Korea, but not for South Africa. The comparison of South Africa and South Korea exhibited statistically significant results, so their

means are presumed to be unequal with South Africans deeming CoO to be more appropriate than did South Koreans. The ANOVA results for this initial assessment are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. ANOVA Results: Appropriateness and Country Where Survey Was Completed

Means			F	d.f.	sig.
SA	SK	USA			
2.49	2.76	2.36	11.673	2, 1,731	.000

Next, attention is directed towards the frequency in which the respondents indicate that they personally engage in a boycott of a marketer because of the marketer's country-of-origin. Again, the mean scores must fall between 1.00 and 6.00, with lower scores representing a greater tendency to omit a marketer from one's consideration set, thus effectively engaging in a personal boycott .The results for frequency were considerably different from what was witnessed for appropriateness. For the frequency variable, with a mean of 4.00, American respondents were the least likely to engage in a personal boycott due to a marketer's CoO. However, with a mean of 3.99, there is virtually no observable difference in behavior for the two countries. The South African respondents produced the lowest mean (3.51) thereby indicating the highest proclivity to engage in this form of anti-consumption behavior (a boycott). Based on these sample statistics, the results of the ANOVA and the Scheffé Method of Multiple Comparisons tests was relatively predictable. With a level of significance of .000, the conclusion drawn from ANOVA was that the means for the three countries were not equal. When the results from the Scheffé Method were evaluated, two of the three contrasts were determined to possess unequal means. The USA was significantly different from South Africa, but not from South Korea. Consistent with those results, the means for South Korea and South Africa were likewise significantly different. The ANOVA results for the assessment of the frequency variable are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. ANOVA Results: Frequency and Country Where Survey Was Completed

Means			F	d.f.	sig.
SA	SK	USA			
3.51	3.99	4.00	20.548	2, 1,733	.000

The final evaluation looked at the coefficient of correlation between the appropriateness variable and the frequency variable. Four assessments were made: one for the aggregate sample and one for each of the three countries being studied. For each of the four measures, the value for r was positive, and it was statistically significant at a level of probability of .000. The coefficient of correlation for the aggregate sample was .417. For the three countries, South Africans exhibited the strongest level of correlation with a coefficient of .531. South Korea was next at .491. Third in this hierarchy, and exhibiting a considerably lower value for the correlation metric was the United States with a value for r at a comparatively meager .352. The results stemming from the correlation analyses are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Results of Correlation Analyses

Sample	**n**	**r**	**r^2**	**sig.**
Aggregate	1,734	.417	.1697	.000
United States	938	.352	.1239	.000
South Africa*	504	.531	.2820	.000
South Korea	292	.491	.2426	.000

* There were 9 cases of item nonresponse in the South African sample

Discussion

Issues specific to country-of-origin have long been factors that influence consumer behavior. Consumers may refuse to purchase any product that has high foreign value-added content, irrespective of the country (foreign automobiles). Alternatively, they might refuse to purchase brands that are associated with a specific country with which they associate some negative consideration (such as Russia today). Marketers with domestic ties often tout their local operations as a way of gaining a differential advantage over foreign competitors. And, in an effort to

overcome CoO backlash, foreign manufacturers have resorted to building manufacturing facilities in the host country where they seek to sell their products (Toyota in the United States).

As noted in the Results, there is a significant difference between the United States and South Korean regarding the *appropriateness* of a decision to base anti-consumption behavior on an undesirable country-of-origin status. While the difference between the United States and South Korea was not statistically significant, with a probability of .12, there is anecdotal evidence of that contrast being unequal as well. Perhaps a larger sample from South Korea would have produced more significant results. But the important finding here is the magnitude of the difference between the United States and South Africa; it is not simply statistically significant, but it provides insight which may be valuable to marketers. Americans much more strongly adhere to the belief that it is appropriate to use CoO as a basis for punishing a company by engaging in a broad array of anti-consumption behavior.

The Americans indicated the highest level of *appropriateness*, but the lowest *frequency* of implementation regarding the use of CoO as a basis for punishing a marketer. Thus, there is an apparent difference between what they think and what they do. In other words, while it is appropriate to use CoO as a basis for anti-consumption behavior, they were the least likely of the three countries to actually engage in a boycott based on CoO considerations.

In looking at the results based upon the three countries' balance-of-trade status, some interesting results became apparent. Recall that South Korea and South Africa had balance-of-trade surpluses in 2021 whereas the United States experienced a record trade deficit. Based on these statistics, one would anticipate that the Americans would be the most likely of the three countries to exhibit an anti-foreign mentality. Furthermore, it would be anticipated that, in light of this anti-foreign mindset, they would be more supportive of the use of CoO concerns as a basis for engaging in anti-consumption behavior while simultaneously boycotting firms that fail to meet their personal CoO standards. The results adhere precisely to this expectation in regard to the *appropriateness* variable. The Americans exhibited the lowest mean, thus representing the highest level of appropriateness, for consumers using CoO as the basis for engaging in anti-consumption behavior designed to punish an offending firm. Behind the Americans were the South Koreans and the South Africans – with the observed difference between those two countries statistically insignificant. However, when the focus shifted to the *frequency* variable, different outcomes were in evidence. Instead of the Americans exhibiting the highest proclivity to engage in a boycott, they were at the lower end of the scale. While there was no significant difference between the Americans and the South Koreans, neither country was at the level of the South Africans when it came to behavior that actually punished a marketer by engaging in their own personal boycott. Thus, there appears to be a gap between what consumers think and what they do. This difference has historically been referred to as the A-B, or Attitude-Behavior, gap (Li, Keh and Wang, 2021).

One way to confirm the presence of the A-B gap in the United States is to look at the ordinal rankings of the three countries on the two variables. The United States is first when considering how appropriate it is for consumers to base an anti-consumption decision whereas they rank last when looking at how frequently they personally boycott a brand because of their own CoO concerns. Conversely, South Africa ranks second on the appropriateness variable and first in regard to frequency. South Korea ranks third in regard to appropriateness and a close second on the frequency variable. So, South Africa and South Korea appear to possess less of an A-B gap than does the United States. Perhaps the A-B gap is best evaluated by looking at the correlation coefficients for the two variables for each country individually. All three countries exhibit a positive coefficient of correlation so, as anticipated, the variables tend to concurrently move in the same direction. But the size of the three coefficients is meaningful. The comparatively smaller coefficient for the United States is indicative of the weakest link between attitude and behavior. Hence, it is logical to conclude that the weak link contributes to the A-B gap.

It was posited that there would be a positive correlation, and that was the case. So, as the perceived appropriateness of consumers using CoO as a basis for engaging in anti-consumption behavior increases, so does the likelihood that a consumer will use CoO as a determining factor to personally engage in a boycott. But while looking at association, it must be acknowledged that the coefficient of determination is a surrogate measure of causality. So, it can be stated that a consumer's perception of the appropriateness of the use of CoO concerns as a factor when deciding to engage in anti-consumption behavior is one factor that leads to – or causes – the individual consumer to personally engage in a common form of anti-consumption behavior – that being a boycott. Given the

relatively small values for r^2, there are obviously more factors that influence that decision. So, while this study has contributed to our knowledge regarding CoO as a catalyst for a boycott, additional research on the issue is called for.

Concluding Remarks

The results of this study confirm that consumers in a country in the throes of a significant deficit in their balance-of-trade are more open to using country-of-origin issues as bases for engaging in anti-consumption behavior. But that attitude did not necessarily translate into overt behavior in the form of a personal boycott. A positive correlation between the two constructs was documented, but the relatively modest correlation among respondents could be viewed as a warning that such a gap might well exist. Thus, the prototypical Attitude-Behavior (A-B) gap might be anticipated under such circumstances. Such was the case in the United States. Marketers need to understand where negative CoO is potentially detrimental to their efforts. They also need to recognize that, in some cases, the A-B gap may be noteworthy. When there is no gap, or only a small gap, negative sentiment can quickly turn to negative behavior.

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Summary Brief

Brand Hate and Diversity: Consumer Responses to Advertisements with Black and White Actors

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Many companies place great emphasis on building a culture of diversity both inside and outside the company. Despite the importance of race and the serious consequences of brand hate, very little research has investigated the effects of a brand's use of race and how that may lead to strong negative emotions, such as brand hate. This research seeks to better understand what diversity related measures are antecedents of brand hate and what diversity related measures are outcomes of brand hate. The findings show that brand hate can be associated with observable behavioral reactions, including negative word-of-mouth, purchase intentions, and perceptions of brand globalness.

Introduction

Diversity plays an important role in company success. Companies that prioritize diversity outperform companies that do not (Dixon-Fyle et al. 2020). More specifically, cultural, or racial diversity, has been shown to relate positively to firm performance (Richard 2000). Many companies have chosen to celebrate a message of diversity and frequently face decisions about how to address race in marketing communications. Sometimes these efforts are not successful. For example, brands have received incredible backlash from consumers when advertisements have been perceived to oversimplify or make light of serious racial issues. Pepsi, Dove, Kellogg, and other brands have experienced negative outcomes due to poor advertising decisions related to the use of race. While many companies and brands seek to capture diversity through the use of advertisements that reflect more racially diverse actors, the effects of doing so are mostly unknown. One concern brands face is whether these communications lead to negative brand emotions.

While difficult discussions are occurring in homes, and protests and renewed calls for action to address police brutality and systemic racism make headlines, brands across the U.S. seek to engage and play a role in addressing the racial division. Many brands have good intentions, however, missteps are possible and can leave consumers offended or outraged. This emotional response consumers have against these brands is referred to as brand hate. Brand hate is an intense emotional construct that can describe a consumer's response to a brand. It is important to both theoretical development and practitioners to better understand brand hate in order to prevent potential losses related to branding and diversity. Despite the importance of diversity to firm performance measures, little research has investigated consumer responses to racial cues for diversity in the firms' branding and marketing communications. This research attempts to fill this gap in the literature by examining what diversity related measures are antecedents of brand hate and what diversity related measures are outcomes of brand hate.

Background

Brand hate is an emotional construct (Alba and Lutz, 2013; Hegner et al., 2017; Grégoire et al., 2009). In this paper, brand hate is defined as "a more intense emotional response consumers have towards a brand than brand dislike" (Hegner et al., 2017, p. 3). Kucuk (2016; 2018) categorizes brand hate into code, cool, and hot brand hate. The feelings of brand hate can be graphically traced over time (Zarantonello et al., 2018).

Antecedents of brand hate include negative past experience with the brand (Hegner et al., 2017), corporate wrongdoing, image incongruence (Zarantonello et al., 2018), brand failure (Garg et al., 2018), brand value unfairness, product/ service failures and corporate social irresponsibility (Kucuk, 2018). In the context of diversity, potential

antecedents may be diversity and ethnocentrism. As consumer perception of firm diversity increases, it is less likely that brand hate incidents will occur. Similarly, as consumer perception of ethnocentrism increases, it is more likely that brand hate incidents will occur.

Outcomes of brand hate include consumer complaints (Fetscherin, 2019; Kucuk, 2016), boycott (Kucuk, 2016), negative word-of-mouth, brand retaliation (Fetscherin, 2019; Hegner et al., 2017; Kucuk, 2018), brand switching, and brand revenge (Fetscherin, 2019). Consumer brand hate is associated with consumer complaints, brand revenge, and reduced purchase and repurchase intentions (Yadav & Chakrabarti 2022). Consistent with the literature, it is expected that as the level of brand hate increases, consumers are more likely to spread negative word-of-mouth and have lower purchase intentions (Curina et al. 2020; Yadav & Chakrabarti 2022).

Based on the literature, it is expected that advertisements with different race actors will be negatively associated with brand hate. Diversity is also believed to be negatively associated with brand hate. Ethnocentrism is expected to be positively associated with brand hate. Considering the literature on brand hate consequences, it is expected that brand hate is positively associated with negative word-of-mouth, negatively associated with brand globalness, and negatively associated with purchase intentions.

Key findings

The resulting quantitative analysis uncovered diversity-related antecedents of brand hate. Results of the study show that actor race significantly and negatively influences brand hate. The results also indicate that diversity significantly and negatively influences brand hate. There is some evidence that indicates ethnocentrism is positively associated with brand hate. The data on different race actors suggests that brand hate can be associated with observable behavioral reactions of negative word-of-mouth.

Consistent with the literature, our results show that brand hate significantly and positively influences negative word-of-mouth, negatively associates with perceived brand globalness, and negatively affects purchase intentions.

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Summary Brief

Corporate Rainbows & Hollow Pride: The Effect of Pride Logo Usage on Consumer Outcomes

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Across nearly all industries, firms today are increasingly recognizing and catering to the LGBTQ+ market. After all, 7.1% of the American population identifies as LGBTQ+ according to a recent poll by Gallup, a number that has doubled since 2012 (Jones, 2021). In fact, this recent Gallup survey also showed that 20.8%, or 1 in 5 adults, of Generation Z identify as something other than heterosexual (Jones, 2021). To appear more inclusive, some firms have launched new products, like LEGO's "Everyone is Awesome" set, while others feature rainbow flag colors and more diverse representation in their advertising like Apple's 2021 Apple Watch launch campaign that promised donations toward pro-LGBTQ+ foundations and charities (Hardcastle, 2021). Many firms' efforts are well founded; however, they sometimes don't quite hit the mark. In 2019 British supermarket brand Marks & Spencer debuted a limited-edition Pride-themed sandwich in their stores, which was met with backlash and controversy over trivializing the importance of Pride (Hardcastle, 2021). Just this year in 2022, the food delivery service Postmates released a "bottom-friendly" menu in select cities. While the reception was lukewarm at best, the deeper issue lay in the way Postmates stole the idea from *The Bottom's Digest,* an anal-sex-friendly cooking blog and show from gay-identifying surgeon and sex specialist, Dr. Evan Goldstein (MacDonald, 2022). While many people focus on how corporate rainbow-washing can benefit the community with greater visibility and representation, members and non-members of the LGBTQ+ community alike continue to have mixed feelings about the yearly month-long logo change many firms have employed. In fact, both members and nonmembers of the LGBTQ+ community have begun to call these practices out as performative marketing stunts (Mellor, 2021).

The goal of this research is to examine the effectiveness of a common practice for many businesses during June, which is to change their logo to a rainbow-colored one for the duration of Pride Month. We specifically examine the interactive effect of brand (familiar vs. unfamiliar) and allyship of LGBTQ+ community (ally vs. non ally) on consumer outcomes. We propose that when an unfamiliar brand uses a rainbow logo it can increase the consumer outcomes (i.e., higher likelihood to seek information and purchase likelihood) towards the unfamiliar brand compared to a familiar brand. However, this effect occurs only among the people who claim themselves to be LGBTQ+ allies compared to non-allies. This is because the unfamiliar brands do not have pre-existing associations with markets or consumer groups (Alba and Hutchinson 1987; Keller 1993) compared to familiar brands. When exposed to brand logos, for unfamiliar brands, consumers have to rely solely on the cues that they observe (Luffarelli, Mukesh, and Mahmood, 2019). Therefore, unfamiliar brands will be perceived as more authentic compared to familiar brands and such authenticity drives consumer outcomes (Nunes, Ordanini, and Giambastiani, 2021). However, we do not predict any changes of consumer outcomes among the

non-allies as they do not anyway support the ideology, and subtle cues cannot make such a difference. More formally stated:

H1: There will be an interactive effect between brand familiarity and LGBTQ+ allyship on consumer outcomes. For unfamiliar brands among the allies, using pride logos will increase consumer outcomes compared to familiar brands. There will be no such difference among the non-allies.

H2: For unfamiliar brands, the effect of pride logo usage on consumer outcomes is mediated by perceived authenticity

To test H1, we will conduct a 2 [allyship: ally vs. non-ally] x 2 [brand: familiar vs. unfamiliar] between subjects experiment among Mturkers. We will change the logo to reflect pride colors for both familiar and unfamiliar brands. We will measure consumer outcomes such as purchase intention and self-brand connection as our dependent variable. Next, we will conduct another study to test H2. The study design will be one factor between-subjects design, where participants will see unfamiliar brand logos with and without pride colors. We will again measure consumer outcomes as our dependent variable and perceived authenticity as our mediator.

Our findings have theoretical and practical implications. We add to the literature in visual perception by examining how subtle cues can influence consumer outcomes (Ha, Young, and Lennon 2010; Mccracken, Colleen, and Macklin 1998). We show changing the logos to depict support for LQBTQ+ community can influence allies for unfamiliar brands but not for the familiar ones. We also add to the brand relationship literature (Cheng, White, and Chaplin 2012; Fournier 1994) and show how usage of rainbow logos can impact relationships. More specifically, for familiar brands it might hurt while for unfamiliar brands it might help. Perceived authenticity may drive the effect. We provide guidance for the marketers when to use pride logos. Marketers should not follow suit even though most brands change their logo during pride month. However, if the brand is an unfamiliar brand, such practices may help to influence the consumers by building trust and authenticity. But it might not help if the brand is a familiar brand.

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Summary Brief
Confronting Bias in Sharing Economies: My Performance Should Not Depend on My Skin

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Academic researchers in marketing have ignored the effects of skin color in service evaluations of service providers in sharing economy platforms. Using social dominance theory, the authors empirically study the impact of a service provider's skin color on consumers evaluation of service performance and satisfaction in the sharing economy.

Research background

Sharing economy research has revealed the existence of racial discrimination (Cui, Li, & Zhang, 2019; Edelman, Luca, & Svirsky, 2017; Ge et al., 2016). Recent reports of discriminatory practices in this economy has sent shockwaves at a time when the U.S. labor force is believed to be more diverse. Despite these reports, the issue of racial bias and discrimination in the sharing economy has generally been ignored in the marketing discipline.

Using social dominance theory, we examine the interaction of consumers' social dominance orientation (SDO) and skin color of the service provider on service evaluations in terms of performance ratings, satisfaction towards the service provider, satisfaction towards the service experience, and perceived service quality. In a scenario-based experiment, we find that higher SDO consumers provide lesser service evaluations to black-skinned service providers and higher service evaluations to white-skinned service providers. On the contrary, lower SDO consumers provide higher service evaluations to black-skinned service providers and lower service evaluations to white-skinned service providers. Our research is the first to use SDO to examine implicit bias towards service providers in sharing economy platforms.

Conclusion

This research contributes to the marketing literature in several ways. We highlight the need for firms to revisit their discussion on diversity, equity and inclusion from a perspective that truly promotes fairness in performance reviews. The findings indicate that consumers' evaluation of service providers is not solely dependent on the service performance but also on innate social dominance views which can increase unfairness for minority service providers.

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SESSION 6G: SO, YOU WANT TO LEAD A STUDY ABROAD: INSIGHTS AND ADIVCE

CHAIR:

Lucy M. Matthews

PANELISTS:

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Session 8A: WHAT WERE YOU THINKING

CHAIR:

Stephen France

Full Paper

Native Advertisements in Narrative Podcasts: How Ad Placement and Media Experience Influence User Responses to Podcasts

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The current study examines how the interaction between ad placement in a narrative podcast and audiences' experience of that specific podcast medium influences their responses to the podcast content. The results of an online experiment indicated that an ad placed at the beginning of the narrative podcast (i.e., pre-roll) was shown to lower perceived quality of the podcast and intention to share it compared to an ad placed in the middle of the podcast (i.e., mid-roll) among audiences with lower podcast experience. We believe these findings provide meaningful theoretical and practical implications to the fields of native advertising and digital podcasts.

Introduction

Podcasts, a digital audio media platform, have significantly grown in popularity in recent years. According to Edison Research (2021), the percentage of American consumers ages 12 and older who have ever listened to a podcast has risen from 30% in 2014 to 57% in 2021. The report also estimates 116 million monthly and 80 million weekly podcast listeners in the United States. Furthermore, it indicates that the weekly listener averages 8 podcasts per week. Additionally, Podcast listeners also devote 30% of their time spent with audio media on the platform, which is more than all other audio sources including radio (Faison, 2021).

The advertising industry has taken notice of this increase in the platform's growing popularity. According to the International Advertising Bureau's (IAB) 2021 U.S. Podcast Advertising Revenue Study (prepared by PricewaterhouseCoopers), revenues from podcast advertising have increased from $708 million in 2019 to $842 million in 2020. They also project to grow to $1 billion in 2021 and to $2 billion by 2023 (IAB.com). The majority of advertising that occurs in podcasts are delivered by the host. These native advertisements hope to blend in with the content that the listener has chosen to consume.

Two factors that may influence how listeners respond to these ads are ad placement and experience with podcasts. For example, someone with high podcast experience may have a general idea of when ads will occur. On the other hand, someone with less experience may be caught off guard by an ad or feel that it interrupted their listening experience. This may result in unfavorable responses from listeners such as how they perceive the podcast, the host, and whether or not they will share the podcast with others.

There are many different niche genres within the podcast realm. Examples include, but are not limited to news, sports, comedy, and business. One particular genre that has dramatically increased in popularity among podcast audiences and even garnered academic attention is true crime (Boling and Hull 2018; Kerr 2020). True crime podcasts revolve around discussing true criminal events in the form of a narrative (Punnett 2018). The true crime podcast genre holds three of the top ten spots on the Edison Research *U.S. Top 50 Podcasts Q3 2020 - Q2 2021* list (based on weekly podcast listeners). One explanation as to why true crime podcasts have become so popular may be that they take on a narrative structure. It is a storytelling approach to events that occurred in the real world. Similar to fictional narratives, true crime podcasts have the ability to captivate their audiences and immerse them in an enthralling story.

The purpose of this research is to investigate how the interaction of ad placement in podcasts and podcast media experience may influence how a consumer responds after encountering an advertisement. This study focuses on the context of true crime podcasts due to their captivating narrative structure. An experiment was conducted to measure the effects of the interaction of ad placement and media experience on audience perceptions of the podcast content quality, their evaluation of the hosts, and intent to share the podcast.

Literature Review
Narrative Podcasts

The structure of a podcast episode can take either a narrative or non-narrative format. The non-narrative format is similar in style to a traditional radio broadcast show. In this format, the content delivered to the audience is simply information such as news or sports updates, or even a conversation between individuals on the podcast such as the hosts or guests. Audiences listen to these podcasts to consume information about certain topics of interest to them or to because they are interested in hearing what people on the podcast have to say.

The narrative format separates itself from the traditional radio broadcast structure in that its purpose is to tell a story. Narrative podcasts immerse their audiences into a story. They are captivated by the events as they unfold in the narrative. The narrative podcast structure allows the listener to recreate the scenes of the story in their own minds. Unlike narrative content involving images or pictures, narrative podcasts, an audio-based form of media, force the listener to expend their own cognitive resources to visualize the story's events and characters. As the listener devotes more of their mental capacities to seeing the story take place in their own mind, they become more absorbed into the story (Quintero Johnson and Sangalang 2017). Busselle and Bilandzic (2009) refer to this as *narrative involvement* which depicts the psychological process that occurs as the listener becomes immersed into the story. Similarly, Green and Brock (2000) refer to transportation as a process in which an individual loses focus on what is going on around them as they are mentally transported into a narrative.

Bruzzi (2016) suggests that narrative podcasts have unearthed a new audience segment of media consumers in the realm of true crime podcasts. True crime podcasts are made up of "nonfiction narratives of criminal events that actually happened" (Punnett 2018, p. 21). Prior to the podcast era, Durham et al. (1995) first attempted to draw academic attention to this area of media by explaining that the "true crime genre is an important, yet understudied, aspect of popular representations of crime" as it "presents accounts of actual crime cases…in narrative form" (p. 144). True crime podcasts are unique when compared to other forms of media because the relationship between the podcast hosts and the listeners is more intimate (Boling 2019). This is because the host and the listener are working together. The host tells the story and the listener creates their own personal vision of the story. Accordingly, true crime podcasts are considered as a representative of narrative podcasts and taken as stimuli in this study.

Native Advertising in Podcasts

There are currently no widely recognized and accepted standards of what defines native advertising in the podcasts. Additionally, there has been difficulty finding a single definition for native advertising agreed upon by scholars and professionals (Manic 2015; Wasserman 2012). The Interactive Advertising Bureau (IAB) has even struggled to give the term clarification (Minnium 2015). Yet, several scholars have provided their own definitions from which we can find similar characteristics. In broad terms, "native advertising is generally defined as advertiser-sponsored content that is designed for compatibility with the editorial content in which it is placed" (Seligman 2015, p. 1). This is achieved by "mirroring the format of the surrounding nonadvertising content" (Campbell and Grimm,2019, p. 110). By employing this tactic, advertisers hope to make their ads less identifiable or less intrusive to consumers. Other scholars have suggested that native advertisers believe their content will be perceived as credible since the consumer trusts the media source delivering the content (Wojdynski and Golan 2016). Native advertising can take many different forms that are all designed to match or reflect the content and platform through which the consumer encounters them (Wojdynski 2016). Perhaps most importantly, these ads are created with the intention of not causing disruption to the media consumption experience (Grisby and Mellemna, 2020).

Taking these various conceptualizations into consideration, native advertising in podcasts could be defined as a form of advertising that attempts to insert itself into the content of a podcast without disrupting the experience of listening to the podcast by matching the content in such a way that feels natural to the podcast. At a minimum, the ad should be delivered by the podcast host as any other source would seem foreign to the typical experience of the podcast. Using this definition as a starting point, different types or categories of native advertising within podcasts

could be explored. Native advertisements occur in podcasts as ads read by the host at some point during the podcast (IAB 2020). These ads may be read from a script that is produced by the advertiser or one that is created by the podcast itself and approved by the advertiser. In either scenario, the goal of the ad is to appear native to the podcast by using the voice of the podcast host to deliver the ad. These types of ads represent the largest percentage of advertising revenue share among all forms of podcast advertising (IAB 2020).

Native advertising in podcasts relies heavily on leveraging the voice of the podcast host to deliver the advertisement. The listener may perceive this to be a persuasive attempt and in turn activate persuasion knowledge within the listener. Persuasion knowledge refers to a consumer's ability to "recognize, analyze, interpret, evaluate, and remember persuasion attempts and to select coping tactics" in response (Friestad and Wright 1994, p. 3). Therefore, consumer responses toward native advertising may depend on the level to which they are able to perceive it as an act of persuasion. The activation of persuasion knowledge may lead the listener to perceive the advertiser as being manipulative, resulting in negative responses (Campbell 1995).

An important factor related to the activation of persuasion knowledge in podcast advertising is ad placement, which refers to the point at which an ad occurs during the podcast. There are three types of ad placement within a podcast: pre-roll, post-roll, and mid-roll. Pre-roll ads occur before the podcast begins or after a quick introduction that takes place before the main content starts. Post-roll advertisements run at the end of a podcast after the main content has ended. Mid-roll ads occur at any point during the podcast after the main content has started and before it has ended. Ad placement in narrative podcasts may be an important factor affecting the listener's experience. In their 2009 study, Ritter and Cho demonstrated that participants in their experiment found pre-roll ads in podcasts to be less irritating and intrusive than mid-roll ads. This suggests that the listener will respond more favorably to an advertisement if it does not cause disruption in their experience of listening to the podcast. In the current research context, ad placement is expected to influence audience responses to true crime podcasts as different types of placement activate people's persuasion knowledge at different timing of their narrative experience.

Media Experience

Prior research has examined the relationship between native advertising and media experience by discussing the concept of media literacy (Amazeen and Muddiman 2018). Media literacy refers to "the ability to think critically about the content one is consuming" (p. 181). There may be a positive correlation between media literacy and media experience, such that individuals who have higher levels of experience with a certain type of media may be more literate in their understanding of that medium than those with lower levels of media experience. This allows them to better interpret and analyze a message communicated on the media platform and the communicator's purpose (Hobbs 2008).

Previous research has identified the boundary conditions of the persuasion knowledge effects created by media experience. Jung and Heo (2019) suggested that an individual's level of prior experience with a certain type of media may influence the effect persuasion knowledge has on their response to native advertising. Their findings indicated that "in an advertising environment where exists the blurred boundary between ad and non-ad, persuasion knowledge might increase confidence among knowledgeable consumers rather than activate defense mechanisms" (p. 10). In other words, the interaction between persuasion knowledge and an individual's level of experience with a certain type of media (such as podcasts) could influence the effectiveness of native advertising. However, it still remains unknown whether the intersection of these two factors could influence people's responses to the media content. The current study aims to explore this question in the context of true crime podcasts.

Research Hypotheses

The current study explores how the interaction between the placement of native ads in narrative podcasts and listeners' media experience influences their responses to the podcast content. One potential response could be it affects the listeners perception of the content's quality. Past studies have explored audience perceptions of content quality in other forms of digital media (Sundar and Nass 2006). It is possible that ad placement and media experience may have an effect on perceived quality of the podcast content. Listeners with low media experience are less familiar with the media format compared to those with sufficient media experience. Thus, how the former group processes media content and evaluates its quality may be more likely to be affected by some external factors outside the media experience compared to the latter group. In the current research context, inexperienced listeners are not familiar with the narrative structure of true crime podcasts and do not possess the level of media literacy that makes them immune to the impacts of inserted advertisements. Since previous research has confirmed the influence of

media experience on the effects of persuasion knowledge (Jung and Heo 2019), it is predicted in this study that inexperienced listeners' assessment of podcast content quality would be affected by the timing of activating persuasion knowledge (i.e., ad placement) during the narrative experience. However, this phenomenon is not expected to be observed among listeners who have sufficient experience with true crime podcasts.

> **H1:** There is an interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on perceived quality of the narrative podcast content, such that ad placement will influence perceived content quality among people with a low level of media experience.

As previously mentioned, native advertising in podcasts relies heavily on the host to deliver its messaging because the host is also delivering the main content for which the listener has chosen to consume. Past research has shown that regular podcast listeners perceive a relationship and personal connection between themselves and their favorite podcast hosts (Moe 2021). Since less experienced listeners do not possess a strong bond with the podcast hosts, their evaluations of the hosts are expected to be more vulnerable to their perceptions of the podcast contents as well as the inserted advertisements. Thus, we expect a similar interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on listeners' evaluations of the podcast hosts.

> **H2**: There is an interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on evaluation of the podcast hosts, such that ad placement will influence host evaluation among people with a low level of media experience.

A common characteristic of digital media is that it gives audiences the ability to share content easier than other media forms. Links are associated with digital media content that when clicked will direct an individual to the desired content. The digital media environment enables this sharing through a variety of options such as social media, email, and text messaging. Digital media content may be evaluated on the basis of the extent to which consumers choose to share it with others (Gobel et al. 2017). Given the importance of sharing digital media content, we consider listeners' sharing intention as an important dependent variable. Following the above-mentioned rationale, we expect an interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on listeners' intent to share the narrative podcast content.

> **H3**: There is an interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on intent to share the narrative podcast content, such that ad placement will influence intent to share the podcast among people with a low level of media experience.

Method

Study Design

An online experiment was conducted with a 3 (ad placement: pre-roll vs. mid-roll vs. post-roll) x 2 (media experience: high vs. low) between-subjects design. Ad placement was experimentally manipulated, while media experience was measured. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three experimental conditions.

Participants

A total of 179 participants who were United State residents were recruited from MTurk. Participants were checked to ensure they had the audio technology capabilities required for participation. Anyone who did not pass this check correctly was removed from the data. Another check was performed asking participants to recall some key content of the podcast they listened to. Anyone who did not pass this check was removed from the data. Finally, an attention check was conducted during the survey. Anyone who did not pass this check was removed from the data. After removing data from anyone who did not pass any of these checks, a total of 141 participants remained (N = 141).

Among the participants, 64.5% (N_{male} = 90.95) were male and 35.5% (N_{female} = 50.05) were female. The mean age was 36.67 (SD = 10.56). As for ethnicity, 75.2% ($N_{Caucasian}$ = 106) were Caucasian, 10.6% ($N_{African American}$ = 15) were African American, 2.8% ($N_{Hispanic or Latino}$ = 4) were Hispanic or Latino, 2.1% (N_{Asian} = 3) were Asian, 5% ($N_{Native American}$ = 7) were Native American, 2.1% ($N_{two or more}$ = 3) represented two or more ethnicities, 1.4% ($N_{other or unknown}$ = 2) responded as other or unknown, and 0.7% ($N_{preferred not to say ethnicity}$ = 1) preferred not to say. In terms of education, 2.8% ($N_{some high school}$ = 4) had some high school education, 26.2% ($N_{high school graduate}$ = 37) were high school

graduates, 54.6% ($N_{bachelor's}$ = 77) had a bachelor's degree, 12.1% ($N_{master's}$ = 17) held a master's degree, 2.8% ($N_{trade\ school}$ = 4) had a trade school education, and 1.4% ($N_{preferred\ not\ to\ say\ education}$ = 4) preferred not to indicate their education level.

Stimuli

The current study used an episode of the popular true crime podcast *Crime Junkie*. The episode was edited and shortened to approximately the first five minutes of the episode. This duration of the episode included a true crime narrative about a young midwestern woman going missing and also contained an advertisement for a national insurance brand. The point at which the advertisement occurred within this time length was then edited to create three experimental conditions. In the pre-roll condition the ad played immediately following a short introduction from the podcast host and before the narrative content began. In other words, participants in the pre-roll condition would be exposed to the ad before the narrative content. In the post-roll condition, the ad played at the end of the narrative content. In other words, participants in the post-roll condition would be exposed to the advertisement after the narrative content had ended. In the mid-roll condition, the ad occurred during the narrative content. Specifically, participants in this condition would first be introduced to the narrative content, then exposed to the ad, before returning back to the narrative content.

Procedure

Participants were recruited via Amazon Mturk through which they accessed the study link. The study link directed them to the survey hosting platform Qualtrics. After providing informed consent, participants were asked a series of questions to determine their level of media experience regarding true crime podcasts. Next, a sound check was conducted to confirm the participants had the proper technological capabilities to complete the study. After completion of the sound check, they were instructed to listen to one of the three randomly assigned versions of the stimuli. Once this step was complete, participants filled an online questionnaire which consisted of measures of perceived quality of the podcast content, evaluation of the podcast host, and intention to share the podcast. Finally, demographic information was collected, and participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation. A recall question and an attention check question were also contained in the questionnaire. The entire process lasted about 15 minutes.

Measures

True crime podcast experience was measured using a scale adopted from Gobel et. al (2017). The scale included three 7-point Likert-type items (*I am highly experienced in listening to true crime podcasts; I think I am very experienced in searching for true crime podcast content; I know a bit more than other people about listening to true crime podcasts*). Evaluation of the podcast host was measured using a scale adopted from Gobel et. al (2017). The scale included four 7-point Likert-type items (*The podcast hosts seem to be genuine; The podcast hosts seem to be honest; The podcast hosts seem to be reliable; The podcast hosts seem to be trustworthy*). Perceived quality of the podcast content was measured using a 4-item scale adopted from Sundar and Nass (2001). This measure consisted of four adjectival items: *boring* (reverse-coded)*, lively, enjoyable, interesting*. Participants were asked to rate how they believed each item described the podcast they listened to from a scale of 1 (poorly) to 7 (very well). Intention to share the podcast was measured using a scale adopted from Gobel et al. (2017). The scale included three 7-point Likert-type items (*I would personally share this podcast with other people; I would talk positively about this podcast; I would send the link of this podcast to people or share the link otherwise*).

Results
Perceived Content Quality

A multicategorical moderation analysis with 5,000 bootstrapped samples was conducted using Model 1 of the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes 2018) to test the effects of ad placement and media experience on perceived content quality. Since ad placement was a multicategorical variable, pre-roll was set as the reference group. X_1 represented the difference between pre-roll and post-roll, and X_2 represented the difference between pre-roll and mid-roll. The results indicated that the interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on perceived content quality was significant when the focus was on the difference between pre-roll and mid-roll (X_1: B = -0.13, SE = 0.12, 95%CI = -0.38 to 0.11; X_2: B = -0.26, SE = 0.12, 95%CI = -0.50 to -0.01). Figure 1 was generated based on the data points provided by PROCESS for visualizing the interaction. It indicated that pre-roll (M = 5.15) led to less perceived content quality than mid-roll (M = 5.99) among users with low media experience.

Figure 1. Interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on perceived content quality
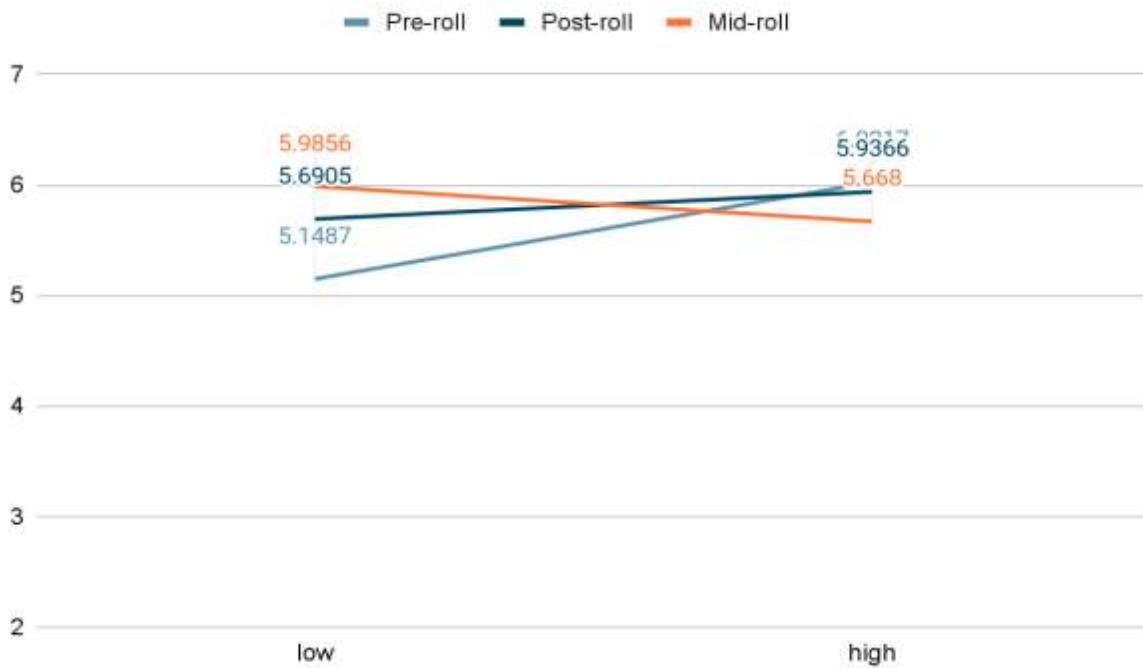
Evaluation of the Podcast Hosts

A multicategorical moderation analysis with 5,000 bootstrapped samples was conducted using Model 1 of the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes 2018) to test the effects of ad placement and media experience on evaluation of the podcast hosts. Since ad placement was a multicategorical variable, pre-roll was set as the reference group. X_1 represented the difference between pre-roll and post-roll, and X_2 represented the difference between pre-roll and mid-roll. The results indicated that the interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on host evaluation was not significant regardless of the focus (X_1: B = -0.13, SE = 0.12, 95%CI = -0.38 to 0.12; X_2 : B = -0.24, SE = 0.13, 95%CI = -0.49 to 0.01).

Intent to Share

A multicategorical moderation analysis with 5,000 bootstrapped samples was conducted using Model 1 of the PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes 2018) to test the effects of ad placement and media experience on intent to share. Since ad placement was a multicategorical variable, pre-roll was set as the reference group. X_1 represented the difference between pre-roll and post-roll, and X_2 represented the difference between pre-roll and mid-roll. The results indicated that the interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on intent to share was significant when the focus was on the difference between pre-roll and mid-roll (X_1 : B = -0.19, SE = 0.17, 95%CI = -0.52 to 0.14; X_2 : B = -0.39, SE = 0.17, 95%CI = -0.72 to -0.05). Figure 2 was generated based on the data points provided by PROCESS for visualizing the interaction. It indicated that pre-roll (M = 2.83) led to lower intent to share than mid-roll (M = 4.42) among users with low media experience.

Figure 2. Interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on intent to share
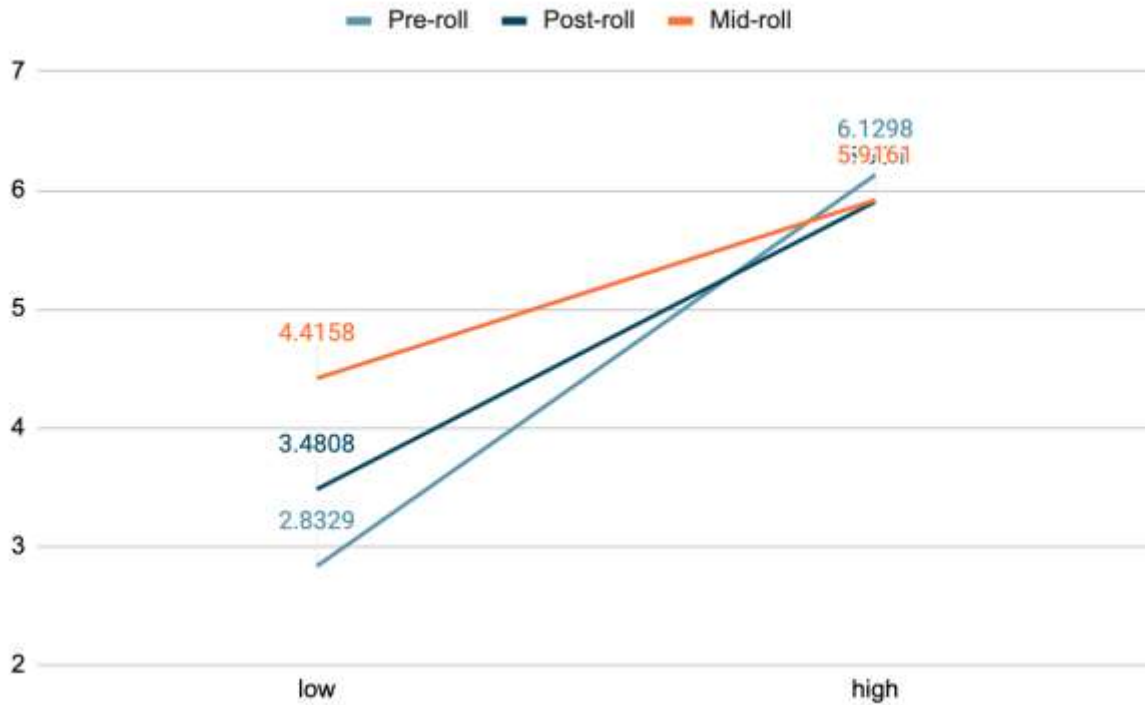
DISCUSSION

In this study, we investigated how native ad placement and user media experience intersected to influence user responses to narrative podcasts. Our findings indicated that the effects of ad placement were contingent upon the audience's experience with the podcast medium. In particular, a pre-roll native ad was found to significantly lower participants' perceived quality of the podcast content and their intention to share the podcast compared to a mid-roll native ad among those with a low level of the specific podcast experience. Such effects were not observed among participants with a high level of media experience. We believe these findings will not only contribute to the emerging area of podcast advertising, but also add to the recent theoretical development regarding the relationship between persuasion knowledge and narrative processing.

Theoretical Implications

Podcast advertising continues to be an increasing area of interest for advertisers. According to the Interactive Advertising Bureau's 2020 U.S. Podcast Advertising Revenue study (prepared by PricewaterhouseCoopers), revenues from podcast advertising grew $479 million to more than $842 million between 2018 and 2020. The same report predicts that revenue will exceed $1 billion in 2021 and reach $2 billion by 2023. While interest in podcast advertising is becoming more and more popular, research in this area is lagging. The current study contributes to this niche area of digital advertising that clearly is in need of sufficient research.

This study also contributes to the scholarship of native advertising by focusing on consumer responses to the editorial media content, not the ads per se. A majority of the existing studies of native advertising have examined advertising effectiveness as their dependent variables. This research approach is understandable as the effectiveness of native ads is very much concerned by digital advertisers. However, such an approach neglects the perspective of publishers and content creators. We argue that it is important to examine how native ads influence audience's perceptions of editorial media content as digital publishers or content creators need to be mindful of the potential harm brought by native ads to their content as well as the possible strategies of reducing such harm. In addition, the extant studies that have considered people's evaluations of media content have predominantly concentrated on news

or journalism (e.g., Amazeen 2020; Amazeen and Wojdynski 2020; Aribarg and Schwartz 2020). Our study is different from previous investigations as we examined non-news media content. Therefore, the effects identified from this study may shed light on how native ads influence perceptions of non-news media content in some other contexts.

The media context effects (i.e., the influence of media context on advertising effectiveness) have been widely studied in both traditional and digital media (e.g., Bae, Wright, and Taylor 2001; Cauberghe, Geuens, and De Pelsmacker 2011; Stipp 2018). However, the reversed effects (i.e., how inserted ads influence media context) have received insufficient attention. This study improves our understanding of such reversed media effects by shedding light on the relationship between persuasion knowledge and narrative information processing. Some existing studies have analyzed the interaction effects between these two factors on consumer responses (e.g., Grigsby and Mellema 2020; Gillespie and Joireman 2016; Seo et al. 2018). However, the narrative experience and persuasion knowledge in these studies are both triggered by the same entity, such as viral social media ads, narrative native ads, and movies with product placement. Thus, it is difficult to disentangle the sequence of each factor's effects. In other words, it remains unknown when the activation of persuasion knowledge would significantly influence the effects of narrative processing. In our study, the native ad triggered persuasion knowledge, while narrative processing happened when participants processed the podcast content. The results indicated that persuasion knowledge activated before narrative processing had a much larger negative effect on people's responses to the narrative content compared to persuasion knowledge activated in the middle of narrative processing. Although this was only observed among a certain group of people (which will be discussed in the following paragraph), our study helps clarify the relationship between persuasion knowledge and narrative processing, and thus contribute to relevant theory development.

Another contribution of this study to theory development is the identification of the boundary conditions created by media experience. That is the effect of ad placement was only significant among audiences with a low level of media experience. Previous research has confirmed the interaction effect between media experience and persuasion knowledge on advertising effectiveness (Jung and Heo 2019). It is argued that the activation of persuasion knowledge increases the confidence of consumers with sufficient media experience, rather than activating consumers' defense mechanisms (Jung and Heo 2019). Our study adds to this body of scholarship by revealing that media experience moderated the effect of the timing of activating persuasion knowledge. Experienced audiences possess a high level of confidence in terms of understanding the dynamic of a specific media format (true crime podcast in this study). Thus, their responses to the media content are not affected by when persuasion knowledge is activated. In contrast, inexperienced audiences do not possess the confidence level that could distract them from the influence of persuasion knowledge, so these audiences' responses to the media content are sensitive to the timing of the activation of persuasion knowledge. In addition, our findings discovered a primacy effect of ad placement, such that the persuasion knowledge activated at the beginning of the podcast had a stronger negative effect on people's content evaluations than that activated in the middle of the podcast. We believe these findings provide innovative theoretical insights into the relationship between media experience and persuasion knowledge and thus expand the Persuasion Knowledge Model.

Practical Implications

We believe these findings are meaningful as more and more advertisers continue to turn toward the podcast medium as a viable way to reach audiences. With the influx of advertising in podcast media likely to increase, podcast producers need to consider how the ads that rely on for revenue affect consumer perceptions of the podcast. Our findings indicated that it is more beneficial for the podcast to first deliver content to the listener before delivering ads. This will return positive perceptions on the quality of the podcast and the likelihood that a listener will share the podcast with others. Intent to share is important for podcasts because they are a niche media. Niche media audiences would likely rely on others who share similar interests for recommendations on new podcasts to listen to. In other words, if a podcast wants to increase its audience size its best way of doing so is to let its current listeners attract more audience members.

This research also suggests that industry professionals on both the side of the advertiser and the podcast producer should consider the podcast media experience of their audience members when creating their advertising strategy. For example, a very popular podcast with a large audience following may not need to worry about turning away listeners with a pre-roll ad. They might assume that their audience has high levels of podcast media experience since and will not be affected by ads at the beginning of the podcast. These podcasts could leverage this by selling more ads at this time in order to increase their sales revenue. However, newer podcasts that are just starting out may be more hesitant to do so. As the number of podcasts continues to grow, it is likely that existing media entities will

enter into the space. For example, Conan O'brien, an established and well-known talk show host, also has his own podcast, *Conan Needs a Friend*. Similarly, *Dateline NBC*, a popular television show, also has its own podcast. These types of podcasts may be bringing their audiences with them as they enter the podcast platform. If these audience members are new to the medium it may be best to give them content before they give them ads.

Limitation and Future Research

This study relied on data that was online and self-reported. Therefore, it limited the control over the environment in which the experiment was conducted. Future research could conduct a similar experiment in a more controlled laboratory setting. Additionally, stimuli used in this study was a shortened clip of a longer full podcast episode. A more controlled setting may allow for longer stimuli to be used. This may help to capture a more realistic experience of listening to a podcast. It would be interesting to know if audience responses, as influenced by ad placement and media experience, change throughout the duration of the episode as more events unfold throughout the narrative. Finally, the current study only focused on one type of podcast advertisement. Future research is suggested to explore if the influence of media experience and ad placement on audience responses change across different types of podcast ads.

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Appendix

Figure 1. Interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on perceived content quality
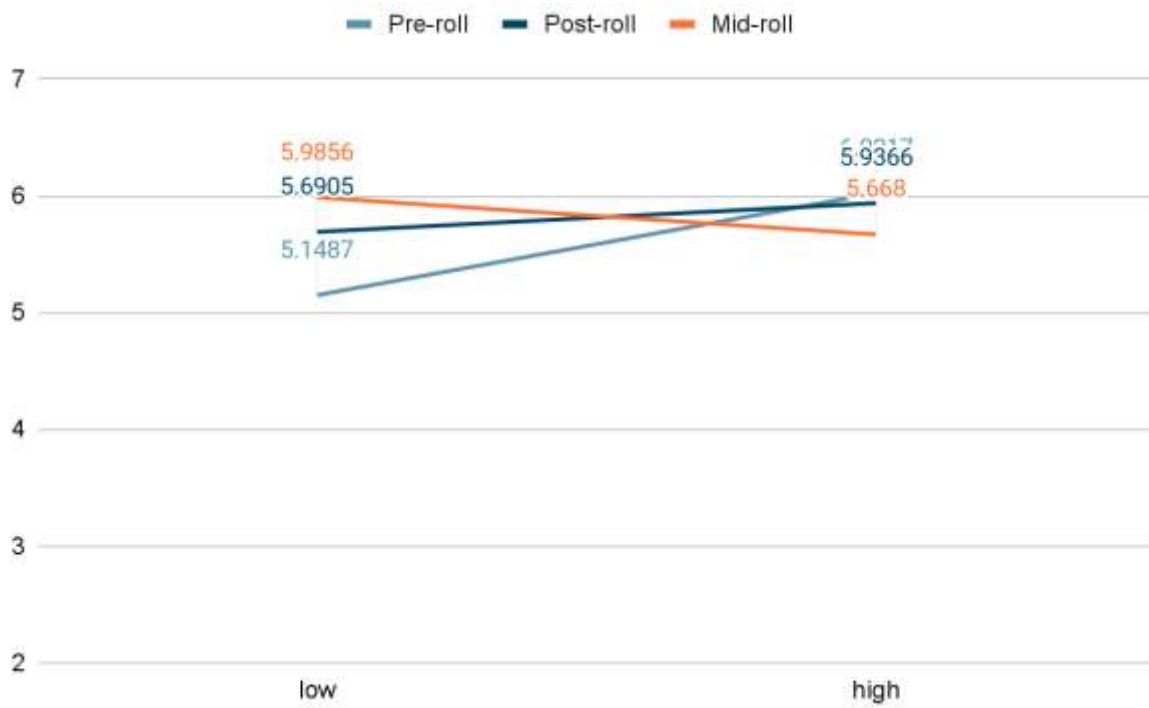
Figure 2. Interaction effect between ad placement and media experience on intent to share
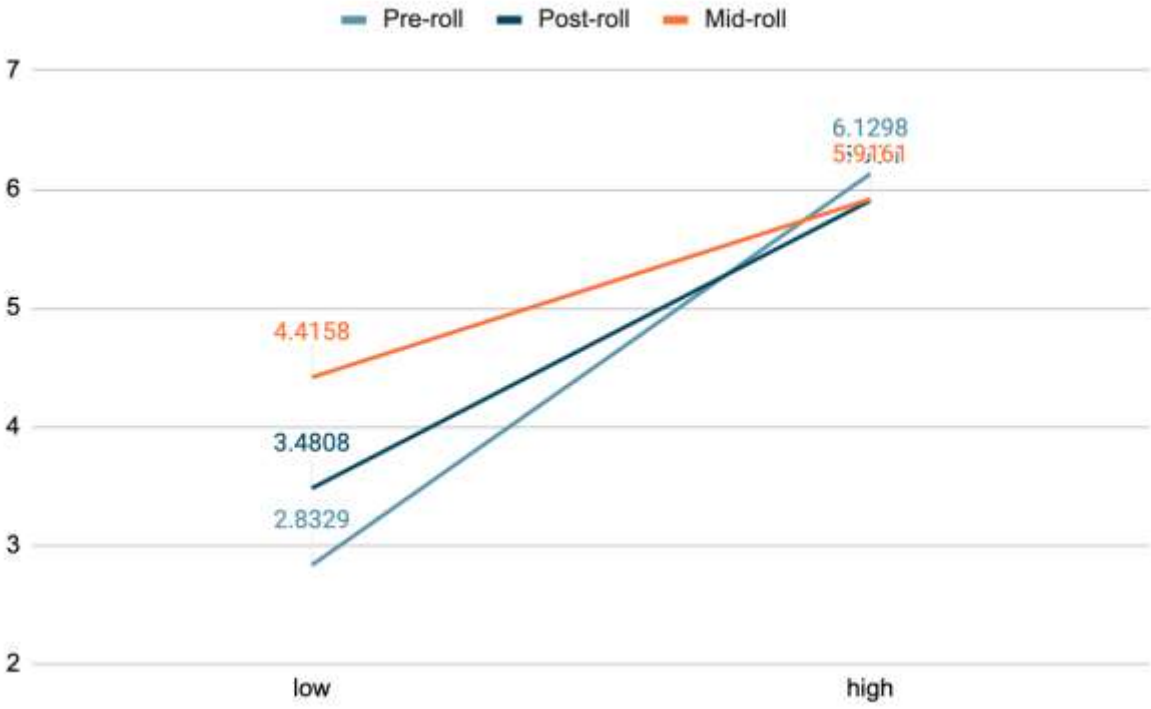
Summary Brief

Neuroimaging Approach to Understand Flexible Thinking on Purchase Intentions

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The advancement of technology has given rise to using neuroimaging techniques to better understand consumers. The current study used functional near-infrared spectroscopy (fNIRS) to better understand how the construction of ad hoc categories (i.e., categories that are not well established in one's mind) affects consumers' purchase intentions. In semantic memory cortical areas, constructing the same ad hoc category twice for a brand name product decreased cortical activity, whereas constructing two different ad hoc categories increased cortical activity. This pattern of cortical activity reversed itself when those same brand name products were encountered during purchase intention. The reduction in cortical activity during purchase intention for products that had been used in two different ad hoc categories demonstrates greater processing fluency and/or representational activation for those products during purchase intention, a facilitative effect that can be attributed to the benefits of thinking flexibly about brand name products.

Introduction

Advertisers have begun presenting their brand name products in alternative ways (e.g., sustainable) to make their brand name products stand out. This brings into question, how does thinking about alternative perspectives of a brand name product impact a consumer's purchase intention? To think about brand name products from an alternative perspective (e.g., sustainable products), a consumer might construct an *ad hoc* category (e.g., products that do not use fossil fuels) that includes brand name products from multiple nominal categories. An *ad hoc* category is a category of items that are not typically represented in one's mind, but may be formed in order to meet a situation-specific need (Barsalou, 1983). These *ad hoc* categories are generated by manipulating semantic knowledge of an item in a novel way (Ryan et al., 2008).

Neuromarketing is an emerging field that promises to further our understanding of consumers' purchasing behavior (Nasr, 2014). For the current experiment, we used cognitive neuroscience to further our understanding of how the construction of multiple *ad hoc* categories impacts purchase intention. The cognitive neuroscience of semantic memory literature indicates that one role of left prefrontal cortex is to process semantic knowledge and one role of bilateral anterior temporal lobe is to represent semantic knowledge (Lambon Ralph et al., 2017). Both of these cortical areas are needed for the construction of an *ad hoc* category.

Background

Prior research has investigated both the stable and flexible nature of brand name product categories (Loken et al., 2008). For example, research has been used to examine how a well-established product category impacts the inferences consumers make about a novel exemplar (i.e., a new brand name product) in a category (Celhay & Trinquecoste, 2015) and how information about a novel brand name product influences the conception of an already well-established category in which it is thought to be member (Sood & Keller, 2012). In both cases flexibility is required for the representation of brand name categories. However, relatively little research has been done on the

influence of novel forms of categorization (e.g., forming *ad hoc* categories) on a brand name product that is already an exemplar in another well-established category.

In the current experiment we manipulated the number of *ad hoc* categories being studied on a later purchase intention task. Our prediction, for the study task, is that constructing two different *ad hoc* categories would produce the greatest cortical activity in left prefrontal cortex and bilateral anterior temporal lobe. For the purchase intention task, we predict there will be the least cortical activity in left prefrontal cortex and bilateral anterior temporal lobe for brand name products that were studied for two different *ad hoc* categories.

Methodology

We used functional near-infrared spectroscopy (fNIRS) to measure cortical activity in bilateral prefrontal cortex and bilateral anterior temporal lobe during a study task and during a purchase intention task. During the study task, participants first studied the brand name products by constructing the same *ad hoc* category across two instances (Same condition), two different *ad hoc* categories across two instances (Different condition), or one *ad hoc* category for one instance (Once condition). During the purchase intention task, participants were presented with the studied brand name product along with a novel brand name product in the same product category and asked to indicate which of the two brand name products they would prefer to purchase. In addition to the brand name products studied in the Same, Different, and Once condition, there was also a Baseline condition in the purchase intention task where neither of the brand name products presented had been studied before.

Key Findings

Accuracy priming scores were calculated by subtracting the Baseline accuracy score from the three types of study conditions' accuracy scores. There was significant purchase intention priming when the three types of study conditions' accuracy priming scores were averaged ($M=.07$, $SD=.02$) and compared to zero ($F(1,47)=11.37$, $p=.001$), with no differences across conditions. In the study task, left prefrontal cortex indicated the Different condition having the greatest activity ($M=.20$, $SD=.29$), followed by the Once condition ($M=.16$, $SD=.34$), and the Same condition having the lowest ($M=.13$, $SD=.33$). Bilateral anterior temporal lobe indicated a similar pattern, with the Different condition having the highest activity ($M=.05$, $SD=.04$), followed by the Once condition ($M=-.09$, $SD=.06$), and the Same condition having the lowest ($M=-.16$, $SD=.05$). In the purchase intention task, left prefrontal cortex revealed the Different condition having the least activity ($M=.05$, $SD=.25$), follow by the Once condition ($M=.10$, $SD=.25$), and the Same condition having the highest ($M=.13$, $SD=.33$). Bilateral anterior temporal lobe indicated a similar pattern, with the Different condition having the least ($M=-.03$, $SD=.03$), follow by the Same condition ($M=-.10$, $SD=.04$), and the Once condition having the highest ($M=.02$, $SD=.03$). These results support both of our predictions.

Results of the experiment identified a reduction in cortical activity for brand name products studied for different *ad hoc* categories. Given that reductions in cortical activity are indicative of fluency occurring (Ward et al., 2013), reductions in cortical activity for left prefrontal cortex and bilateral anterior temporal lobe indicate processing fluency and/or greater representational activation occurring in the associated cortical areas. Findings suggest that studying two different *ad hoc* categories of a brand name product transfers a category versatility or flexibility that eases consumers' conceptual processing regarding that product during purchase intention.

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SESSION 8B: LET'S GET STRATEGIC

CHAIR:

Janna Parker

Full Paper
Revisiting the Performance Implications of the Power-Trust Relationship: Dependence, Performance and Loyalty in B2B Relationships

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Introduction

Managing business to business (B2B) relationships effectively requires an understanding of how to encourage partners to cooperate, even when it is not in their best interest to do so. On one hand, firms want relationships characterized by trust and commitment which can reduce conflict while improving cooperation, relationship satisfaction (e.g., Hogevold et al., 2020), performance (e.g., Mungra & Yadav, 2019), and loyalty (e.g., Wu et al., 2015). On the other hand, firms might be dependent on a partner, lacking better relationship options or faced with high switching costs (Blut et al., 2016; Scheer et al., 2010, 2015). Significant evidence suggests that while both relational benefits and dependence motivate firms to cooperate and remain in B2B relationships, positive relational benefits offer a more promising opportunity of success (e.g., Geiger et al., 2012).

Building positive B2B relationships is a common goal, but relatively few channel relationships are without significant conflict, particularly in stressful market situations (Hibbard et al., 2001; Samaha et al., 2011; Sharma & Parida, 2018). In such circumstances positive relational benefits might not be enough to secure cooperation, and firms might have to use channel management tools typically perceived as more negative. Firms can potentially encourage cooperation via the use or threat of power (Gaski, 1984; Gundlach and Cadotte, 1994) or build dependence via unique relational benefits or switching costs (Scheer et al., 2010, 2015). Evidence suggests that relational benefits and dependence should be considered together when considering B2B relationship outcomes (e.g., Andaleeb, 1996; Goodman & Dion, 2001; Izquirdo & Cillian, 2004; Mukherjee. and Nath 2007; Hernandez-Espallardo & Arcas-Lario, 2008; Mukherji & Francis 2008). However, most research in this area does not consider relational outcomes and dependence simultaneously, often does not include both relationship and performance outcomes, and is based on an outdated conceptualization of dependence. As a result, several authors have called for additional enquiry into the interrelated roles relational benefits and dependence might play in determining performance (Hirshberg & Shoham, 2017; Scheer et al., 2015) and loyalty (Scheer et al., 2010).

Our goal in this paper is to investigate the interrelated role of relational outcomes and dependence as drivers of key partnership outcomes. Specifically, we provide a conceptual model of the power-trust relationship impact on performance that includes two components of dependence, relationship value dependence and switching cost dependence. We investigate how these dimensions of dependence offer additional paths to strategic and financial performance and loyalty. Further, we examine how the different forms of commitment moderate the effects of power

use on trust. Our conceptual framework integrates recent research on dependence, and we test the conceptual framework with a survey of purchasers reporting on their relationships with suppliers. Our research contributes to the literature by providing a more comprehensive framework for understanding different paths to B2B relationship success, highlighting the different impact of economic versus relational factors.

Conceptual Foundation and Research Hypotheses

Much of the research on channel relationships focuses predominantly on either relational outcomes or power-dependence issues (Krafft et al., 2015) in large part due to the different theoretical perspectives from which the two content areas draw. Palmatier et al. (2007) identify the commitment-trust perspective and the dependence perspective as two of the primary frameworks that serve as conceptual foundations for research in interorganizational performance. The commitment-trust perspective contends that trust in or commitment between partners will be the primary determinant of relationship outcomes (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Trusted, committed partners are more likely to act positively in the relationship, which will improve relationship outcomes including performance (e.g., Hibbard et al., 2001; Mungra & Yadav, 2020). In contrast, the dependence perspective is tied to power (e.g., Hunt & Nevin, 1974; Gaski, 1984), and contends that firms sometimes comply with partner demands because they have to maintain the relationship and avoid actions that would put the relationship in jeopardy (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Frazier, 1983). Importantly, dependence can be either positive or negative for a relationship. If both partners are dependent, they will work together to maintain the relationship and trust and commitment will increase (Hibbard et al., 2001; Kumar et al., 1995). Commitment and trust encourage relationship specific investments, which increase dependence as the cost of replacing a partner with the same level of relational and economic benefits increases (El-Ansary, 1975). If dependence is asymmetric, the dependent partner is open to opportunism (Williamson, 1975) and potential uses of coercive power (Gundlach and Cadotte, 1984; Lui et al., 2006), though there is evidence that asymmetric dependence need not necessarily be negative for the more dependent party since often the asymmetry is based on specific partnership roles (e.g., Andaleeb, 1996; Lewis & Lambert, 1991; Scheer et al., 2010).

Jain et al. (2014) provide a starting point for our conceptual framework. We made three significant changes to their model to make it more comprehensive. First, we more fully integrate the dependence perspective by adding dependence explicitly into the model. We posit that the power-trust relationship, moderated by commitment, will impact dependence, which will then impact performance. Following recent research on dependence (Scheer et al., 2010, 2015), we include two components of dependence—relationship value dependence and switching cost dependence. Adding dependence to the model in this manner aligns with recent research suggesting that commitment and trust are antecedents to dependence (Padgett et al. 2020) and is consistent with El-Ansary's (1975) early dependence work, as well as more recent work suggesting that dependence encourages partners to cooperate and invest additional resources into the relationship, which enhances performance (Scheer et al., 2015). Second, while Jain et al. (2014) include both strategic and financial performance outcomes, we also include loyalty to provide additional insight into the interrelationships between power, trust, commitment, and dependence (e.g., Cater & Cater 2010; Scheer et al., 2010, 2015). Third, we provide a complete assessment of the moderating role of commitment. Jain et al.'s (2014) framework addressed limited moderating effects for affective and calculative commitment. We assess affective

commitment, add normative commitment, and split calculative commitment into two sub-components—positive and negative (e.g., Cater & Cater, 2010; Sharma et al., 2006).

Our model offers a comprehensive framework for understanding the effects of the power-trust relationship and dependence on performance and loyalty. Specifically, our model suggests that the power-trust relationship is moderated by different types of commitment. Trust influences dependence as well as strategic performance. Dependence impacts both strategic and financial performance, which both increase loyalty. The full conceptual model is represented in Figure 1.

Impact of Power on Trust
Trust refers to a belief that a partner will be reliable and act with integrity when fulfilling obligations or promises within the relationship (Anderson & Narus, 1990; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Trust encourages positive partnering actions such as information sharing, communication, and cooperation that can sustain relationships and produce positive relationship outcomes (Akrout, 2015; Anderson & Narus, 1990; Miquel-Romero et al., 2014). Researchers view trust as part of the nomological network for a number of important relational outcomes, most importantly commitment (e.g., Andaleeb, 1996; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Fullerton, 2005, Padgett et al., 2020), but also performance (e.g,, Hirshberg & Shoham, 2017; Palamtier et al., 2006; Zhuang and Zhou,.2004, Shi & Liao, 2015) and loyalty (e.g., Caceras & Paparoidamas, 2007; Wu et al., 2015). One of the more important conceptual relationships identified in the literature is the relationship between trust and power.

Channel research defines power as the ability to influence the decisions and actions of others, particularly to gain partner compliance even when the action is not necessarily in the best interests of the partner (e.g., Gaski, 1984). Hunt and Nevin (1974) distinguish two types of power: coercive and non-coercive. Coercive power stems from negative consequences such as threats or punishments, though they need not be exercised to be effective (Gaski & Nevin, 1985; Kumar, 2005). Generally, the use of coercive power has the potential to damage the relationship and researchers caution against its use (e.g, Hausman & Johnston, 2010; Hoppner et al., 2014). In contrast, non-coercive power stems from positive motivations to encourage or reward a partner (Gundlach & Cadotte, 1984). Non-coercive power is associated with positive motivation for compliance and increases cooperation and reduces conflict (Skinner et al., 1992). The two different forms of power use have different impacts on trust in the relationship. Coercive power use decreases trust (Hausman & Johnston, 2010; Hirshberg & Shoham, 2017; Jain et al., 2014), as it often highlights inequities and potential vulnerability to opportunism in the relationship (Leonidou et al., 2008). In contrast, non-coercive power use increases trust (Hausman & Johnston, 2010; Jain et al., 2014; Moorman et al., 1993). Hence, we posit:

H1a: Coercive power will have a negative impact on trust.
H1b: Non-coercive power will have a positive impact on trust.

Moderation Effects of Commitment on the Power-Trust Relationship
While we expect a negative relationship between coercive power and trust and a positive relationship between non-coercive power and trust, we expect these effects to be moderated by commitment given the strong relationship between trust and commitment in the literature (see Palamatier et al., 2007). Commitment is "an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship"

(Moorman et al., 1992), and early research suggested two forms of commitment: affective (relational) and calculative (economic) (de Ruyter et al., 2001; Gounaris, 2005). Affective commitment is a desire to remain in a relationship tied to positive feelings associated with the relationship such as enjoyment that results from cooperation. Calculative commitment represents a desire to remain in a relationship for the economic value of the relationship. Sharma et al. (2006) subdivided calculative commitment based on valence—positive or negative. Positive calculative commitment stems from perceived economic benefits of staying in a relationship. Negative calculative commitment stems from perceptions of being "locked-in" to a relationship due to limited alternatives or high switching costs. A third form of commitment, normative commitment, was subsequently added to the literature and defined as the desire to remain in a relationship due to moral obligation or sense of duty (Brown et al., 1995; Kelly, 2004).

We expect commitment to moderate the power-trust relationship differently depending on the type of commitment. de Ruyter et al. (2001) found a positive relationship between trust and affective commitment, as did Styles et al. (2008) and Salam (2011), suggesting higher levels of desire to maintain a relationship based on relational factors correlate with higher levels of trust. A dealer that is affectively committed to the supplier typically identifies and shares values with the supplier, and will be more cooperative (Bansal et al., 2004; Cater & Cater, 2010). Non-coercive power use is likely to be viewed as a sign of benevolence and goodwill, which would result in feelings of gratitude and enhance trust (Pelser et al., 2015). Higher levels of affective commitment should also reduce or "buffer" the negativity associated with coercive power unless the act is viewed as severe opportunism by the partner (Ganesan et al., 2010; Jain et al., 2014). Hence, we expect affective commitment to weaken the negative relationship between coercive power and trust but strengthen the positive relationship between non-coercive power and trust.

We expect the moderating role of normative commitment to be similar to affective commitment, but for different reasons. Unlike partners with affective commitment who remain in a relationship because they want to, partners with normative commitment stay in a relationship because they feel they ought to (Kumar et al., 1994). Normative commitment represents a duty or obligation. While Jain et al. (2014) did not include normative commitment in their investigation of the power-trust relationship, Cater and Cater (2010) found a positive relationship between normative commitment and trust. Payan and Nevin (2006) discovered that managers sometimes used "an appeal to business loyalty/friendship" to influence partners and induce compliance, implying a sense of duty and/or obligation from the partner. We contend normatively committed partners will be less aggrieved by coercive power use but grateful for non-coercive power acts, which suggests normative commitment will weaken the negative coercive power-trust relationship but strengthen the positive relationship between non-coercive power and trust.

Calculative commitment binds a partner to the relationship for economic reasons and therefore could be considered the most impactful of the three commitment forms (Finkel et al., 2002). However, evidence is not clear regarding the moderating effects of calculative commitment on the power trust relationship. Fear of losing the economic benefits associated with a relationship is perceived as a negative motivation to remain in a relationship (de Ruyter et al., 2001; Gilliland & Bello, 2002), which suggests the opposite moderation effects compared to affective and normative commitment. Jain et al. (2014) found that calculative commitment weakens the positive relationship between non-coercive power and trust. However, Ganesan et

al. (2010) observed similar findings of calculative and affective commitment for buffering; when a supplier commits a minor transgression in the relationship, high calculative commitment buffers the supplier in that the partner does not intend to switch suppliers. Sharma et al. (2006) offer a potential reconciliation, contending that economic commitment can represent either positive value of the relationship (value-based commitment) tied to benefits, fairness of outcomes, and performance or represent the negative potential for losses if the relationship ended (lock-in commitment). Cater and Cater (2010) use Sharma et al.'s (2006) split and found that positive calculative commitment was positively related to trust, cooperation, adaptation and product quality. Negative calculative commitment was related to loyalty and product quality. Cater and Cater's (2010) results suggest that commitment based on positive economic value of the relationship is associated with positive relational outcomes and that negative calculative commitment is tied to switching cost barriers such as the difficulty to replace quality products. When a partner uses coercive power, positive calculative commitment should weaken the negative effect on trust since firms committed to the positive economic benefits of the relationship will be more forgiving. In contrast, negative calculative commitment will increase the negativity of the use of coercive power on trust as those negatively committed feel trapped in the relationship. For the use of non-coercive power, we expect positive commitment based on economic benefits would likely behave similarly to positive moral or relational benefits and enhance the non-coercive power-trust relationship, while negative calculative commitment would have the opposite effect. Hence, in our case, similar to Jain et al.'s findings (2014), we expect negative calculative commitment to weaken the positive relationship between non-coercive power and trust. Hence, we posit:

For coercive power → trust relationship

> H2a: Heightened affective commitment will weaken the negative relationship between coercive power and trust.
> H2b: Heightened normative commitment will weaken the negative relationship between coercive power and trust.
> H2c: Heightened positive calculative commitment will weaken the negative relationship between coercive power and trust.
> H2d: Heightened negative calculative commitment will strengthen the negative relationship between coercive power and trust.

For non-coercive power → trust relationship

> H2e: Heightened affective commitment will strengthen the positive relationship between non-coercive power and trust.
> H2f: Heightened normative commitment will strengthen the positive relationship between non-coercive power and trust.
> H2g: Heightened positive calculative commitment will strengthen the positive relationship between non-coercive power and trust.
> H2h: Heightened negative calculative commitment will weaken the positive relationship between non-coercive power and trust.

Trust and Dependence

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Dependence is a general motivation to maintain a relationship to achieve firm goals (Beier & Stern, 1969). In much of the literature, dependence is considered a negative motivation to maintain a relationship as a *need* to stay in a relationship rather than a *desire* to do so (such as commitment). However, recent research has expanded and refined the conceptualization of dependence. Scheer et al. (2010) suggest dependence can be either benefit-based or cost-based and Scheer et al. (2015) differentiate two components of dependence--relationship value dependence and switching cost dependence. Relationship value dependence represents "a party's need maintain its relationship with an exchange partner because of the irreplaceable, unique value that would be forfeited if that relationship ended" (Scheer et al., 2015, p. 697). As such, relationship value dependence is considered a positive motivation to remain in a relationship tied to benefits derived from the relationship such as sales, access to resources or markets, and personal relationships. The inclusion of relational ties suggests that dependence can be based on more than just financial factors. In contrast, switching cost dependence represents a motivation to remain in a relationship to avoid the "unrealized costs that would be incurred if the relationship ended" (Scheer et al., 2015, p. 697). Switching cost dependence is therefore considered a negative motivation to remain in a relationship and would include the potential costs of disengaging from a partner (perhaps contractual penalties or shut-down costs etc.), searching for and qualifying a new partner, and any additional costs for onboarding the new partner (e.g., training, learning a new information system interface, and so on).

We expect trust to be positively related to both relationship value dependence and to a lesser degree switching cost dependence. The resource-based view (Dyer, 1996; Wernerfelt, 1984) contends that firms bring unique resources to a relationship, which suggests that trusted firms are valued by their partners for the relationship benefits unique to that firm. The more trusted the relationship, the more relationship dependent the partner becomes since replacing the financial but also relationship benefits (including trust) would entail significant risk and difficulty. In addition, in many cases, especially trusted relationships, the success of the relationship could be the result of resources created by the relationship (Jap, 1999). In such cases, the relationship value dependence would be high, but so would the latent costs tied to disengaging and acquiring a new partner of equal value, which suggests high trust should also relate to high switching cost dependence.

While both components of dependence increase the need to maintain a relationship, we contend that relationship value dependence will have an impact on switching cost dependence. Switching costs can have both positive and negative components (Barosso and Picon, 2012) and function to bind a partner to a relationship through either procedural, financial, or relational ties (Blut et al., 2016). As a relationship develops over time, relationship norms, procedures, and ties grow. Hence, the perceived existing value of a relationship, including both financial and relational benefits (relationship value dependence), should increase the latent costs of ending the relationship due to the difficulty in finding another partner that offers similar benefit levels. Hence, we posit:

> H3a: Trust will have a positive impact on relationship value dependence.
> H3b: Trust will have a positive impact on switching cost dependence.
> H3c: Relationship value dependence will have a positive impact on switching cost dependence.

Trust, Dependence, and Performance

While establishing trust and/or dependence is a significant step in B2B relationship management, the primary purpose of B2B relationships is to improve both short-term and long-term performance. Two distinct dimensions of performance have been identified in the literature. Financial performance represents profitability and market performance (Moorman & Rust, 1999), while strategic performance represents the development of competitive advantage (Ramaseshan et al., 2006). Trust has been linked to strategic goal attainment and also financial performance (e.g., Delbufalo, 2012; Stuart et al., 2012). In addition, trust is one of the most significant factors for reducing conflict in relationships (Sharma & Parida, 2018). When partners have high levels of trust, they are more likely to exhibit goal alignment, cooperation, and joint problem solving. Working toward common strategic goals should lead to better financial performance, and thus we expect trust will have a direct positive impact on strategic performance and that strategic performance will impact financial performance.

Dependence has also been linked to performance (e.g., Hernandez-Espallardo & Arcas-Lario, 2008; Osmonbekov & Gruen, 2013). Dependence has a positive influence on cooperation (Skinner et al., 1992) and increases strategic integration (Johnson, 1999). As firms become more dependent, they have more incentive (and pressure) to cooperate (Lui et al., 2006). Scheer et al. (2010, 2015) contend that dependence tied to the relationship will be associated with more positive outcomes such as relationship quality, performance, and cooperation. In addition, Palmatier et al. (2007) found that interdependence had a positive effect on financial performance. Given relationship value dependence suggests cooperative goal alignment, we expect a positive tie to both strategic performance and financial performance.

While relationship value dependence should influence performance via cooperation, switching cost dependence should influence performance via desire to avoid the latent negative consequences, particularly financial, that would occur if the relationship ended (Scheer et al., 2015). Lewis and Lambert (1991) found that financial dependence influences the degree to which franchisees meet performance goals prescribed by the franchisor. Their conceptualization and measurement of performance goals is closely related to the more current conceptualization of strategic performance. Geiger et al. (2012) show that switching costs influence relational tolerance, indicating that firms more dependent on economic outcomes from the relationship will be more tolerant of partner demands. Importantly, they found that switching costs were more important for buyers than sellers, which corresponds to our case of purchasing agents. Similarly, Barosso and Picon (2012) indicate that switching costs can increase loyalty. Taken together, these findings suggest that switching cost dependence can encourage a partner to cooperate to meet performance goals and should increase strategic performance. In addition, because switching cost dependence is predicated on maintaining a relationship to avoid potential financial losses, we expect switching cost dependence to influence financial performance.

Finally, strategic cooperation can provide competitive advantage that over time generates financial gains (Johnson, 1999; Zhou et al., 2009). Jain et al. (2014) found that strategic performance impacted financial performance. Similarly, Zou and Cavusgil (2002) consider strategic performance to be an important intermediary measure for financial performance. We therefore expect strategic performance to impact financial performance, and posit:

H4a: Trust will have a positive impact on strategic performance.

H4b: Relationship value dependence will have a positive impact on strategic performance.
H4c: Relationship value dependence will have a positive impact on financial performance.
H4d: Switching cost dependence will have a positive relationship on strategic performance.
H4e: Switching cost dependence will have a positive relationship on financial performance.
H4f: Strategic performance will have a positive impact on financial performance.

Performance and Loyalty

Relational loyalty is a deeply held commitment to remain in a relationship "despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior" (Oliver, 1999). Research has linked loyalty in B2B relationships to trust, commitment, and other relational outcomes. For example, Cater and Cater (2010) find a positive relationship between trust and loyalty. Similarly, Caceras and Paparoidamas (2007) indicate a positive relationship between loyalty and trust, commitment, and satisfaction. A common finding in the literature is that loyalty results from continued positive interactions with a partner, which suggests loyalty is a cumulative construct (e.g., Cater & Cater 2009; Lopez Sanchez et al., 2011), that lowers the propensity for terminating a relationship (Abdul-Muhmin, 2005). Lewis and Lambert (1991) show that performance leads to satisfaction and yields positive outcomes for the relationship. More satisfied partners cooperate more fully and invest more in the relationship, which leads to organizational learning, innovativeness, and other positive strategic and financial outcomes for the firm (e.g., Lopez Sanchez et al., 2011; Theoharakis et al., 2009). Scheer et al. (2010) found that benefit-based dependence in a relationship was positively related to loyalty, specifically making a partner more insensitive to competitive offerings as well as increasing the likelihood of future purchase expansion. Cost-based dependence in a relationship was positively related only to insensitivity to competitive offerings. Apparently, relational benefits have a priority over the avoidance of financial losses when it comes to B2B loyalty. Taken together, previous research suggests that strategic performance should be positively related to loyalty. In addition, we argue that continued financial performance should also encourage loyalty by reinforcing the rewards of continuing the relationship. Hence, we posit:

H5a: Strategic performance will have a positive impact on loyalty.
H5b: Financial performance will have a positive impact on loyalty.

3. Methodology

Instrument and Sample

The sample for the study was derived from three sources including industry contacts who were part of a university list serve database, a mailing list (e-mail) of 650 individuals holding purchasing related positions in firms in the United States and a professionally managed online panel. Potential respondents were qualified based on their qualifications, with the primary qualification of interest being that respondents are involved in purchasing either material supplies or reseller merchandise for their respective firms. Online panels and list serves have

been consistently utilized in representative studies in marketing literature (c.f. Locander et al. 2018; McDowell et al. 2018).

We created the survey instrument in Qualtrics and respondents were solicited via e-mail with an embedded link to the survey instrument. Screening questions prior to participation were utilized to ensure that the sample accurately reflected experience in the supplier/buyer relationship. This process resulted in a sample consisting of individuals who served as the primary purchasing agent and liaison between their firm and one of their major suppliers. Any respondent who was not identified as being a purchasing liaison for their firm was excluded from the sample. The procedure yielded a usable sample of 296 responses, with 158 responses from the online panel, 27 from the university list serve and 111 from the mailing list.

The instrument included modified versions of scales measuring the key constructs via 7-point Likert items. All measures utilized had demonstrated appropriate reliability and validity per the extant literature. Appendix A and B list the construct items and sources.

Descriptive information was collected for respondents regarding their company and suppliers. To categorize suppliers, open-ended questions asked respondents to state the supplier's industry and type of good/service they provided to the respondent. Respondents were then directed to consider their most important supplier in responding to each survey question. Respondents provided their company's industry and a brief statement about their primary product offering. Control variables assessed included annual revenue, number of employees, tenure with the supplier and overall satisfaction with the relationship.

From the data, 52% of respondents were female with an average age of 39 years; 19% stated that they were owner/co-owners of their businesses and 77% served in managerial or supervisor roles. Forty-two percent of respondents had been with their current firm 1 to 5 years and 58% more than 5 years. Forty-one percent of firms represented employed more than 250 people; 56% were identified as medium size businesses with revenues ranging from $10 million to $1 billion annually; and 27% reported annual revenues exceeding $1 billion thus identifying them as large companies (National Center for the Middle Market, 2018). When asked about their supplier relationship, 43% stated they had worked with their supplier 1 to 5 years and 54% stated they had had a relationship with their supplier for more than 5 years.

Content analysis revealed that the sample consisted of 27 different industries represented among purchasers and 18 representing suppliers. Two expert judges were asked to match each company to its main industry (see Table 1). Inter-rater reliability was assessed via calculation of Kappa coefficients with SPSS. For suppliers, percentage of agreement among judges was 91% with Kappa = .774 (p-value ≤ .000). For buyers, agreement was 80% and Kappa = .672, (p-value ≤ .000). As a rule of thumb, values of Kappa from 0.60 to 0.79 are considered substantial, and 0.80 outstanding (Landis & Koch, 1977).

Data Analysis

Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) via SmartPLS was employed to assess the measurement (outer) and structural (inner) models with the structural (inner) model providing support for H1 and H3-5. Procedures consistent with recommendations from Hair et al. (2019) were utilized to analyze the data and present findings. An additional confirmatory factor model assessing the psychometric properties of the multi-item, moderators was completed with AMOS 25. PROCESS 3.0, Model 1, was employed to assess the moderation effects posited in H2; this was deemed appropriate given the challenges associated with assessing moderation effects via SEM (Padgett et al. 2020; Rapp et al. 2012).

Outer (Measurement)Model Analysis

As a necessary first step, we assessed non-response bias based on recommendations from Armstrong and Overton (1977). The first and forth quartiles were identified and differences in means in each focal construct were assessed within each quartile. These tests were done for the data set in its entirety and within each of the data sources. Non-response did not appear to be an issue as no significant differences (p-value ≥.05), were identified.

We assessed the psychometric properties of the scales depicted in the conceptual model via PLS-SEM (see Appendix A), and then applied CFA for assessment of the moderator constructs (Appendix B). Reliability and construct validity were supported as coefficient alpha and composite reliability scores were above the limit of .60 (Hair et al., 2017) and all loadings exceeded a value of .70 based on results generated via SmartPLS. Further, all average variance extracted scores exceeded the .50 threshold and the confidence interval for the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations between any two constructs did not exceed .85. Additionally, no HTMT confidence interval contained a value of 1.0 (Hair et al. 2017). Complete details for each construct appear in Appendix A.

Appendix B presents results of the confirmatory model assessment of the moderator measures. The overall model fit the data well with $\chi 2=149.69$, d.f. = 55, p≤.000; GFI = .92, AGFI = .881, RMSEA = .076; St. RMR = .117, IFI = .95, CFI = .95, NFI = .925. Internal consistency reliability for all constructs was supported; the coefficient alphas were above the limit of .70. All constructs exhibited both convergent and discriminant validity as all AVE scores exceeded the .50 threshold; and all constructs adhered to the Fornell and Larker (1981) criterion.

Multiple tests were undertaken for the assessment of common method variance (CMV). The Harman Single-Factor test, the assessment of collinearity diagnostics via variance inflation factors and a diagnostic technique developed by Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Lindell and Whitney (2001) were followed to assess potential CMV bias.

While previous studies have suggested the Harman approach may not detect the presence of CMV, recent research indicates it is a quite meaningful method (Fuller et al. 2016; Babin et al. 2016). Consistent with the approach, both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis via covariance based structural equation modeling with AMOS demonstrated that CMV did not appear to pose any problem for the focal constructs nor moderators (CMV assessment for both sets of constructs was undertaken together). Additional evidence was provided via examination of VIF scores; VIFs greater than 3.3 indicate that CMV may contaminate a model (Kock 2015, p.7). In this case, VIF scores ranged from 3.178 to 1.736, indicating CMV was not a concern.

Consistent with Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Lindell and Whitney et al. (2001) recommendations; procedures appearing in representative studies (c.f. Mohan, Sivakumaran. and Sharma 2013; Seriki, Evans, Jeon, Dant and Helm 2016), for CMV assessment were undertaken. In this case, an unmeasured latent factor was included in our model where all items under each of the constructs were connected to the common latent factor and the loadings were set to be equal. The restricted loadings from the common latent factor to individual items are 0.113. The common method variance, which is the square of that value, is 0.04, which is below the threshold of 50%. The approach suggested by Lindell and Whitney (2001) to adjust correlations was then followed. No difference was observed in significance level between variables. In short, the result this test, as well as the previous two test, suggests that common method variance is not a problem.

Inner (Structural) Model Analysis

PLS-SEM with SmartPLS was applied to assess H1 and H3-H5 as represented in Figure 1. Good model fit was demonstrated as the standardized root mean square residual was < .08 (St. RMSR = .069), and Stone-Geisser Q^2 (see Appendix A) scores obtained through the blindfolding procedure were all larger than zero (Hair et al., 2017). Collinearity of predictor constructs was not evident; all VIF values were less than 5.00 as recommended by Hair et al. (2017).

Additional variables were included in the structural model as controls based on prior literature, including annual revenue and number of employees (Lemma et al. 2018), respondent years employed with the company, length of relationship (in years) with the supplier (Harjoto et al. 2018), and customer satisfaction, which was measured with three, 7-point items utilized by Russo et al. (2017). Each control was modeled as a predictor of the focal endogenous variable (loyalty) within the model (Hair et al. 2017). Confidence interval estimates revealed that no controls proved significant (p-value ≥ .05).

H1a and H1b posited significant influences of coercive and non-coercive power on trust. From Table 2, both relationships are supported based on interpretation of the bootstrap confidence interval estimates. Further, H3a and H3b propose a positive influence of trust on relationship value and switching cost dependence. While trust has a significant influence on relationship value dependence, it does not significantly influence switching cost dependence, thus supporting H3a but not H3b. H3c posits that relationship value dependence positively influences switching cost dependence, which is supported (p-value ≤ .05).

The drivers of performance are examined in H4a-f. As depicted in Table 2, all relationships were supported except for H4c, which posited a positive relationship between relationship value dependence and financial performance, which was non-significant (p-value ≥ .05), confidence interval estimate of (-.028-.140). The final set of direct main effect hypotheses addressed the relationship between strategic/financial performance and loyalty. While financial performance does not directly influence loyalty (p-value ≥ .05), a significant (p-value ≤ .05), direct effect exists between strategic performance and loyalty; H5a is supported but not H5b.

Moderator Assessment

H2a-d assess the moderating effects of various forms of commitment on the relationship between coercive power and trust while H2e-h examine these moderating effects on the non-coercive power/trust relationship. PROCESS 3.0, Model 1, was employed to address the significance of these effects and Table 2 presents the results of this analysis. Assessment of the significance of the interaction effects via confidence interval estimation shows that H2a and H2c are not significant and thus are not supported, whereas H2b and H2d are significant and directionally consistent as hypothesized. These findings imply that, for H2b the negative association between coercive power and trust is reduced under conditions of heightened normative commitment. This effect is illustrated via the graph presented in Figure 2 as the ordinal interaction shows that under heightened normative commitment, the slope of the line changes from negative to positive. H2b is supported as well given the significance of the disordinal interaction term (see Table 2) and represented in Figure 2 as the slope of the line becomes less negative under conditions of high negative calculative commitment.

The moderation effect of commitment forms on the non-coercive power/trust relationship as posited in H2e-h reveals that the confidence interval estimates associated with affective (H2e) and normative (H2f) commitment are significant (p-value ≤ .05), whereas the moderation effects for positive/negative calculative (H2g and H2h respectively) commitment are not significant (p-value ≥ .05). Noting Figure 2, the graphs depict disordinal interactions where the influence of non-coercive power on trust becomes strongest under increased commitment levels for each moderator, supporting H2e and H2f.

Discussion

The primary purpose of this study was to add to the extant literature on B2B relationship performance by investigating the interrelated role of relational outcomes and dependence as drivers of performance and loyalty. Integrating commitment-trust, dependence, and resource-based view perspectives on B2B relationships, we developed and tested a conceptual framework that considers both relational outcomes and dependence pathways to performance and loyalty. We also examined the moderating role of the different forms of commitment on the power-trust relationship.

Research Contributions

This study extends research on B2B relationships by explicitly considering the interrelated roles played by the power-trust relationship and two forms of dependence on performance outcomes, thus in part answering Scheer et al.'s (2015) call for additional research into the two distinct components of dependence—relationship value and switching cost dependence--and their roles in determining B2B relationship outcomes. Our findings contribute to the existing research in several important ways.

First, our research reinforces current thought that building positive B2B relationships is a preferred path to desired strategic and financial outcomes. Our results suggest that building trust increases strategic performance and relationship value dependence, and therefore indirectly also impacts switching cost dependence and financial performance. However, while building positive relationships is perhaps the most desirable path to success, in cases where such relationships are not possible or in cases when such relationships become strained, our results suggest creating dependence can also improve performance and thereby loyalty. This is especially important

because though most B2B relationships are characterized as stable, positive relationships, the reality is that B2B relationships often experience negative events, especially under challenging market circumstances (Samaha et al., 2011). Our research suggests a combination of relational outcomes and dependence would be more effective than either path independently, an idea that has received some support previously in the literature (e.g., Andaleeb, 1996; Sheer et al., 2010).

Second, our research suggests that relational and economic factors are distinct, but complementary to the success of B2B relationships. For example, one interesting result was that trust had a significant impact on relationship value dependence (H3a), but not switching cost dependence (H3b). Similarly, relationship value dependence had a significant impact on strategic performance (H4b) but not on financial performance (H4c). Our argument was that high levels of trust would make it more difficult to replace a trusted partner and hence increase switching cost dependence. However, Palmatier et al. (2007) found a negative relationship between trust and interdependence, suggesting it is possible that the trusting partner would think the trusted partner would be more likely to help mitigate switching costs in the event the partnership was dissolved, which would decrease switching cost dependence. If this is the case, it could help explain our result. Another probable explanation is that trust in and of itself does not create switching costs, but rather relationship benefits. In this case, trust would increase relationship value dependence and only indirectly influence switching costs through the relationship value which is consistent with our results. Notably, this pattern was also evident in the fact that strategic performance (H5a), but not financial performance (H5b), impacted loyalty. Working together cooperatively increases loyalty, but financial gains do not necessarily lead to loyalty. On the other hand, switching cost dependence had a significant impact on financial performance as well as strategic performance. Apparently, economic motives for remaining in relationships can encourage cooperation and generate financial outcomes for the firm, but likely only in support of relational motives that drive strategic partnering. Loyalty is a relational construct rather than an economic construct and therefore relies more on emotional than rational motivations (Cater & Cater 2010).

Finally, the results from our moderating role of commitment on the power-trust relationship offer several interesting findings. First, in our study, non-coercive power use was moderated by affective commitment (H2e). This conflicts with findings from Jain et al. (2014) who did not find a significant moderating effect for affective commitment on this relationship in their post-hoc analysis. However, a more interesting conflict with prior research is our finding for the moderating role of calculative commitment on the relationship between the use of coercive power and trust. Our results show negative calculative commitment amplifies the loss of trust associated with the use of coercion. This result contradicts Jain et al.'s (2014) results as they found that affective commitment buffered this relationship, while calculative commitment moderation was not significant. Similarly, Ganesan et al. (2010) found that affective commitment buffered suppliers from mildly opportunistic acts but amplified the negative reaction to acts deemed severely opportunistic. In addition, they found that calculative commitment buffered the effects of mild ethical violations but not acts viewed as opportunistic. Jain et al. (2014) did not include normative commitment in their study, nor did Ganesan (et al. (2010), but an important outcome from our study was the significant moderating role for normative commitment for both coercive and non-coercive power on trust. Normative commitment functioned as both an amplifier and a buffer, increasing the positive effect

associated with the use of non-coercive power (amplifying) but reducing the negative impact of the use of coercive power (buffer).

Managerial Implications

Our results suggest partners committed to the relationship out of a sense of obligation or duty apparently react less negatively to coercion and more positively to promises and rewards, which allows managers more flexibility in how they manage cooperation in the relationship with less worry about negative consequences for the relationship. Though not as easily influenced by supplier actions as other forms of commitment (Bansal et al., 2004), managers need to consider how build normative commitment. Positive rewards and incentives (non-coercive power) offer two paths to creating normative commitment depending on how they are used. Rewards that are considered benevolent can encourage gratitude, while other rewards can result in indebtedness (Pelser et al., 2015). Rewards that are tied to an expectation for future activity or those that are justified based on an obligation to the partnership likely have a better chance encouraging normative commitment via indebtedness at least until the perceived debt is repaid. Similarly, when either rewards/incentives or penalties (coercive power) are tied to specific relationship behaviors, relational expectations are reinforced. Over time, these expectations become the foundation for relational norms and part of the obligation to the partnership. Managers should consider the potential for rewards and penalties to impact normative commitment as partners might be less inclined to terminate a relationship based on a sense of obligation or sense of duty than for economic reasons (Gilliland & Bello, 2002).

Our results suggest that both trust and dependence offer paths to performance and loyalty. While we did not explicitly consider different options for creating trust and dependence in partners, our results do have implications for managers as to what might be appropriate strategies for doing so. Rather than focus on specific actions that might increase trust or dependence individually, managers would be more successful considering carefully what they might do to encourage both trust and dependence simultaneously to leverage the impact on both potential paths to performance and loyalty. Managers can use positive or negative motivation to increase trust and dependence. One positive motivation opportunity to create trust and dependence simultaneously is flexibility (e.g., changing scheduling or orders). Flexibility signals an expectation of continuity in a relationship which would encourage strategic integration (Johnson, 1999). Han et al. (2014) suggest supplier flexibility to be an important determinant of trust and other positive relational outcomes. Higher levels of cooperation and trust increase relationship value dependence. While positive motivations can have the potential to increase trust and dependence simultaneously, threats and punishments can also increase dependence directly either through increasing the potential for lost economic value associated with the relationship (relationship value dependence) or the potential latent costs faced if the relationship ended (switching cost dependence). Hoppner et al. (2014) suggest that while coercion is detrimental to performance in all relationships, it is less harmful for high dependence scenarios. Actions or demands by a partner that are perceived to be somewhat unfair (low levels of unfairness or fair) have relatively little impact on negative perceptions by the partner, while higher levels of perceived unfairness have more significant negative consequences for the relationship (Ganesan et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2011; Samaha et al., 2011). Given our results, managers should use a combination of incentive programs that both encourage positive perceptions of trust such as flexibility and adaptations, but also some that increase switching cost dependence and thereby

improve performance through both paths. In addition, negative motivations can be used, but should be used strategically since perceptions of unfairness could result in switching or other negative consequences.

Finally, one of the important suggestions in the B2B/channels literature is that relationships develop over time (e.g., Johnson, 1999; Palmatier et al., 2013). Different relationship stages warrant different approaches for success given the potential for building trust and dependence. Firm relationships can be partly a function of developing personal relationships (e.g., Jiang et al., 2011), but personal versus organizational relationships are distinctly different as trust with a firm includes both relational and economic considerations (e.g., Mouzas et al., 2007). Over time, satisfaction with a B2B relationship shifts from economic concerns to social satisfaction (Ha et al., 2016), which suggests firms should encourage economic ties initially, but shift to a more prominent focus on relational benefits as the relationship matures. Consequently, trust could be a more important factor for influencing strategic performance for different partners at different stages (Akrout, 2015, p. 23). As a result, firms should consider efforts to increase dependence, particularly switching cost dependence during the initial stages of a relationship since it impacts both strategic and financial performance directly. In later stages, cooperation, communication, and other relationship specific investments can build trust via affective and perhaps normative commitment which can increase strategic performance and hence loyalty.

Limitations and Future Research
Although our study provides several important contributions to the existing literature, possible limitations exist which may provide opportunities for future research, First, while our results represent a wide range of companies, industries, and B2B relationships, we did not explicitly consider longitudinal data or other market characteristics in our framework or analysis, and this limits our ability to understand potentially significant boundary conditions for our findings. Palmatier et al. (2007) provide evidence that strong relationships that include high levels of trust enhance financial performance in markets with uncertainty, but the dependence structure does not appear affected by market uncertainty. This presents an interesting possibility that dependence might be more effective than trust as a driver of performance in markets that are less stable. An investigation into the potential impact of market uncertainty, market diversity, risk or other market characteristics on the model would be fruitful for future research and provide important contributions to both theory and practice.

Another key consideration for future research would be to consider the potential impact of technology on the model as technology has the potential to impact several of the key constructs in different ways. Technology, particularly information systems that include inventory management and other process options, is one of the most common opportunities to create dependence (Osmonbekov and Gruen 2013). However, such systems offered by the partner are in many ways a double-edged sword as evidence indicates dependence will increase once adopted, but also that partners who are more dependent will be more likely to adopt such systems and trust is not necessarily a byproduct (Burgers et al., 2010; Osmonbekov and Gruen 2013). Such systems could increase dependence, particularly switching cost dependence since a firm would have invested time and resources learning the specific system used in the partnership but might have to learn an entirely new system with a new partner, perhaps one that was less desirable or did not include the same familiar functionality. In addition, technology is used to

monitor performance and make real time adjustments (i.e., dashboards etc.), which has the potential to encourage trust and performance directly. As an example, Shi and Liao (2015) found that trust and dependence both have direct positive influence on e-business integration, which impacts operational performance. In their study, they found that trust also had a direct effect on operational performance, but the effect of dependence on operational performance was partially mediated by e-business integration. Committing to an integrated information system, e-commerce platform, or other electronic business element requires a significant investment and trust is not always present in relationships that could benefit from such integration (Burgers et al., 2010). Additional research is needed to understand both the potential positive and negative consequences of technology on the model.

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Appendix A

Panel A: Outer Model Psychometric Assessment

Latent Constructs/Indicators	Outer Loadings	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)	Stone-Geisser Q^2
Coercive Power (CP) – Leonidou, Talias and Leonidou (2008)				
If we fail to comply with the supplier's requests, it results in financial and other penalties against our company.	.785	.190	.897	-
If we don't comply with the supplier's demands, they withhold important support from our firm.	.818	.078	.916	
In order to make us submit to their demands, the supplier threatens to deal with another distributor.	.855	.677	.981	
If we do not comply with the supplier's requests, they threaten to take legal action.	.895	.808	.997	
Non-Coercive Power (NP) - Leonidou, Talias and Leonidou (2008)				
When we are reluctant to cooperate, the supplier offers specific incentives.	.854	.622	.994	-
The supplier demands our compliance because they know that we appreciate and admire them.	.711	.154	.901	
The supplier uses their unique competence to make our company accept their recommendations.	.842	.483	.954	
Trust (TR) - Jain, Khalil, Johnston and Cheng (2014)				

Our supplier keeps promises it makes to our firm.	.861	.856	.912	.026
Representatives from our supplier are trustworthy.	.823	.768	.865	
Representatives from our supplier are honest with us.	.781	.713	.832	
Switching Cost Dependence (SCD) - Geiger et al. (2014)				
The sum of disadvantages associated with a potential switch to another customer/supplier is probably very high.	.797	.726	.853	.040
My company would lose a lot by switching to another supplier.	.866	.831	.898	
Overall, I guess the costs (time, effort, and money) to switch to another relationship would be very high.	.885	.850	.912	
Altogether, the barriers for my company to terminate the current relationship and establish an alternative relationship would be very high.	.878	.831	.909	
Relationship Value Dependence (RVP) - Geiger et al. (2014)				
This relationship is an outstanding value to us.	.854	.811	.882	.290
All in all, the benefits of this relationship far outweigh the disadvantages.	.758	.679	.822	
This customer/supplier relationship makes a crucial positive contribution to our company's achievement of goals.	.823	.761	.868	
This relationship strongly matches our conception of an optimal relationship.	.842	.807	.873	
This relationship meets the requirements of my company in all important aspects.	.861	.822	.894	
Strategic Performance (SP) – Ramaseshan, Yip and Pae (2006)				

Our supplier has helped us gain a strategic advantage over our competition.	.924	.890	.943	.327
The relationship has resulted in strategic advantage for us.	.946	.928	.956	
We have gained benefits that enable us to compete more effectively in the marketplace.	.901	.872	.925	

Financial Performance (FP) –Johnson (1999)

Our relationship with our supplier has increased our market share.	.934	.916	.948	.555
Our relationship with our supplier has generated a high volume of sales.	.937	.905	.957	
Our relationship with our supplier has helped achieve rapid growth.	.931	.908	.949	

Loyalty (LY) – Kumar, Sheer and Steenkamp (1995)

Assuming there is a need, we intend to continue doing business with our supplier for the foreseeable future.	.927	.905	.943	.071
Assuming there is a need, we will continue to have a relationship with our supplier over the next year.	.897	.836	.926	
Assuming there is a need, we will continue to have a relationship with our supplier over the next 3 to 5 years.	.891	.847	.920	

Panel B: Reliability, Validity and Correlations

	AVE	α	rho	*CP*	*NP*	*TR*	*SCD*	*RVP*	*SP*	*FP*	*LY*
Coercive Power (CP)	.704	.872	.963	1.00							
Non-Coercive Power (NP)	.648	.741	.801	.362	1.00						
Trust (TR)	.693	.778	.782	-.105	.107	1.00					
Switching Cost Dependence (SCD)	.735	.880	.891	.082	.108	.138	1.00				
Relationship Value Dependence (RVP)	.687	.886	.893	-.093	.105	.657	.243	1.00			

Strategic Performance (SP)	.853	.914	.915	.101	.263	.416	.423	.539	1.00		
Financial Performance (FP)	.873	.927	.927	.155	.263	.354	.138	.468	.796	1.00	
Loyalty (LY)	.819	.890	.893	-.175	.098	.291	.290	.516	.288	.178	1.00

Appendix B: Moderator Scale Assessment

Panel A: Outer Model Psychometric Assessment	
Latent Constructs/Indicators*	Loadings
Affective Commitment (AC)	
We want to stay in the relationship with our supplier because we feel the relationship to be efficient.	.657
We want to stay in the relationship with our supplier because we enjoy working with them.	.839
We want to stay in the relationship with our supplier because our philosophy matches with theirs.	.821
We want to stay in the relationship with our supplier because we think positively about them.	.878
We want to stay in the relationship with our supplier because we are loyal to them.	.670
Normative Commitment (NC)	
In part we feel morally obliged to do so.	.734
It is our duty to strengthen our ties with this supplier.	.719
Our employees who work with this supplier would feel guilty if we dropped them as a supplier.	.701
Positive Calculative Commitment (PCC)	
So far, the benefits our firm has received from this relationship are greater than the costs that have been incurred by us.	.680
We are receiving fair value from our investments in this relationship.	.839
Overall, our firm is receiving fair value from this relationship.	.915
Negative Calculative Commitment (NCC)	
Changing from this supplier to another would cost us too much.	.705
It would be very difficult for us to find a replacement for this supplier.	.719

Panel B: Reliability, Validity and Correlations

	AVE	α	*AC*	*NC*	*PCC*	*NCC*
Affective Commitment (AC)	.606	.869	1.00			
Normative Commitment (NC)	.516	.767	.533	1.00		
Positive Calculative Commitment (PCC)	.668	.847	.591	.220	1.00	
Negative Calculative Commitment (NCC)	.507	.701	.141	.480	.343	1.00

* Source of items: Jain, Khalil, Johnston and Cheng (2014) and Cater and Cater (2010).

TABLE 1

Sample Characteristics

Purchaser Functional Area	%	N	Supplier Functional Area	%	N
Automotive (sales, parts, service)	2.01%	6	Automotive (Wholesale, Parts, Equip.)	4.03%	12
Construction	2.68%	8	Beauty products	0.67%	2
Education	12.08%	36	Business services	7.38%	22
Electrical (installation, parts)	1.01%	3	Cleaning Products (resell, industrial)	3.36%	10
Engineering	1.68%	5	Clothing (resell, uniform)	6.04%	18
Entertainment (theater, amusement)	2.01%	6	Construction (service, equipment)	7.05%	21
Environmental	1.68%	5	Education	6.04%	18
Equipment (sales and service)	0.34%	1	Equipment	3.69%	11
Financial (banking, brokerage)	3.36%	10	Food (restaurant, gen. merch. retailers)	8.72%	26
Food (intermediaries reselling to retailers)	2.68%	8	General Merchandise (jewelry, books, tobacco, magazines, video, electronics, toys, fitness)	4.03%	12
Gov./Non-Profit (military, non-profit)	7.38%	22	Health (pharmaceutical, equipment, supplies)	11.74%	35
Healthcare (in-home, nursing, equipment)	8.72%	26	Home decor (furniture, carpet, décor)	1.68%	5
Hospitality (event planning)	3.69%	11	IT (hardware, software, service)	10.07%	30
Insurance	1.01%	3	Logistics	1.68%	5
IT (hardware, software, Wi-Fi)	9.73%	29	Manufacturing (multiple goods)	3.69%	11
Law Firms	2.01%	6	Office supplies and equipment	14.43%	43
Logistics (industrial)	3.36%	10	Raw materials	3.36%	10
Manufacturer	4.70%	14	other	2.35%	7
Medical (physicians, dental)	3.36%	10			
Raw Materials (all forms)	3.36%	10			
Real Estate	1.01%	3			
Restaurant (fast food, fine dining)	1.34%	4			
Retail (department, convenience specialty)	9.73%	29			
Security	0.67%	2			
Services (B2B/B2C)	5.37%	16			
Wholesale (distributors)	2.35%	7			
Other	2.68%	8			
Total	**100.00%**	**296**	**Total**	**100.00%**	**296**

TABLE 2

Path Estimates of Inner Model

Path Estimate of Baseline Model	H_i	Path coefficient	Effect size (f^2)	Significance*
Coercive Power -> Trust	H_{1a}	**-.175**	**.029**	**CI(-.255--.001)**
Non-Coercive Power -> Trust	H_{1b}	**.189**	**.034**	**CI(.012-.286)**
Trust -> Relationship Value Dependence	H_{3a}	**.654**	**.745**	**CI(.560-.729)**
Trust -> Switching Cost Dependence	H_{3b}	-.036	.001	CI(-.203-.133)
Relationship Value Dependence -> Switching Cost Dependence	H_{3c}	**.266**	**.043**	**CI(.094-.446)**
Trust -> Strategic Performance	H_{4a}	**.169**	**.009**	**CI(.056-.261)**
Relationship Value Dependence ->Strategic Performance	H_{4b}	**.425**	**.157**	**CI(.285-.578)**
Relationship Value Dependence ->Financial Performance	H_{4c}	.095	.005	CI(-.028-.140)
Switching Cost Dependence ->Strategic Performance	H_{4d}	**.312**	**.150**	**CI(.202-.418)**
Switching Cost Dependence ->Financial Performance	H_{4e}	**.098**	**.022**	**CI(.021-.188)**
Strategic Performance ->Financial Performance	H_{4f}	**.735**	**.916**	**CI(.645-.811)**
Strategic Performance ->Loyalty	H_{5a}	**.403**	**.065**	**CI(.242-.596)**
Financial Performance -> Loyalty	H_{5b}	-.143	.008	CI(-.348-.036)

*p-value ≤ .05 in bold

Table 3

Commitment Moderation Assessment*

Linear Relationship/ Commitment Moderator	Int. β	Model CI		Conditional Effect at Moderator Values									r^2
		Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)	+1 Standard Deviation			Mean			-1 Standard Deviation			
				Effect	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)	Effect	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)	Effect	Lower bound (95%)	Upper bound (95%)	
Coercive Power -> Trust													
Affective	.0330	-.0207	.0935	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**.4622**
Normative	**.0575**	.0105	.1045	**-.2022**	-.3131	-.0913	**-.1185**	-.1945	-.0424	-.0347	-.1277	.0583	**.1631**
Positive Calculative	.0435	-.0189	.2859	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**.3129**
Negative Calculative	**.0499**	.0010	.0988	**-.1549**	-.2717	-.0380	-.0788	-.1586	.0009	-.0028	-.1037	.0981	**.0574**
Non-Coercive Power -> Trust													
Affective	**-.0657**	-.1267	-.0048	**.1519**	.0363	.2676	**.0687**	.0020	.1394	-.0146	-.1070	.0779	**.4107**
Normative	**-.0668**	-.1209	-.0728	**.1492**	.0390	.2593	.0630	-.0078	.1337	-.0232	-.1103	.0640	**.4144**
Positive Calculative	-.0362	-1193	.0469	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**.3650**
Negative Calculative	.0298	-.0232	.0828	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.0576

*p-value ≤ .05 in bold

Figure 1
Conceptual Model
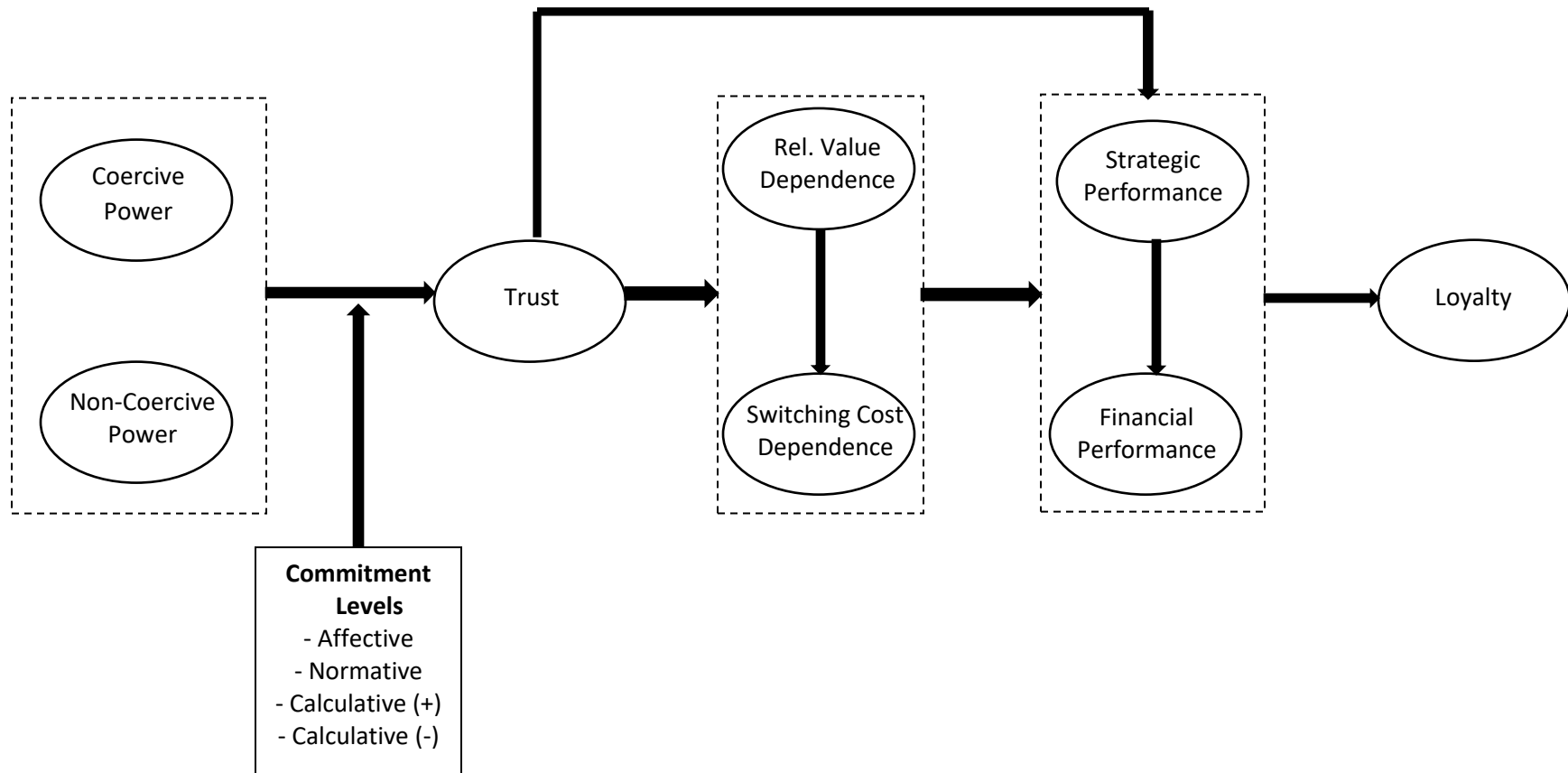
Figure 2
Graph of Signifant Moderation Effects
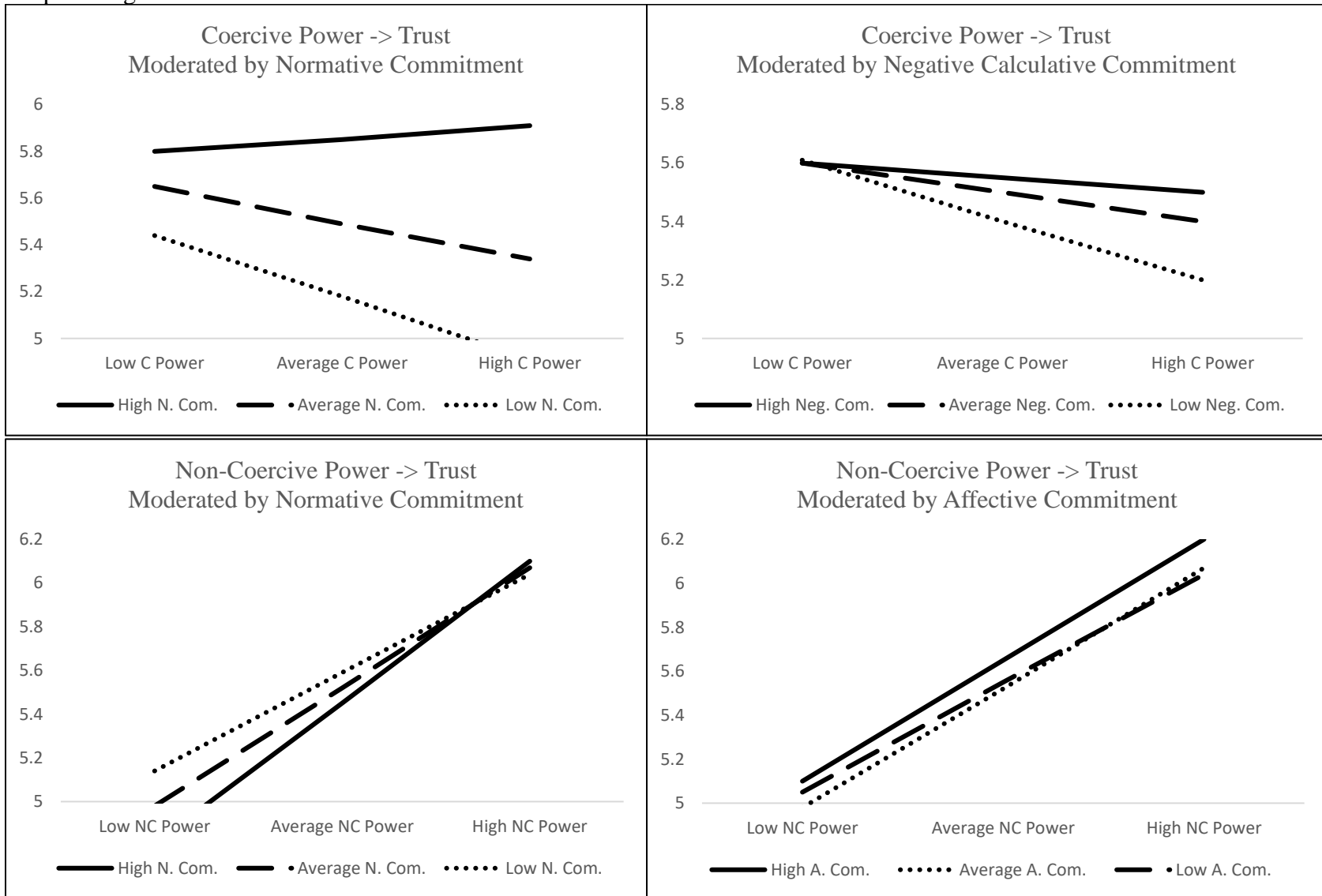
Summary Brief

See What You Want to See: Perception of Innovation Capabilities among Front-line Employees

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The current research examines the impact of self-construal (i.e., interdependent and independent) among frontline employees on the perception of an organization's innovation capabilities. We explore two types of motivational factors, knowledge sharing and problem-solving, as underlined mechanisms under the situation where employees experience job stress. To be more specific, we propose that frontline employees with independent (vs. interdependent) self-construal are demotivated (vs. motivated) to solve-problem (vs. knowledge sharing), leading to a decreased (vs. increased) perception of the organization's radical (vs. incremental) innovation capability under the environments where stressing front-line employees. The current research sheds light on the importance of self-construal and their different types of perceptions of innovation capabilities towards organizations as well as provides practical implications for managers to selectively motivate their employees in different ways to accomplish the alignment of innovation goals between employees and organizations.

Introduction

"IBMers," and "Mac Geniuses" are nicknames of Front-Line Employees (FLEs). These nicknames represent the degrees of how FLEs are closely related to organizations. For organizations, FLEs including salespeople and agencies are critical in maximizing profits and other service-related outcomes because they are charged with sales, disseminating information to their consumers, and transforming the problems into opportunities for organizations (Korschun, Bhattacharya, and Swain, 2014; Janssen, 2000; Stock, 2015). Furthermore, past literature identified that FLEs play a vital role in the innovation activities of the organizations (Engen and Magnusson, 2014). To be more specific, transferring, designing, and implementing knowledge (Karlsson and Skalen, 2015) are their key roles in organizations. FLEs are also important for process- and technology-related innovations for firms (Cadwallader et al., 2010; Engen and Magnusson, 2015; Ye et al., 2012). With the acknowledgment of the importance of FLEs in organizations, past research examined the positive impacts of intrinsic motivations, rewards, and organizational systems on their satisfaction and performance (e.g., Fazio, Powell, and Williams 1989).

While FLEs are important for an organization's performance, it is also important to understand how FLEs perceive their organization's capabilities because the perception helps FLEs to incorporate their organizational goal into their jobs (Grizzle et al. 2009). Past literature documented that FLEs who perceived corporate social responsible abilities of organizations show better performance on interactions with their consumers and organizations (Korschun, Bhattacharya, and Swain, 2014). While past research underlined the importance of FLEs and their perception of their organizations (e.g., Korschun, Bhattacharya, and Swain, 2014), there is a dearth of research examining how FLEs perceive organizational capabilities regarding innovations.

Theoretical Background

We assume that an important dimension of employee performance is related to self-construal (i.e., how an employee makes meaning to themselves relative to others). Regarding to self-construal, there are two types of self-construal – independent and interdependent. Individuals with a higher level of independent self-construal define themselves by referencing internal traits, while individuals with a higher level of interdependent self-construal find themselves by referencing involved groups (Markus and Kitayama 1991). With the consideration of the importance of both self-construal and perception of innovation capabilities, the current research tries to address the following question: How does the self-construal of FLEs (independent vs. interdependent) affect their perception of a firm's innovation capabilities? Additionally, past literature shows that FLEs experience threats very frequently verbally and physically (Grandey et al. 2004). In this situation, for FLEs who experienced threats from consumers and organizational climate, how would they perceive their organizational innovation capabilities?

Using research from self-construal and motivation, we develop a conceptual model of self-construal, motivations, and perceptions of innovation capabilities towards their organizations. Specifically, we posit that FLEs with independent (vs. interdependent) self-construal are more likely shapes the perception of innovation capabilities radically (vs. incrementally) towards their organizations. That is, FLEs with independent (vs. interdependent) self-construal prefer radical (vs. incremental) innovations (Crowe and Higgins, 1997; Li, Lin, and Liu, 2019). Over time, such types of preference toward creativity and problem solving can reflect in their perceptions of their organization's innovation outcomes and capabilities (e.g., Ajzen, 1991). Furthermore, we posit that identity threats can change the relationship between self-construal and FLEs' perception of innovation capabilities. Past literature examined the importance of threats for self-construal that threats can change the associative (or dissociative) effects among different levels of self-construal (White, Simpson, and Argo, 2014). In this sense, the current research argues that FLEs with independent (vs. interdependent) self-construal would more (vs. less) likely to be motivated to solve a problem (vs. share knowledge).

Contribution and Limitation

We contribute to service innovation and FLE literature by examining how self-construal impacts the perception of innovation capabilities among FLEs. While considerable literature underlined the importance of FLEs on product and service innovation. Practically, our study provides important insights for business managers who are interested in service innovations and managing their FLEs' perception of innovation capabilities. We recommend service managers to understand the importance of self-construal among FLEs to motivate them differently and build strong and meaningful relationships between employees and organizations. While we provide several contributions to service innovation and self-construal literature, there is room to consider in the near future. Although we examined the two important motivations (knowledge sharing and problem-solving), there could be other motivations that could affect the types of innovation. In addition to knowledge sharing and problem-solving motivations, protection motivation can be activated among employees, and it can lead to different types of communication among FLEs.

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SESSION 8C: INNOVATIONS IN TEACHING SESSION I

CHAIR:

Larry Neale

Summary Brief

Designing a client-based Service-Learning Project for an Asynchronous Online Digital Marketing Course: An Educator- Practitioner Collaboration

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The effectiveness of service-learning projects is well-documented in pedagogical literature. However, service-learning in an emerging course, such as Digital Marketing, poses extra challenges in accommodating changing needs of the industry. Particularly when the industry accepts the remote work trend and expects the incumbent to be familiar with the immersive official work environment. At the same time, the industry demands many other skills (e.g., content development and website tracking) beyond analysis and reporting. We addressed these challenges by designing and implementing an extreme VSL course where learning and service delivery took place virtually. Collaborating with a B2B community partner, we implemented the extreme VSL with multiple projects accommodating a wide range of service-learning requirements about Digital Marketing. The paper details the special context, execution, and lesson from this collaborative initiative. Our experience will assist aspiring educators in designing and executing extreme VSL courses to meet changing industry needs.

Introduction

The effectiveness of service-learning projects is well-documented in pedagogical literature (Easterling & Rudell 1997). However, service-learning in an emerging course, such as Digital Marketing, poses extra challenges in accommodating changing needs of the industry. Particularly when the industry accepts the remote work trend and expects the incumbent to be familiar with the immersive official work environment. At the same time, the industry demands many other skills (e.g., content development and website tracking) beyond analysis and reporting. We addressed these challenges by designing and implementing an extreme Virtual Service Learning (VSL) course where learning and service delivery took place virtually (Waldner, McGorry & Widener 2010). Collaborating with a B2B community partner, we implemented the extreme VSL with multiple projects accommodating a wide range of service-learning requirements about Digital Marketing. The paper details the special context, execution, and lesson from this collaborative initiative. Our experience will assist aspiring educators in designing and executing extreme VSL courses to meet changing industry needs.

The community partner was involved in course design and course evaluation. The community partner was the critical information course regarding the changing industry needs. Our approach was unique in that the course offered a service-learning experience based on the changing industry needs. In doing so, first, the on-demand digital marketing skills were facilitated through 34 nos. service-learning projects. Second, extreme online modality (i.e., both instructions and service conducted online) offered a chance to experience an immersive remote working experience for the students. The paper details the course's preparation, development, and execution. We also identify the pros and cons of our approach and suggest further improvements based on our experience. This collaborative paper will assist faculty and community partners in developing similar courses in the future.

The Context

As an emerging field of study, digital marketing poses significant challenges and offers ample opportunities to the faculty. On the one hand, the industry prefers an incumbent who can perform basic tasks, such as setting up Google Analytics Accounts, developing a content calendar, or designing an e-mail marketing campaign. This preference ranges from analyzing a small trend to developing content for the industry, per se. On the other hand, learning these skills often goes beyond individual learning scopes and requires a real-life business setting in the context of digital marketing. For example, the industry will prefer an incumbent who practically sets and run a Google Analytics account of a firm than just an incumbent who claims to know how to set it up. Thus, integrating a service-learning pedagogy in digital marketing pose complex challenges to the faculty. The faculty, if choose to integrate service-learning in the course, must – (1) identify the industry needs at this moment, (2) find out the community

partner who can facilitate the projects that address those needs, and (3) align the complex web of course module, industry requirements, and community partners scopes. We find client-based service learning a possible solution to this context.

One Possible Solution- Client-based Service Learning

Fortunately, collaboration with active industry partners offers opportunities to address all three concerns. As we have seen, the community partner can be a reliable source of industry requirements. In our case, the community partner is a marketing consulting firm in the Midwest of the U.S.A. The collaboration began in the summer of 2021. We collaborate over two semesters. Our course design and implementation are consistent with Kolb's Experimental Learning Cycle (Petkus 2000).

Lesson learned

A client-based service learning is beneficial for all the related stakeholders. We found that the approach brings fresh requirements from the industry to challenge an evolving pedagogy of digital marketing. At the same time, it prepares the students for business as they serve the real client with practical business needs. Moreover, the project is a resume builder and an opportunity for a summer internship with service partners and clients. Community partners and clients gained fresh and creative business solutions in audio-visual content, advertisement plans, analysis, and other digital services.

The successful execution of client-based service-learning rests on the collaboration of the instructor and community partner to achieve students learning outcomes and community goals simultaneously. The execution demands time and enthusiastic participation from the instructor and community partners. The barrier to communication can easily be addressed with the available technology.

Limitations and Conclusion

Students' reflection is not covered in this paper. Although a reflection report from each student-participant was available, the reflections were not summarized here because the student might feel pressure to minimize negative experiences and amplify positive experiences of the project (Becnel and Moeller 2017). However, students rated the course highly (4.6 out of 5.0), which suggests satisfaction from the student end.

A client-based based service-learning may offer solutions to emerging digital marketing pedagogy by offering a wide range of service options and by reflecting the contemporary needs of the industry. Enthusiastic participation from the instructor, students, and community partners will ensure the successful design, execution, and evaluation of client-based service learning.

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SESSION 8D: IF MARKETING WERE A HALLOWEEN MOVIE

CHAIR:

Jessica Weeks

Summary Brief
Darker than dark: An Exploration of Online Review Manipulations

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Online reviews are some of the most trusted sources of information. In fact, nearly half of the individuals who are planning to make a major purchase search the internet first (Kunst, 2022). In the "post-trust era" (Pelletier et al. 2021) where even social media isn't trusted, media and advertising distrust have been prevalent for even longer, online product reviews generated by fellow customers might appear to be a trustworthy source of product-related information. Unfortunately, online review manipulation has become more prevalent among fierce online competitors. The study focuses on online reviews and uncovers the dark side of online product reviews. Multiple qualitative methods were used including a netnography and interviews as well as content analysis of review recruitment emails.

Introduction

The purpose of online reviews is to help potential customers read about experiences written by actual customers on a merchant website or a third-party site where customers can compare reviews of multiple merchants. Online review systems ultimately affect every industry, including tourism, technology, home goods, beauty products, local businesses, and small job providers. If one can buy a product or service, one can typically read a review before making a decision.

The benefits of online reviews are numerous. Various industry reports suggest that consumers read online reviews extensively and frequently. Generally, 9 out of 10 customers consult online reviews prior to purchase, but the numbers across demographic groups. The relevance of online reviews is likely to increase as the pandemic continues and shopping patterns continue to shift. From 2019 to 2020, online spending has increased by 44% (Garcia, 2021), so online reputation has likely played a role in helping consumers choose where they will do their mid-pandemic shopping. The importance of reviews on Amazon.com (hereafter, Amazon) transcends the record of favorable and unfavorable opinions. Consumers do not merely look at reviews to find products with 5-star reviews. When evaluating a business, they look at customer experience, product quality, consistency, relevancy, and diversity before deciding whether to spend their money (Filieri, 2015, Vázquez-Casielles, Suárez-Álvarez, & Del Rio-Lanza, 2013, Kusumasondjaja, Shanka, Marchegiani, 2012). They also consider reviewer quality, trustworthiness and the frequency and quantity of product reviews (Banerjee, Bhattacharyya, & Bose, 2017, Cheng & Ho, 2014).

To determine how users might spot fake reviews, scholars have analyzed linguistic differences between authentic and fake reviews and identified measures of review quality. Others have analyzed the impact of reviews on sales and visibility, some of the strategies in online manipulation, the impact of fake reviews on consumers, and the morality of biased reviewers (Heydari, Tavakoli, Salim, & Heydari, 2015, Rynarzewska, 2019, Mukherjee, Liu, & Glance, 2012, Fayazi, Lee, Caverlee, & Squicciarini, 2015). Investigating the way merchants manipulate review pools could help policy makers, consumers, and third-party reviewing sites expose disingenuous content. Moreover, identifying the drivers or antecedents of review manipulation can protect merchant and consumer and restore authentic competition as well as consumer trust. To address these gaps in the research, we conducted content analysis, netnography, and in-depth interviews to uncover strategies used in online product review manipulation and the drivers behind each one. The goal was to expand existing knowledge about online review manipulation, potentially helping decision and policy makers reduce deceptive behaviors among merchants, increase competitive fairness, and restore declining consumer trust.

Background

Online product reviews are a unique version of word of mouth (WOM) marketing. WOM is the oldest marketing tactic: communication about the benefits and effectiveness of goods and services between an individual and their family, friends, and acquaintances (Brown and Reingen, 1987; Laczniak, De Carlo, Ramaswami, 2001, Herr, Kardes, and Kim, 1991). WOM preserves credibility of evaluation because it comes from a person already trusted by others and because the evaluating individual, being known by others, has a reason to maintain a favorable reputation.

As the internet grew, online product reviews became popular. Online product reviews are an extension of traditional WOM because the communication is electronic (i.e., eWOM) and now has the potential to reach strangers. Online product reviews decrease the uncertainty and the transaction costs of online shopping (Hu, Liu, and Zhang, 2008), although a degree of self-selection bias does affect the ratings as well (Li & Hitt, 2008).

The mere presence of online reviews implies merchant transparency and builds trust Cheng & Ho, 2015). The effect of online reviews on trust simplifies consumer decision making and help gain confidence in purchase (Sparks, & Browning, 2011, Kusumasondjaja, Shanka, & Marchegiani, 2012). Trust in marketing is a key factor for building strong, lasting relationships with consumer and contributes to loyalty (Eveland, Crutchfield, & Rynarzewska, 2018). In fact, in times where relationship marketing is considered superior to other forms of marketing, the importance of trust cannot simply be underestimated.

As online reviews have gained importance, the likelihood of misrepresentation, bias, and fraud have also increased, particularly due to the relative lack of regulation found in other forms of marketing. Reports of fake reviews have emerged in popular press. Examples include product reviews written by individuals who never received the product, positive reviews written by employees, negative reviews written by competitors, mailing packages to individuals who never ordered them (i.e., "brushing), incentivized reviews, and obscuring the relationship between a brand and the reviewer. Fairly recently, the Federal Trade Commission (FTC) has implemented a regulation to protect reviewers from pressure by sellers to give a more favorable review than earned (i.e., The Review Fairness Act) and a regulation to protect consumers from biased reviews (i.e., reviewers must disclose their relationship with the seller or brand). Unfortunately for merchants, these new regulations have compromised the potential benefit of product evaluation. First, previous findings show that reviews in social media settings that disclosed a relationship with the brand were less persuasive than reviews without such a disclosure. Second, due to proliferation of third-party review sites and the impact that reviews have on consumer decision making, the potential for review manipulation by competitors has forced businesses to find ways to increase the number and favorability of their reviews. While the new regulations protect customers from being manipulated, brands can no longer safely rely on incentivized product reviews.

Research Methods

To examine the strategies in which sellers or their representatives engage, we used a triangulated method to observe the phenomena. Triangulation is the reliance on more than one method of observation in order to cross-check the findings for a more complete picture of the phenomena under investigation. The methods used in the current study include content analysis of email, netnography, and in-depth interviews. Grounded theory and thematic analysis were the main approach to analysis of data. Results and samples of the qualitative analysis will be presented during the presentation.

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Summary Brief

Negative Consequences of Hashtags: Understanding When Hashtags Have Negative Outcomes and Why

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Social media is an important tool for most businesses, and many marketers use social media functions like hashtags to promote their campaigns and encourage awareness and engagement. While researchers have explored how marketers use hashtags and how hashtags can be more effectively written, less research has explored how the presence of hashtags can influence how social media content is processed. The current research explores how the absence or presence of hashtags can influence perceived processing difficulty and suggests that because hashtag presence increases perceived processing difficulty leading to less comprehension of main communication points, hashtags can have a negative influence on purchase intentions. It finds that the format of the post in which the hashtags appear, information- or story-based, can mitigate this negative effect; notably, when the post tells a story, hashtag presence or absence does not impact purchase likelihood as it does when the post format is more informational.

Introduction

Social media has become a popular way for brands to connect with consumers, generate new leads, and encourage website traffic (Stelzner 2022). One notable tool that is used by both brands and consumers to connect in social media posts is the hashtag. Hashtags function as links to related content and are made up of a string of characters with no space and preceded by the # symbol (Pérez-Hernández 2018). Brands commonly use hashtags in their social media posts to indicate a campaign slogan or to participate in an existing topic of conversation, such as #Thanksgiving or #NationalPizzaDay (Pérez-Hernández 2018). Most research on social media marketing explores the contents of the hashtag, such as what kinds of things consumers and brands tend to write when they create hashtags, and how the words used influence online engagement like comments and sharing. However, little research has explored how the simple presence (or absence) of hashtags could influence the way social media content is processed. Extant literature in processing fluency provides some evidence to suggest that the way hashtags are indicated in social media posts (that is, with a # symbol) and the way they are written (with no spaces) could negatively influence the effectiveness of the post. The current research explores this possibility.

Background

Processing fluency can be used to explain how the presence of hashtags could influence the effectiveness of a brand's social media content. Processing fluency is a broad concept that explains the subjective perceived ease with which a person is able to process information (Alter and Oppenheimer 2009). Research has found that the inclusion of symbols in text (Alter et al. 2007) and the removal of spaces between words (Veldre et al. 2017) are associated with reduced fluency and thus, greater perceived processing difficulty. Since hashtags on social media include a symbol (#) and often incorporate phrases with no spaces, such as a slogan (e.g., #JustDoIt for Nike), it is expected that social media posts in which hashtags are present should reduce fluency and thus be associated with greater perceived processing difficulty as compared to social media posts in which hashtags are absent. Perceived processing difficulty often influences consumers' perceptions and judgments because consumers hold naïve theories about the implications of easy (or difficult) processing (Alter and Oppenheimer 2009). For example, if a consumer finds ad copy difficult to read, they might infer a high level of perceived processing difficulty to mean that the copy is badly written and consequently like the ad less. Consequently, greater perceived processing difficulty has been associated with a negative attitudes toward the ad and brand and reduced purchase intentions (Storme 2015). Thus, since it is expected that social media posts that incorporate hashtags should be associated with greater perceived

processing difficulty, leading to reduced comprehension of message claims, greater perceived processing difficulty should also lead to reduced perceived purchase likelihood.

Posts that take on a story format are proposed to mitigate the negative effect of hashtag presence on purchase likelihood. Stories are processed in a unique way that does not adhere to dual-processing theories like the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Escalas 2007); instead, stories persuade through a process called narrative transportation. Narrative transportation is the experience of being lost in a story, and the persuasion that results tends to be relatively long-lasting and confidently held, but is not sensitive to message strength (Escalas 2007). Unlike message processing that can be explained through the ELM, in which consumers have negative associations with messages that feel difficult to process (Alter and Oppenheimer 2009) and motivation to process is reduced (Lowrey 1998), when processing begins to feel difficult during narrative transportation consumers tend to be more willing to deploy additional cognitive resources (Bhatnagar and Wan 2011). Therefore, even if a story is actually more difficult to process due to the presence of hashtags, consumers should be motivated to process the story using additional cognitive resources and the feeling of processing difficulty should be reduced.

Key Findings

Study 1 established the main effect; participants that viewed the post with hashtags present reported significantly greater perceived processing difficulty (M = 3.32) compared to those that viewed the post with hashtags absent (M = 1.80; $F(1, 49)$ = 15.83, $p < .001$). Study 2 supported the notion that hashtag presence negatively influenced purchase likelihood through the process of greater perceived processing difficulty (effect: -6.42; 95% CI: -14.59 to -.35). Study 2 also found a relationship between hashtag presence and post format on perceived processing difficulty ($F(1, 111)$ = 3.20, $p = .076$), such that when the post was a story, there was no difference in perceived processing difficulty when hashtags were present (M = 2.28) as compared to absent (M = 2.15; $F(1, 55)$ = .13, $p > .70$). Finally, study 3 found support for the narrative transportation explanation; a moderated mediation model in which the interaction between hashtag presence and format influenced purchase likelihood through narrative transportation was also supported (index = -6.01, 95% CI: -12.64 to -.14).

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Summary Brief
Digital Detox: Attempting to Escape Social Media-induced Stress

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As social media platforms continue to grow and shift the world of marketing, there is increasing public and academic interest in the ways that social media use impacts consumer well-being. The purpose of this research is to better understand why individuals might choose to disconnect, even temporarily, from social media platforms, and the outcomes of those disconnections. Utilizing both qualitative and quantitative methods, the authors examine the factors which might lead individuals to voluntarily take a short break from social media (engage in digital detox). We also examine ways in which digital detoxing can impact feelings of JOMO.

Introduction

Social media has been in existence for more than two decades, and although there is ample research exploring the effect of social media in terms of marketing and engagement effectiveness, the maturity of social media platforms is such that it is now possible and prudent to look at the psychological effect of continued social media usage and exposure to users and consumers. Although there was an initial sense of public euphoria and optimism regarding the connectedness and information provided by social media, this has not always been present in recent times. Exploring this phenomenon, Tufekci (2018) describes the evolution of social media interaction. While the openness and interconnectivity of social media influenced seemingly positive events such as the 2012 Arab Spring, many of the same tools gave rise to the misinformation and combativeness that has come to define modern-day social media interaction (Pelletier et al., 2021). As social media's effect on the public evolves, our study of the impact of social media on its users should evolve in kind.

In this post-trust era, social media has been plagued by scandals, such as accusations of censoring news and opinions, and improper use of data, including sharing of user data. Despite this shift in trust, social media is still very popular among its users, allowing consumers to interact with one another, with brands, and with media outlets. Many brands, small and large, have come to rely on social media marketing. Spending on social media marketing advertising alone is expected to be $134 billion in 2022 (Statista, 2022b). As firms increase their social media spending, it is imperative that they continue to learn about changing social media habits.

Background

Along with the trust-related issues and scandals plaguing social media, there has also been recent attention focused on other unhealthy qualities of social media use, including stress and anxiety related to social media use. Recent research (e.g., Can and Kaya 2016; Dossey 2014), notes excessive compulsion to be connected to social media as having addictive qualities. This excessive use can stem from many sources but is attributed in several studies to feelings of FOMO. FOMO, or the fear of missing out, is defined as " a pervasive apprehension that others might be having rewarding experiences from which one is absent" and can manifest as a need to stay connected to what others are doing (Pryzbylski et al., 2013). FOMO is associated with higher social media engagement, and lower need satisfaction, moos, and life satisfaction (Pryzbylski et al., 2013). Rogers and Barbe (2019) note that FOMO can also lead to excessive social media use, which can cause sleep disorders. However, other studies note that the fear of missing out can lead to social media fatigue (Dhir et al., 2018). This fatigue, among other factors, has led researchers to identify an alternative construct to FOMO: JOMO.

JOMO, or the joy of missing out, refers to "positive feelings, such as joy and excitement, that arise when one has an abundance of mutually exclusive options and the freedom to choose among them" (Aitamurto et al., 2021). This construct has been examined in the social media context by Arnada and Baig (2018), who describe JOMO as "the long or short-term desire to disconnect from social media for the purpose of mitigating the perceived stress caused by being continuously connected to social media." Arnada and Baig (2018) note four types of social media

disconnections that can lead to JOMO, including long-term voluntary disconnections, long-term forced disconnections, short-term forced disconnections, and short-term voluntary disconnections. In the current research, we examine short-term voluntary disconnections, which Arada and Baig (2018) describe as being a short break or brief respite and often coinciding with weekends, vacations, or other life events. Most participants in their study noted that they were more likely to follow through with disconnection when it was short-term and voluntary.

Research Methods

Although JOMO is gaining in popularity as a topic of discussion, particularly in the social media and consumer wellbeing realm, limited literature exists regarding the factors that lead to short-term voluntary disconnections from social media and ultimately to JOMO. Given the importance of social media marketing to many firms, and the potential negative effects of excessive social media use or social media addiction, the purpose of this research is to better understand why individuals might choose to disconnect, even temporarily, from social media platforms, and the outcomes of those disconnections, specifically examining how short-term voluntary disconnections (referred to hereafter as digital detoxing) can impact feelings of JOMO. Thus, we have collected both qualitative and empirical data. A model of inputs and outcomes related to JOMO has been developed utilizing information gleaned from the qualitative studies and quantitative data is in the process of being analyzed. It is our intention to present the model at the conference and detail its implications.

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SESSION 8E: SALES: LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE AND IMPACT ON FIRM VALUE

CHAIR:

Emily Tanner

Summary Brief

The Moderating Roles of Leader-Member Exchange and Coworker Exchange in Shaping the Relationship between Envy and Employee Behaviors at Work

Teng Wang, Hohai University, China
Murong Miao, Northern Michigan University, USA
Susana Jaramillo, The University of Memphis, USA
Yi Peng, Tennessee Technological University, USA

As employees compare to one another, their envious emotions should increase. Research on employee envy focused on employees' actions to reduce the gap between the self and envied targets. This paper seeks to explore the effects of employee envy in organizations. We aim to understand envy-elicited individual and organizational consequences, namely engagement, job performance, and turnover intention. We rely upon social comparison theory as a basis for our studies: this study contains measured survey responses of 236 employees in the US. Our research finds that envy can lead to decreased employee engagement and increased turnover intention. Intriguingly, though envy does not have a direct effect on job performance, envy can negatively affect job performance via engagement. Moreover, we uncover leader-member exchange (LMX) and coworker exchange (CWX) as moderators of the envy to engagement relationship, thus identifying managerial variables that minimize the drawbacks of feeling envious in organizations. Specifically, when an employee has a relatively high quality LMX(CWX) relationship with his/her team leader (coworkers), his/her envy is less likely to diminish job engagement and thus less likely to influence job performance and turnover intention. Our research advances the understanding of envy and its detrimental impacts.

Summary Brief

Analyzing the Impact of Sales Executives on Firm Value

Michael Peasley, Middle Tennessee StateUniversity, USA
George Deitz, The University of Memphis, USA

Introduction

As the primary executive with responsibility over sales strategy, senior sales executives (e.g., chief sales officer, senior vice president) play an integral role in leading efforts to drive firm revenue. In fact, research shows that the salesforce plays a primary role in generating revenue, as spending on the salesforce has a greater impact on revenues than spending on advertising. Thus, sales executives are a vital organ in the strategic development and execution of the firm because they can influence employees to achieve revenue generating goals for the good of the organization and its stakeholders. They lead through communicating a vision to team members and providing resources to implement a strategic plan. They facilitate information gathering, processing, decision making, and serving customers in order for the firm to experience sales growth.

Sales executives along with other C-suite executives must be able to justify their value to their firm and often Wall Street. However, due to the difficulty of isolating the impact of a senior sales executive on the firm, outcomes cannot be easily attributed directly to the sales executive. Since the senior sales executive operates as part of a larger top management team (TMT) and organization, it's unlikely that their solely responsible for the firm's performance. Thus, event study methodology is implemented to examine abnormal stock returns due to announcements of sales executive appointments, examining the empirical effect of the sales executive on firm performance in isolation. Furthermore, the impact of a sales executive announcement is examined under conditions in which the executive will be leading both the sales and marketing functions, has firm-specific experience, has power and influence within the top management team, and whether or not the firm's recent financial performance was strong or poor.

Sales Executive Appointment as a Disruptive Event

Traditional environmental views of organizational change assert that any modification in organization form leads to higher organizational failure. Therefore, reorganization through a change in the senior sales executive or chief sales officer should increase the likelihood of decreased performance. This theoretical position assumes that environments are relatively stable over time and that senior sales executive change is an indication of a more fundamental underlying structural shift or problem and is substantial enough to result in a deleterious misalignment with a firm's environment. When a senior sales executive changes, the result may manifest in two kinds of disruption. First, it can destroy the fit between an organization and its environment because, as a structural change, a succession event results in an organization's radical shift. Second, it can disrupt internal authority relations, breaking the unity of command and disturbing work patterns. Both kinds of disruption may lead to reduced firm performance.

A negative reaction from the market when a new executive is promoted or hired from the outside may come from the perceived signal that an internal problem somewhere in the TMT resulted in the need for a change. Changes in the TMT often exhibit post-turnover corporate restructuring including asset sales, layoffs, expense control, and shifting of the use of resources. Firms may downsize their operations, freeze hiring and capital expenditures, and discuss whether or not to make specific strategic changes. Thus, the announcement of sales executive positions signals that changes are needed because there may be a problem within the firm.

However, there may be conditions in which the announcement of a new sales executive is not viewed as a disruptive event. Four such conditions are discussed here. First, while recent strong performance will likely lead to a negative reception from the market, recent poor performance may lead to a positive reception. The second condition that may not be viewed as a disruptive event is the hiring of a sales executive with experience operating within the firm for which the appointment occurs. This designation, firm-specific experience, is commonly referred to as an insider (i.e., who worked for the firm before taking the new position) or an outsider (i.e., who did not previously work

for the firm). The appointment of an insider is generally viewed as a continuation of the current direction of the firm, whereas the appointment of an outsider is generally viewed as an attempt to change directions and bring in a fresh perspective. Third, announcements involving the hiring of a sales executive outside the TMT may be viewed more positively than the hiring of an executive inside the TMT. Fourth, position duality and integration through the coordination over the marketing and sales functions may be viewed more positively. Many practitioners suggest that the coordination of the sales and marketing functions is one of the most important issues facing organizations and integration should create more value for the firm.

Discussion

This study provides some initial insights into the circumstances under which sales executives contribute to firm value. Given the importance of sales executives to firms and the marketing function, the scarcity of systematic research about them is surprising. Similar to research on chief information officers and chief marketing officers, the present study addresses calls in top management literature to study individual members of the top management team and presents empirical evidence into the effects of individual top management team members.

In addition, the present research responds to calls for marketers to study corporate-level marketing strategy. This research addresses the movement toward corporate-level marketing by combining sales and marketing's role with top management team research. An important responsibility of a CEO is to build an effective top management team. CEOs and their recruiting teams can benefit from understanding the likelihood of a successful hire if they have a better sense of the contingencies involved in sales executive success. By emphasizing the sales executive role at the top of organizations, this study contributes to the expanding domain of integrating sales and marketing. Further, this research has shown that firm-specific experience is relevant to investors in the context of sales executive appointments.

SESSION 8G: HOW TO DEVELOP EXPERIENTAL EXPERIENCES IN SPORTS MARKETING CLASSES

CHAIR:

James Blair

Panel
How to Develop Experiential Experiences in Sports Marketing Classes

James Blair, Eastern Kentucky University, USA
Geraldo Matos, Roger Williams University, USA
Delancy Bennett, Howard University, USA

Many students seek a business-related career in the sports and entertainment industry. As a result, many business programs have created classes and programs focused on careers in the sports industry. Additionally, many stakeholders (instructors, businesses, accreditation agencies, etc.) have found value in students going through experiential learning opportunities. This panel discusses how to incorporate experiential learning into sports marketing classes. Panelists will also discuss future marketing pedagogy research opportunities on the effectiveness of these experiences.

Sports Industry in Business Education

Many business students desire to have a career in the sports and entertainment industry, even with the prevalence of unpaid internships and other undesirable aspects of the job (Harris et al., 2015; Walker et al., 2020). As a result, it can be competitive for them to earn an internship or land an entry-level position with a professional sports organization. Many universities offer courses in a variety of business disciplines to help student prepare for careers in sports and entertainment (Hancock & Greenwell, 2013; Sato et al., 2021).

Experiential Learning

Experiential learning has become a major emphasis for several stakeholders across business disciplines (McCarthy & McCarthy, 2006). This can be an effective way for students to apply concepts learned in their curriculum to a situation that closely resembles what they may experience during their professional careers (Kolb, 1984). Experiential learning has enhanced the employability of students attempting to enter the sports industry (Lu, 2021).

Professionals in the sports industry have highlighted specific skills students need to possess and strengthen to find employment and success throughout their careers (Bennett, 2020). For students to be successful, they need to understand what skills are needed and gain experience developing those skills throughout their coursework. This can increase their likelihood to be chosen for employment opportunities in the future, so instructors should invest in utilizing experiential learning in their sports marketing classes.

Blair, Xiao, and Mason (2019) created a framework for implementing experiential learning in global marketing classes and suggest their model could also be utilized in other courses and disciplines. There are opportunities to apply this model and build on it when utilizing it in other areas like sports marketing when offering experiential learning opportunities in the classroom. This includes having students work on projects that simulate what they may experience with a sports organization, like rebranding a team (Bennett, Matos, & Andonova, 2019).

Additionally, students can gain experience building their personal brands online through social media tools, interviewing professionals, and creating content highlighting their skillsets (Allison & Blair, 2021; Fore, Blair, & Allison, 2021). These can be ways for students to differentiate themselves in a crowded marketplace with many highly skilled workers. Students able to develop their personal brand authenticity during their college experience leading to direction in the job search when entering the workforce (Allison et al., 2020). Personal branding experiential learning opportunities would provide major benefits to students entering a highly competitive sports marketing industry for internships and entry-level positions.

Discussion and Conclusions

Students can benefit from experiential learning in their sports marketing coursework. These experiences provide employers more confidence that they will perform successfully in an internship and entry-level position. With instructors looking for innovative ways to engage their students and provide value-added assignments (Pitts, 2002), the panel fulfills these needs through a variety of experiential learning opportunities. This includes the use of cases, guest speakers, live-client projects, simulations, and other activities.

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SESSION 9A: DISTINGUISHED TEACHING COMPETITION

CHAIR:

Barbara Wooldridge

Distinguished Teaching Comment
The Business Educator as Architect

Kai-Yu Wang, Brock University, Canada

Introduction

I consider being a professor a noble and sacred profession and educational leadership a lifelong process. Reflecting upon my journey from early childhood to the Ph.D. program, I was blessed to have several teachers who not only cared for my intellectual development but my life and career. I hope that I may also offer the same to my students. This quote by Tom Peters, a famous researcher and consultant in business management practice, has always inspired me: "Leaders don't create followers, they create more leaders." Thus, my expectation is to help my students to become leaders in their field, leaders who will contribute to society in a positive way. As a marketing professor, I see myself somewhat like an architect who, together with his students, co-creates the blueprints of their future careers. To execute these plans, it is my job provide proper training so they are well-prepared before they enter the real business world. Just as all great structures in the world start with a solid foundation so does the educational foundation. To build a solid foundation, instructor, student and community partner should be involved and work together.

Motivational Synergy Between Instructor, Student and Community Partner

I think that effective teaching should involve instructors' passions, knowledge, and innovations; students' active learning; experiential learning, challenge taking; and the involvement of community partners.

1. **Passion**. An instructor can make an impact on student learning if students have a passion about the subject the instructor is teaching. When I walk into the classroom, I ensure that I am prepared for a great class and teaching performance. I want to inspire my students to learn more about marketing and pursue it in their careers. I encourage them to ask questions, make sure that their questions are answered properly, and address their concerns in a timely manner. Students know that they can always ask my advice, if needed. I also enjoy sharing and exchanging teaching experiences with colleagues to enhance my teaching performance.

2. **Knowledge**. Professional development is an important way for instructors to excel in their classrooms. It is the instructors' responsibilities to make sure that their knowledge about the subjects and methodology are up-to-date, particularly for business school instructors. I regularly attend research methodology and teaching workshops and talk to colleagues in the marketing and social media communities in order to advance my knowledge and learn methods/materials that may be helpful to my students. I also get the Google and HubSpot Academy Certifications and provide my students with a workshop how to prepare for the Certifications, which is an important asset to their resume when they enter the marketing industry.

3. **Innovation**. The classroom is an ideal place for innovation. I often reflect upon my teaching as I believe that there is always room for improvement and a better approach by which to help students learn more effectively. One of the key challenges in teaching digital marketing is deciding how to teach concepts and strategies that students can apply to the real business world. In order to address this pedagogical problem, I developed a teaching innovation that prepares students to run a search engine marketing campaign. The innovation received a grant of $2,700 in Winter 2018. The students ran campaigns for community partners with a budget of $300 over a two-week period. This innovation overwhelmingly received positive feedback from the students and community partners alike. Due to the demands and needs by community partners from different industries, I advanced this innovation to include Social Media Marketing. The successful program has attracted more community partners that were needed and those that did participate paid over $15,000 for campaigns since then.

4. **Active Learning**. I want my students to learn in a safe, encouraging, and enjoyable learning environment. The first thing that I tell the students in the classes is "I designed this course to help you to succeed." Instead of paying attention to passing/failing the course, I hope the students focus on what they can learn and benefit from taking the course so that they are motivated to become active learners of the subject. In addition, a fair and transparent grading system is important. Students know that they earn the marks based on their performance and work quality. I make myself available to students when they have questions regarding the course work, research projects, or career planning. It is my expectation that students start the course with some interest in the subject and complete the course with a passion about the subject.

5. **Experiential Learning**. Experiential learning is important to business students. It's a great approach to help students understand concepts/theories presented and to acquire hands-on experience. I have been actively

integrating experiential education into my courses (e.g., Marketing Research, Consumer Behavior, Internet and Social Media Marketing) through service-learning projects at both the undergraduate and graduate levels since 2011. It's a challenge and responsibility to instructors to monitor student teams' progresses and performances when working with community partners. Nevertheless, students can apply what they learn in the classroom to real world business problems in the projects. Because of its value to student learning, I devote my time and efforts to experiential education.

6. **Challenge Taking**. I like to challenge myself and my students in the classroom so that we can achieve the desired learning outcomes. I used different approaches and methods of delivering knowledge depending on the nature of the subject content and identified assignments/projects to challenge and benefit the students. I integrated two certification programs (Google Ads and HubSpot Academy Social Media Marketing) into the curriculum of the Internet and Social Media Marketing course in the fall 2020 and 2021. At the end of the semester, the entire two classes were certified by both institutions. I believe that it's the instructor's responsibility to challenge the students to reach their full potentials in such ways.

7. **Community Involvement**. Effective learning should not ignore community partners. I actively reach out to local organizations for possible partnership/collaboration opportunities. I regularly invite guest speakers to my classes so that the students can learn from experts in various marketing areas. Students learn how to interact and work on projects solving real problems, not simulations, with these organizations. Community partners also obtain practical benefits from the partnerships. Through the designed experience learning program in my courses, my students have completed projects with more than 100 local organizations, some of which have multiple projects in other courses that I teach. Several of these organizations offered students jobs after the project. These partnerships enhance the university's relationship with the community.

Contributions to New Course Development and Curriculum

I have been involved in the development of several new courses, including Internet and Social Media Marketing, Marketing Analytics and Intelligence, Customer and Digital Marketing Analytics. I'm also currently on an Enterprise Analytics Concentration Committee developing a new concentration in the marketing stream. With these new course offerings in digital marketing, we can provide students comprehensive and in-depth knowledge and training. The material covered in these courses is very current and greatly appreciated by students as evidenced by the increasing enrollment numbers of students choosing the marketing concentration as well as job offers received by graduates. One of my guest speakers a founder of a local digital marketing company was very impressed by what students learned in these courses. He placed a post on his LinkedIn account, which has over 2000 followers, praising the new course offerings provided at Brock that benefits students who are interested in digital marketing.

Contributions to Pedagogy Innovation, Experiential Education, and Broader Communities

The innovation I developed for the Internet and Social Media Course in 2018 allows marketing educators to provide an experiential, practical, impactful project opportunity to the involved stakeholders. I have presented this innovative program at several conferences over North America and made the notes available on Brock's Experiential Education website and the MMA 2018 Conference Proceedings. This award winning innovation has been adopted to many marketing scholars. Seeing increasing demands in digital marketing from small businesses/organizations in the Niagara Region, I accepts as many partnership applications from various industries as possible and require students provide a detailed procedure description of digital marketing campaign implementation in order to give the partners a head start. The more partners that I work with the more I find myself doing it not only for students, but also for the community and the university. I also used a grant to teach students how to help digitalize and promote local businesses for Canada Summer Games 2022, which takes place in the Niagara Region. I also aim to make the pedagogy accessible to broader communities. My proposal of a Digital Marketing Certification Program, partnered with the Chamber of Commerce and Shopify, is funded by the Ontario Ministry of Colleges and Universities & Ministry of Labour, Training and Skills Development. My objective is to provide digital marketing training and help businesses/organizations in the local communities to enhance their digital presence and competitiveness.

Conclusion

I strive to create opportunities for leadership that, big or small, will make a positive difference. It is my aspiration that the impact of these many individual positive changes will extend to the community and beyond. Higher education provides many tools and experiences. It teaches students how to learn. It is an ongoing and a lifelong process and the foundation they build upon. We teachers are responsible for and being part of their foundation building process. This is what I value most as a teacher!

Distinguished Teaching Comment

A Marketing Mindset

Dawn Edmiston, College of William & Mary, USA

Since 2001, I have taught in a broad range of higher education environments -- from research universities to online learning institutions to liberal arts colleges. No matter where I have worked, my teaching philosophy has involved engaging students and encouraging them to adopt a marketing mindset focused on the value they can contribute to others. At the start of each semester, I commit to knowing them as individuals by learning their names and aspirations. And then I seek to communicate the relevance of course content to students' personal and professional lives. I believe that a college education should not be constrained to textbooks, and I am constantly striving to understand the needs of my students and create dynamic learning environments for them.

From Inspiration to Innovation

My students are the inspiration for my teaching innovations, and one of my most popular teaching concepts was the direct result of a classroom discussion. During a digital marketing lecture, I shared a video about the "Social Media Revolution," which was filled with statistics on how social media had changed our daily lives. When the video ended, I excitedly asked for student feedback. A student in the back row raised his hand and solemnly said, "Dr. Edmiston, I think that was the most depressing video I have ever seen." Stunned, I responded, "Why?" And he quietly replied, "How will I ever compete in that world?" This heartfelt question served as the impetus for me to build a framework to show students how to leverage social media to succeed in a competitive marketplace. As a result, I launched the concept of "Developing POP! (a Professional Online Presence)."

Developing POP! emphasizes important marketing fundamentals such as creating a personal brand promise and establishing social media profiles. The process not only encourages the creation and curation of content but also requires students to network and promote such content by actively engaging their audience on LinkedIn and other social media channels.

Developing POP! is a ten-step framework that includes determining an online identity, creating branded social media accounts, developing compelling content, building a professional network, engaging audiences, and monitoring success. I challenge students to assume the mindset of a prospective employer and then ask them, "Who would you prefer to hire as a marketing executive – 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?"

After a few years of teaching Developing POP!, I started to receive questions on how to create more dynamic content (which is related to 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, "How to Pitch a Brilliant Idea." Building upon insights from this article, students craft a compelling 60-second video highlighting their unique value proposition to potential employers.

Before producing the perfect pitch videos, students develop a personal brand promise and complementary brand points that are the foundation for the video's message. The brand promise must reflect what prospective employers should expect from the student. The brand points need to be specific characteristics and experiences that define the student's personal brand. By identifying and articulating brand points that have value to prospective employers, students can tell a powerful brand story in a video format that is far more engaging than a traditional resume.

As part of this exercise, we discuss the role of storytelling and review student scripts during class. Students are then given the flexibility to select their own video production tools 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 (owned by Google, the world's largest search engine), the perfect pitch video also contributes positively to the student's professional online presence (bit.ly/wmstudentvideos).

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 leverage them. These teaching innovations have a positive impact on learning outcomes as well as professional development opportunities. As a result of these exercises, students build confidence in their marketing communication skills and networking abilities.

I have received feedback from dozens of students who have shared that developing a professional online presence led them to new career opportunities. One of my students posted to a LinkedIn group on Social Media Marketing and received 750+ comments in less than two weeks. As a personal testament, this concept contributed to me finding my current role at William & Mary, which I wrote about in a LinkedIn post (bit.ly/wmdreamjob).

The perfect pitch videos have proven to be powerful networking tools as well, with more than 100,000 views on YouTube to date. These videos have also contributed to the marketing of our undergraduate programs; all 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 and several of them have been featured on our school's home page. In addition, the perfect pitch video concept inspired a team of students to develop a video that pitches our school to prospects (bit.ly/WMBusinessTour).

I am thrilled these concepts have been shared beyond my classroom through guest lectures, webinars, and podcasts. I have been invited to present these concepts at regional, national, and international events, including the Virginia Economic Development Association Conference, the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, and the MBA Entrepreneurship Forum at Beijing Normal University, China.

The "Developing POP!" and the "Perfect Pitch" innovations have won the Marketing Management Association Axcess-Capon Teaching Innovation Competition and the Society of Marketing Advances Cengage Pride/Ferrell Innovations in Teaching Competition, respectively. Articles on these concepts have also been published in *Marketing Education Review*.

Impact Beyond the Classroom

I recognize that learning opportunities often lie beyond the traditional classroom as well. In 2017, I co-founded a Global Business Minor program, which was the first in the nation to allow students to earn a minor in a single summer through an innovative hybrid learning approach that involved one week at W&M, three weeks of online learning, and eight weeks at University College Dublin in Ireland. Most recently, I served as a Fulbright Scholar to Estonia and taught at the Baltic Film, Media, and Arts School of Tallinn University.

As educators, we have responsibilities not only to our students but also to the colleagues and communities that we serve. Currently, I am on the editorial boards of the *Journal of Marketing Education* and *Marketing Education Review*. I also serve on the Board of Directors for the Marketing Management Association. In 2022, I co-authored the book, *Marketing Management: A Strategic Framework and Tools for Success*.

Finally, I realize that to be an effective educator, I must be a lifelong student. Through professional development opportunities such as earning a second doctorate and attending Society of Marketing Advances and Marketing Management Association conferences, I continue to acquire knowledge worth sharing with others.

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SESSION 9B: HEDGING YOUR BETS

CHAIR:

Pramit Banerjee

Summary Brief
Do Franchise Ownerships Affect Franchise Systems Market Coverage?

Jingbo Zhang, University of Texas Permian Basin, USA
Robert Stassen, University of Arkansas, USA

Market coverage is an inherent goal of franchise systems, as the value of the franchise brands is only realized by patrons selecting the brand at multiple locations. An adequate measure of market coverage, particularly for convenience foods consumed away from home, would be beneficial to both franchisors and franchisees before any actions lead to the market being overstored.

Research on approaches to achieving market coverage is limited in validity because it is typically reported as the number of outlets per person or households, or in cases of encroachment if intrabrand competition comes within a distance that "hurts gross sales" (Iowa Code, 2009). While the topic of market coverage is essential to coverage, no studies at this point have examined the spatial dimension across geographic markets. An initial cross-sectional study with separate analysis of the three Yum Brands: KFC, Pizza Hut, and Taco Bell are provided on the largest counties in the U.S. An initial spatial measure based on the geographic distances in ranges of store locations is compared to the conventional approach that is based on the number of stores per persons in the market. This proxy of market coverage provides criterion validity when regressed on common structural characteristics that vary within the franchise system. Franchisors, franchisees, and regulators would benefit from a shared measure of coverage for the franchise. After a certain level of coverage is obtained, contracting parties would need to agree on increasing the number of outlets.

Introduction

Adequate market coverage is the critical goal in developing any franchising system that desires to be a well-recognized, nationally branded system. Past efforts to examine routes to effective coverage (Stassen and Grunhagen, 2011, 2016) have been limited in interpretation, in that the dependent measure, the number of outlets per an aggregate characteristic of demand was also a frequent appearing standardization of the independent measures, such as the proportion of outlets—or highly correlated with other measures, such as the number of franchises. This paper created a new market coverage by including geographical information.

Most franchise systems develop the whole system by having franchisees. However, there is a hot debate about which franchise owner has a dominant position in generating sales and a good reputation for the whole system. To answer this discussion, we investigated the relationship between franchise ownerships and market coverage.

Background

Business format franchising succeeds when a recognized consumer brand can provide the expected quality of service across and within markets. The greater the market coverage, or distribution intensity, the stronger the repeat purchasing of the brand, and the stronger the brand's value in regard to competition. Traditionally, market coverage has been considered a ratio of establishments per the market's demand or number of potential buyers in the market (Blair and LaFontaine, 2005). This is regarded as an accepted ratio and appropriately identifies geographic markets that are over or under-stored, with too high or too low of a ratio of stores per person, per household, or automobile. A measure of spatial coverage would be beneficial in understanding a franchise format that benefits from high visibility and outlets in a market, with less dependence on assessing the size of the market.

Oxenfeldt and Kelly (1969) posited that there would be a substantial number of better-performing locations reacquired by the franchisor and that successful franchise chains would become predominantly franchisor-owned. Their perspective of franchisors competing with their franchisees to retain better locations is inconsistent with today's successful franchisors becoming very dependent on multi-unit franchisees. YUM! Brands was often an example of one franchisor increasing its company-owned locations as late as 2015 but has since lowered its company-owned share of locations, now including "refranchising" as a term its annual report. Their recent shift

away from company-owned outlets indicates that this strategy's performance was not the best overall for the franchising system. This research investigated the importance of franchise ownerships to extend market coverage.

Key Findings

Taco Bell's company-owned and multi-unit franchised outlets have a significant positive effect on market coverage, but Pizza Hut and KFC's franchisors' stores don't have the strong effects. However, Pizza Hut and Taco Bell's company-owned stores can positively affect spatial market coverage. Moreover, multi-unit franchised outlets, as the theories predicted, have strong positive effects on the spatial marketing coverage of franchise systems.

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Summary Brief

Examining Moderating Role of Socioemotional Wealth on Linkages between Digital Marketing Transformation and Data Breaches

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In ever growing digitization world where every business is striving to implement technology to business models to form new differentiating business capabilities, there are several dark sides of such initiatives. There is a growing concern against vulnerability to cyberattacks among the family business firms. A key distinguishing element that separates a family business from a non-family business is the socioemotional wealth (SEW), that comprises of various non-monetary endowments that a family business possesses. Integrating perspectives from strategy, criminology and family business literature, we specifically look at the role of a family business firm's Digital IQ in cybersecurity incidents and propose the differential effects for the firms with high versus low SEW. we examine if there is any relationship between the tech savviness of the family business firm and data breach and how this effect is moderated by SEW. By linking the DMT to the socioemotional wealth of a non-family business firm, we intend to contribute to the literature of SEW by delineating the differential effects of SEW in understanding the linkages of DMT and likelihood of a data breach. It will allow the firms to develop a better understanding of the strategic decisions on going digital and how to leverage on their SEW endowments to provide a secure environment for their business and help prevent a data breach. The paper concludes with the potential implications and future research directions.

INTRODUCTION

Digital marketing transformation (DMT) has gained significance in the recent times, both in academia and in practice (Bhardwaj, El Sawy, Pavlou, & Venkatraman, 2013; Fitzgerald, Kruschwitz, Bonnet, & Welch, 2014). Digital technologies are reshaping the way the traditional business strategies were built and it has become essential for all organizations to actively monitor and improve their digital strategy. The backlash against corporate use of individualized data for marketing purposes is widespread (Sarathy and Robertson, 2003). "24% of family enterprise leaders in middle-market companies named reputational damage as their greatest fear related to cybersecurity" (Robertsson, 2020). The risks of digital vulnerability have increased from 32% to 37% in family businesses and 44% of the firms have listed digitization as a challenge for their businesses with 39% of them emphasizing on the cybersecurity (PwC, 2018). This indicates a growing concern against vulnerability to cyberattacks among the family business firms. A key distinguishing element that separates a family business from a non-family business is the desire to preserve socioemotional wealth (SEW).

Several studies have been published on determining the cause and effect of data breach, several dimensions have been hypothesized to affect a data breach. In the context of family business firms, the enhanced desire for SEW results in less exposure to the technology, thereby reducing the threats to cybersecurity. Despite its importance, there is not much done in the academic literature to examine the underlying relationships and see if the DMT coupled with the desire to preserve SEW of a family firm has any effect on data breaches or if it can play an important role in avoiding them. In light of the foregoing discussion, the present study aims at examining the linkages between the technological diversification, measured through the digital marketing transformation of the family business firms and the likelihood of getting breached. We intend to extend the current literature on the digital marketing transformation and the digital business strategy by highlighting the dark side of digital transformation and its potential impact on the firm value and firm profitability.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND
Resource Based Theory

Barney et al., (1991) offer a comprehensive framework called Resource-Based Theory (RBT) that describes the underlying foundation for developing a firm's competitive advantage and how it influences the firm's performance in the long run. We posit that DMT can be a capability for a firm if it undergoes the process sooner than later. Despite positive results, the literature also reflects potential issues related to the ubiquitous use of digital technologies, primarily in the areas of security and privacy. According to "Ponemon's Digital Transformation and Cyber Risk" report, "82% of IT security and C-level respondents informed that they experienced at least one data breach because of digital transformation." (Collett, 2020).

Socio-Emotional Wealth (SEW)

Socioemotional wealth is defined as non-economic endowments that family derives from the business, and it passes it on to the next generation (Berrone et al., 2012). One of the arguments that distinguish the agency perspective in case of family business firms with SEW endowment is that in agency perspective, the key emphasis is on avoiding the strategic choices that enhance the risk of financial losses for a firm, whereas in SEW endowment, the emphasis is on the strategic choices that avoid the losses pertaining to the SEW endowment as opposed to the financial losses. One such strategic choice is the decision to diversify technologically, wherein firms with higher SEW are less likely to diverse technologically due to the risk of SEW losses. Another implication of SEW is related to the transgenerational control, whereby the firms with high transgenerational control demand higher prices for trading with the nonfamily members.

Discussion

A rich stream of research has centered on the merits of digital transformation for a company and its positive influences on its profitability and other financial outcomes. However, this study proposes a contradictory school of thought by integrating theories from the field of strategy and criminology and elucidating the dark side of digital transformation by highlighting the potential risk of getting breached due to higher digital presence. Further, by linking it to the socioemotional wealth of a non-family business firm, we intend to contribute to the literature of SEW by delineating the differential effects of SEW in understanding the linkages of DMT and likelihood of a data breach. It will allow the firms to develop a better understanding of the strategic decisions on going digital and how to leverage on their SEW endowments to provide a secure environment for their business and help prevent a data breach. Managerially, the study intends to help managers to devise their business strategy in a careful way to mitigate the risk of data breach by taking preventive measures while formulating digital strategies. It is witnessed that a large number of firms have leveraged the use of social media in as a part of carrying out the operations compromising on the security concerns at the core, while for some firms, the digital technologies shape the entire business infrastructure. In light of the foregoing discussion, it can be asserted that the managers should constantly monitor their digital transformation and undertake appropriate measures to deal with the emerging business conditions. Thus, the present study intends to provide a framework to develop a less reactive and more proactive digital business strategy, to allow the firms to achieve their business objectives in an efficient way.

References available upon request

Summary Brief

Do Experiential Purchases Make Lonely Consumers Feel Happy?

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There is a shared notion that consumers tend to feel greater happiness from experiential purchases than from material purchases. This is known as an experiential advantage. However, the current research proposes a boundary condition – loneliness – by proposing an experiential disadvantage for lonely consumers. We suggest that the positive effect of experiential purchase on happiness does not occur for lonely consumers. Across three studies, we found that lonely people felt less happiness from experiential purchases than non-lonely people. It is because lonely consumers felt low psychological ownership over experiential purchases. But the experiential disadvantage for lonely consumers was not found in the material purchases.

Introduction

Past research has shown that experiential purchases elicit greater happiness than material purchases (Carter and Gilovich, 2012; Gilovich and Gallo, 2019). This is called the experiential advantage. However, does it hold for everyone? We suggest a pathway that results in lower happiness of experiential purchases - *loneliness*. In general, loneliness is an unpleasant feeling of social isolation which arises from a discrepancy between desired and actual social relationships (Perlman and Peplau, 1981). Existing research finds that loneliness increases consumption because consumptions are easily accessible and involve less social anxiety (Pieters, 2013). However, an unanswered question is whether lonely consumers feel happy about their purchases. Specifically, our research question is whether experiential purchase make lonely consumers feel happy.

Background

We theorize that the experiential advantage will not hold for lonely consumers. We propose that happiness derived from experiential purchases will decrease for lonely people, in contrast to non-lonely people. It is because experiential purchases tend to involve more social interactions (Gilovich and Gallo, 2019), but lonely consumers do not fully own the advantage of social benefits from experiential purchases due to their unsatisfactory social relationships. Experiential purchases tend to be consumed with others more often than material goods (Caprariello and Reis, 2013). For instance, people dine out in high-end restaurants, have outdoor activities (e.g., hunting, amusement park, concert), or take vacations with others, while they do not really share their phones, bookcases, or earbuds. There is evidence that fostering feelings of social connection leads to greater happiness from experiential purchases compared to material purchases (Gilovich and Gallo, 2019).

However, when we look at lonely people, they suffer from inadequate relationships. Loneliness is related to diverse reasons such as a lack of social skills, unfulfilling intimate relationships, separation, and social marginality (Rokach and Neto, 2005). Whatever the reasons are, lonely people lack qualitative social interactions with others. This social inadequacy can discount the value of experiential purchases, where purchases often accompany social interactions with other people. It does not necessarily mean that lonely consumers' experiential purchases are always solitary experiences. Even though lonely people have socially shared experiences, the prevalent social nature of experiential purchases can make experiential purchases perceived to be more demanding or unsatisfactory to lonely consumers. Therefore, lonely consumers do not fully enjoy the social benefits of experiential purchases as they do not connect with those with whom they are sharing the experience, and this will decrease *psychological ownership* of the experiential purchase. In other words, lonely people would not think of experiential purchases as their own. Psychological ownership is defined as "the state in which individuals feel as though the target of ownership or a piece of that target is 'theirs' (i.e., 'it is mine!')" (Pierce, Kostova, and Dirks 2003, p.86). Previous research suggests

that psychological ownership over an item increases consumption happiness (Li and Atkinson, 2020). We suggest that given the nature of experiential purchases and loneliness, lonely consumers would experience lower psychological ownership over experiential purchases, thereby decreasing their consumption happiness. Collectively, we propose an experiential disadvantage for lonely consumers, which means loneliness will decrease happiness derived from experiential purchases. It is because lonely people, due to social inadequacy, would feel a lower sense of psychological ownership over experiential purchases with which social connection is usually accompanied. On the other hand, given its private ownership, material purchases will not decrease psychological ownership for lonely people.

Key Findings

To test out hypotheses, we ran three studies. In studies 1A and 1B, we tested how loneliness influences happiness from experiential and material purchases. In study 1A, participants (M_{age} =37.3, Female 48%) were randomly assigned to one of two conditions (experiential vs. material) of a between-subject design. Participants then indicated their consumption happiness and loneliness. Results revealed a significant interaction between loneliness and product type on the happiness ($\beta = .75$, $p = .012$). In the experiential purchase condition, loneliness decreased happiness ($\beta = -.74$, $p < .001$), while loneliness was not associated with happiness in the material condition ($\beta = -.03$, $p = .90$). Additionally Johnson-Neyman floodlight analysis technique showed that for non-lonely participants whose loneliness levels were below 2.09, happiness from the experiential purchase was higher than that from the material purchase ($\beta = -.91$, $p = .05$), supporting the existing theory of experiential advantage. However, for lonely participants whose loneliness levels were above 5.86, the happiness from the experiential purchase was lower than happiness from the material purchase ($\beta = 1.92$, $p = .05$). In Study 1B, we used different loneliness measure and controlled for multiple variables possibly related to loneliness and/or happiness. As a result, we replicated the findings in Study 1A. In Study 2, we tested the underlying mechanism. Participants ($M_{age} = 29$, Female = 54.4 %) were instructed to recall either an experiential or material purchase in line with the previous study. After that, they rated their happiness, their psychological ownership over the purchase, and loneliness. Results revealed a significant interaction of purchase types and loneliness on happiness ($\beta = .38$, $p = .006$). In the experiential purchase condition, loneliness decreased happiness ($\beta = -.41$, $p < .001$), but not in the material condition ($\beta = -.04$, $p = .71$). The index of moderated mediation showed a significant indirect effect of psychological ownership ($\beta = .11$, SE = .06, 95% bias-corrected CI [.004, .23]). Supporting H2, in the experiential purchase condition, the effect of loneliness on happiness was mediated via psychological ownership ($\beta = -.13$, 95% CI [-.24, -.03]). However, the indirect effect was not found in the material purchase condition ($\beta = -.02$, 95% CI [-.09, .04]). Collectively, it supports that loneliness decreases happiness from experiential purchases via psychological ownership.

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SESSION 9C: VULNERABLITIES

CHAIR:

Janna Parker

Summary Brief

A Cross-cultural Study of Belgian and U.S. Social Media Users' Need for Community: An Exploratory Study using PLS-SEM

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Social media offers great opportunities for international marketing and community building, yet little research has explored cross-cultural differences in consumers' motivations to seek and build community in this environment. This exploratory research investigates this underexplored question between Belgian and U.S. young consumers. Informal interviews and secondary data analysis of industry reports furthered our iterative literature review to inform motivation items in a survey. Exploratory factor analysis was used to reveal the factor categories of curiosity, self-presentation, social interaction, the importance of social verification, and communications. Results of partial least squares structural modeling show slight incongruencies between the two samples. Theoretical and managerial implications are discussed.

Introduction

Global marketers are hastily adopting social media as a tool of choice (Hootsuite 2018) and are finding that great care should be taken as they integrate this tool. Making cultural mistakes online continues to be a challenge. Furthermore, community seeking and building has become an integral aspect of social media marketing, with 71% of global brands utilizing community engagement (Hootsuite 2018). Social media has brought forth additional opportunities for globalization and can offer a space for consumers to build upon and advance consumer communities. Although social media platforms in theory provide an environment for global exchange to occur and values to meld (van Dijck et al. 2018), consumers' online and offline identities are often not unique (Marwick 2012) and mono-cultures are less likely (Keijzer et al. 2018).

Literature has revealed consumers' need for community as being an optimal place to co-create community and ultimately value beneficial for consumers as well as brands. Nevertheless, the extant literature has limited knowledge of how consumers' motivations to seek and build community online differs based on the differing global ideals. In other words, the way consumers interact with each other offline may influence uniquely how consumers interact online, and these interactions may be in part due to their cultural norms of appropriate social discourse. Arguably, by clearly understanding consumers' offline culture and their individual desires to seek and build community on social media, strategic community building may be possible.

As such, in this exploratory research we investigate the following question: *What cross-cultural differences exist in why consumers pursue social media consumption for the objective of seeking and building community?* We engage in preliminary interviews and identify common motivations also grounded in the literature. We isolate our investigation to young adults in the countries of Belgium and the United States of America (U.S. hereafter). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of motivations identifies common motivating factors that uniquely load between the two countries. Following the EFA, we utilize PLS-SEM to identify factors most likely to drive their need for community

Cultural Nuance in Social Media Community Building

Culture can influence how consumer communities develop online through social media, further impacting marketing strategies (Alarcon-del-Amo et al. 2016). From a brand perspective, social-centric mobile apps such as social networking apps aim to "increase the sense of intimacy with customers, foster brand engagement by building a community of loyal customers or allow customers to communicate positive brand images with their social circles" (Zhao & Balagué 2015, p. 309). In such interaction, both tolerance and trust in others is vital for community building to occur.

Despite the common need for consumers to seek out community, and the adoption of social media to engage in this activity, cultures do not have the same norms as they build community. Social media has not molded a mono-culture as some anticipated, and in fact can create more cultural isolation (Keijzer et al. 2018). There are different motivations that arise based on the culture or country (Alarcon-del-Amo et al. 2016; Xu & Mocarski 2014) that play into some of the variation. These communication forms and motivations are more complex than can be captured through Hofstede's dimensions (Xu & Mocarski 2014). In addition to differences in social media communication based on cultural differences, online cultural norms have been changing over time (Hyvärinen & Beck 2018). As such, the reasons we seek out community online now may not mirror our needs in ten years.

Key Findings

First, semi-structured informal interviews were conducted with 59 U.S. social media users to gain a better understanding of the reasons they utilize social media. While a questionnaire guide provided structure to the interviews, the interviewers asked follow-up questions when needed. The informants ranged in age from 18-35 and consisted of 28 males and 31 females. The purpose of the interviews was to solicit the motivations behind using social media for the quantitative survey. Fifteen motivating factors were identified via this process and subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in SPSS. The EFA for the two samples produced five factors for the U.S. sample (e.g., curiosity, self-presentation, social interaction, verification statistics and communication) and six for the Belgian sample (e.g., the five listed above and relational connections). Therefore, the PLS-SEM models were run separately in SmartPLS for the two countries with the five and six motivating variables, with the need for community as the dependent variable. Reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability. In addition, convergent and discriminant validity were established for both models. For the U.S. sample we found significant paths between all motivating variables except for curiosity and need for community (β=-.04, p=.308). In the Belgian sample we found support only for self-presentation β=0.42, p<.000, verification statistics β=0.11, p=.011, and communications β=.13, p=.001. We identify motivational differences between young Belgium and U.S. consumers for building community on social media despite similar cultural indicators as per Hofstede's dimension (Ford, et al. 2018). A consumers' country shapes social dynamics, arguably within social media usage as well.

We find for both countries that curiosity is not important in community building online, yet, what would have been commonly considered social factors, are more relevant. However, the EFA highlights differences between consumers' need to socially present themselves in a group setting (self-presentation factor) and consumers' need to socially interact with others (social interaction factor). While more "selfish" motivations are found to be significant in both samples, young Belgian consumers are less concerned about "altruistic motivations" such as socially interacting with others (i.e., the social and relational connection relationships are not supported). In summary, this study finds that young Belgian consumers' altruistic motivations are lower than young U.S. consumers and that these motivations are not as important in community building.

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Summary Brief

Influencing on Instagram: Trustworthiness and Brand Attitude Linkages in Influencer Marketing

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Introduction

As the pandemic forced people indoors, in front of screens, and in quest of connection, numerous social media platforms have experienced significant growth in recent years. The quick uptake of social media has led to the obvious omnipresence of user-created content, consumed and spread by social media users (Ho & Ito, 2019). This further generates new communication paradigms (Peng et al., 2018). According to a report, marketers are shifting their focus toward social media and increasing social spending by 53% in 2022 (Nielsen, 2021), more than any other channel. Instagram is a popular social media application that enables users to get followers and facilitate social interactions among consumers. Further, it also helps users connect with different brands (Blight et al., 2017). Djafarova and Rushworth (2017) suggested that, Instagram is a platform that emphasizes filtered photographs and aesthetics that makes it an ideal environment for pushing beauty items, popularizing particular body ideals, and promoting opulent lifestyles and well-known luxury brands.

Instagram has helped fashion enthusiasts become popular and successful because of the attractive appeal of the platform's filters and its ability to connect with a large audience. As per Paton (2014), individuals who create content on fashion ideas and promote some brands through their social media accounts and blogs are called fashion bloggers and they have been successful in attracting the interest of fashion brands. Some brands are surprised by the ability of these Instagram celebrities in spreading awareness about the latest products and ultimately driving up sales (Jin et al., 2019). Dewey (2014), deduced that depending upon the level of influence, these celebrities on Instagram are classified as Instafamous. Owing to the unique features of Instagram like its aesthetical presentation and ability of social interaction, the phenomenon of Instafamous has developed on this particular platform. Moreover, it allows users to display identities that attract audiences and build individual narratives (Abidin, 2016). The perception of the source's honesty, dependability, and reliability is referred to as trustworthiness (Ohanian, 1990). Brinol and Petty (2009), found that processing information from sources that are comparable to oneself reduces psychological reactivity and a thorough analysis of the message. Therefore Instagram influencers can resonate more strongly with audiences considering their similarity to regular audiences. Further influencers are more likely than traditional celebrities to communicate with followers and are simpler to relate to or identify with. When Instagram fashion influencers match the symbolic value of luxury goods in terms of appearance and lifestyle, their authenticity is perceived to be higher (Lee and Watkins, 2016). Law and Braun (2000), concluded that if individuals identify more with the source, they are more likely to have a positive attitude towards the brand of the luxury product featured by the influencer. Various brands have started collaborating with influencers to endorse their brands. The Paris-based global beauty brand Sephora came up with #SephoraSquad where they select influencers to discuss on beauty-related topics. Other fashion brands in India that have adapted influencer marketing are Mama Earth, McCaffiene, Rage Coffee, Lenskart and many more. This study will try to investigate trustworthiness and brand attitudes linked to influencer marketing. However, there is very less scholarly research that evaluates the trustworthiness and brand attitudes associated with influencer marketing on Instagram. The current research aims to address this gap.

Objectives

1. To understand the trustworthiness linked to influencer marketing on Instagram
2. To establish the brand attitude towards the influencer-endorsed brands on Instagram
3. To understand the cognitive and affective factors associated with influencer marketing on Instagram

Methodology

The relationship between antecedents affecting brand attitude and trustworthiness will be established using structural equation modeling. A total of 200 respondents who are frequent Instagram users, will be selected by the non-probability snowball sampling technique for data collection in major urban cities of India. The structured questionnaires will be administered through email.

To measure the variables, validated scales will be drawn from existing literature. Items will be measured through a 7-point Likert scale.

Future Implications

This study attempts to contribute to theory as well as practice. As media consumption habits differ across the globe, influencers are going to be effective brand ambassadors. The idea of using opinion leaders to influence buying decisions is getting more popular by each passing day. Through this research, we intend to establish the brand attitudes towards the product showcased by Instagram influencers. Further, the study also tries to understand if the audience finds influencer marketing trustworthy.

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Summary Brief

Love Languages of Micro-Influencers: Lingusistic Drivers of Social Media Engagement with Sponsored Posts

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Using a data set of sponsored posts collected from micro-influencers, we examine the impact of linguistic characteristics of the posts on behavioral social media engagement. The findings offer important insights for brands and micro-influencers seeking to create effective sponsored posts that generate higher levels of consumer interaction.

Introduction

As brands move more of their marketing budgets to digital media, more consumers are developing negative attitudes towards ads online advertising. Additionally, many consumers are now using ad-blocking software to avoid digital ads, and social media algorithms are making it more difficult for brands to reach consumers through organic tactics. The circumstances have advertisers searching for alternative paths for communicating with target markets. Social media advertising and influencer marketing, in particular, offer a viable avenue. Influencer marketing is "marketing that identifies and activates individuals who can sway the brand preferences, buying decisions, and loyalty of the broader population using their own opinions, beliefs, and/or marketing channels" (Association of National Advertisers, 2020). Influencer marketing generally describes the process of brands compensating well-known individuals with large followings to develop and post content endorsing the brands to the influencers' social media accounts. Influencer marketing has become an important marketing strategy with over 75% of brand marketers intending to dedicate a portion of their budgets to influencer marketing this year (Geyser, 2022).

Another recent trend involves marketers shifting large portions of influencer marketing spending from mega-influencers to micro-influencers (Geyser, 2022), which are those with between 10,000 and 100,000 followers (Barker, 2022). Many brands now utilize micro-influencers as part of their promotional efforts because they are less expensive, perceived as more authentic, and generate higher levels of engagement compared to influencers with larger followings (Ehlers, 2021). While micro-influencers are a crucial component of marketing strategy for many brands due to the significant value they offer, research on the intricacies of how this category of influencers generates high levels of engagement with their followers is sparse. Both brands and social media influencers can benefit from understanding how engagement with influencers' sponsored posts can be enhanced. To address this research question, we examine how linguistic elements of micro-influencers' brand-promoting posts impact behavioral engagement with the posts.

Background

Engagement rate is the outcome variable for this study as it is a metric used by a majority of brands to measure the effectiveness of their social media strategies (Association of National Advertisers, 2018). Influencers and brands are concerned with engagement because content receiving more interaction in the form of likes, comments, shares, etc., garners more reach on social media platforms. Engagement rate, which indicates the number of interactions relative to the account's followers, is an important performance metric as it allows for comparison across accounts of various sizes (Geyer, 2022) and demonstrates how content resonates with target audiences.

Source Credibility Theory provides a framework for understanding the persuasive influence of micro-influencers. The two dimensions of source credibility are expertise and trustworthiness (Ohanian, 1990). The

framework has been widely used by researchers to explain the rationale underlying the success of social media influencers in generating engagement (Breves et al., 2019). Perceptions of the influencer's personality offer a way for followers to infer their credibility. We examine two personality traits that can be inferred from the text influencers use to caption the sponsored posts they make on behalf of the brands: extraversion and agreeableness.

Extraversion refers to how a person tends to approach social situations, with extraverts characterized as sociable, outgoing, active, enthusiastic, and cheerful (Costa & McCrae, 1988). Visual representation of influencer extraversion characteristics of influencers has been found to positively impacts their credibility perceptions among consumers (Argyris et al., 2021). Similarly, we expect linguistic extraversion of an influencer's account text to behave the same way as traditional measures making the influencer more credible, likable, and persuasive, thereby increasing social media engagement with influencers' sponsored posts. Thus, we propose H1: Linguistic extraversion of the influencer account will be positively related to engagement rate.

Agreeableness is a personality trait with special relevance to social media as it reflects an influencer's attitude and behavior towards other people. Agreeableness is a person's tendency to be cooperative and show compassion to others. Industry experts suggest successful influencer campaigns used to promote a brand benefit from influencers who are agreeable, sociable, and pleasant. Further, previous research indicates character traits such as caring and social responsibility significantly influence consumer perceptions of celebrity expertise and trustworthiness (Rifon et al., 2016), while perceptions of altruistic motives behind a sponsor's initiatives increase their credibility with followers (Rifon et al., 2004). An influencer account built upon positivity and a commitment to the social relationship should increase follower engagement. Thus, we propose H2: Linguistic agreeableness of the influencer account will be positively related to engagement rate.

Key Findings

We tested the hypotheses using a data set of 961 sponsored posts made by 71 micro-influencers in the fashion industry. An engagement rate variable was computed by adding the number of likes and comments garnered by each sponsored post and dividing the sum by the number of followers of the influencer. The two linguistic variables were created using IBM Watson's Personality Insights (PI) tool. IBM Watson analyzes the distribution, frequency, and context of the words used and provides a percentile score based on the information inferred from the text. In this case, the score indicates how much micro-influencer posts exhibit a given linguistic characteristic compared to an existing sample population.

We conducted a linear regression, entering extraversion and agreeableness as independent variables and engagement rate as the dependent variable. The overall regression was statistically significant ($R^2 = 0.06$, $F(2, 958) = 31.68$, $p = < .00$). We found support for both hypotheses, indicating that both extraversion (H1: $b = .06$, $t(1.97)$, $p = .05$) and agreeableness (H1: $b = .22$, $t(6.86)$, $p = .00$) positively impact behavioral engagement with micro-influencers' sponsored posts. Beyond identifying some specific tactics for increasing social media engagement, our results suggest businesses and influencers should utilize analytics to inform strategic decision-making. Technology now allows for accessing data from owned social media, competitors, industry leaders, and brand partners, which in turn affords opportunities to benchmark personality in content and ultimately incorporate successful strategies into social media marketing efforts.

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Summary Brief
Social Media and Online Predators: Strategies used to Target Vulnerable Children

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Social media platforms are one of the most common sources for targeting vulnerable minors. Online predators use social media messaging to target children for sexual exploitation. Previous research has identified strategies predators use to target children, but this research has used either self-report data or focused on a limited number of strategies. This paper extends the research on online predators by using content analysis to analyze the messages used in a sting operation. During Stage 1, the research team read the messages sent by 125 potential predators to the sting profile operated by an undercover officer. Examples are presented that indicate the themes and strategies are appropriate for the content analysis using NVivo, which will be completed in Stage 2.

Introduction

The Internet offers ample opportunities for sexual predators to target underage victims since the younger population is especially vulnerable to these online advances (Gámez-Guadix & Mateos-Pérez, 2019). Despite lengthy prison sentences and additional punishments such as registering as a sex offender, random searches of electronic communications and storage, and restricted contact with minors under 18 (Parker, 2022), online sexual misconduct continues to increase.

Background

Concerns regarding the use of Internet communication platforms by individuals to engage in sexual conversations with minors continue to grow. One psychological theory used to assess different child grooming stages is the theory of luring communication (LCT) (Olson et al., 2007). This theory discusses the communicative process of entrapment by the offender to lure an adolescent into a sexual relationship (Kloess et al., 2017). According to LCT, a predator engages in three stages of grooming: 1) *deceptive trust development* (building trust by exchanging personal information such as age and likes), 2) *grooming stage* (triggering a victim's sexual curiosity by using sexual terms to entrap the victim), and 3) *physical approach* (requesting information about location, schedule, and parent schedule, etc.) (Cano Basave et al., 2014). During these stages, predators often apply communicative reframing to present sexuality as beneficial to the victim (Kloess et al., 2017).

A study by Gámez-Guadix et al. (2021) identified five strategies utilized by predators during online grooming: 1) interest in the victim's environment, 2) use of deception, 3) sexualization of conversation, 4) gift giving, and 5) aggression. Another important study by Kloess et al. (2019) used thematic analysis to analyze transcripts of five convicted offenders in the United Kingdom who had communicated with children via various Internet platforms. Kloess et al. (2019) findings differed from the Gámez-Guadix et al. (2021) study in that the predator did not necessarily use deception with the adolescent, instead, they encouraged the adolescent to maintain the secrecy of the relationship by using deception with their friends and family. The predators also used strategies to overcome the child's resistance that could be considered aggressive such as begging and pressuring the child.

This research aims to extend prior works such as Kloess et al. (2019) and Gámez-Guadix et al. (2021). Specifically, the current study evaluates messages sent by online predators to determine whether the five strategies identified through self-report data reflect the actual predatory online behavior of adults targeting adolescents. Furthermore, while Gámez-Guadix et al. (2021) focus on potential victims for data collection, this research examines predatory behavior from the perpetrator's perspective. Consistent with Kloess et al. (2019) who reviewed transcripts of actual messages, the current study uses an even larger sample of potential predators as well as those who received convictions in a sting operation. This research will use themes suggested by both these studies to take a more holistic approach to analyze grooming strategies. The contributions of this research provide insights for public policy makers regarding regulations of social media platforms used by predators who groom victims to prevent this type of abuse on social media platforms.

Key Findings

A Facebook account profile was created and used for a sting operation that targeted online predators in a community in northern California.

The researchers reviewed the 643 pages of messages provided to the investigator by Facebook and identified the five different strategies of Gámez-Guadix et al. (2021). Most strategies were found to be present as conceptualized in the online grooming scale except for the use of deception and aggression, which more closely aligns with the Kloess et al. (2017) findings.

Interestingly, predators did not express deception about themselves but instead requested the victim to display deception towards third-party individuals. In addition, aggressive behavior was displayed by using coercive communication. Predators relentlessly called the victim, demanding direct communication or threatened to spread rumors about the victim. One of the most commonly used strategies was to show interest in the victims' lives, problems, or environments by expressing sympathy.

This preliminary research serves to guide Stage 2. The results of Stage 1 indicate that the themes and strategies suggested by Gámez-Guadix et al. (2021) and Kloess et al. (2019) are used by predators and serve as a good starting point for analysis using NVivo. The modified themes found in Stage 1 will also be included as well as tools in NVivo that can potentially identify additional themes.

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SESSION 9D: IT'S GAME DAY

CHAIR:

Elizabeth Jones

Full Paper

To Invest (or Not to Invest) in Student-Athletes: How the New NCAA's NIL Rule Influences the Role of Business-Level Marketing

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Our preliminary study focuses on the NCAA NIL rule that determines how college athletes can profit from their name, image, and likeness while playing college sports. Specifically, we question how student-athletes can supplement a business's marketing strategy, how customers may respond to businesses forming sponsorships and endorsements with student-athletes, and how this rule could affect the social identity of businesses in terms of their marketing practices. We use social identity theory to investigate how businesses can use the NIL ruling to enhance their own social identities to improve their marketing practices and role in the marketplace. Using six in-depth interviews, our findings show that businesses are using the NCAA NIL deal for not only individual marketing gains but to give back to their alma maters and to be social stewards within the community. Throughout our findings, we found that the NCAA NIL ruling allows business owners to build relationships and connections within their community, further improving their marketing. It also allows them to give back. While still in its infancy stage, the NCAA's NIL rule has immense potential for business marketing strategy.

Introduction

"There are many ways for NIL to be advantageous to a small business. The person could be a spokesperson for you. You can use them in advertisements. You can use them on social media."

(Liam, age 61)

Over the years, marketing has evolved, with both innovations and disruptions. Innovations include the Internet and social media, smartphones, omnichannel marketing, and GPS targeting of customers. While disruptions include the 2008 Financial Crisis, ethical and privacy issues, and the COVID-19 global pandemic, among others. The rise of global conglomerates and large-scale retailers (e.g., Amazon, Walmart, Disney, and Apple) has reduced local business owners' partnerships in the community, the way they can market to customers, and the role they play in the global marketplace (Forstadt 2022). However, in recent years there has been a shift toward improving local businesses' roles in their communities, such as with the post-Thanksgiving "Small Business Saturday," "Shop Local" campaigns, the rise of farmer's markets, and socially responsible business strategies (Stoian and Gilman 2017). Because of the COVID-19 pandemic, Forbes.com coined 2022 as the year to shop smaller and locally (Hardcastle 2021). In 2021, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) passed the new Name-Image-Likeness (NIL) rule (Hosick 2021). With the new ruling, we questioned if and how the new rule could help (or hinder) local businesses' business strategy and marketing practices when competing in a globalized marketplace.

Our preliminary study focuses on the NCAA NIL rule that determines how college athletes can profit from their name, image, and likeness while playing college sports (Hosick 2021). According to NCAA Sports (2021), this new policy "allows all NCAA D1, D2, and D3 student-athletes to be compensated for their NIL as of July 1, 2021" (para. 1). In terms of marketing at the student-athlete level, athletes can market themselves through sponsorships, advertising endorsements, and social media marketing strategies, among others (Christiansen 2022). Marketing at the business level includes endorsing and sponsoring student-athletes and businesses creating new strategic marketing roles at the local, community, and university levels. This NCAA NIL rule has not been explored at the academic research level. Management literature has scantily explored this new rule: Kunkel et al. (2021) examined the social

media value of student-athletes' names, images, and likeness. In addition, the *Journal of Applied Sport Management* published articles examining topics such as NIL fit in sports partnerships (Wakefield et al. 2021), athlete well-being (Harris, Brison, and Dixon 2021), and issues that can arise because of this new rule (Dees, Cianfrone, and Andrew 2021). However, no research (as of this writing) has investigated how the NCAA's NIL rule can influence their role and marketing strategy in their communities. Specifically, we question how student-athletes can supplement a business's marketing strategy, how customers may respond to businesses forming sponsorships and endorsements with student-athletes, and how this rule could affect the social identity of businesses in terms of their marketing practices.

Theoretical Background

Social identity theory (SIT) is a social-psychological theory posited by Tajfel and Turner (1979, 1986). It is defined as a theory of "intergroup relations, group processes, and the social self" (Hogg, Terry, and White 1995, p. 259). People (and in our context, businesses) form their social identities "by numerous social categories we identify with…[and] made salient in specific contexts" (Dashtipour 2012, p. 4), where people categorize themselves (Tajfel 1982) as part of the "in-group" or the "out-group" (Tajfel and Turner 1979). Marketing researchers use SIT to investigate areas such as sustainable marketing (e.g., Farida 2014; Lunde 2018), strategic branding (e.g., Lam et al. 2010), student social media experiences (e.g., Fujita, Harrigan, and Soutar 2018), consumer behavior (e.g., Sierra and McQuitty 2007), among others. We build on SIT at the business level to investigate how businesses can use the NIL ruling to enhance their own social identities to improve their marketing practices and role in the marketplace. Our preliminary study will use business owners and managers as participants.

Methods

We use qualitative methods to understand how the identity of businesses (and their marketing strategy) change when investing in student-athletes through the NCAA's NIL rule (Creswell 2013; Hosick 2021; Merriam 2009). After receiving IRB approval, we used the Chamber of Commerce websites of three Midwest communities to find locally established businesses. The communities of these businesses had universities at the collegiate D1, D2, and D3 (divisional) levels. Next, we contacted businesses through email and phone in spring 2022. Then, we scheduled times for participants who agreed to the study. Participants had to be at least 18 years old. They needed to be a business owner or make crucial marketing decisions for the business. Figure 1 shows the six business owners who agreed to be interviewed.

During the in-depth interviews, we asked each participant 20 open-ended questions. Questions included "How would you use your sponsorship as a marketing tool?," "Would investing in student-athletes be a decision based more on the team overall or more on the individual? Why?," and "How would your customers respond to your business sponsoring a college athlete?," among others. These interviews were conducted via phone. Interviews were recorded and later transcribed. Six semi-structured interviews averaged 33 minutes (26-70 minutes in length), all transcribed verbatim into 63 pages of text. All participants in our preliminary study identified as males who sponsored and/or endorsed student-athletes from DI and D2 universities. The average age of our participants was 58.5, with professional backgrounds ranging from food, service, clothing, and automotive.

Table 1. Demographic information of research study participants

Pseudonym	Age	Gender	Background	University Level
John	65	M	Food Service	DI
Sam	42	M	Food Retail	DII
Jack	57	M	Food Service	DII
Miguel	51	M	Wellness Service	DII

Liam	61	M	Clothing Retail	DI & DII
Sean	75	M	Automotive Retail	DI

Findings

Overall, when businesses invested in student-athletes, they did so based on the role they wanted to identify as within the marketplace. Three thematic findings emerged.

1. Marketing their "Individual Identity"

Some business owners invested in student athletes for personal reasons, to grow their marketing by improving their individual identities within the marketplace. Business owners found that student-athletes could help enhance the business's identity within the community. It was a 'quid-pro-quo' type of marketing, where the business helps the student-athlete if the student-athlete helps the business owner. The business owner knew that the star quarterback, for example, could help him improve his business's standing in the community through marketing practices. In turn, the business owner helped the student-athlete by paying for the athlete's name, image, and likeness. One of our participants, Liam, focused on how student-athletes can help his business market for them. Additionally, John spoke about how he would break down paying student-athletes for different marketing practices within his company.

"There's many ways for NIL to be advantageous to a small business. The person could be a spokesperson for you. You can use them in advertisements. You can use them on social media" (Liam, age 61)

"For example, for $400, he would come to your location and do autographs. For $300, he would post twice on the website. For $800, he would come and have lunch with some of your customers…It's not such a heavy investment for us, I think it's great… I've gotten my marketing out of it" (John, age 65)

2. Marketing their "Giving-Back Identity"

Second, business owners invested in student-athletes because they wanted to give back to their alma mater universities, and/or to the student athletes. Some participants knew that investing in student athletes was not going to drastically change their marketing strategy. While investing in student athletes would help with social media following and local community awareness, many business owners invested out of the goodness of their heart and for their local community. Miguel, a former student athlete himself, knew that he wanted to give back to his alma mater university. He primarily wanted to invest in a student athlete to pay it forward, while knowing that the marketing implications that come from it would be secondary.

"Being a former student-athlete…you have no time for anything basically…I was trying to help pay back basically what I got and pay it forward…If we potentially could use it as a marketing tool or an advertising tool to help generate advertising and marketing for our business, then that would be ways that we would look at it. It would have to benefit both of us. That would be I guess a good way to phrase that is to try to work for both of us in that regard." (Miguel, age 51)

3. Marketing their "Social Stewardship Identity"

Third, some business owners invested in student-athletes mainly because they wanted to improve their identity through social stewardship within their local communities. According to Dutta, Lawson, and Marcinko (2012), social stewardship is when a business keeps "in mind their impact on the broader society and environment within

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which the organization operates" (para. 3). As awareness of local businesses has increased in recent years (Forstadt 2022), business owners felt that by investing in student-athletes, they could improve their local awareness and become social stewards in their community (Stoian and Gilman 2017). For example, Sam found that customers responded positively to his business when they knew he was helping the local community. Additionally, John found that his company's overall image and marketing within his local community improved greatly when he became a social steward–becoming a community partner–between his business and the local university.

"I think our customers would think it's pretty cool that we had an athlete working with us and then I think they would also recognize that athlete, even more, when they see them within the community." (Sam, age 42)

"[Student athletes] were local people and I knew their families and just you do a little something like that and it gets in the local paper. That was just a branding type of a deal...we definitely are looking for more of the local [student athletes]..." (John, age 65)

Discussion

Our findings show that businesses are using the NCAA NIL deal for not only individual marketing gains but to give back to their alma maters and to be social stewards within the community. Businesses are always competing and looking for ways to improve their marketing practices through their social identity. Customers respond to how businesses market themselves, how they give back, and how they are social stewards within the community. Throughout our findings, we found that the NCAA NIL ruling allows business owners to build relationships and connections within their community, further improving their marketing. It also allows them to give back. Some of our participants were successful business owners because of what the university had done for them years ago, through sports scholarships and/or what they learned in the classroom. Therefore, years later, these participants felt that, even if the money did not improve their marketing substantially, they wanted to give back by paying it forward to these student-athletes. Finally, by investing in student athletes, businesses found that their overall identity within their community improved by becoming social stewards. These business owners were not looking for a quid-pro-quo with the student-athletes solely to improve their marketing practices. Instead, their social identity (and overall marketing) improved due to investing in student-athletes.

However, we also need to mention three negatives that emerged. Investing money in 18-24-year-old athletes, students can make mistakes. First, legal issues include driving under the influence (DUI), minor in possession (MIP), domestic abuse, and so on. Second, if the athlete in the NIL deal does not withhold their side of the agreement, business deals can fall through and/or the business may experience negative marketing. For example, Liam (age 61) mentioned that athletes might not follow through on posting on social media, attending autographs, or not responding. Third, some universities are getting accused of "buying" players unethically. For example, in an article from ESPN.com, "[University of] Alabama coach Nick Saban singled out Texas A&M [University] for "buying" its top-ranked signing class and threw a spotlight on the unintended effect of name, image, and likeness rights on recruiting during an event with local business leaders" (Scarborough, 2022, para. 1). Last, athletes can transfer to a different university with the new transfer portal. If a student-athlete moved across the country, that deal might no longer relate to the business, community, or player. We found that before businesses make NCAA NIL deals with student-athletes, business owners need to have protocols in place to help avoid some of the negative sides of sponsoring student-athletes.

Theoretical and Practitioner Implications

This study uses social identity theory (SIT) (Tajfel and Turner 1979, 1986) as a framework to understand how businesses socially identify in the marketplace, using the NCAA's NIL ruling to improve their marketing strategy. While the original SIT uses people as the context, understanding they socially identify among their peers, within their in-groups and out-groups (Tajfel 1982), our study extends the theory by examining how businesses socially identify to improve their marketing practices. For example, businesses find that by investing in student-athletes, their marketing improves by becoming more of the "in-group" within their communities and the marketplace.

By socially identifying as the "in-group," our findings show how businesses can build a personal connection and relationship with players, give back to the university, and become social stewards in their local community. This, in turn, improves their marketing practices in three ways. First, businesses can use student-athletes to help with social media, advertising, and personal connections with customers. Second, by giving back to their local university, their brand image and partnership grow by finding potential new student interns, to paying-it-forward to their alma mater, and to becoming positive role models to student-athletes. Third, by becoming social stewards in the community, they are not only trying to sell their products and/or services, but they are improving their image and social standing within the local community and marketplace. Finally, their social identity subsequently improves their brand image among their customers and stakeholders, driving new connections, relationships, and sales.

Limitations and Future Research

A few limitations lead to future research opportunities. First, this new rule, which is still in its infancy, has many unknowns and issues (Dees, Cianfrone, and Andrew 2021). Therefore, there were limitations in finding participants who knew what the NCAA NIL rule was and even fewer potential participants who had invested in student-athletes. This newness of the NIL rule limited our participants to six. Future researchers will want to conduct interviews with participants in more cities and locations in future years when the NIL rule becomes more widespread. Second, we looked at this from a business-side perspective, exploring how businesses navigate their social identity and role with this new NIL rule, influencing their marketing strategy. Future researchers could examine how student-athletes are affected by partnering with businesses.

Finally, our research examined business owners of small businesses. However, a few partnerships have emerged as time progresses where student-athletes are being "bought" by large corporations (ESPN.com 2022). Future researchers could investigate how multi-million-dollar partnerships affect the marketing of businesses, student branding, student-athlete transfer portal, and recruiting, among other areas. Many of these future research questions can be better answered as more students, businesses, and athletes learn of and use the NCAA NIL rule. While still in its infancy stage, the NCAA's NIL rule has immense potential for business marketing strategy.

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SESSION 9E: DESIRES & WASTES

CHAIR:

Ricardo Villarreal

Summary Brief
Personality Traits Predict Behaviors of Legal Marijuana Consumers

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Abstract

Segmentation is an important aspect of marketing, and identifying variables that best predict behaviors is fundamental to meeting the five criteria of effective segmentation. A common approach to segmentation is to define segments by personal demographic variables, such as ethnicity, sex, and age. More recently, segmentation has relied on psychological variables, especially the Big 5 Personality Traits. Grounded on sound psychometric properties, the Big 5 has led to greater understandings of segmentation. The present study uses data mining via recursive partitioning to identify those demographic variables and personality traits that best predict aspects of legal marijuana use. Personality traits, and not demographic variables, were most effective in predicting responses.

Introduction

Recreational marijuana use is currently legal in 19 U.S. states and the District of Columbia. Washington and Colorado were the first two states to legalize marijuana use in 2012, and Rhode Island was the latest state to legalize use in 2022. Expectedly, marijuana use in the United States has become big business. Since 2020, the number of adult cannabis users has grown from about 3.5 million users in 2020 to about 5 million users in 2022. The number is projected to grow to about 6 million users by 2025. Sales of legal marijuana amounted to $7.5 billion in 2019, $15 billion in 2021, and is expected to reach $25 billion by 2025 (New Frontier Data). Rapid changes in attitudes toward marijuana and the amount of money offered by the marijuana market makes understanding of demographic and personality traits, person-level characteristics often used to define marketing segments, that predict positive attitudes towards marijuana an important part of creating a successful marketing strategy.

Background

Market segmentation by personal demographic characteristics has been used implicitly and explicitly since the birth of marketing. Common demographic variables include age, education level, ethnic group, sex at birth, income, employment, religion and marital status. Personality has been an important variable in marketing starting in the 1960s (e.g., Axelrod, 1963; Claycamp, 1965; Evans, 1961; Evans and Roberts, 1963). In 1971, Kassarjian reviewed the existing marketing research literature relating to personality and noted inconsistencies in how personality was operationalized. It was not until the late 1980s that personality was defined according to what is known as the Big Five (McCrae and Costa, 1987), an operationalization that remains in use today.

Understanding the predictive ability of personal demographic variables and personality traits in relation to attitudes toward marijuana can help brands understand how to communicate with particular segments. Marketing communications can be framed to help connect with the customer's sense of identity in terms of personal demographics, as research shows that consumers purchase brands to reinforce and express their sense of identity (e.g., Blozis & Villarreal, 2014; Forehand & Deshpande, 2001; Harrison, Thomas, & Cross, 2017; Villarreal & Peterson, 2008). Further, individual personality traits, such as extraversion or openness, may suggest a different way to frame marketing communications. Hirsh, Kang, and Bodenhausen (2012), for example, found that tailoring brand messages according to the individual consumer's personality profile effectively impacted the persuasiveness of messaging. Indeed, individual personality traits have been linked to better understanding of word of mouth (Ranbarian, 2013), customer loyalty (Karbasi, 2014), and brand evangelism (Doss, 2014).

Methodology

For this study, data were collected by a survey administered to a sample of 333 adults representative of the U.S. general population. The mean age was 40 (range 18-77 years). All participants indicated some marijuana use ranging from having ever used to using in the past week. Indicators of the Big 5 personality traits were from the Ten Item Personality Measure (TIPI) (Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann's (2003) and measured using a 7-point ordinal scale, where 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Somewhat Disagree, 4=Neither Disagree Nor Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Agree, 7=Strongly Agree. Survey questions were grouped according to self-described user type (infrequent user, regular user, starting to explore, and super user), consumption behavior (dabbing and topical) and message impact (celebrity and influencer endorsed). Recursive partitioning was used to identify homogeneous segments according to individual demographic and personality traits and their interactions as predictors of attitudes and behaviors relating to marijuana use. Analyses were carried out using JMP Pro 16's partition-based modeling.

Recursive partitioning is a data mining technique that classifies individuals according to one or more variables that best predict the outcome. In the first step, one predictor among the set of predictors is selected that best accounts for the outcome, and the result is a classification of individuals according to the levels of the predictor. For example, if the predictor is a categorical variable, then the sample is divided into two groups according to the best split among the categories of the predictor. Each of these subsets is then analyzed individually to find the predictor variable that best accounts for the outcome for that particular subset of data. The end result is a classification of the sample according to the best predictors and their interactions. Here, analysis of each outcome variable involved all demographic characteristics and the five personality traits (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism), such that any of these predictors could be selected as best.

Key Findings

The best predictor of each outcome variable involved at least one personality trait and in no analysis was a demographic variable selected as a predictor. This is an interesting finding because it suggests that consumer segmentation may be best driven by personality traits and not demographic variables as is often done in market research. Of the personality traits, Agreeableness best predicted self-described user type. In Image 1 below, results show first and second level partitioning results, where Agreeableness predicted the first-level split and Neuroticism predicted the second-level split, accounting for 12% of the outcome variance.

Image 1: Predictors of Self-described User Type
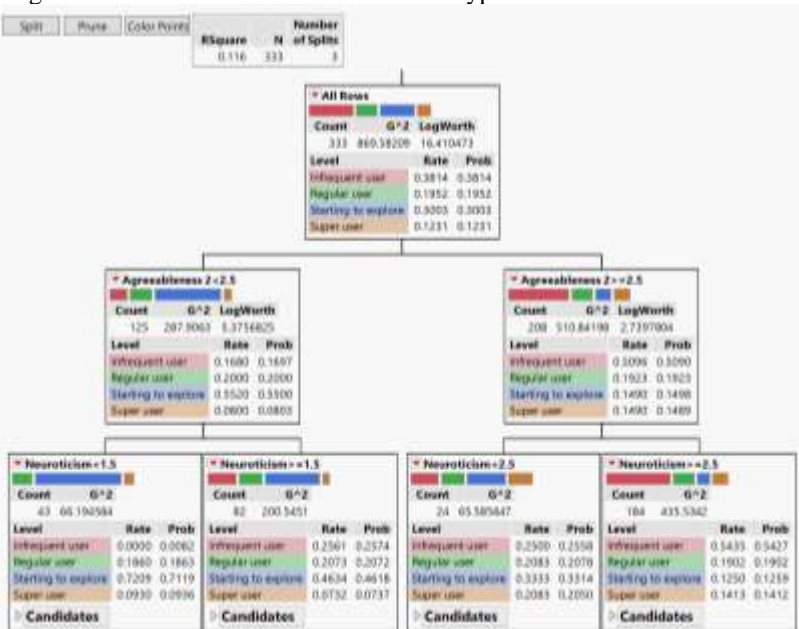
In terms of agreement or disagreement with use or non-use of dabbing as a consumption behavior, Neuroticism best predicted responses for dabbing, while Extraversion best predicted responses for topicals. Image 2 below shows first and second level partitioning results for dabbing, showing first level difference between those higher in Neuroticism related to those lower on Neuroticism. Second level splits for those higher on Neuroticism show a difference between those higher on Extraversion related to those lower on Extraversion. Second level split for those

lower on Neuroticism show differences between those higher on Openness in comparison to those lower on Openness. The total variance explained was 24%. In terms of agreement or disagreement with use or non-use of topicals, Extraversion best predicted responses. In Image 3 below shows first and second level partitioning results, with Extraversion predicting the first-level split with differences between those higher on Extraversion than those lower on Extraversion. predicting the second-level split for those high on extraversion, while Openness predicted the second-level split for those low on extraversion, accounting for 18% of explained variance.

Image 2: Use or Non-use of Dabbing   Image 3: Use or Non-use of Topicals
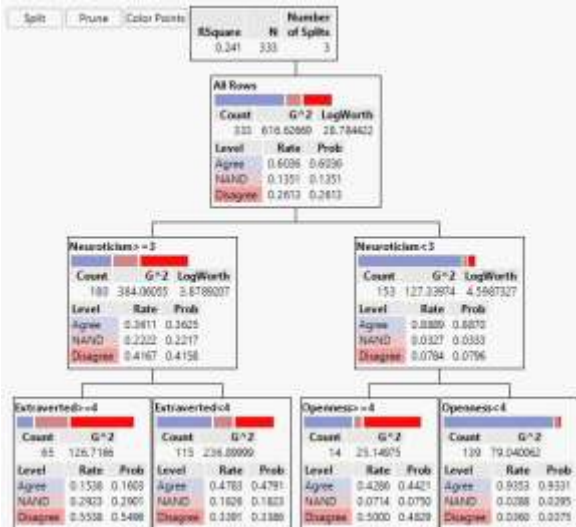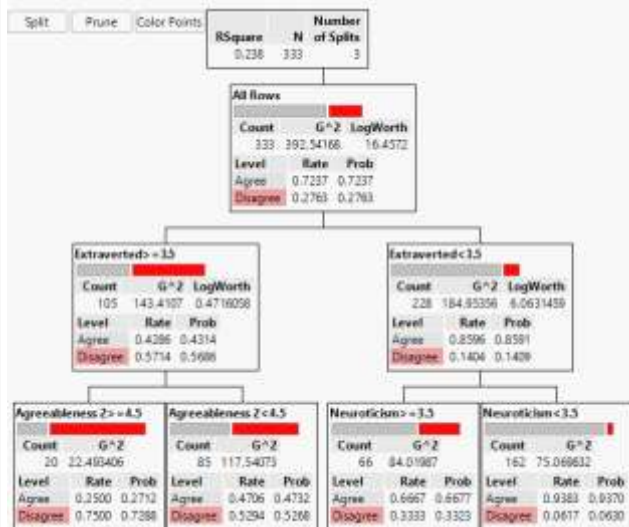
The last set of results is for responses related to the level of agreement or disagreement with the importance of buying products that are celebrity and influencer endorsed. Image 4 below shows that Extraversion predicted first-level splits for celebrity endorsed products. The second-level split for those high on Extraversion was predicted by Openness. For those low on Extraversion, Agreeableness predicted the second-level split. The total variance explained was 27%. For influencer endorsed products, Image 5 below shows that Extraversion predicted first-level split, too. However, the second-level split for influencer endorsed products, the second-level split was predicted by Agreeableness. The total variance explained was 26%

Image 4: Celebrity Endorsed Products   Image 5: Influencer Endorsed Products
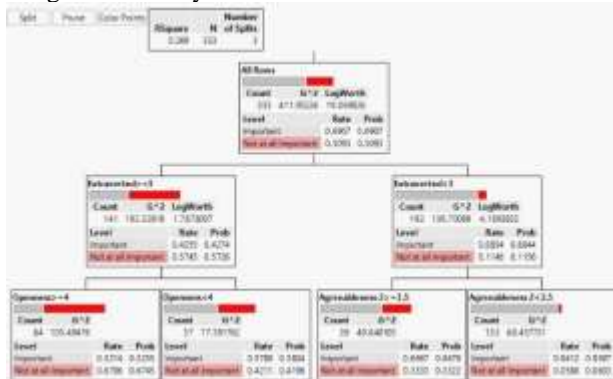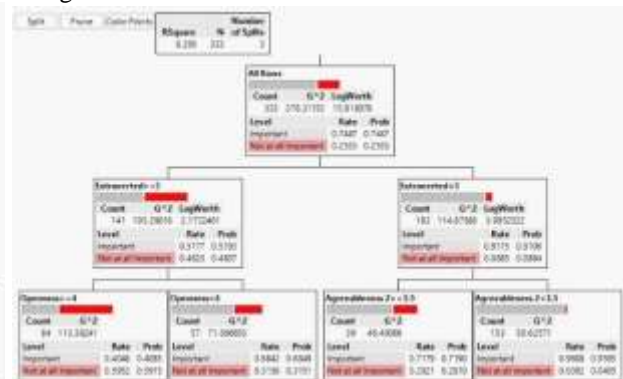
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Summary Brief
A Study of Consumer Food Waste Behavior Using Motivation–Opportunity–Ability (MOA) Framework

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This work investigates food waste behavior by employing the MOA framework. The study aims to overcome the attitude-behavior gap by incorporating factors like cooking skills, shopping frequencies, and freezer usage. The study further contributes by examining novel constructs such as religious motives against wasting food, and knowledge of food storage.

Introduction

This study focuses on the food wasted in households, which comprises the bulk of global waste food (European Commission, 2010). A Motivation–Opportunity–Ability (MOA) framework, which has been applied in prior studies examining pro-environmental behavior (Ölander & ThØgersen, 1995), is employed in this research to investigate consumer food waste behavior. The MOA framework suggests that behavior is determined by a combination of motivation, opportunity, and ability factors (MacInnis et al., 1991). It is suggested that motivation consists of a group of beliefs, values, and attitudes governing behavior. Opportunity includes situational factors that influence a specific behavior. Ability is considered an individual characteristic such as skills and knowledge that help certain behavior (van Geffen et al., 2020). Based on that, the main objective of this study is to examine the relationship between consumer motives, opportunities, abilities, and food waste behavior. For the motivation dimension, the model comprises religious and moral motives. Regarding the ability dimension, shopping practices, cooking skills, and storage knowledge are included in the model. As for the opportunity dimension, frequency of grocery shopping, frequency of cooking, usage of a freezer, and availability of fridge space are incorporated in the model.

Background

This study contributes to food waste research by examining food waste behavior with the MOA framework. Most research in this domain employs attitude-intention models, which don't consider consumers' habits, skills, and resources; therefore, they report a significant gap between attitudes and behavior (Soma et al., 2021). This study aims to overcome that shortcoming by incorporating factors, such as cooking skills, shopping frequencies, and freezer usage.

The study also contributes to the existing body of literature by utilizing some novel constructs. For instance, religious motives to reduce food waste, such as believing that food is sacred, are included in the model. In addition to that, a test on food storage knowledge is developed, to incorporate an objective knowledge construct in the model.

Another contribution is made through sample characteristics. A young sample is recruited for the research which helps us understand the millennials' food waste-related skills and motives. Moreover, the study is conducted in Turkey, an emerging country with changing consumption practices. Besides, more than 95% of the population in Turkey is considered Muslim, and more than 80% regard themselves as religious (Esmer, 2012). Overall, the context of the study is also fruitful, given that most current work focuses on developed and non-Islamic countries.

Key Findings

This study employs a questionnaire to investigate the relationships between the constructs mentioned above. The survey comprises items assessing participants' food waste behaviors for various staples (e.g. How much rice and pasta are thrown away in your household of what you buy in a regular week), moral motives (e.g. I feel guilty when I throw food away), religious motives (e.g. I believe that throwing away food is a sin), cooking skills (e.g. I can use the food items at my disposal to improvise a recipe), shopping practices (e.g. I often impulsively purchase food items that I did not plan to buy), storage knowledge (e.g. How do you best store potatoes and onions?), frequency of shopping (e.g. How frequently does someone in your household go grocery shopping?), frequency of cooking (e.g. How frequently does someone in your household cook?), freezer usage (e.g. I use my freezer frequently), and fridge usage (e.g. I usually have enough fridge space to store uneaten food).

The data for this is study gathered using an online survey. The sample consists of 386 undergraduate students. 46.9 % of the respondents are female with a mean age of 19.9, and the average household size is 3,9.

The analysis of the data is made using structural equation modeling. The fit indices indicated a good fit of the structural model (CMIN/df= 1739, TLI = 0.939, CFI = 0.948, RMSEA = 0.044.). The estimated path between

moral motives and food waste behavior is significant ($\square$ = -0.68, p < 0.01). Moreover, the paths from cooking skills ($\square$ = -0.39, p < 0.05) and storage knowledge ($\square$ = -0.27, p < 0.05) to food waste behavior are also significant. Last, the estimated paths from cooking frequency ($\square$ = -0.36, p < 0.05) and freezer usage ($\square$ = 0.32, p < 0.05) to food waste behavior are significant as well. All the remaining paths are insignificant.

The findings of the study reveal that, first and foremost, for the motivation dimension, moral motives have a significant relationship with food waste behavior. Individuals, who believe that throwing food away is wrong and those who feel guilty when they do so, waste less. Secondly, for the ability dimension, it is found that cooking skills and storage knowledge help individuals reduce their food waste. It is likely that individuals with creative cooking skills can efficiently handle their supplies and discard less. Furthermore, individuals, who are well informed about the proper storage conditions of various food items, don't allow their supplies to get spoiled, thus wasting less. Finally, for the opportunity dimension, the frequency of cooking and availability of storage in the freezer is significantly associated with food waste behavior. Specifically, as individuals cook more frequently, they get less wasteful with their food. On the other hand, contrary to expectations, an increase in the usage of the freezer is associated with an increase in food waste behavior. It is possible that as freezer usage is relatively new in Turkey, usage practices are not quite established yet.

This study has useful implications for NGOs and policymakers trying to reduce food waste. The findings of the study might be beneficial in designing effective food waste reduction campaigns. Based on the findings of this study, it is demonstrated that promoting frequent cooking, fortifying individual moral norms against waste, improving food storage knowledge, and cultivating the cooking skills of the consumers will be effective goals in food waste reduction campaigns.

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Summary Brief

Resonating with the Unconscious and Embodied Desires Behind the Screen--The Efficiency of Empathetic Advertising Messages on Tourist Websites

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This research proposes that although advertising does not "create desire," it should use empathetic messaging to resonate with and respond to unconscious desires that are embodied within consumers. The design challenge, therefore, is to understand consumer desires, to show empathy for such desires, and to deliver advertising messages that resonate. This ethnographic research seeks to investigate consumers' unconscious and embodied emotions about and desires for tourist destinations and to examine the efficiency of empathetic advertising messages on tourist websites. Research findings suggest that: 1) consumer desires for travel are embodied; 2) such desires often exist before consumers are exposed to advertising messages, deriving from past experiences, imagination and sensorial imageries learned from stimuli; and 3) consumers positively react to empathetic advertising messages that resonate with their multi-sensorial desires, imagination, and memories and negatively react to advertising messages that do not resonate regardless of the advertising design patterns.

Consistent with previous research evidencing the therapeutic power of hospitality and tourism in negative mood reduction and positive mood reinforcement (Kang and Johnson 2011), the present research illustrates that when people examine a website for a travel destination, they essentially are experiencing a cry for happiness, self-understanding, peace, love, "going back to the good time" and all that allows them to keep going after the travelling. That cry needs to be heard, understood, and resonated.

Advertising is a communication message "from an advertiser" with the "intention to remind, inform or persuade." In the HTT field, such communication also has to offer empathy and healing by resonating with consumers' existing desires and imagination. Insight from the art creation perspective, especially that of the master painter Leonardo Di Vinci, illustrates the importance of "mirroring" or in "modern terms…empathy" (Horvath 2018). It refers to the artist's understanding of the audience while creating a painting. In a person-to-person communication, empathic feelings for the other—feelings of sympathy, compassion, tenderness, and the like—allow the communicator to relieve the suffering of the person for whom empathy is felt (Batson 2009). In the design of advertising messages, being empathetic is to resonate with the unconscious desires, imagination, and nostalgia for childhood memories and past experiences and to allow people to have a "live" scenario feeling.

The creation of such empathetic advertising messages is dependent on a large-scale understanding of consumer desires, and it will be possible only with certain new technology that allows advertisers to be in systematic dialogues with consumers. AI dialogues with carefully designed questions based on rich ethnographic research may be a starting point for such understanding and empathy. Thus, future advertising research must include new technology and message delivery topics, AI, VR, and AR experiments as well as more research orientations that facilitate interactions with and dialogues between advertising agencies and individual consumers.

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SESSION 9F: IDEA SYMPOSIUM SESSION 1

CHAIR:

Jeff Tanner

Ania Izabela Rynarzewska

Diane Edmondson

Summary Brief

Being Inclusive Means Being Accessible: Problems with Digital Media for Visually Impaired Consumers

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The COVID-19 pandemic changed the way we conduct our in-person opportunities, and it forced many consumers to work, study, and shop online – creating a large shift to a digital experience. Social media platforms and websites have become a source of information as well as a gateway to e-commerce. Unfortunately, many consumers with visual impairments are unable to learn about products and services available due to the lack of accessibility and inclusive design. Over two billion people worldwide and over seven million people in the U.S. have a vision impairment and rely on inclusive design and accessibility to interpret messages, images, videos digitally. Unfortunately, there can be inaccuracies. This study explores the difficulties that practitioners have incorporating alt text, thus limiting accessibility and inclusion for users with visual impairments and shares the results of a study examining the accuracy of alt text in social media posts shared from brands.

Introduction

When organizations discuss inclusion, diversity, equity, and access in their operations and practices, it's important to examine which people and what aspects are being referenced. For example, visually impaired consumers are often excluded when it comes to inclusiveness and accessibility of digital media. A recent review (Crownpeak 2021) found that 98% of 1,000,000 websites examined lacked fully accessible features and included many inaccuracies based on the Web Content and Accessibility Guidelines (WCAG), making the sites inaccessible and exclusive for many consumers. While guidelines for websites are available, there is little direction regarding social media. From the standpoint of "inclusive marketing practices," especially related to digital media such as websites and social media platforms, it is extremely clear that organizations are not being inclusive and/or providing equal access to digital media for all consumers. As such, if information not accessible, both virtual shopping experiences and ultimately consumers' purchase decisions are affected.

Background

The digital landscape has changed the way consumers learn, get information, and shop. In January 2022, 4.62 billion people worldwide (58.4% of populations) used social media (Chaffey 2022) and that number is expected to surpass six billion by 2026 (Statista 2022). Globally, marketers spent 63.6% of their advertising budgets on digital media in 2021and that number expected to increase to almost 67% in 2022 (Cramer-Flood 2022) with a large amount of the money being spent on social media. Advertisers are spending more on digital media than all other types of promotion combined. Unfortunately, with the increased reliance on digital media, consumers with visual impairments are often not included due to lack of accessibility. Digital literacy also presents challenges for many visually impaired consumers and although usage of digital accessible features is not mandated by law, consumers are suing an increasing number of retailers and winning.

Key Findings

Our study focused on inclusivity and accessibility of brand advertisers' social media posts for visually impaired consumers. Specifically, the study examined the inclusion and accuracy of alt text as well as auto alt text (using AI) on social media platforms. Our results showed that many posts were not user-friendly regarding accessibility features. Extremely concerning is that even when alt text was included, these were manifested as "auto alt text," which did not always accurately reflect the product depicted in the image.

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Summary Brief
Diversity Equity and Inclusion Within the Marketing Classroom

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Although discussions within institutions on diversity, inclusion, and equity are not new, the last several years has brought a new sense of urgency to the topics. Many businesses recognize this desire and increased urgency and since the spring of 2020, many businesses are responding with the introduction Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion (DEI) structures and initiatives. There are known benefits for including DEI into institutional structures. Yet, very little is known on how to do this within the business classroom. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to understand ways of and reactions to implementing DEI within a marketing classroom.

Introduction

Although discussions within institutions on Diversity, Equity and Inclusion are not new, the last several years have brought upon a new sense of urgency to the topics. Indeed, the use of social media and the internet as well as shifting norms have fostered further political involvement and expedited the development of cultural movements. For instance, the Black Lives Matter movement was started in 2013 by three women to fight racism and anti-Black violence (Black Lives Matter 2022). Yet the movement really took off with the use of the #blacklivesmatter hashtag following the murder of George Floyd (Auxier 2020). During the summer of 2020, Black social media users were more likely to use social media, such as Twitter, to connect with likeminded people and get involved in issues important to them (ibid).

Inequity of race, gender, sexuality, and socioeconomic statues were also highlighted recently through additional movements, such as the #MeToo movement, as well as through the global COVID-19 pandemic. Within the United States, economic inequality, which is tied to a multitude of factors including discrimination, is rising. However, citizen's awareness of the issues are rising as well, with the majority of Americans recognizing inequalities in economic system (Arias et al. 2022). Further, 62% of people believe large businesses and corporations should assume an important role in reducing inequality issues (ibid).

Many businesses recognize this desire and have increased urgency to implement efforts for change. Since the spring of 2020, many businesses are responding with the introduction of Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion (DEI) structures and initiatives. The term DEI is now shared widely in company's mission statements, higher education classrooms, and within leadership positions. Although DEI can be done well, it has been found that many employees believe their employers have either not set their DEI goals high enough or have made promises that the organization has been unable to fulfill (Kavitha et al. 2022). Additionally, there are concerns that DEI came about so quickly that there fails to be a cohesive definition of what is supposed to be accomplished within these initiatives (Ballard et al. 2020). Yet as marketers, diversity and inclusion-based learning is a clear opportunity to expand good marketing practices and ethical compliance, while simultaneously forming better customer relationships and increasing shared value (Rivera et al. 2019).

Background

The complexities surrounding the emergence of 'Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion' place business educators in a unique position: to discuss and educate on a very important topic with a large spotlight, in which very few established best practices exist. Further, it also begs the question of how to best implement DEI practices within the classroom. When approaching this topic, educators must be particularly cognizant of the effects motivated reasoning will have on the interpretation of information presented to students. Motivated reasoning is the tendency for people to start with a predetermined belief and from there seek evidence to support their belief while also discrediting incongruent information. (Chu et al., 2021). If we were to take this information and combine it with what we know about the arrival of DE&I practices among a tense political environment and high stakes social differences we could be led to believe that most people have some aspect of about the term "Diversity, Equity and Inclusion".

The purpose of this research is to deconstruct DEI message delivery to thoroughly understand reactions to, and best practices for, implementation of inclusive learning within a marketing classroom. To this, we have begun the process of interviewing several experts in educational leadership to better understand current practices of DEI in the classroom, what is currently working (and what isn't), as well as what the most critical information is currently needed. Interview data collection will commence by August 2022.

We are designing a survey experiment to manipulate three aspects of a collegiate classroom structure: course content, course title and course professor. DVs collected will include willingness to take the course, attitude toward the course, positive word-of-mouth, and discomfort. IVs collected will include several personal cultural orientations (i.e., masculinity, gender equality, power, and social inequality), involvement with politics, and work importance. The survey will go out to 300-500 undergraduate students this fall semester and preliminary results will be able to be discussed by the 2022 SMA conference.

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Summary Brief
Socioeconomic Status as a Barrier to Inclusivity in College Sports: A Preliminary Investigation

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Mathew Joseph, St. Mary's University, USA

Collegiate athletics operates under the premise that individuals with limited academic merit can leverage their athletic abilities to attend elite universities regardless of their ethnic or socioeconomic status. However, this preliminary study found, in conjunction with existing research, that the cost of participation and geographic location act as barriers that prevent athletes from effectively utilizing the sports-track-to-college pipeline. This preliminary study will be expanded to include a larger, more diverse sample size. The findings of this study provide insight as to the perceived barriers that prevent talented athletes of low socioeconomic status from participating in sport at an elite level. The findings can also be used to identify areas of the collegiate athletic recruiting process that can be improved upon to allow more low-income athletes to access the sports-track-to-college pipeline.

Introduction

For many students from low socioeconomic backgrounds, the route to college is not guaranteed by their academic success. Research indicates that household income level and race are greater determinants of access to higher education than merit (Hextrum, 2019). This disparity paves the way for the premise that students of low socioeconomic status with limited academic merit can leverage their athletic talent to attend elite universities. The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) allows universities to develop alternative admissions processes for athletes as long as the athletes meet the minimum academic standards set by the NCAA for all participants in college athletics. This provides top universities with the opportunity to admit students with athletic merit based on lower admissions criteria than the rest of the student body (Hextrum, 2019).

The aforementioned premise is referred to as the "sports-track-to-college pipeline" (Hextrum, 2019). This alternative route to a college education, and subsequent social mobility, is sought after by many students who lack the academic merit or financial means to receive a college education. However, there are numerous mechanisms within this pipeline to college athletics that act as barriers which prevent athletes of low socioeconomic status from effectively utilizing it. Overall, access to communities with economic resources, beneficial geographic locations, and institutional access tend to produce athletes that are better equipped to utilize the sports-track-to-college pipeline (Hextrum, 2019). According to Grabmeier (2021), students from high socioeconomic backgrounds, on average, have more academic and athletic resources that prepare them to attend college. These students also tend to have higher expectations of receiving a college education and are thus more likely to be expected to attend college by their social connections (including family, friends, and coaches). Additionally, students of higher socioeconomic status are more likely to have access to niche sports like rowing, fencing, or lacrosse due to their geographic location or the quality of their high school sport offerings. The combination of these advantages positions such individuals to better utilize the sports-track-to-college pipeline, which increases the likelihood that they will participate in college athletics (Grabmeier, 2021).

Method

This study utilizes a qualitative method through an exploratory survey distributed to current and former collegiate athletes across varying sports and levels of competition. The Qualtrics platform was used to distribute the survey and collect data from the respondents. The survey seeks to determine the average socioeconomic status of athletes who are currently or who have previously competed in sport at the collegiate level. The survey also seeks to define the barriers (if any) experienced by minority and low-income athletes that inhibited their ability to participate in sport at the collegiate level. The findings of this survey will be used to determine if the perceived barriers are consistent across a variety of sports and competition levels. This survey received 49 complete responses over a two-

week period from June 13, 2022, to June 27, 2022. This preliminary study will be expanded to include a larger, more diverse sample.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to build on existing research to determine barriers that prevent minority and low-income athletes from competing in college athletics. The preliminary investigation revealed similar barriers to those found in existing research—cost and location. Location proved a more difficult barrier to overcome in areas where the local community resources were insufficient to fund the desired sport programs. This finding is also in line with trends in low-income versus high-income areas (Allison et al., 2016; Whitaker et al., 2019). Low-income areas are less likely to offer the same sport resources and programs as high-income areas.

This study can be improved upon as part of more extensive research using a correlation analysis to determine the association between income, ethnicity, and barriers to sport participation. It can also be expanded to include more sports and a larger sample size to determine if trends are consistent across all sports or more prevalent in specific sports.

Based on the preliminary findings, there are several barriers that prevent athletes of low socioeconomic status from participating in college athletics. These barriers occur both in their development at the junior level and during the college recruiting process. In order to ensure equal and inclusive access to college athletics, these barriers must be removed or minimized.

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Summary Brief
Bridging the Gap between Classroom and Boardroom

Somjit Barat, Pennsylvania State University, USA

My proposal involves students to work with and provide practical solutions to small, sustainable, struggling businesses located mostly in Asian, Latin American and African countries. Students apply their knowledge to solve real-world problems and proactively promote community development, sustainability, equity and inclusion. This is a unique application of experiential learning both from the students' and the instructors' perspectives.

Based on David Kolb's (1984) theory of experiential learning, students start with 'experiencing' the problem at hand, followed by their 'reflection' i.e., sharing with other learners, which culminates in the application of knowledge to solve the problem. In partnership with a professional solutions-provider, we work with struggling businesses who do not have the resources or the expertise to survive on their own. During this exercise, students communicate remotely one-on-one with the business-owner (through an interpreter, if required) to understand the situation, zero-in on the problem, and deliver easy-to-implement, customizable solutions.

Introduction

One of the biggest concerns for Business students, especially in small communities such as ours, is the inability to apply their classroom knowledge to real-world scenarios. Repeated and cumbersome attempts to hook up local businesses with students have met with negligible success, mainly due to lack of business presence and partnerships, but also due to time constraints of 15-week semester. Consequently, but not surprisingly, such attempts had to be shelved for an indefinite period, even though the importance of student-industry partnership can hardly be overemphasized.

Theoretical background

To address this long-standing problem, I apply David Kolb's (1984) theory of experiential learning and implementing an identical approach as part of my curriculum. This innovative pedagogical technique, being implemented for the first time on our campus, presents a tremendous opportunity for students to analyze an existing problem and provide potential solutions using tools that we discuss as part of the curriculum.

Figure 1: Kolb's Learning Cycle
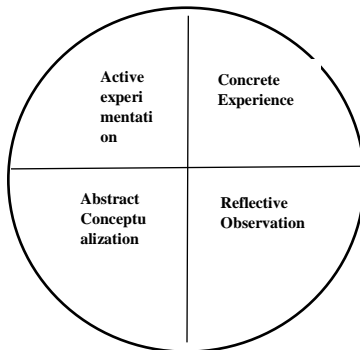
(Adopted from SimplyPsychology at https://www.simplypsychology.org/learning-kolb.html and from Behind and Beyond Kolb's Learning Cycle by Russ, V. (1998))

Methodology

The implementation of this program involves a step-by-step approach as outlined below: Step 1. Students identify an appropriate business to work with in consultation and collaboration with our partner, who works as a liaison between academic institutions and struggling businesses; these small companies do not have the financial or infrastructural resources of larger firms to resolve such challenges on their own; Step 2. Students assess challenges faced by the businesses and create a report of which and how to address specific issues in consultation with business rep and instructor; Step 3. Student develops business plan for ailing business in consultation with business rep and instructor; Step 4. Student designs and develops a timeline of small, measurable benchmarks to be achieved at different points during the semester in consultation with instructor; Step 5: Student implements new measures for a specific

time-period to address business challenges and business rep confirms whether new measures have been implemented; Step 6: Business rep and instructor measure effect of implementation of new business plan, the goal being that post-implementation metrics are better than pre-implementation metrics and Step 7: Business rep and instructor validate that action plan has been fully implemented, culminating in a mutual agreement between business rep and student that desired results have been achieved. From a business-discipline perspective, our initiative involves a SMART plan:

Specific: Given the challenge for students to apply their classroom knowledge to real-world problems, this endeavor allows them to explore different businesses and identify the ones that present a good fit with the course requirements/parameters.

Measurable: Every step of the problems as well as the solutions suggested, are meticulously documented, and tracked.

Achievable: The instructor mentors the students during the entire process to ensure that all stakeholders are on track and there is regular, clear communication between the students and the businesses, the goal being to accomplish the objective within one semester.

Realistic: Only those businesses whom we can deliver a customized solution within the parameters of the coursework, will be carefully chosen.

Time-sensitive: The entire process is completed within the 15-week timeframe of a regular semester, so that students can be awarded a grade based on their performance.

Benefits/Implications

Impact on People: Through the process, we involve and offer equal representation to the learners, both students and business-owners. My innovative and unique proposal involves students and faculty-members across disciplines, who can contribute to their respective areas of business expertise (such as economics, management, accounting, finance) and hence, will have a multiplier effect in terms of the number of students impacted by this endeavor. Data suggest that only 33% of employers feel that our current graduates possess leadership skills; only 41% feel that they have communication skills and only 42.5% feel that graduates are professionally proficient (National Association of Colleges and Employers, 2018).

Impact on Purpose: As an institute of higher education, we not only offer top notch education, but also vigorously support community enrichment, and upliftment of our less-fortunate partners. Given that our university lays major emphasis on sustainability, equity, equitable distribution, encouraging under-represented communities, respect and pedagogy, I believe that my proposal is strongly aligned with such vision.

Impact on Passion: As educators, our goal is not just to hand out a degree to our graduating students, but also mold the future generation of learners who understand the challenges of economic disparity, discrimination, marginalization and deprivation due to decades-long policies and practices. We often forget that true development does not imply advancement by a select few but comes only when there is more equitable distribution and access to resources.

Building Sustainable Partnerships: This initiative will offer the struggling businesses a solid push in the form of business consulting and planning with the hope that they will become part of their good business practices in the future. We will continue to maintain such partnerships and monitor the progress of the business, as needed.

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SESSION 9G: CULTURAL APPROPRIATION IN MARKETING: FASHION AND FANDOM

CHAIR:

Stephanie Lawson

PANELISTS:

Stephanie Lawson, Appalachian State University, USA

Cara Peters, Winthrop University, USA

Jane Thomas, Winthrop University, USA

Panel

Cultural Appropriation in Marketing: Fashion and Fandom

Stephanie Lawson, Appalachian State University, USA
Jane Thomas, Winthrop University, USA

Introduction

This interactive symposium style panel discussion will begin with a visual montage of fashion and fandom images followed by an evidence-based discussion of topics related to cultural appropriation in marketing. Panelists and attendees will engage in a proactive discussion on future research pathways aimed at engaging a greater number of scholars in the important topics of cultural appropriation in the physical and digital marketplace.

Owing to the increased awareness of systemic racial, ethnic and cultural inequities permeating society, consumers have taken to social media to discuss and debate the complex issues of cultural appropriation that are taking place within the field of marketing. Cultural appropriation is defined as the "taking intellectual property, cultural expressions, artifacts, history and ways of knowledge from another culture" and utilizing it for personal gain (Ziff and Rao, 1997, p. 1). Claims about cultural appropriation include that it harms the appropriated community, transforms the cultural object itself, and financially benefits the person who is taking it, to the detriment of others (Ziff and Rao, 1997). The concept of cultural appropriation is about social, political and economic power over oppressed groups that has taken place throughout history and continues in marketing practices today.

According to Ziff and Rao (1997, p. 6), there are a variety of "sites of contestation" for cultural appropriation, ranging from literature, popular culture, advertising, education, religion, art, music, and science, to law, film, and fashion. However, the issues are different depending on what is being appropriated, by whom, and in what way (Young and Brunk, 2012). The purpose of this panel will be to share perspectives on cultural appropriation taking place between and among consumers and marketers in the following contexts: fashion, sports, and music festivals. The specific contents of each panel member's presentation is provided below.

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Young, J. O. and Brunk, C. G. (2012), *The Ethics of Cultural Appropriation,* Blackwell Publishing Ltd, West Sussex, UK.

Ziff, B. and Roa, P. (1997), *Borrowed Power: Essays on Cultural Appropriation,* Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, NJ.

Cultural Appropriation in Fashion: A Consumer Socialization Perspective

Numerous examples of cultural appropriation exist in fashion, ranging from culturally insensitive brand names to inappropriate usage of sacred cultural motifs and garments. Major fashion houses, such as Victoria Secret, Ralph Lauren, and Chanel have been criticized for appropriating cultural artifacts into their designs and fashion shows. In fact, fashion has a history of utilizing imitation in the creation of apparel and designers have been inspired by, and borrowed from, symbols and aesthetics of other cultures since its inception (Vézina, 2019). Moreover, there is little legal protection from the copying that exists within fashion, as clothes are deemed to be "functional" by the U. S. Copyright Office (Green and Kaiser, 2017).

There is a small, but growing, academic literature on cultural appropriation in fashion. The purpose of this presentation is to examine cultural appropriation in fashion from the perspective of consumer socialization theory. The presentation will unpack the role of parents in socializing their children with respect to cultural appropriation in fashion. Specifically, this presentation will overview literature on cultural appropriation in fashion and present a series of cases that show how parents, for good or bad, are teaching their young children to culturally appropriate in the fashion context. The theoretical and managerial implications of these parental practices will then be discussed.

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Cultural Appropriation of Native American Imagery and Sacred Symbols in Fashion and Fandom

Native American folklore and imagery are woven into the tapestry of American history. Native American cultural interpretations are intertwined with the origin story of the United States. Depictions of Native American stereotypes exist throughout American culture from sports, education, and literature to mass media and advertising (Hanson and Rouse, 1987). Native American cultural misappropriation in marketing is pervasive and paradoxical. Cultural appropriation of Native American culture persists owing to systemic assumptions of homogeneity among culturally distinct and sovereign indigenous nations (Merskin, 2001). The presentation will explore how Native American culture has been appropriated in the fashion and fandom spaces and discuss inconsistencies in the usage of Native American imagery, symbols and cultural motifs. Specifically, the underpinnings of the paradoxical nature of the phenomenon are explored in an effort to provide possible solutions for tribal members and society at large.

Unlike books, music, and art, there is little legal protection from the copying that exists within fashion (Concannon, 2017). Well before fashion became a lucrative industry, the United States Copyright Office deemed clothes to be "useful items" and thus not something that could be legally protected via

copyright (Green and Kaiser, 2017). There are some limited protections for fashion with respect to design patents and trademarks, but they typically apply to only the most iconic brands. In addition to the lack of legal protection for copying fashion, traditional cultural expressions are also considered to be part of the "public domain." Thus, ethnic imagery from indigenous cultures is also not a form of intellectual property that is legally protected, which contributes to copying and borrowing as inspiration for design (Green and Kaiser, 2017; Vézina, 2019). Music festivals are an appropriate context to explore appropriation of the headdress as a fashion accessory, as they draw consumers who are dressing for the crowd and are headlined by artists who are considered fashion trendsetters. Over 32 million Americans attend at least one music festival a year (Plank and Cervantes, 2015), and retailers and magazines highlight each year's must have fashion festival trends, which tend to be based on a bohemian style (Pike, 2016). At the time of the ban, wearing headdresses to these types of music festivals had become a fashion trend but was also considered cultural appropriation (Marsh, 2015).

Current issues related to indigenous stereotyping and the resulting backlash are examined, including: 1) retailers use of Native tribal names, symbols and traditional dress; 2) appropriation of headdress by musicians and music festival attendees; 3) and the controversy surrounding the use of tribal mascots in both college and professional sports (Kim-Prieto, Goldstein, Okazaki and Kirschner, 2010; Locklear, 2012). Understanding how these stereotypes are interpreted and classifying when and how they are appropriate could aid in the preservation and greater cultural understanding of these nations' histories.

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SESSION 10A: TRUST IS FAKE NEWS… FUNNY RIGHT?

CHAIR:

Trang Tran

Summary Brief
Problematic publicity: examining the cyclical and long-term effect of fake news on brands

Emma Welch, University of Mississippi, USA

Fake news picked up notoriety after the 2016 U.S. presidential election campaigns and has started to heavily affect brands. Although previous research has investigated consumers' initial response to fake news, there has been little empirical research investigating the cyclical nature regarding how consumers' beliefs and attitudes toward a brand change after encountering problematic information and how the prior beliefs and attitudes toward the brand affect this relationship. Using the HSM model as a framework, the future findings for this study could answer calls to empirically explore brand management in relation to fake news and find ways to mitigate its long-term effect on consumers.

Introduction

The term "fake news" picked up notoriety after the 2016 U.S. presidential election campaigns. Academic scholars as well as the public were concerned that "fake news" influenced the result of the elections (Zhang & Ghorbani, 2020), kicking off a new stream of literature that has stayed relatively within the political science and IT management system spheres. Although there has been little empirical research on the concept of fake news in the marketing and consumer behavior literature (Di Domenico & Visentin, 2020), "fake news" has started to heavily affect brands (Berthon & Pitt, 2018). For example, the major technology company Tesla was involved in a PR scandal when a video went viral in 2019 showing one of their self-driving models slamming into a robot prototype at a heavily attended electronics conference. Tesla's stock took a major hit and the company's future goals of shifting consumers perceptions about autonomous driving was in question. The only issue, the video was completely fake since Tesla did not currently have a self-driving model available at the time (Atkinson, 2019). Not only do these fake stories impact each firm's bottom line, but they also impact the brand reputations that have been building for decades.

Because of these incidences, marketers have been forced to address the concept of "fake news", learn more about it, and how to limit the impact it can have on brands. There have been a few empirical studies that link fake news to brand hate and brand trust, (Wisker, 2020), as well as a recent study examining user's attitudes toward fake news based on different consumer segments (Borges-Tiago et al., 2020). However, little empirical research has investigated the cyclical nature regarding how consumers' beliefs and attitudes toward a brand change after encountering problematic information and how the prior beliefs and attitudes toward the brand affect this relationship. This is concerning since most scholars can conceptually agree that the effects of fake news are cyclical (Di Domenico & Visentin, 2020), but no empirical research has been conducted so far to investigate this proposition.

Background

The relationship between fake news and brand attitudes has been heavily investigated since potentially deceptive online reviews and fabricated brand-related content started to emerge on the internet within the last decade (Chen & Cheng, 2019). However, all of the previous studies investigate consumers immediate, short-term responses to fake news, such as brand trust or the potential antecedents to this relationship, such as self-efficacy and media trust (Chen & Cheng, 2019). However, assuming individuals rationally re-evaluate "their actions to achieve their goals", it would be safe to assume that some type of long-term interaction occurs between the prior held beliefs and the newly formed beliefs, after the consumer is exposed to the problematic information about the brand. Meaning, when prior beliefs, attitudes, and emotions about a brand are confronted with conflicting information (the fake news), the cognitive dissonance that is created would repeatedly affect and shape future attitudes and behaviors toward that same brand until the dissonance is resolved (Di Domenico & Visentin, 2020). This cyclical nature of fake news has been referred to as an "echo chamber" has yet to be investigated thoroughly in an empirical setting, despite being noted conceptually in literature (Di Domenico & Visentin, 2020).

The mechanism through which fake news affects both short term and long-term brand attitudes and its interaction with prior attitudes would be determined through source credibility (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Further,

the theoretical framework that would explain the underlying mechanism of this relationship would be the heuristic-systematic model (HSM) of information (Chen & Chaiken, 1999). This dual-processing model incorporates both the heuristic and systematic processing, two different information processing systems that are enacted based on the amount of effort the individual decides to mentally exert. Additionally, the phenomenon known as the *sufficiency threshold*, which describes an individual's limit to think about making a decision or judgement after a certain confidence level has been acquired, would also add to the conceptual background to help explain if and when there is a possible threshold concerning consumers' negative or positive attitudes towards fake news (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Using the framework of the sufficiency threshold, an experiment can be conducted to parse out the fake news' effects to determine when consumers enact this phenomenon and how to mitigate this effect so the consumer does not walk away with negative feelings towards the brand that can become exasperated with additional information later on, despite the initial negative publicity being completely fake.

Proposed Methodology

The proposed study design would be a one-factor, between-subjects design, utilizing an online survey platform. After prior beliefs and attitudes about a brand are assessed, the treatment group would be exposed to a fake news story about that brand and then subsequently shown a press release from the brand debunking the fake news story. Dependent variables measuring attitude toward the brand, brand reputation, beliefs about the brand, and purchase intention would be assessed afterwards. The control group would not receive the press release from the brand debunking the fake news stories.

Expected Implications

One major theoretical contribution this study would make is further highlighting the complex relationship between brands and consumers and the possible long term effects fake news can have on consumers. Other factors surrounding this relationship, such as the possible ways to mitigate this effect, can be explored in subsequent studies. This is an important contribution since it answers the call to research and empirically explore brand management in relation to fake news (Borges-Tiago et al., 2020). Managerially, the results from this proposed study would build a foundation for practitioners to implement strategies when fake news crises do arise. Future results from this study would help brand managers approach and tackle consumers' subsequent positive or negative attitudes that could be formed about their brand after a fake news incident and how to limit the future cyclical effects the problematic information could have concerning the brand.

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Summary Brief
How to Motivate Customers to Use Branded Apps? The Role of Value in Use

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Purpose

Corporate strategies designed to motivate customers to continue using a firm's brand are well documented in the bricks-and-mortar businesses. However, similar strategies applied in mobile apps are scarce. Building on consumer brand engagement literature, this research explores the role that value in use plays in stimulating continuance intention via consumer brand engagement in the branded mobile app context.

Design/methodology/approach

The data were collected from 294 branded mobile app users and tested with structural equation modeling and fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis.

Findings

The results show that stimulated by value in use of branded mobile apps, consumer brand engagement results in better perceived quality and enhanced brand loyalty, that in turn lead to higher continuance intention. Additionally, multiple mediation analysis shows that the effect of consumer brand engagement on continuance intention is fully mediated by both perceived quality and brand loyalty.

Research implications

The findings of this study not only address the call for more theoretical and empirical research around valuation co-creation in the service domain (Ranjan & Read, 2016) by investigating the outcomes of value in use, but also extend the value in use in the context of branded mobile apps.

Practical implications

As consumer brand engagement was found to positively influence consumer perceived quality of brand and brand loyalty, it is important for the businesses to design more interactive features in the branded mobile apps in order to better engage consumers, thus promoting stronger bonds with the consumers.

Summary Brief

Promoting Humor: Harmony Between Brand Personality and Humor Type

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Humorous ads grab the attention of viewers and are a go-to approach for many advertisers. Funny ads can have a positive effect on brand recall, purchase intentions, and attitude toward the ad and brand. However, the use of humor does not always produce positive results for brands. Humorous ads often fall short in connecting with the brand's target audience, leaving them feeling confused, disappointed, or offended. One possible explanation for these failures is that the type of humor used in the ad is a poor match to the brand's personality. This work proposes a conceptual framework to assist advertisers in choosing a type of humor that is suitable to the personality portrayed by the brand. This framework forms a bridge between Speck's (1991) Humorous Message Taxonomy and Aaker's (1997) Brand Personality dimensions and is designed to be useful for advertising practitioners and a step forward for advertising and humor theory.

Introduction

Humor can be a useful tool for brands and can help them achieve a number of positive outcomes. Research has shown that humor can have a positive effect on attention (Curran 2012), attitude toward the ad and brand (Chung & Zhao 2003), memory of the ad, positive affect, and purchase intention (Eisend 2009). Furthermore, humor can help prevent the creation of negative brand associations and even facilitate the creation of positive associations (Strick, Holland, van Baaren, & van Knippenberg 2012). However, humor can have negative results for brands. For example, humor's effects on recall and persuasion can vary broadly based on product type and the relevance of the humor to the product (Weinberger & Campbell 1991). Sometimes, attempts at humor do not connect with the target audience and can even be considered offensive (Beard 2008a). When the humor used by a brand crosses a line into offense, that brand runs the risk of being considered distasteful, arrogant, aggressive, or any other negative traits.

Background

The purpose of this research is to propose a framework that maps various types of humor used in ads with the different dimensions of brand personality that a marketer may wish to convey. This requires an investigation and integration of brand personality (Aaker 1997) and humorous message taxonomy (Speck 1991) literature. We then propose relationships between the humor types available to advertisers and the brand personality dimensions.

Brand personalities are described as "what type of person the brand would be if it were human and what it would do and look like," (Hawikins et al. 2001, 376). Brand personalities are important for firms because they allow firms to effectively differentiate their brands from the competition, and because they allow firms to develop long-term brand equity (Okazaki 2006). Brand personalities are the result of direct and indirect contact between the brand and the consumer (Sung and Tinkham 2005). Aaker (1997) identified 5 dimensions of brand personality (Sincerity, Competence, Excitement, Sophistication, and Ruggedness) and 15 facets that encompass 42 personality traits (Sung et al 2015). To be effective, a brand personality must be associated with the advertised product.

Speck's (1991) Humorous Message Taxonomy is widely considered to be the most comprehensive framework because it classifies nearly everything humans find funny (Beard 2008b). Speck's (1991) framework identifies three types of humor processing (HP1 – HP3). The three types of humor processing are incongruity-resolution, arousal-safety, and humorous disparagement. These three types of humor processing can be stand alone or combined to form five different types of humor (HT1 – HT5). The five different types of humor are Comic Wit (HT1), Sentimental Humor (HT2), Satire (HT3), Sentimental Comedy (HT4), and Full Comedy (HT5).

While brand personalities are not perfectly analogous to human personalities, they are useful as a workable framework for marketers who wish to develop an engaging and approachable persona for brands. However, being humorous does not come natural to brands. Therefore, we propose the following propositions for finding congruence between a brand's personality dimension and the types of humor available to advertisers. Using the five dimensions of personality (Aaker 1997) and the five types of humor (Speck 1991), we argue it is possible to identify the types of

humor which may be more (or less) likely to convey certain personality traits, and personality traits which may be more (or less) likely to exhibit certain styles of humor.

Propositions

P1:   Use of Comic Wit (HT1) will have a positive effect on the perception of a brand's Confidence, Excitement, and Sophistication.

P2:   Use of Sentimental Humor (HT2) will have a positive effect on the perception of a brand's Sincerity and Sophistication, but will have a negative effect on a brand's perceived Ruggedness.

P3:   Use of Satire (HT3) will have a positive effect on the perception of a brand's Excitement and Ruggedness, but will have a negative effect on a brand's perceived Sincerity.

P4:   Use of Sentimental Comedy (HT4) will have a positive effect on the perception of a brand's Sincerity and Competence, but will have a negative effect on a brand's perceived Sophistication.

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Summary Brief
Key Drivers of Brand Trust in a Latin American Emerging Market: Evidence from Colombia

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Purpose

The airline industry is presently facing increased risks associated with the radical changes in both the environment and society. Broader externalities now more than ever impact airline operations and consequently its ability to deliver experiences to passengers the way they were designed (Verhoef et al. 2009). Extreme weather is being experienced worldwide as a result of climate change, creating more frequent disruptions in airline operations (e.g. Hurricane Dorian). Technological challenges have also created major disruptions to the industry (e.g. grounding of the Boeing 737 Max), as has political (e.g. protests in Hong Kong), and geopolitical (e.g., Venezuelan embargo, war in Ukraine), unrest. While these factors are external to the industry, mergers and acquisitions continue in most regions as well, thus creating further oligopolistic competition. Importantly, due to the instabilities and inequality of the Latin American market, major Latin American airline companies may be the ones facing the biggest risks in the continent. As a result, repeat business and customer loyalty should become more important than ever under these circumstances. But how can these two goals be achieved by airlines in an increasingly competitive, and uncertain, environment? While customer loyalty programs may be useful tools in this regard, they could prove to be a 'double-edged sword' due to increased customer expectations and entitlements (Ma, Li and Zhang, 2018). We argue that as a consequence of the current state of the airline industry, and in particular the Latin American airline industry, brand trust has become an increasingly important deciding factor for airline passagers. In fact, brand trust can be impacted by both internal and external touchpoints making up the customer journey and a customer's assessment of the experience provided by the airline. Therefore, maintaining brand trust is a key element in creating customer loyalty for service industries, the purpose of this research is to examine the drivers of airline customer experience and brand trust in the Latin American airline industry.

Discussion

The purpose of this research was to examine the drivers of airline customer experience and brand trust in the Latin American airline industry. For this, we examined drivers of brand trust in the Latin American airline industry, where a rare glimpse service encounters in a developing country located in Latin America is here being provided. We asked ourselves how repeat business and customer loyalty can be achieved by Latin American airlines in the actual increasingly competitive, and uncertain, environments.
Obtained results suggest that there are specific key drivers of airline customer experience that will have a significant effect on perceived service quality and brand trust, as well as between other customer perceptions and brand trust.

Theoretical implications

This study shows that the use of AIRQUAL (Farooq et al., 2018) when measuring service quality in relation to customers' experience of the brand or their trust in the brand may not be ideal. In general, there are many touch-points that customers experience when undertaking a flight which create their total experience of the event. However, not all of these relate to their experience of the airline brand itself (e.g. making a reservation using a travel agent of travel website, conditions at and convenience of the airport, airport security, baggage handling). Hence, it becomes of importance to distinguish between the overall experience to the more specific brand experience. Overall, future research could focus on replicating these findings across different airlines, as well as different geographic locations.

Practical implications

Given the distinction between the overall travel experience and the experience of the airline brand, this research demonstrates that the key drivers of airline customer experience and brand trust are:

- the physical aspects of the flight;
- interaction with the flight crew;

- perception of the flight representing good value for money.

Furthermore, the perception of the behavioral aspects of other passengers affects customers' experience, and indirectly, brand trust. In this region of radical environmental, social, and technological challenges, airline management need to ensure that the actual flight experience is safe, comfortable and pleasant for all passengers. When a disruption occurs, the way the airline deals with the aforementioned key drivers, will most likely be determinant concerning the perceptions of the experience and trust of the brand.

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SESSION 10B: RECONCEPTUALIZING MARKETING GLOBALLY

CHAIR:

Kate Nicewiz Scott

Full Paper

The Impact of Culture on Brand Extension: The Specific Versus Diffuse Dimension and Product Category Similarity

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In this research, we explored whether or not cultural differences can explain the differences in acceptance of brand-extended products across different societies. Specifically, we hypothesised that a society's degree on Trompenaar's specific versus diffuse continuum might explain the acceptance or rejection of brand-extended products in dissimilar product categories. We tested our hypothesis in two separate studies— one which is based on the number of products which are marketed by five global companies in six countries, and another which is based on the number of product categories in which 250 companies market products in five countries. Both studies support the hypothesis, and buttress the general claim that culture still matters.

Brand Extension

The Oreo sandwich cookie has been satisfying the munchies since its introduction in 1912 by the National Biscuit Company (Nabisco). Although best known in its original chocolate wafer and vanilla creme form, more than 100 variations on the theme have been produced over the years, including Golden Oreos, Oreo Thins, and even a Lady Gaga-inspired concoction with pink wafers and green creme. Sales of Oreo cookies have also expanded globally; with an estimated 450 billion Oreos produced since 1912, Oreo can now rightfully claim to be the world's best-selling confection.

In recent years, however, Oreo has attempted to leverage its brand equity by slapping the Oreo appellation on products in other categories: Oreo pudding, Oreo cheesecake, and Oreo ice cream, for example. From the perspective of Oreo, these brand extensions appear to be relatively near to the original sandwich cookie in terms of what is called product category similarity. Indeed, pudding, cheesecake, and ice cream are all desserts, and consequently, are likely to be viewed by consumers as similar to cookies.

The brand extension of Oreo, however, stands in stark contrast to Harley-Davidson, for example, whose brand mark has adorned everything from perfume to wine coolers to jewellery. In this case of brand extension, the product categories would probably be considered dissimilar— perfume, wine coolers, and jewellery, on the surface, have little (or nothing) in common with motorcycles. And this is seemingly true from the perspective of Harley-Davidson, and in the eyes of consumers.

Product Category Similarity and Brand Extension Success

These two contrasting cases of Oreo and Harley-Davidson raise interesting questions at the intersection of brand extension and product category similarity. The first question is foundational, and concerns consumer perceptions of product category similarlity. What are the mechanisms by which consumers construct product categories, for example, and, err, by extension, how do they judge product category similarity?

Psychological research on categorisation is widespread, and points to "the grouping of single objects or events into abstract classes" (Berthold, 1964, p. 406). Indeed,

> [f]or humans facing a host of experiences in a complex world, an important activity is to break up these experiences into meaningful, more manageable components. This is the basic problem of categorization. Categorization begins at the early stages of sensory perception when incoming stimuli are linked to

more abstract categories, as appears from the fact that equal-sized physical differences between stimuli are perceived as larger or smaller depending on whether they are in the same category or in different ones (Van Mechelen and Michalski, 1993, p. 1).

There is a notable absence in the marketing literature, however, of research on this foundational question. One exception appears to be Yoo and MacInnis (2004), who explored the effects of product category distance and product category variation on appraisals of product category similarity. Product category distance was measured as the mean difference in the score of all brand marks in one product category with the scores of all brand marks in another product category, on a comparison attribute. Product variation was the 'spread' of the scores of brand marks in a single product category, on the comparison attribute. Results of their exploration suggested that product category similarity is influenced by the mean distance between the product categories, on a comparison attribute, and by the variation within the product category, on the same comparison attribute.

A second question at the intersection of brand extension and product category similarity revolves around the link between product category similarity and brand extension success. The marketing literature is more extensive in this vein. Research on brand extension by Aaker (1990), for example, suggested that the so-called 'fit' between the parent product and the brand-extended product influences consumers' perceptions, which, in turn, predicts brand extension success. Indeed, attitudes towards the brand-extended product were higher when consumers perceived: 1. the brand-extended product category to be in alignment with the parent product category, 2. the brand-extended product to be a complement, substitute, or transfer of the parent product, or 3. the brand-extended product to not be too obvious or too easy to develop.

Dawar and Anderson (1994) found that the order and direction of brand extensions influence consumers' perceptions of brand-extended products, especially with respect to the product category distance of the brand-extended products. Specifically, "undertaking extensions in a particular order allows distant extensions to be perceived as coherent; following a consistent direction in extension allows for greater coherence and purchase likelihood for the target extension" (p. 119).

Culture and Brand Extension

In the context of global brand management, as in other facets of international business, the impact of culture ought not to be overlooked. And indeed, a third question at the intersection of brand extension and product category similarity involves the impact of cultural differences on brand extension. In a 2007 study, Monga discovered that the analytic and holistic thinking of Western and Eastern societies respectively impacted consumers 'evaluations of hypothetical brand-extended products, implying that culture plays some moderating role. As a practical example, consider Hello Kitty which launched 6 tropical-flavoured beers in Taiwan in 2013, the success of which prompted internationalisation to mainland China… but no further because, for consumers in other parts of the world, this brand extension was deemed inconceivable.

It is this impact of culture on brand extension which underpinned our research. Specifically, we explored whether or not cultural differences can explain the differences in acceptance of brand-extended products across different societies. The research was inspired by a trip to Japan a few years back, during which John noticed that brand marks were often shared across seemingly dissimilar product categories. The Mitsubishi brand mark, for example, can be found on such disparate products as banks, air conditioners, and industrial chemicals. He also recalled an article in *The Economist* about the Burberry luxury fashion house, whose Japanese licensee used the brand name and its famous plaid on everything from golf bags to whiskey.

Trompenaar's Cultural Dimensions

In 1997, Fons Trompenaars published *Riding the Waves of Culture*, which outlined his framework for understanding cultural differences. Trompenaars' framework is not unlike the Hofstede Model, and indeed it has some overlap. Trompennars' framework, however, identifies 7 cultural dimensions which distinguish societies: 1. universalism versus particularism, 2. achievement versus ascription, 3. neutral versus affective, 4. specific versus diffuse, 5. individualism versus communitarianism, 6. the human-nature relationship, and 7. the human time relationship. Each of the first 5 dimensions can be understood as a continuum, which, like in the Hofstede model,

means that societies ought not to be judged as good or bad on any particular dimension, but simply different on their degree of that dimension. Trompenaars' framework is based on 10 years of research in which he surveyed more than 46 000 people across 40 different countries.

In our research, we employed the specific versus diffuse dimension, which, at its core, is about a society's acceptable breadth of roles or identities. In specific societies, roles and identities are discrete, with little or no overlap. Most Americans, for example, keep their work and personal lives separate. In diffuse societies, on the contrary, roles and identities are wide-ranging— they rise above specific contexts to a kind of meta level. It is not uncommon, for example, for a Mexican labourer to ask for advice from the *jefe* about issues which transcend the work place and the *jefe's* direct domain of expertise… which automobile to buy, where to hold a fiesta, or when to invest in the stock market.

The Research

We hypothesised that a society's degree on the specific versus diffuse continuum might explain the acceptance or rejection of brand-extended products in dissimilar product categories. Indeed, we asked ourselves if more diffuse societies like Japan, for example, are more likely to accept brand-extended products which belong to dissimilar product categories. The obverse would mean that societies like America, which tend towards the specific end of the specific versus diffuse continuum, are less likely to accept brand-extended products which belong to dissimilar product categories.

We tested our hypothesis in two separate studies. In the first study, we collected data for five global companies (Panasonic, Coca Cola, L'Oréal, Mitsubishi and P&G) in six different countries (South Korea, Japan, Taiwan, Germany, Netherlands, and the United States). More specifically, we tallied the number of products which were marketed by each company in each country. Table 1, for example, shows the number of products which are marketed by Panasonic in the 6 countries. Noteworthy is not only the difference in the number of products which are marketed, but also the breadth of product categories which these products reflect. We then used a generalised linear mixed model in R to tease out the relationship between the specific versus diffuse dimension and the number of products.

Table 1: Panasonic Data

South Korea		Japan		Taiwan		Germany		Netherlands		United States	
digital av	106	home app	51	video/cam/com	231	tv	43	tv	52	audio & video	7
home app	10	seasonal	41	air conditioners	76	home	95	home	56	cameras &	6
beauty/health	54	kitchen/cookin	80	refridgerator	53	photo & video	202	camera	137	microwave &	7
projectors	57	av/camera	95	washer/dryer	46	beauty/health	143	phones	30	telephones	3
professional	47	beauty/health	69	small	24	kitchen &	42	personal care	25	personal care	14
space player	8	battery	6	home app	60	telephone fax	52	kitchen	28	massage	1
security	49	telephone	18	beauty/personal	79	TOTAL	577	air condition.	2	home & office	5
tough book	4	computer	6	water	24			TOTAL	330	TOTAL	43
scanners	13	car nav	10	TOTAL	593						
tools	28	housing equip	1								
healthcare	42	mobile phone	2								
gas/heat	18	other	10								
video system	2	TOTAL	369								
TOTAL	438										

The results of the first study support our hypothesis. Indeed, as demonstrated in Table 2, as the value of the specific versus diffuse dimension (diffusespecific) increases by 1, the number of products (brand extensions) increases by 6.6-7.7%, at a 95% confidence level. Intriguingly, the effects were more pronounced when population size was also considered.

Table 2: Effects of the Specific versus Diffuse Dimension on Number of Products

```
Random effects:
 Groups  Name         Variance Std.Dev.
 company (Intercept) 1.737    1.318
Number of obs: 30, groups:  company, 5

Fixed effects:
               Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)    4.550129   0.590158    7.71 1.26e-14 ***
diffusespecific 0.068272  0.003156   21.63  < 2e-16 ***
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1

Correlation of Fixed Effects:
          (Intr)
diffusspcfc -0.031
> exp(summary(model2)$coefficients)
               Estimate Std. Error    z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)    94.644614  1.804273 2.230584e+03        1
diffusespecific 1.070656  1.003161 2.483273e+09        1
> exp(confint(model2))
Computing profile confidence intervals ...
                2.5 %    97.5 %
.sig01        2.193512  17.737583
(Intercept)  22.859153 390.681623
diffusespecific 1.064066   1.077313
```

In the second study, rather than tallying the number of products which were marketed by each company in each country, we tallied the number of product categories in which 250 companies marketed products in five different countries (South Korea, Japan, Germany, India, and the United States). We used the Forbes 2000 ranking of companies to identify the 250 companies. And we employed the SIC classification as the basis for identifying the number of product categories. Analysis of the data using single factor ANOVA also support our hypothesis. Indeed, as demonstrated in Table 3, the F value is greater than the F crit value, thereby rejecting the null hypothesis. In summary, there were, on average, 3.2 product categories in more diffuse countries, and 2.3 product categories in specific countries.

ANOVA

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	78.584	4	19.646	3.625597	0.006842	2.408488
Within Groups	1327.58	245	5.418694			
Total	1406.164	249				

Table 3: Analysis of Data for Number of Product Categories

Culture Still Matters

To begin, the two studies buttress the general claim that culture still matters. According to the International Monetary Fund (2008), globalisation is primarily an economic phenomenon, involving the increasing integration of national economies through the growth of international trade, investment, and capital flows. It implies the reduction or elimination of national barriers, temporal limits, and spatial boundaries. In the words of Thomas Friedman, author of bestsellers *The Lexus and the Olive Tree: Understanding Globalization* (1999) and *The World is Flat: A Brief History of the 21st Century* (2005), globalisation is the "inexorable integration of markets, nation-states, and technologies to a degree never witnessed before—in a way that is enabling individuals, corporations, and nation-states to reach round the world farther, faster, deeper, and cheaper than ever before" (1999, p. 14). The two studies, however, suggest that the homogenising forces of globalisation have had little impact on culture. Indeed, despite (or perhaps even because of) globalisation, cultural differences remain.

Now, in the context of brand management more specifically, the two studies support our hypothesis that a society's degree on the specific versus diffuse continuum explains the acceptance or rejection of brand-extended products in dissimilar product categories. Although to be fair, both studies used rudimentary measures of product

category similarity. Indeed, do number of products and number of product categories truly reflect category similarity? Nevertheless, the results of this studies are 'directionally' encouraging, suggesting that culture does indeed play some role in brand extension success.

Consequently, we suggest that there is potential for more research at the intersection of brand extension and product category similarity, in combination with culture. It is important to understand, at the foundation, consumer perceptions of product category similarly. We envision interpretive research which would reveal the mechanisms by which consumers construct product categories, and how they judge product category similarity. Comparative studies would uncover the cultural differences in these mechanisms.

As an example, English-speakers tend to classify edibles which grow on bushes, on trees, or in the ground in two categories: fruits and vegetables. Russian-speakers, however, have four categories: fruits, vegetables, berries, and mushrooms. Even more shocking to many English-speakers is that watermelons are classified as a berry. What is revealing about this example is that the objective world is subjectively different. That is to say, the cultural meanings of reality differ from society to society. Cultural approaches to understanding the meanings which consumers attribute to the consumption lives, therefore, is paramount to marketing success.

Case in point: brand extension. Indeed, understanding, appreciating, and 'exploiting' cultural differences is particularly important for brand managers, as they ponder brand extension. Imagine the challenge for Dannon in Russia, for example, whose Fruit on the Bottom-branded yogurt, according to Russians, does not have fruit but berries on the bottom. On the other hand, consider how cheese is considered a dessert in many societies. In France, Oreo-branded cheese might not be out of place at all.

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Summary Brief

The Influence of Country Image on Purchase Intentions: Does Covid-19 Matter?

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A plethora of research has shown how country of origin is regarded as one of the most important extrinsic cues that drives consumers' product evaluation process. This research provides important insights on the impact of country image on value perception and purchase intentions, which is lacking in the current scholarship. This research highlights the cognitive and affective dimension of country image and how that impacts perceived value and purchase intentions. In offering fresh insights on the country image effect literature, this research also highlights the effect of Covid-19 on consumer perception of products from China, specifically in the context of electronic products. The survey was administered once in September 2019 (pre-pandemic) and again in September 2021. However, affective dimension of country image is more influential post covid, whereas prior to the pandemic, the cognitive domain was more influential. These results have important theoretical and managerial implications for how country image is perceived by consumers and how the pandemic has caused a spillover effect and shifted consumers' perception.

Introduction

A plethora of research has shown how country of origin is regarded as one of the most important extrinsic cues that drives consumers' product evaluation process. The surge in Chinese made goods have triggered the interests of many researchers. However, most of the studies regarding the analysis of country image effects done are conducted in the context of developed nations. Furthermore, China was the center of many controversies due to the spread of Covid-19 which began in the Chinese city of Wuhan, triggering a pandemic. This begets an important question: what impact did this have on consumer perception of Chinese made goods? This study aims to provide more insights on country image, specifically through combining theoretical concept of existing studies of country image. As there are a lack of consensus and unanimity between literatures, the significance of country image impact on value perception has often been overlooked. In terms of past studies, there has been a lack of focus on the multi-dimensional aspect of country image, notably the cognitive and affective dimension.

Furthermore, China is currently facing yet another obstacle to improve its country image. In 2020, the country is embroiled with international political conflict and finds itself in the center of controversies. This is widely due to the spread of the novel coronavirus (COVID-19). The outbreak of the virus initially began in the Chinese city of Wuhan, and eventually spread throughout the entire world, sparking a global pandemic (Enitan, Ibeh, Oluremi, Olayanju, & Itodo, 2020). The implications of the COVID-19 pandemic certainly do not help with the country image and perception of China, as skepticism and public resentment from countries such as the United States, Japan, South Korea, and India grows stronger (Madan, 2020). According to Alvarez and Campo, (2014), political incidents or events will have a negative effect on the country image.

Besides, there is a scarcity of existing empirical research surrounding the explicit identification of both cognitive and affective components of country image on value perception and purchase intention (Li, Wang, Jiang, Barnes, & Zhang, 2014). As the leading nation of global manufacturing of electronic products, the cognitive and affective image of China may have significant correlation with the value perception of Chinese made electronic products. This study addresses the problem where most of the research of COO focuses on product images, whereas the number of studies which explicitly includes cognitive and as well as affective components of country image are

extremely small (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Furthermore, to the researcher's best knowledge, no study thus far has compared the before and after-effects of the pandemic on country image.

Research Questions:

1. Does the influence of cognitive and affective image of China on perceived value (utilitarian value, hedonic value, social value, economic value) differ between pre-covid and post-covid consumers?

2. Does the relationship between perceived value and purchase intentions differ between pre-covid and post-covid consumers?

Methodology

The aim of this study is to examine the effect of multidimensional facets of COI on consumer value perception and behavior intention in the context of pre-covid and post-covid. Hence, to explore the research questions of this study, a survey approach was used to collect data from consumers in Malaysia. The survey questionnaire was distributed online through Qualtrics. The survey questionnaire was distributed in Malaysia, with the focus on Malaysian consumers with prior experience of purchasing electronic products originating from China. Data collection was conducted in two phases (i.e., the same questionnaire was distributed at two different time frames). In the first phase, responses were collected from 178 participants, and in the second phase, 252 responses were collected. The items for each variable were adapted from established scales in the literature and were assessed using a 7-point Likert scale. This study used partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) to analyze the data.

Key Findings

Specifically, the positive influence of hedonic value on purchase intention is stronger for post-COVID consumers, whereas the influence of social value is stronger for pre-COVID consumers. In addition, utilitarian value and economic value are found to have a significant positive influence on purchase intention, but there are no significant differences between pre-COVID consumers and post-COVID consumers. Next, it can be observed that the positive influence of affective COI on utilitarian value, hedonic value, social value, and economic value are significant for post-COVID consumers but not for pre-COVID consumers except for a negative influence on social value. In addition, we found that there is no significant difference in the path coefficients for the relationships between cognitive COI and a) utilitarian value, b) hedonic value, and c) economic value. Furthermore, it was found that the positive influence of cognitive COI on social value is stronger for pre-COVID consumers than post-COVID consumers.

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Full Paper

Multi- to Single-Channel: The Effect of Removing a Consumer Channel Preference on Consumer Channel Choice

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Retailers are moving from a multi- (physical store and online) a single- (online) channel approach due to the recent changes in the retail environment (e.g., technology advancements, store closures, and online shopping growth). This paper explores how store closures impact consumers' channel preferences and subsequent channel choice. Using an exploratory survey method, we recruited 100 Prolific participants to examine their shopping preferences and behavioral intentions across two product categories. Our findings show that when a focal retailer's store closes, electronics consumers are more likely to switch to an online channel regardless of retailer and clothing consumers are more likely to search for options within the retailer regardless of channel.

Introduction

Over the last decade, technology advancements have allowed consumers to gain better access to goods through multiple channels (e.g., physical stores and online) (Verhoef et al., 2015). Recently, retail environment changes (e.g., store traffic decline and online shopping growth) have forced many retailers (e.g., Brooks Brothers and J.C. Penney) to remove many physical stores and focus heavily on an online business model (Pacheco, 2020). According to an industry report, these changes have disrupted consumers' shopping habits, and thus, consumers began changing their in-store shopping routine to online (Fryer, 2021). Although COVID-19 has accelerated this phenomenon, some consumers still prefer to visit and purchase products from retailers despite closing their store locations (Fryer, 2021; Kapner, 2021; Ngoh & Groening, 2022).

Oftentimes, when retailers move from a multi- to single-channel, they encourage their customers to migrate to their other available channel (i.e., online) as a channel substitute (Ackermann & von Wangenheim, 2014). This retailer-initiated channel decision may threaten consumer's freedom of channel choice and interfere with their channel preferences, creating a negative impact on consumer shopping behavior (e.g., dissatisfaction, spread of negative word-of-mouth) (Myers et al., 2004; Neslin & Shankar, 2009; Trampe et al., 2014). In essence, when retailers exert control over their customers' channel use, consumers no longer have the freedom to choose the (removed) preferred channel and they may react negatively towards the focal retailer by switching to a different retailer (Konuş et al., 2008). However, other research has found that some consumers may respond differently toward online channel adoption than others depending on the channel that allows consumers to have maximum utility when purchasing products (Kondo & Okubo, 2022; Konuş et al., 2008). As such, we explore the effect of removing a consumers' channel (store) preference on their subsequent channel choice in two product categories: clothing and electronics.

Given the recent shift in the retail environment, understanding changes in consumer channel preferences has significant implications for managers to have up-to-date knowledge of customer behavior and develop optimal channel-related strategies. Our research also contributes to the retailing and marketing literature by exploring how store closures impact consumers' channel preferences, leading to subsequent channel choices. We extend prior research by investigating how a proposed removal of consumers' store channel preference influences their behavioral intentions regarding their following channel choice. The channel choice decision set includes four options: 1) the focal retailer's other physical store location, 2) the focal retailer's online channel, 3) a competitor's physical store or 4) a competitor's online channel.

The current research fills a gap in the literature by addressing multi-channel switching behavior in response to (physical store) channel removal. So far, extant research has focused on the physical store vs. online channel research, mainly exploring whether consumers are multi- or single-channel buyers (Schoenbachler and Gordon 2002), consumers' channel switching behavior (Gupta et al., 2004; Nguyen et al., 2022), and consumers' channel migration due to catalog channel elimination (Konuş et al., 2008). Therefore, we explore and propose two research questions:

1. How does the removal of consumer's channel preference impact their subsequent *channel* choice based on product category (clothing and electronics)?

2. How does the removal of consumer's channel preference impact their subsequent *retailer* choice based on product category (clothing and electronics)?

Consumer Channel Preference

Although the literature on consumer channel preferences and channel choice has been a heavily studied area in marketing (e.g., Kushwaha & Shankar, 2013; Melis et al., 2015; Valentini et al., 2011), research about the removal of consumer channel preferences on channel choice is limited. In this paper, we gather theoretical support from the product stockout literature that explores consumers' responses when a product they intend to purchase becomes unavailable in a preferred channel. Product availability offered through a retailer's channels has a powerful impact on consumer purchase experiences and choice behavior (Pauwels & Neslin, 2015). For instance, when a product stockout occurs, consumers react negatively, such that they tend to defer the purchase, cancel the order, or search for the product in other stores (Anderson et al., 2006; Fitzsimons, 2000). This research investigates a similar phenomenon at the retailer-level instead of the product-level. When a retailer removes a consumer's preferred channel, we predict that it impacts the consumer's behavioral intentions for choosing a channel in the future.

Consumers form individual preferences for in-store or online shopping. Some reasons for preferring to shop in-store might be to avoid delivery and shipping fees, immediate possession of the item, the desire to support local business, as a social activity, the ability to inspect and evaluate an item before buying, and minimizing the risk of identity theft (e.g., Goodman & Remaud, 2015; Wilson & Hodges, 2022). On the other hand, reasons for preferring online shopping might be convenience of ordering and having items delivered directly to your door, safety factors due to illness in the home, time limitations, entertainment, and technological ability (e.g., Chiang & Dholakia, 2003; Perea Y Monsuwé et al., 2004). Ngoh & Groening (2022) found that some segments of consumers' in-store and online channel shopping behaviors changed to varying degrees from pre- (i.e., few store closures) to during-COVID-19 (i.e., more frequent store closures) in a non-food retail context. For example, some consumers preferred to shop more frequently in-store than online pre-COVID-19 but changed their shopping behavior to shop frequently online than in-store during-COVID-19. The researchers described that individual in-store and online motivations, opportunities, and abilities pre- and during-COVID-19 drove the changes in consumers' channel shopping behavior. We expand on this line of research by considering how these store closures affect changes in consumer channel preference that may differ across product categories rather than a single product category.

Product category has a significant influence on the channel consumers use to shop (Kushwaha & Shankar, 2013). Zhang et al. (2022) draw attention to the consumer's need for physical engagement in the shopping process. Depending on the product category, consumers have varying levels of preference for product inspection depth (Lal & Sarvary, 1999; Zhang et al., 2022). Consumers might require more sensory feedback (i.e., trying clothes on, feeling blankets or smelling candles) for *deep products* such as clothing than a *shallow product* such as a cell phone charger (Zhang et al., 2022). Therefore, when an electronics retailer, which sells mainly shallow products, removes its physical store option, we expect consumers to prefer switching from its store to online (focal retailer or competitor) rather than searching for another store location to shop. In contrast, we expect that when a clothing retailer, which sells mainly deep products, closes a physical store option, consumers will prefer to find another physical store location to shop.

Hypothesis 1a (H1a): When a focal electronic retailer closes a physical store, resulting consumer behavioral intention will be higher for online channels than for in-store channels.

Hypothesis 1b (H1b): When a focal clothing retailer closes a physical store, resulting consumer behavioral intention will be higher for in-store channels than for online channels.

In addition to channel choice, we expect differences in consumers preference toward the focal retailer vs. competitor options. Li et al. (2017) found that even though consumers may switch to a competitor's online channel on one occasion, they are likely to switch back to the focal retailer's online channel. The authors suggested that consumers may prefer to revert to the store environment that they are familiar with the focal retailer. Zhang and colleagues (2022) find that when consumers have purchased a deep product from a retailer in a physical store, they are more likely to feel comfortable making similar purchases from that retailer online. Therefore, we expect that for clothing products consumers will be more likely to purchase from the focal retailer. Because there have been no studies on channel elimination for shallow products, it is unclear from the literature (Zhang et al. 2022; Valentini et al. 2020) whether consumers shopping for electronics would prefer their focal retailer to a competitor in the case of a store closure.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): When a focal clothing retailer closes a physical store, resulting consumer behavioral intention will be higher for focal retailer channels than for competitor channels.

Method

This research employed an exploratory survey method using Qualtrics that asked participants to share their shopping preferences and behavioral intentions for the clothing and electronics product categories. We recruited 100 Prolific international workers and compensated for their participation ($9.08/hour; 31% male; M_{age} = 26). We asked participants to provide the name of "one retailer with a physical store where [they] preferred to purchase clothing (electronics)." We used this approach to control for a high level of retailer loyalty. Participants then indicated the extent to which they preferred to buy clothing (electronic) items from their specified retailer from a physical store vs. online. We asked participants about their preferences in two situations, 1) their original preference; *"When purchasing clothing (electronics) items from [named retailer's store], which type of channel do you prefer to use."* Participants responded on a seven-point semantic differential scale (physical/online). We also asked about their preferences in the event of a store closure; *"If [named retailer's] physical store where you purchase electronic (clothing) items close down, where is your next option to buy electronics (clothing)?"* Participants responded on a seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) to each of the following channel choice categories: 1) focal retailer's different store location, 2) focal retailer's website, 3) a different retailer's store or 4) a different retailer's website. We controlled for demographic details (e.g., age, gender, education, household size, and employment).

Findings

As a manipulation check for the product categories chosen, we asked participants to report their preferred channel for shopping for clothing ($M_{clothes}$ = 2.79) and electronics ($M_{electronics}$ = 3.86) the means are significantly different from one another, supporting the notion that consumers prefer to shop for "deep" products like clothing in person and "shallow" products online.

To test **H1**, we conducted a paired sample t-test to determine whether there was a difference between switching from a preferred location to another physical store or to an online store in the event of a store closure, regardless of which retailer. For the clothing product category, there was no difference (p> .05), **H1a** was not supported. This suggests that in the case of a store closing, even though consumers may prefer to shop in person for clothing they may be familiar enough with the store's styles and sizes that they are more flexible in their channel preferences. For the electronics category, consumers were more likely to shift to an online retailer (M_{online} = 5.43, SD = 1.26; M_{store} = 4.72, SD = 1.28; t (80) = 3.678, p < .001) in the event of a store closure, supporting **H1b**.

To test **H2** we ran another paired sample t-test to determine whether there was a difference between switching from a preferred retailer to a competitor in the event of a store closure, regardless of channel. For clothing, the effect was marginal (p = .1), consumers were more likely to stay with the focal retailer (M_{focal} = 5.08, SD = 1.08; $M_{Competitor}$ = 4.80, SD = 1.33; t (98) = 1.648, p = .10). While not hypothesized, we did test the effect for electronics. The difference was not significant (p > .05). Thus, **H2** is marginally supported.

As an exploratory analysis, we ran a correlation analysis at the retailer- and channel- levels. We find that for the clothing product category, an increasing preference for online shopping leads to an increasing behavioral intention to purchase from the focal retailer's online channel ($r = .530, p < .01$) and a lower behavioral intention to purchase from a competitor's physical store ($r = -.311, p < .05$). The other relationships are not significant. The electronics product category revealed a single significant relationship: an increasing behavioral intention to buy from a competitor's online channel ($r = .301, p < .05$).

Discussion

Based on the current findings, we have extended the current understanding of consumer channel choice in the event of a channel removal. We find that there are product category differences in both consumer preferred channel and retailer. We also expect to see an interaction between retailer preference, channel preference, and product category. If a consumer has a preferred retailer within a product category as well as a preferred channel, they will react differently in response to a preferred retailer's store closure depending on the product category. In the case of electronics, we expect consumers to have a higher preference for online shopping that increases when the focal retailer's location is eliminated. Because consumers are cognitive misers and attempt to minimize their effort in decision-making (Bettman, Luce, & Payne 1998), we expect electronics consumers to maintain the status quo. While we did not expect electronics customers to have a strong preference for their focal retailer (versus a competitor) as a main effect, we do expect to see a preference for the focal retailer in the online channel. If they have already done prior research on the product they intend to buy using the preferred retailer's website, even if they had intended to go to the store to buy it, they will likely just buy the product from the retailer's online website.

Proposition 1a (P1a): As the level of preference for online electronics channel increases (vs. physical store), the likelihood of choosing the focal retailers' (vs. competitor) online channel (vs. physical store) as a substitute for a focal retailer's physical electronics store closure increases.

Traditionally, research on clothing tends to take place in a retailer's physical location rather than by visiting multiple websites online. Therefore, in the clothing product category, we expect to see a stronger preference placed on the focal retailer's other physical locations if the consumer has a lower preference for shopping online. As the level of preference for shopping online in the product category increases, the choice becomes a choice between the focal retailer's or the competitor's online options.

Proposition 1b (P1b): As the level of preference for online clothing channel increases (vs. physical store), the likelihood of choosing the focal retailers' (vs. competitor) online channel (vs. physical store) as a substitute for a focal retailer's physical clothing store closure increases.

We also expect retailer and channel loyalty to play a role in the decision-making process. Loyalty has been identified as one of the determinants of consumer channel choices (Konuş et al., 2008; Trampe et al., 2014) and can manifest at different levels of the consumer's purchase journey (Herhausen et al., 2015). Retailer loyalty refers to the consumer's commitment to using the same retailer regardless of channel and even when alternative retailers are available (Wallace et al., 2004). Channel loyalty refers to the consumer's commitment to using the same channel (Gensler et al., 2007). Customer loyalty toward the retailer can manifest across all its channels (Avery et al., 2012). For example, retailer loyalty can have a complementary effect across channels, increase repurchase behavior at the same retailer (Wallace et al., 2004), and offset consumers' negative perceptions of the retailer (Trampe et al., 2014). These findings, suggest that in the presence of store closures, when consumers have greater retailer loyalty than channel loyalty, they are more likely to choose the focal retailer (online or its other physical store locations) rather than a different retailer (i.e., competitor). Therefore, while loyalty strength may have a mediating effect on channel and retailer choice, we propose that the stronger loyalty target (retailer vs. channel) will have a moderating effect on consumer channel preferences and their subsequent channel choice in the case of store closures.

In the case of clothing consumers, we would predict that a consumer who is loyal to the focal retailer (vs. channel) and has a preference for shopping in a physical store, a store closure would result in the following ranking of retailer-channel preference: 1) focal retailer other physical store, 2) focal retailer online, and an equal preference for 3) competitor physical store and competitor online. As online channel preference and loyalty increase to a point greater than retailer loyalty, the ranking changes: 1) focal retailer online, 2) competitor online, and an equal preference 3) focal retailer/competitor physical stores. As physical store preference and loyalty increase, the ranking changes to 1) focal retailer other physical stores, 2) competitor physical, and an equal preference for 3) focal retailer/competitor online.

Proposition 2a (P2a): If the target of loyalty is the retailer (vs. channel), store closure will result in:

Focal retailer online > Focal retailer other physical store > Competitor online = Competitor physical store

Proposition 2b (P2b): If the target of loyalty is the online channel (vs. retailer), store closure will result in:

Focal retailer online > Competitor online > Focal retailer other physical store = Competitor physical store

Proposition 2c (P2c): If the target of loyalty is the store channel (vs. retailer), store closure will result in:

Focal retailer other physical store > Competitor physical store > Focal retailer online = Competitor online

Conclusion, Implications, and Future Research

As retailers started adding an online channel to their business model over the years, consumers began having more options to shop (i.e., store and online). However, for some retailers, maintaining a physical store is expensive and unsustainable. Large retailers (e.g., JCPenney) have started to remove their physical store locations and are encouraging consumers to switch channel choices that they may not prefer. We find that consumers who prefer shopping online for clothing are likely to stick with shopping online when their focal retailer's store closes. This finding is consistent across multiple types of analysis and with previous research (e.g., Li et al., 2017; Ngoh & Groening, 2022). Surprisingly, we also find that consumers would instead purchase from a competitor, online or in person, rather than search out a new physical store location with their focal retailer. This occurrence may be due to the expectation that there may not be another of the same retailer within a reasonable distance.

We find an increasing preference for a competitor's online channels over the focal retailers' channels in the electronics product category. These findings suggest that consumers may be more retailer loyal than channel loyal for the clothing product category and may be shopping for their favorite store-owned brands. In contrast, consumers shopping for electronics may be more brand loyal to brands sold by big box retailers. It is possible that they are more loyal to the brand that they seek to purchase than they are loyal to the retailer. Rather than seeking their preferred brand at their focal retailer, they are content to switch retailers to acquire their desired brand. Therefore, we expect moderating relationships between product category, channel preference, and consumer's target of loyalty (retailer vs. channel). We will test these propositions in future research. Future research will also pursue the potential mediating effects of customer's loyalty-strength and satisfaction with the retailer.

The current research is limited by the small dataset ultimately divided into subsets because of how we measured the behavioral intentions. We will undertake further studies to investigate potential moderators and solve issues with the data collected in the current study (i.e., low sample size, experimental design, cleaner dependent variables, the addition of likely covariates). This research is also limited to the conclusions we can draw from the two product categories we selected (clothing and electronics). We are not currently able to generalize to retail sales of items not typically purchased online (e.g., fuel, automobiles, bars, restaurants, perishables). During the COVID-19 pandemic, many goods that were not commonly purchased online shifted to new delivery formats. While in one sense, this is a limitation, in another, it provides a unique opportunity to research what would happen when a retailer forces consumers to shift from using a preferred channel to one that had not been previously available (e.g., grocery delivery and curbside pickup).

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SESSION 10C: GETTING TECHY

CHAIR:

Melanie Moore Koskie

Summary Brief
Gamification and User Engagement; The Role of Gender and Age

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In a fast-changing, increasingly digital and social marketplace, it's more vital than ever for marketers to develop meaningful connections with their customers. Today's key marketing challenge is to create vibrant, interactive communities of consumers who make products and brands an integral part of their daily lives. Scientists have always been looking for tools and models which can be used in increasing the quality of customer engagement which potentially will lead to many positive effects including value creation for customers, fostering the customer relationship, and increase in sales. One of the emerging practices in the marketing field is gamification. The focus of this study is to investigate the effect of gender and age on gamification-user engagement relationship. Data will be collected from a mobile application that has been gamified.

Keywords: Gamification, User Engagement, Gender, Age

Gamification and User Engagement

Gamification has become one of the new-emerging subjects in various areas of studies as well as businesses. Its applications expand in marketing, business, health care, human resource and many others. Gamification is defined as using game-design elements in non-game contexts (Deterding, et al., 2011). Although an increasing number of gamifications are offered as augmentations to services for customers/users, only very few academic articles that bridge gamification studies to marketing literature have been published. The marketing literature reveals few pieces of evidence of academic research on gamification (see exceptions e.g. Terlutter & Capella, 2013; Sigala, 2015; Hofacker et al, 2016). Gamification has been widely accredited as an influence on customer/user engagement, loyalty, and brand awareness which are named as three core-marketing concepts (Lucassen & Jansen, 2014), yet among numerous literature of marketing, only a few connections have been made to gamification (Skinner et al, 2018). The application of gamification in marketing is still at its beginning which is mostly affiliated to the limited academic research discussing game design patterns and game design mechanisms for services and marketing (Huotari & Hamari, 2012).

Creating a strong customer experience is now a leading management objective. Improving the customer experience received the most number one ranking when executives were asked about their top priorities (Lemon and Verhoef, 2016). Schmitt (1999) was one of the first scholars to emphasize the importance of customer experience, and Pine and Gilmore (1998) specifically address the importance of experiences in today's society and the opportunities for firms to benefit from creating strong and enduring customer experiences. The growth of engagement initiatives might stem from the growth of customer relationship management and its underlying philosophy that customers may interact invaluably with the firm without necessarily making a purchase. These

interactions need to be measured and managed to build stronger relationships, which then can lead to profitable value extraction. Engagement initiatives also grant firms their own touch points, which they can use to monitor and improve firm–customer and customer–customer interactions.

A typical engagement initiative begins with customers' interactive participation with the firm. Customers with greater participation intensity generally develop stronger emotional bonds and higher perceived interconnectedness with the firm, even when they do not engage in explicit purchasing activities (Van Doorn et al., 2010). Heightened customer participation ideally leads to value creation for the customer. Engagement initiatives help firms strengthen their bond with customers, and these bonds could lead to economic benefits in the future. A customer that learns about the firm through an engagement initiative may develop more favorable attitudes toward the firm which should produce favorable economic outcomes. Increased perceived value fosters trust and loyalty, which also may increase purchase volumes (Reinartz and Ulaga, 2008).

Hypothesis 1: Using game-designed elements (gamification) has a positive effect on user engagement.

Age and gender

Research regarding the effects of age in technology adoption and use has indicated that younger technology users value the usefulness of the technology more than older users when deciding on use intentions (Venkatesh et al., 2003). This so-called digital divide between generations (Pfeil et al., 2009) has developed as younger generations become exposed to digital technologies earlier and earlier. Consequently, older generations tend to experience lower self-efficacy and more computer anxiety than younger people and so perceive their skills in using digital technologies as lower (Chung et al., 2010). Furthermore, it has been shown that technology acceptance (Arning & Ziefle, 2007) and perceived usability (Ijsselsteijn et al., 2007), which are affected by age, play a major part in technology adoption and digital gaming.

With regard to gender, prior research has indicated that genders differ in their decision-making processes (Venkatesh & Morris, 2000). Correspondingly, results from studies on technology adoption processes and IT use have found support for differences between genders. For instance, research on sex and gender roles and behavior has indicated that men display more instrumental behavior (Spence & Helmreich, 1980).

Hypothesis 2: Game-designed elements (gamification) have a stronger effect on user engagement in teenagers and young adults' age groups.

Hypothesis 3: Game-designed (gamification) effects are different between men and women.

Methodology

The data will be collected from a Start-up application database which has been implemented by gamification elements with the intention of increasing tourists' visits to various iconic locations. Each section of the application corresponds to a certain iconic location. Within sections, there are multiple gamified and non-gamified subsections. All the sections and subsections materials were constant for all the users, but every user could take a different path or order in completing each section/subsection. Participants will be randomly assigned to one the two gamified vs. non-gamified conditions.

The level of user engagement is assessed by two models utilizing two different measures including Frequency of using the application and Duration of using the application by users. This approach is consistent with (Weston et al, 2015) that demonstrated engagement occurs through repetition and extended periods of gameplay and also (Callaghan et al, 2014) who used "total time

to complete game" and "the number of times player start a game" as their measures for assessing user engagement. Age and gender will also be collected.

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Summary Brief

Genetic Data and the Transformation of Marketing

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Genetic data represents a seminal paradigm shift, likely to radically transform marketing in the future. The capacity of genes to help predict consumer behavioral traits may far exceed that of current behavioral and Big Data paradigms. It is estimated that up to 40-50% of behavioral traits may be driven by genetic characteristics. Marketing has, thus far, barely considered this potentially enormous role of genetics in marketing and consumer behavior. The purpose of this research is to help fill this gap. Using Hunt's indigenous theory development, inductive realist methodology, the authors develop an initial theoretical framework, with managerial recommendations, for the use of gene-centric logic in marketing. The methodology involves the use of foundational premises, and is ideal for relatively new areas of research. The initial theoretical foundation presented is likely to help accelerate future academic research on genetics in marketing and help practitioners better exploit genetic data in marketing activities.

Introduction

The gene is the fundamental building block of heredity (Mukerjee 2016). Biological parents contribute to genetic profiles of their offspring, foundationally influencing many of an offspring's traits. The impact of this contribution is significant, accounting for 40-50% of heritable characteristics, such as personality, interests, intelligence and emotions (Plomin, Owen, and McGuffin 1994). While it is not surprising that the study of genetics and its potential excites scientists, it is surprising that genetics has not received more interest from marketing scholars and practitioners. Most scholars in marketing and consumer behavior have focused almost exclusively on the 50-60% of behavioral traits attributable to the environment. With two notable exceptions (Simonson and Sela 2011; Daviet, Nave and Wind 2022), extant marketing literature has not, thus far, considered the profound potential role of genetics in marketing activities and consumer behavior. Genetics could account for an understanding of up to half of consumer traits, and extensively influence the future of marketing activities and strategy. This is a substantial and critical gap. The purpose of this research is to help begin to fill this gap.

Background

As the fundamental building blocks, genes play a critical role in defining who we are. While the nuances of genetics reflect its complexity, an understanding of its attributes indicates the substantial impact it can potentially have in marketing. Simply put, genes are the programming code for human characteristics (National Cancer Institute 2022)*,* and contain the information and instructions needed to specify human traits. They essentially are "packets" of information coding (National Human Genome Research Institute 2022), and perform the function of specifying human traits by directing the synthesis of proteins (Mukherjee 2016). Given the foundational role that genes play in shaping us and our behaviors, it is not surprising that a better understanding of how they work in shaping living organisms has captivated scientists for centuries. The past seven decades, in particular, have resulted in some extraordinary developments. This has resulted in remarkable advances in medicine, biology, psychology and sociology. The time is ripe for harnessing the marvels of genetic data in marketing.

Key Findings

The core objective of this paper was to present an initial theoretical framework for the use of genetic data in marketing. A secondary objective was to provide practitioners with recommendations for the transformational use of genetics in marketing activities and strategy. The larger agenda of this research is to provide a foundation for future academic research for genetics in marketing. The initial theoretical framework, created using an indigenous theory development, inductive realist approach, may help support our larger agenda by serving as a foundational springboard for future academic research. This potentially could lead to an even better understanding of how genetic data may transform marketing and consumer behavior in the future. To achieve these objectives, we started with the core foundational premises of gene-centric logic and formulated a patchwork of fundamental principles to craft our initial theoretical framework.

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SESSION 10D: SPORTS MAKE ME HAPPY

CHAIR:

Ania Izabela Rynarzewska

Summary Brief

Money-Mavericks or Brandicides? Use of Alternate Brand Images in Uniforms by Sport Properties

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From logos to legends, brand imagery plays a major role in virtually every tangible and intangible aspect of sport property operations (Rein, Kotler, & Shields 2007). The purpose of this presentation will be to examine both actual and potential effects of the continually increasing usage of alternate brand images ("alt-images"/"alt-branding"/"alt-uniforms") by sport properties. It will be built primarily on the framework built by Rein et al. (2007), as well as applicable parts of the seminal psychological and marketing works of Cialdini (2021) and Ries and Ries (2002). Also incorporated will be relevant personal psychological components of Gladwell (2011) as related to fans, philosophies of likability as related to developing personal connections (Lederman 2012), and business competition and strategy principles of Porter, particularly the utility values and the creation of values (Magretta, 2012).

Introduction

Occasional deviations from typically worn uniforms by elite sports teams occurred throughout the 20th Century for various reasons: one-time special promotions, various scales of brand transformations, changes in organizational appearances, and the increased availability and trendiness of sporting apparel into mainstream fashion (Rein, Kotler, & Shields 2007). The practice became more commonplace in the 1990s and turned into a formal marketing initiative with the National Football League (NFL)'s throwback alt-uniforms in 1994 as part of its 75th anniversary celebration. In 2015, the NFL formally announced its first Color Rush alt-uniform initiative, a series of four Thursday night games in which the eight participating teams would wear specially designed uniforms that featured heavy usage of one of the team's primary colors (National Football League 2015). Further initiatives and regulations regarding alt-uniforms soon began to permeate most major intercollegiate and professional sport governing organizations, connected to such initiatives as black-out (and other color-out), events, seasons, etc. (Branch 2008).

Background

In addition to changing permanent/primary property branding, modern elite sport properties across the globe regularly participate in various alt-branding initiatives. These may be self-initiated or part of league-wide initiatives and could take various forms, including uses of past branding (aka, *throwback* or *retro*), blackouts (or emphasis of other colors), culturally based, holiday-based, tribute-based, or even futuristic-based (Branch 2008; Mullen, Hardy, and Sutton 2022, "Turn Ahead," n.d.). One important revenue-driving outcome of such branding alternatives is reflected in the merchandising sector of the sport industry, as the 2020 U.S. licensed sports merchandise market was projected at $9.3 billion and has been forecast to reach $10.4 billion (USD) in China, the world's second largest economy, by 2027 ("Global Licensed," 2021).

Although merchandising represents a crucial revenue stream for sport organizations, other factors also influence non-transactional fan engagement dimensions, which also have important strategic inferences for sport marketers (Huetterman and Kunkel 2022). Results from Williams et al. (2021) indicate that fans' attitudes toward sport rebranding play significant roles in fan responses when such rebrandings happen. Accordingly, the content of

numerous theoretical branding approaches should be considered by sport marketing executives when contriving alt-branding strategies in sport marketing via team uniforms.

In light of such an important segment of marketing strategy, this presentation will examine relevant models and materials from the following sport and non-sport branding theorist, including:

- Ries & Ries (2002): the laws of expansion, publicity, word, credentials, name, extensions, generic, subbrands, siblings, shape, color, consistency, change, mortality, and singularity
- Rein et al. (2007): brand connection, brand reinvention, brand transformation, brand involvement, and ethos
- Cialdini (2021): the psychology of persuasion in commitment and consistency, social proof, liking, and authority
- Gladwell (2008): opportunity and legacy
- Lederman (2012): authenticity, self-image, perception, energy, curiosity, listening, similarity, mood memory, familiarity, giving, and patience
- Porter (2012): competition (including the five competitive forces and competitive advantage) and strategy (including value and continuity)

Key Findings

This paper will use alt-branding examples to illustrate the theories propagated by the previously mentioned works to determine whether alt-branded uniforms may be generally beneficial or harmful to the branding efforts of sport properties, whether such alt-branding approaches can vary by property, and/or if the topic appears to be worthy of further investigation. Examples will be lifted from 20th and 21st Century sport properties with greater emphasis on later efforts, particularly those fueled by league-wide initiatives and how these alt-branding uniform elements affect overarching branding and marketing efforts by sport properties, particularly teams and leagues. It will attempt to raise more relevant parts of these theories to help focus further studies on this topic and find other areas needed to bolster future studies, which appears to be a considerable area of potential growth and also represent a strategic inflection point which could easily bolster or bruise a property's brand.

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Summary Brief
Athletes Wellbeing and Negative News Media; Anxiety, Anger and Coping Mechanisms

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This study is concerned with the mental wellbeing of athletes who often cite news media as biased and negatively affecting athlete's wellbeing. In this study we test a model of broad range responses from emotional to cognitive as well as coping to what may be perceived as an identity threat. The study was built on the theoretical umbrella of Hostile Media Effect and Social Identity Theory testing it on a small, difficult to access population of high level to elite athletes. We found, among others, that the exposure to negative media induces responses anxiety and anger. Further, both identity and need for cognition affected coping by self exposing to positive media.

Introduction

There's little doubt that we are living in a time where certain aspects of our lives are perceived to be charged by the media. In an era where media is generally mistrusted by most people (Brenan, 2020), and the former president of the United States of America, Donald Trump, calls media "fake", it's no wonder that athletes may fear the media could misinterpret their statements to generate clicks on social media. The broader picture could be that if the public trust in media is diminishing it could threaten a healthy democratic society. But recently, there have been numerous cases of a tense relationship between the media and professional (and amateur) athletes.

Because the stakes are high, and very visible, some athletes have begun to strike back with the media being firmly in the crosshairs. Simone Biles, a world class American gymnast, stepped out of the Olympics 2020 competition citing mental health issues (Chappell, 2021). Also in 2020, one of the top women's tennis players, Naomi Osaka, refused to partake in a press conference at the French Open (one of the top four Grand Slam tournaments) citing negative impact on her wellbeing (Linendoll, 2022). Claiming that participation in mandatory press conferences induces doubt, anxiety and has a negative impact on her mental health because the media rarely has any regard for athletes' wellbeing, Osaka refused to speak to the press.

Avoidance of activities that cause mental distress would make sense but missing a press conference also carries consequences. Refusing appearances at press conferences can lead to fines of up to $20,000 or more (Florio, 2021), it reduces exposure of the athlete's sponsoring organizations and brands. These boycotts also reduce the ability of athletes to be heard, consequently minimizing their own voices. Finally, it may have an impact on society. A healthy democratic society needs to be able to make its decision based on information. This information is mostly provided by the media. But the question about why is the interaction between athletes and media so stressful that it contributes to negative effect mental health.

Background

In literature on psychology of media effects, people with strong opinions are called partisans. Their perceived bias of media is a very common one and is defined as the hostile media phenomenon (HMF) (Gunther and Liebhart, 2006, Schmidt, Gynther, Liebhart, 2004). It suggests that people prefer to read positive information on the subject important to them, (Vallone, Ross & Lepper, 1995, Gunther & Schmitt, 2004, Jonas et al., 2001). This means that the partisans prefer congenial news and, therefore, not necessarily information neutral.

Within the context of sports, the phenomenon of Hostile Media Effects (HME) has been mainly measured among sport fans (Clavio & Vooris, 2017). However, given the recent increased focus on athletes' wellbeing and their own statements related to the negative impact of the media on mental health, more research is needed in understanding how athletes respond to negative media and how they may cope with the exposure. This study extends the existing literature by incorporating key athlete related constructs of social identity, emotional and cognitive responses to negative media, as well as highlighting potential coping mechanisms.

This study is not only relevant from a theoretical perspective because this population has not been tested from a HME perspective but also a practice perspective. Athletes can be worth millions of dollars, helping generate millions of dollars and pride to brands, organizations, teams, and nations. They are also role models for youth and are highly influential among their loyal fans. Yet, athletes are constantly facing the stress of performance and scrutiny from

media, social media trolls, or fans. Because of that, if the media truly has a negative impact on their mental health, athletes may need to be protected and given the opportunity to decline media appearances rather than being fined or punished in some other way. This study empirically tests the complex nature of emotional and cognitive responses to perceived biased media which acts as a potential identity threat, coping mechanisms within larger nomological network are also addressed.

Findings

This study successfully attempted to expand the existing research on hostile media effect to the new population of elite athletes and their emotional and cognitive responses to negative media about in-group members. Athletes perceived the media as hostile to their in-group members (athletes as a whole). Further, this study found that the immediate response to a negative media about presumed in-group members is anxiety. Prior studies suggest that anxiety (specifically state anxiety) is an immediate response to stressors before even biological responses take place (cortisol and DHEAs) (Boudarene, Legros, & Timsit-Berthier, 2002). Thus, based on the current and prior studies we can boldly state that negative media about athletes is a stressor which warrants anxiety-based response to stress. It is an important finding because prior studies found degrading effects of anxiety on athletes. For example, a higher level of anxiety experienced by athletes is linked to an increased frequency and severity of injury (Lavallée, & Flint, 1996). High anxiety is also linked to lower performance particularly in the case of less successful coping mechanisms (Masten, Tušak & Faganel, 2006). This means that with improved coping mechanisms, anxiety does not negatively affect performance. It adds additional weight to the findings of this study which helped to shed light on the potential coping mechanisms that athletes engage in to mitigate a threat to identity that negative media brings. More specifically, after exposure to negative media athletes were actively seeking positively framed media about athletes as opposed to further exposure to negative media or unrelated media. In the present study, it was the identity directly affecting likelihood to read positive media, not the typically shorter-lived emotions. It is possible that this is due to negative media, perceived as biased against own in-group, thereby threatening the in-group and the identity derived from the membership.

In line with literature on the media effects, this study also examined cognitive responses to the exposure of perceived negative media. This study found that need for cognition, positively affected perceptions of media credibility and media credibility positively affected positive media seeking. It adds an interesting dimension to the findings because the positive media seeking was both affected by individual personality differences and over time acquired identity, strengthened by group belongingness.

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SESSION 10E: INCORPORATING PERSONAL BRANDING, PROFESSIONALISM, AND WORKPLACE PREPARATION ACROSS THE MARKETING CURRICULUM

CHAIR:

James Blair

Panel
Incorporating Personal Branding, Professionalism, and Workplace Preparation Across the Marketing Curriculum

James Blair, Eastern Kentucky University, USA
Prachi Gala, Kennesaw State University, USA
Dana Harrison, East Tennessee State University, USA
Karen Hood Hopkins, Auburn University, USA
Astrid Keel, University of La Verne, USA

Personal branding, professionalism, and workplace preparation are important aspects across all business disciplines. Marketing instructors seek ways to incorporate these into their marketing curriculum. This panel discusses ways to incorporate these skills across a variety of marketing classes.

Personal Branding

With the workforce experiencing significant changes due to the structure of corporations in flux and the rise of the gig economy, students showcasing their skills to potentials employers allows them to find desirable work opportunities (Blair, 2016). One way to do this is through personal branding. This can provide students a competitive advantage. Personal branding is defined as "a strategic process of creating, positioning, and maintaining a positive impression of oneself, based on a unique combination of individual characteristics, which signal a certain promise to the target audience through a differentiated narrative and imagery (Gorbatov, Khapova, & Lysova, 2018, p. 6)." Peters (1997) suggested personal branding would provide professionals the opportunity to become "free agents" in the economy. Workers can showcase who they are, skills they possess, and how they differentiate themselves from others. It is important for students to be able to create, maintain, and reposition their personal brand over time and in online spaces (Allison & Blair, 2021; Fore, Blair, & Allison, 2021). With more of our work being done in an online environment, marketing instructors seek out activities, assignments, and learning experiences that can be utilized in a digital space (Drehmer & Gala, 2021; Gala, Woodruff, & Drehmer, 2022). Students can bolster their personal brand online. Students should start building their personal brands while going through their university experience. Personal brand authenticity has been found to have a positive impact on the self-actualization of college graduates entering the workforce (Allison et al., 2020). Marketing educators creating personal branding experiences throughout their courses can aid students in having a strong personal brand prior to entering the workforce.

Professionalism

Professionalism in the workplace is important for hiring managers and employees. Higher education professionals can prepare students for the workforce by creating and developing student professionalism skills. This can be done several ways including lectures, in-class activities, case studies, and interactions with professionals. Ethics and social responsibility are two areas of emphasis in marketing education that prepare students to understand professional expectations. Classroom content covering these topics has been shown to improve student perceptions of ethics and social responsibility (Hopkins et al., 2021). With companies benefiting from good ethics and participating in corporate social responsibility (Ferrell et al., 2019), teaching marketing students about these topics can ensure that the organizations they are employed by properly utilize them throughout their careers.

Workplace Preparation

Marketers experience significant change throughout their careers. Therefore, it is important for them to understand continuous learning is needed for them to find success after graduation. With the rise of new technology and fluid consumers who use this technology shifting their decision-making process (Blair, 2019). Marketing professionals need to stay up to date on these trends and adapt to changes in the marketplace. Instructors have utilized several activities, assignments, and other learning experiences to prepare their students for the workforce. Experiential learning and practical student projects can be one effective way to provide students experiences that set them up for success in their future careers. Frameworks have been developed to implement these types of projects in

different marketing courses (Blair, Xiao, & Mason, 2019). Providing students experiences similar to the workplace can be beneficial to their future careers.

In sales and marketing, role-playing exercises have been found to be successful with students by improving their sales skills and preparing them to handle uncertain situations (Pelletier & Hopkins, 2018). Instructors providing feedback and allowing students to reflect their self-analysis of their performance has resulted in them improving their skills over time through this role-playing experience in sales classes (Rodriguez, Ajjan, & Honeycutt, 2014).

Practitioners have highlighted the need for students to experience technology they will be using in the future by going through experiential learning opportunities during college (Harrison & Ajjan, 2019). Marketing educators have the potential to incorporate technology, like Web 2.0 tools and beyond, which have been found to improve student satisfaction levels, writing abilities, and classroom interactions (Hartshorne & Ajjan, 2009).

Discussion and Conclusions

Since self-efficacy, locus of control, and student engagement have a positive relationship with student performance in their classes (Hopkins et al., 2020), panelists discuss how to incorporate these while utilizing personal branding, professionalism, and workplace preparation in their classes. With marketing faculty having the potential to serve as effective mentors for students (Harrison, 2019), they can provide helpful guidance and encouragement for students to reach their full potential throughout their professional careers.

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SESSION 10F: MEET THE EDITORS

CHAIR:

Greg Marshall

Panelists:

Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice **- Raj Agnihotri, Iowa State University, USA**
Marketing Education Review **- Seung (Mark) Lee, Ryerson University, USA**
European Journal of Marketing **- Greg Marshall, Rollins College, USA**
International Journal of Consumer Studies **- Cindy Rippé, University of North Georgia, USA**
Journal of Advertising **- Shelly Rodgers, University of Missouri, USA**
Business Horizons **- Leyland Pitt, Simon Fraser University, USA**

SESSION 10G: MACROMARKETING AND CONSUMPTION

CHAIR:

Pia Albinsson

Special Session

Macromarketing and Consumption

Anastasia Thyroff, Clemson University, USA
Kenny Herbst, Wake Forest University, USA
Pia Albinsson, Appalachian State University, USA
Mark Peterson, Univeristy of Wyoming, USA

Macromarketing takes a systems view of marketing and society. Specifically, macromarketing focuses on the interplay of marketing and society—how they influence each other. Panelists in this session will present topics related to consumption and discuss the implications of such consumption to macromarketing, as well as to public policy.

Macromarketing and Miniaturization – Anastasia Thyroff

Having a better understanding of the ways in which technology impacts society has been considered a key research objective for Macromarketing since its inception (Fisk, 1981). Indeed, macromarketing research provides a space for critical evaluation of technologies and to provide suggestions for the ways in which resources are managed for the well-being of society (Fisk, 1981). Yet much more research at the intersection of technology and society is needed (Lusch, 2015; Kravets, 2017). For instance, technology miniaturization (i.e., the science of making ever smaller materials and products) is ripe for research exploration. Through science, materials have been shrinking for decades, which is considered a natural evolution of science (Kuc, 2015). As a result, consumer goods are faster, more powerful, and consumer less energy (ibid). Consumers are, therefore, more reliant on technology than ever before (Carr, 2015), and the lines between humans and material are blurring (Best and Kellner, 2001). The shrinking and blurring of technology with the human comes with big macromarketing questions. So, it's time to "think macro!" and examine the big picture and ethical implications related to the trends impacting marketing and society in an increasingly complicated world (Peterson, 2016).

Unhealthy Food Consumption - Kenny Herbst

Poor eating habits include under- or over-eating, not having enough of the healthy foods needed each day, or consuming too many types of food and drink, which are low in fiber or high in fat, salt and/or sugar. Consumers are especially likely to overindulge in unhealthy food consumption if they encounter an instigating trigger (a visceral food description or a consumption-oriented social context) when an impellor is present (they are hungry) and they are not inhibited (their self-control resources have been depleted). Implications of contributing factors related to unhealthy eating will be discussed for relevance to macromarketing and public policy scholars

Collaborative Consumption - Pia Albinsson

In recent years, with the rise of the sharing economy, collaborative consumption (CC) has attracted significant attention from scholars and practitioners. CC is broadly defined as "the set of resource circulation systems which enable consumers to both obtain, and provide, temporarily or permanently, valuable resources or services through direct interaction with other consumers or through the mediation of a third-party" (Ertz, Durif, & Arcan, 2016, p. 15). Situated within the sharing economy (SE), CC often entails sharing or so-called pseudo-sharing of resources (Belk 2007, 2010, 2014). While peer providers might share their resources with others directly, these interactions are typically coordinated through online platforms, smaller start-ups, or community efforts. Thus, grassroots and community initiatives including community clothing exchanges, Really, Really Free Markets, clothing, and toy libraries, and time banks (e.g., Albinsson & Perera 2009, 2012, 2018; Valor & Papaoikonomou, 2019) to large organizational efforts by Zipcar (Bardhi & Eckhardt 2012), Mercedes, Volvo, and Marriott to name a few, entail CC. Collaborative consumption is a vibrant topic. Scholars need explanations for CC phenomena, such as the future of various CC platforms/ organizations, as well as the positive and negative externalities engendered by CC organizations' business practices and discuss current trends and possibilities for future developments. As the sharing economy has expanded to include profit-driven, business-as-usual operations that impose burdens (negative externalities) on the community.

The Future of Consumption and Macromarketing - Mark Peterson

Consumption can be said to be a sacred cow of American culture. Macromarketing scholars, such as Bill Kilbourne, have criticized the Dominant Social Paradigm of US culture because of its "more is better" ethos. However, sustainable marketing is now emerging and offers an alternative to the "take, make, waste" approach for businesses seeking to satisfy consumers who frequently lapse into overconsumption. Will consumers embrace sustainable marketing? How will business schools embrace sustainable consumption and sustainable marketing? Applying a macromarketing lens to answering these questions offers insights into how the future may unfold for marketers.

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SESSION 11A: CRYPTO, AI, & THE METAVERSE

CHAIR:

Heath McCullough

Summary Brief

Metaverse and Fast-Fashion: Can the Metaverse Influence Consumers' Purchase Intention for Fast-Fashion Brands?

Caroline Le Bon, Washington college, USA

New technologies are changing the ways companies and consumers exchange, engage, and communicate. Today, consumers have new expectations, and simply consuming products is not enough. Interacting and experiencing them within a virtual community is crucial. The metaverse appears as a new network and social platform, providing additional values to its consumers, allowing them to reach their new expectations. There is emerging literature on the influence the metaverse has on consumer behavior. However, this has not been yet analyzed for fast-fashion brands. This research focuses on the influence the metaverse has on fast-fashion brand equity and attachment. Can the metaverse impact brand equity and attachment? Can it influence consumers' purchase intentions? This research helps to improve our understanding of the influences the metaverse has on the relationships between fast-fashion brand equity, attachment, and purchase intention.

Introduction

Today, digital transformation becomes a crucial determinant in the business model definition and implementation of many companies. It has created some disruption in the market, shifting production and distribution processes, and empowering consumers. As these technologies become prominent in the daily lives of consumers, the relationships between brands and target audiences evolve. The metaverse offers new challenges and opportunities for both companies and consumers. Many brands are already considering the changes induced by the metaverse in their strategy development, but can these changes also be applied to fast-fashion specific business models? Can the metaverse increase the values consumers perceive in these brands and influence their purchase intention?

Background

The development of new technologies has changed the ways consumers interact with their favorite brands. Consumers nowadays have access to mass amounts of information, while easily browsing, receiving feedback, and influencing or being influenced. According to Bethan and Alvarado (2017), new technologies change consumer shopping behavior. Hence, purchasing online, and exchanging advice and opinion on social media platforms are daily rituals for millions of consumers.

Social media users were evaluated at 4.65 billion around the world in Spring 2022 (Kepios, 2022), representing more than half of the global population. Hence, it is not surprising that many companies are considering this evolution in their consumer journey while developing their marketing strategy. Some already offer their customers both digital and physical experiences, while others prefer to focus on a digital native strategy approach like Amazon, Bonobo, or Warby Parker. Today, some brands even push their strategic choice to a new limit by starting to manage their products through the metaverse.

The metaverse is a nascent area where companies and consumers benefit from the evolution and revolution of new technologies such as extended reality, artificial intelligence, and blockchain, to interact differently. Thanks to this, consumers evolve in a fully immersive interactive virtual shared space where they can work, play, socialize, and shop (McKinsey & Company, 2021). The metaverse was first developed in the gaming industry and is now growing rapidly throughout different sectors. Businesses are quickly realizing that the metaverse offers them new perspectives in terms of creation and distribution and offers new expectations to their consumers. Hence, today consumers do not consider just consuming products but anticipate interacting with them and experiencing them within a virtual community. The metaverse appears as a new network and social platform (Joy et al., 2022) shared by brands and consumers who uncover new ways to connect. Brands need to be where their target consumers are spending their time and developing their engagement and today, the metaverse is becoming the place to be seen, the place to interact, and the place to sell. Whereas a couple of years ago, it was crucial for businesses to establish a social media presence to reach their consumers and stay competitive, today the metaverse depicts the same imperative. In fact, it represents a wide range of opportunities that many don't want to miss. Beyond the gaming world, many, predominantly luxury, brands are investing in the fashion metaverse. Some of these brands are already working closely with game developers to dress players. In this virtual world, users can evolve on several platforms- displaying their new fashion items, and

showing off their fashionable image to their peers. Many researches emphasize the role of fashion apparel as a way for people to express themselves (Eastman and Eastman 2011) which remains true in the metaverse. Nowadays, consumers spend a lot of their time in the virtual world and thus they want to be able to use their virtual outfits as ways to express themselves and the metaverse allows them to do so. Brands quickly envision the benefits of being on this new social platform which also favors their consumers' desire for social connections. For many consumers, social connections are part of their shopping experiences. Belonging to one or more communities is a crucial component to creating these desired social connections. So, why would they get fashion items they can only share with a limited number of people while they can share a collection of products with millions of persons instantly? The metaverse enhances consumer experience by offering new ways to connect and to engage with their peers and their favorite brands (Steffes Hansen et al., 2013; Joy et al., 2022), positively impacting brand equity (Nah et al., 2011). As a new network, it may enable fashion consumers to retrieve experiential and symbolic values and favor attachment. Hence, through new interactions, consumers can express their integration with, or differentiation from, their social environment by choosing which fashion items they want to purchase every season. According to Steffes Hansen et al. (2013), social connections are related to higher purchase intention for virtual products.

Some companies such as luxury brands glimpsed these opportunities and entered the new virtual environment earlier than others. Today, fast-fashion brands such as Forever21, Shein, H&M, start to see the potential of the metaverse for their business but have to adjust it to their specific business model. Unlike other fashion brands, fast-fashion brands offer a fast production of fashion items at low prices with fast delivery to consumers who browse, compare, decide and purchase faster than before. Their objective is to be fast and first to offer the latest fashion styles. The metaverse can help them to do that almost instantly.

There is emerging literature on the influence of metaverse on consumer behavior. However, this literature has not yet considered if this new network and social platform will influence consumers' purchase intention for fast-fashion brands. Does the metaverse increase their brand equity and impact their brand attachment? Can it influence consumers' purchase intention for fast-fashion items? The main purpose of this research is to develop a theoretical framework that captures the influence of the metaverse on the relationships between brand equity and attachment, and purchase intention. In fact, this research focuses on the analysis of the positive impact the metaverse has on fast-fashion brand equity, the positive influence of the added values provided by the metaverse on the fast-fashion brand attachment and finally the positive impact this attachment has on consumer purchase intention of fast-fashion items.

By confirming these impacts, this research will contribute effectively to a better understanding of why consumers of fast-fashion brands will find interest in virtual fashion items offered through the metaverse. This will also provide several academic and managerial contributions emphasizing the crucial role the metaverse has today for fast-fashion brands. Not everyone is going to want to dress their avatar or purchase fashion items that only exist virtually, however, the metaverse appears as an emerging and fast-growing opportunity for fast-fashion brands and consumers to create, communicate, interact, and engage even more than before within their social and virtual communities.

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SESSION 11B: INNOVATIONS IN TEACHING SESSION 2

CHAIR:

Larry Neale

Summary Brief

Improving Students' Quantitative Competency: A Process for MBTN Class Integration

Ginger Killian, Rollins College, USA

Introduction

Quantitative analytical skills have been identified as a key influencer of student job prospects and success on the job (He et al. 2022 Forthcoming). Though marketing is often perceived by students as a soft-skills discipline, educators should create opportunities to build awareness of critical quantitative concepts and develop students' quantitative competency (and therefore self-efficacy). The MBTN Process Innovation utilizes MBTN Academy (Management by the Numbers 2022) to introduce material, then reinforces knowledge through an in-class activity, and finally requires mastery demonstration through exams.

Innovation Process

Step 1: Introduce. MBTN Academy is an online program that supports knowledge development outside the classroom, thereby protecting critical class time. While MBTN modules were designed as a standalone solution, the author found that in-class practice further developed students' confidence and quantitative self-efficacy. Ten MBTN modules were incorporated into the core MBA marketing course with topics ranging from basic concepts (e.g. market share) to more complex concepts (e.g. customer lifetime value). MBTN modules were due before the associated chapter was discussed in class. Though each MBTN module contains four problem sets, only the first three were available to students. The final problem set was reserved for the mastery step. Completion of a module's three problem sets resulted in full completion credit (10 out of 1,000 course points) for the module; though small, the points were sufficient motivation to complete modules.

Step 2: Reinforce. The in-class reinforcement activity served two purposes: building comfort with Excel and interpreting formulaic output. The in-class reinforcement activity was also designed to support the needs of all learning types (visual, auditory, and kinetic). A fictitious problem, closely based on MBTN's 4th problem set, was used as an in-class activity. During class, students developed a table in Excel based on the problem and then built formulas to answer questions. Each question in the problem set was presented individually so students could work through the problem systematically. Students competed to be the first to share the correct answer and explain the calculation, which often stimulated robust discussion. Following the discussion period, the professor displayed a pre-prepared slide with the correct answer and formula to solve the problem. The reinforcement activity also focused on meaningful interpretation of Excel output. For example, a revenue market share calculation may result in an Excel output (answer) displayed as ".67" or "67". Class discussion helps students interpret the output by examining the inputs (e.g. what is the revenue for each competitor?), the formula (e.g. did I input it correctly?), and outputs (e.g. *how* does this number make sense?). By internalizing *when* and *why* a formula is useful, students can more easily identify the inputs, develop the formula, and interpret outputs.

Step 3: Master. MBTN's fourth problem set was input into the LMS as formula-type questions. Each problem set resulted in four to seven formula-based questions. Formulaic questions vary numerical values for each student, thereby varying the final correct answer, paralleling the approach in MBTN. This structure significantly reduces the likelihood of cheating since each student's answer is based on unique values.

Innovation Results

Formula question exam performance from 61 MBA students was analyzed in terms of improvement from first to last exam. After categorizing students based on the percent of correct answers on exam 1, the average % correct for each category was calculated. Using the same category, the average % correct was calculated for the last exam (see Figure 1). Four of five categories improved; the lowest performing category (Blank) on the first exam scored highest on the last exam (95.8% correct). Only the top performing category showed a mild decline in performance (from 91.9% to 85.7%).

Figure 1: Exam Grades

	First Exam	Last Exam
A	91.9%	85.7%
B	80.0%	90.7%
C	70.0%	80.0%
F	52.2%	85.1%
Blank	0.0%	95.8%
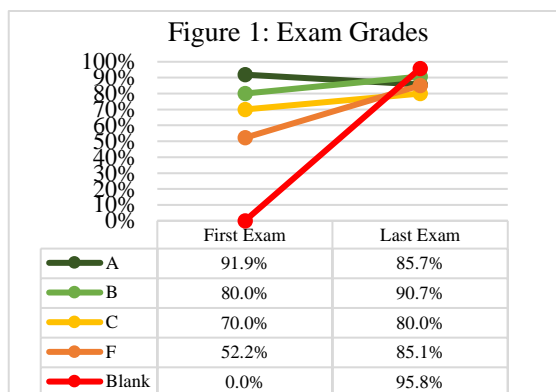
Discussion

The MBTN Process innovation supports the needs of students, faculty, and industry professionals. Although the list of course topics and required skills continues to increase, instructional hours have not changed. MBTN tutorials ensure all students begin in-class activities with the same preparation. Building upon the common base knowledge, the activity facilitates active learning and higher order critical thinking. Technical skills (via Excel) are developed through active practice.

The formulaic questions offer a number of benefits for the learning environment. These types of questions ensure students demonstrate concept mastery while simultaneously reducing cheating concerns for faculty. As online classes and exams become more common, innovative tools are necessary to combat cheating. Formulaic exams facilitate easy identification of students who upload an exam to online quiz services (e.g. CourseHero, Quizlet) and also reduce the benefit of exam answer sharing during exams.

The MBTN Integration Process reinforces knowledge across various applications, moving students beyond simple formula memorization. The Excel component develops familiarity with Excel capabilities, answering the call of industry professionals for graduates with technical skillsets. Early introduction of quantitative concepts and skills may also result in higher self-selection into quantitative electives, further enhancing job prospects upon graduation. Through the MBTN Process Innovation, students have ample opportunity to practice working with quantitative concepts to develop quantitative self-efficacy and competency.

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Summary Brief

Using Music to Increase Student Online Engagement via the Inclusion of a "Song of the Day" in the Class Announcements

Haeran Jae, Virginia Commonwealth University, USA

Student engagement in online instruction is critical for successful learning outcomes. Student failure to read the announcements can lower students' achievement in class due to not reading assigned articles, failing to complete assignments on time, or even missing exams. This article offers a teaching technique to enhance students' engagement with reading course announcements through music. It is a participatory action in that both students and professors can work together to create a "Song of the Day" section in the announcement.

Overview of the Current Situation

Due to the Covid pandemic, higher education institutions have accelerated the number of online classes and program offerings in the last few years (Masalimova et al. 2022). One of the challenges professors face in teaching online courses is the lack of students' engagement with the course (Banna et al. 2015). Professors question whether students are even reading class announcements via their online teaching platform. The online education platform Canvas's blog posts many questions related to how professors can check whether students are reading the professors' announcements or not. Asynchronous online courses pose more challenges because professors don't have opportunities to meet and encourage students in person to read announcements. Since student engagement in online instruction is critical for successful learning outcomes (Banna et al. 2015), student failure to read the announcements can lower students' achievement in class due to not reading assigned articles, failure to complete assignments on time or even missing exams. There could be many reasons why students may fail to read course announcements. First, many students may not read course announcements because of their reading behavior. Many college students are aliterate, meaning they choose not to read because of a lack of reading motivation despite their reading ability (Applegate and Applegate 2004). Aliterate college students prefer skimming, scanning, or even ignoring reading (Weeks 2001). Second, the content of course announcements may not entice students to devote their attention to the announcements. They may find the course announcements boring or don't find them helpful because they replicate syllabus or course schedule information. However, missing the announcements can hurt students' learning outcomes. More engaging course announcements may facilitate students' reading behaviors. This article offers a teaching technique to enhance students' engagement with reading course announcements through music. It is a participatory action in that both students and professors can work together to create a "Song of the Day" section in the announcement.

Description of Innovation and Implementation

Implementation is simple. At the beginning of the course the students are instructed to provide a self-introduction via their online course platform (such as Canvas) to the professor and are encouraged to include a song with a YouTube link that can be shared later (after lyric screening) by the professor with their classmates. When professors post course announcements notifying students as to assignment due dates, assigned reading, etc., each announcement will include a "Song of the Day" section located at the bottom, so students are more likely to read through to reach that section. Each announcement includes one song with a YouTube link recommended by a student. Professors can also recommend their own choice music as a variation of the "Song of the Day" in addition to students' songs. The "Song of the Day" can impact students' engagement positively in an online course environment for several reasons. First, the anticipation of listening to a song selected by students themselves will increase students' motivation toward reading the class announcements. Second, by reading class announcements, students are more likely to have on-time assignment submissions and keep up with reading course materials, and thus, ultimately increasing overall course engagement. Third, listening to songs selected by classmates and a professor makes students feel more connected to them, which is lacking in an online classroom environment. Lastly, past research has shown that music increases students' positive moods, improving mental flexibility and learning outcomes (Nusbaum et al., 2018; Stewart et al., 2019). Therefore, "Song of the Day" can elevate students' moods, resulting in a positive learning experience.

The "Song of the Day" teaching technique offers potential advantages for students and professors to have a better classroom experience in an online course setting.

Discussion of its Usage and Student Feedback

I implemented a "Song of the day" teaching technique since the Covid pandemic began with my asynchronous online courses. Students' responses are very encouraging so far. Fifty-three undergraduate students (Female 40%, mean age = 21) who took my fall 2021 courses have shared their opinion about the use of a " Song of the Day" via a survey with an open-end question. Students received extra credit points for their participation in the survey. Students view a "Song of the Day" as a great tool helping them connect with their classmates and professor, engage with the course, and improve their mood. The following themes have emerged, and I provide notable comments.

Better connection with classmates

"I really enjoy it because it not only helps me explore new artists and genres, but it also gives me an insight into my fellow classmates and their interests since we can't interact like we normally would in a classroom."

"I think it something unique that I will forever remember with this class. I think it is a nice small way to connect the class together."

"I love it; it is such a fun way to connect with us and figure out which one of my classmates have good music taste."

Better connection with a professor

"I really like the idea because although the class is online, it helped me feel a closer connection to you as my professor. In other words, it goes a long way knowing that the professor is passionate about their field, class, and engaging with students. Those I feel are key elements that make up a good teacher."

"Since it's an online course, I find it harder to connect with my professor but having the "Song of the day" was a great way to connect with other students in the class along with the professor."

"It provides an insight to our professor as a person and not just a teacher."

Improved engagement with a course

"I thought it was a cute way to personally engage with this course throughout the week."

"Personally, I find them so interesting, I think it can be very pleasant to hear as well, and it makes me more engaged within the course."

"I really enjoyed this part of the announcements because I think it is a great way to engage with the class for an online platform."

Improved moods

"It added a joy to my day."

"I think it's fun and something to look forward to!"

"I feel this is a great way to help students feel more engaged with the Professor as well as relieve stress."

Conclusion

The "Song of the Day" is a simple participatory technique that students and professors can enjoy and that improves the online education experience. This technique is ideal for aliterate college students and increases overall student engagement in reading announcements. In addition, this technique can improve students' mood and connection with a class, classmates, and professors, which are often difficult to achieve in the online environment.

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Summary Brief

Effect of Cheat Sheet Quality on Students' Achievement

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Introduction

Many students have access to more information than past students (Bond et al., 2020). A variety of information can provide more educational opportunities to students (Shofwan et al., 2021). However, we have great doubts about the ability of students to comprehend information and determine what is important actively. For example, paradoxically, students have academic achievement lower than past students, despite having access to more diverse information (Chen & Yang, 2019). This problem can be related to the attitude toward information emphasized in communication (Huang & Hong, 2016). Students need to understand and interpret the information provided actively. These skills are also very important in business education.

Theoretical Background

Various evaluation methods for academic achievement are used in universities. Evaluating students' academic achievement is a very important factor. It induces motivation for learning and allows students to distinguish between the knowledge they know and knowledge they do not know (Corcoran et al., 2018). The most important part of evaluating academic performance is the test. Examinations conducted at universities can be divided into two types according to freedom. The first is a closed book format in which no other sources can be used in the exam. The second is an open book format that uses necessary materials such as textbooks and notes. Students prefer the examination that allows open books rather than the traditional closed book method due to psychological pressure (Durning et al., 2016). A cheat sheet is a piece of paper that students use during exam time to learn and summarize the contents necessary for the exam. By using the cheat sheet, students are less stressed about the exam. Also, a cheat sheet could prevent psychological neglect caused by open-book (Parkes & Zimmaro, 2016). Furthermore, using a cheat sheet can allow students to recheck important contents in textbooks and organize the parts they have studied themselves. Based on these contents, this study intends to check whether the students' use of cheat sheets in exams affects their effective learning achievement. The study's theoretical background related to the effect of cheat sheet can be divided into a coding hypothesis and a dependence hypothesis. According to the coding hypothesis, students use cheat sheets to summarize their learning effectively. Therefore, it is possible to confirm the positive effect on student learning performance by using the cheat sheet in the study (Dickson & Bauer, 2008). The dependence hypothesis states that when students use the cheat sheet, they do not feel the need to understand and learn the necessary content while preparing for the exam. Students do not understand the content. Cheat sheets interfere with students' learning (Vohs & Schooler, 2008). In previous studies, the relationship between cheat sheets and academic achievement was not consistent. Based on this, it is possible to assume the moderating factors between the two variables by analyzing the existing research results. As instructors, we should effectively control moderating factors through counseling or education.

Conclusion

This study confirmed that students with an active attitude toward cheat sheets showed learning achievement higher than students with a passive attitude. Rather than the existence of a cheat sheet, one's attitude toward a cheat sheet has a significant effect on learning achievement. Also, even though students have a passive attitude, they can have a more active attitude toward cheat sheets through consultation with the professor. Students who experienced such counseling showed higher learning achievement in the second test than in the first test than those who did not. This study further advanced the analysis of the effect of cheat sheets according to previous studies' subject and individual characteristics. This study confirmed that counseling with professors could change students' attitudes toward cheat sheets. In addition, this study has suggestions that can be used in the actual educational field. In the future, it can be suggested that perhaps not only the use of cheat sheets but also the professor's feedback is important

in the class exams based on understanding marketing in universities. In this process, students have an attitude of active understanding and analysis of data required by companies after graduation.

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Summary Brief

A Life Full of Billable Hours: How to Become S.M.A.R.T. and More Resilient by Auditing Your Time Like an Advertising Agency

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This simple but effective multi-phase assignment helps students learn time management by implementing the same process that advertising agencies use to track employee billable hours. Through a progression of three activities, students learn the importance of often neglected marketing concepts while also developing time auditing skills that help them prioritize how they can best allocate life's most precious resource to accomplish their goals.

Introduction

      A recent report in the Chronicle of Higher Education showed 80% of students experienced a negative impact on their mental health from Covid-19. 91% reported increased stress and anxiety, and 81% stated increased disappointment and sadness. I'm a marketing professor not a mental health counselor, but these numbers, and the visible impact it has had on the faces and behavior of my students, spurred me to figure out some small way I could help. After reading many articles about the most common contributors to these increased feelings of stress, anxiety, and disappointment, I decided to personalize foundational concepts that are taught in many marketing classes but are frequently glossed over. They are also difficult to illustrate the importance and implementation of in traditional lectures or projects. I turned these concepts into a multi-phase assignment focused on the individual level, rather than the organizational level, and the results were shocking.

The Three-Phase Assignment

      Marketing curriculum includes coverage of mission statements and goals, but I've never seen it given much more than a cursory chapter section. Given that the purpose of clearly articulated missions and goals is to aid resource allocation decisions, combined with my experience with thousands of confused students, this series of activities is centered on these principles. After an in-depth discussion of the characteristics of a great mission statement, students take a variety of skills and personality assessments while evaluating previous experiences they have enjoyed and despised. They are then instructed to use the elements of an effective mission statement to articulate a personal one for themselves for the three years immediately following graduation.

      Once they have finalized their mission statements, we move on to S.M.A.R.T. goal-setting. After going through the acronym and explaining the characteristics, I have them complete a goals journal. The important thing about this activity is that I provide them with a template and allow them to approach it more holistically. They articulate their goals in the following categories: personal, relationships, financial, physical, spiritual/mental, school, and work (if applicable). While this is a graded assignment, it is important to emphasize to them that I do not have the right to judge or grade the value and importance of their goals; their goals are theirs alone. Rather, it is graded based on whether or not the goals are written in accordance to the SMART criteria. In full disclosure, up until this point they think these activities are a pointless waste of their time, and too 'warm and fuzzy' to drive actual productivity. Wait, doesn't that sound like a lot of organizations and why they either hurry through this process or don't do it at all?

      The next activity is what causes the shift from them thinking it's a waste of time to it being one of the most eye-opening, empowering assignments they have done. I ask them to list off everything they are "supposed" to spend their time doing in an ideal world, in one week's time. I place an emphasis on "supposed" because that is where the sense of pressure and stress comes from. As a class, we usually come up with a list of things to do that would require between 193-225 hours. There are only 168 in a week. This is when the realization sets in and students begin to understand why they feel stressed, overwhelmed, and disappointed with their accomplishments. It is important to finish the class period with a heavy and heartfelt discussion about the impossibility of meeting all of society's expectations while also working toward one's own goals. This cues up the final component of the multi-phase activity.

      For two weeks, the students log and categorize every 15 minutes of their day, just like an advertising agency requires of their employees for client billing. If it isn't already, I have them turn on the digital well-being feature that

reports the usage of every app on their phone, so they are able to see exactly how much time is spent on various social media platforms, texting, YouTube, etc. I tell them not to set any usage alarms or change their behavior in any way, just go back at the end of the week and use that feature to fill in their time audit. I provide them with an Excel template that produces a nice pie chart automatically so they can visually see where their time is being spent. At the end of the two-week period, I have them compare their time audit results to their stated mission and goals and write an analysis. they recognize that very little or no time was spent on the mission and goals they had previously stated. All of a sudden, they understand what it means to use these foundational concepts to direct resources and they are able to identify that it is unreasonable to expect goals to be accomplished if no time is being spent on them.

Key Findings

As simple as it may sound, this series of activities results in a very enlightening and empowering realization for them. Rather than continue to beat themselves up and feel lower and lower levels of self-worth for failing to accomplish goals that they have for themselves or feel society has placed on them, this exercise helped them to see that it isn't because of ineptitude or a lack of capability or talent on their part. They express feeling like a huge amount of pressure is lifted from them as a direct result of these activities. While they might not have ever written their goals down the way they did for this assignment, they talk about still feeling the weight of them and struggling with the unmet expectations. This activity empowers students to prioritize the goals that are most important to them, relax the ones that they don't have capacity for, and release the grip of unrealistic expectations. In doing so, they report feeling more in control, less overwhelmed, and lower levels of anxiety. As professors, we can't fix all the stressors in their life, but we can help guide them to get the most out of life's "billable hours."

SESSION 11C: NAUGHTY, NAUGHTY

CHAIR:

Sarah Lefebvre

Summary Brief
Blame Attribution in Third-Party Food Delivery

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Drawing on blame attribution theory, the current research examines how consumers perceive failures in third-party food delivery. We demonstrate that consumers attribute service failures such as wrong items, missing items, cold food, or leaking containers to restaurants over third-party food delivery platforms. The findings offer managerially relevant insights for restaurant managers.

Introduction

Two distinct delivery models, restaurant-to-consumer delivery and platform-to-consumer delivery are common practice. The restaurant-to-consumer delivery model allows consumers to order directly from the restaurant; order preparation and delivery is subsequently fulfilled directly by the restaurant. In contrast, third-party platforms (e.g., DoorDash) allow consumers to place orders from a variety of restaurant partners via the third-party platform's website or app. Restaurants are responsible for food preparation prior to delivery by a third-party platform. In the current research, we focus on consumers' blame attribution in TPFD service failures. Given the prevalence of service failures and their impact on consumer outcomes such as repurchase intentions and brand loyalty (Grewal, Roggeveen, and Tsiros, 2008; Sengupta, Balaji, and Krishnan, 2015; Umashankar, Ward, and Dahl, 2017), determining who consumers deem to be at fault when TPFD goes awry can have important implications for restaurant managers.

Background

In the context of food delivery, a variety of service failures may occur. For instance, an order may be missing items or have incorrect items when delivered, delivery times may be longer than estimated, packaging may leak, or delivery containers may open/break. When ordering through a third-party food delivery (TPFD) service, the delivery channel from the restaurant to the consumer is interrupted, resulting in a loss of control for the restaurant. This adds a layer of complexity when a service failure occurs as it may be the result of actions by the restaurant or the delivery platform. Since service failures can decrease consumer satisfaction (Sengupta et al., 2015), and repurchase intentions (Grewal et al., 2008), understanding where consumers attribute blame for the service failure has important implications for restaurants and delivery drivers/platforms.

Many service failures that occur off premise of production leave ambiguity as to who is responsible for the source of service failure, resulting in consumers attributing blame based on salient cues (Yoon, 2013). Further, since TPFD services provide an indirect delivery channel from a restaurant to the consumer, the delivery process has a level of complexity with multiple members: the cooks at the restaurant, the individual who packaged the order at the restaurant, the delivery driver, and the ultimate consumer. Research has shown that as complexity of a situation increases, the ability to correctly attribute blame becomes more difficult (Hill, Baer, and Kosenko, 1992). Acknowledging the ambiguity and complexity of the TPFD service failures, the question remains: where do consumers attribute blame when a service failure occurs, the restaurant or the delivery driver/platform? Through this exploratory research, we examine the following research questions:

RQ1: When a service failure occurs in the third-party food delivery context, where do consumers attribute blame?
RQ2: Is the attribution of blame dependent on the type of service failure?

Key Findings

We conducted a single-factor between-subjects experiment with five conditions representing common service failures (service failure: wrong items, missing items, cold food, leaking containers, late delivery). Participants were randomly assigned to one of the five service failure conditions and provided with a scenario in which they ordered dinner using third-party delivery. Participants were asked, "Who was responsible for the problem?" (1 = the driver, 7 = the restaurant), followed by a 3-item measure assessing blame attribution towards the restaurant for the service failure.

For both measures wrong items in the order were found to be attributed most to failure by the restaurant ($M_{single-item}$ = 5.97, M_{3-item} = 5.92). This makes sense since the restaurant is responsible for packing the order and turning it over to the delivery driver. Interestingly, cold food was the next highest failure attributed to the restaurant ($M_{single-item}$ = 5.04, M_{3-item} = 5.12). This is concerning since often the food is left sitting waiting for the delivery driver to pick it up, or the delivery driver may have multiple deliveries at one time, meaning the food is sitting in the delivery vehicle for an unknown period of time. Both situations create an opportunity for the order to become cold that is out of control of the restaurant, yet the restaurant is blamed.

Overall, the findings suggest when consumers experience service failure while using a TPFD, they attribute blame to the restaurant despite what may have caused the service failure.

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Summary Brief

Consumer Trauma and Shopping: An Exploration of Trauma Victims' Retail Experiences

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Though it is well established that trauma impacts consumers' behavior, what is not well known is how the impact of traumatic events and resulting PTSD might influence consumers' purchasing behavior in retail environments. An empirical study was conducted to examine whether consumers who report being victims of traumatic experiences, thus developing PTSD, feel more anxiety while shopping in retail environments, ultimately influencing their ability to make purchase decisions. Our findings extend research on trauma and consumer shopping behavior by identifying specific issues that may negatively impact trauma survivors within a retail environment.

Introduction

Trauma is a part of most consumers' human experience, making it a widespread and costly public health concern. Trauma may result from "an event, series of events, or set of circumstances that is experienced by an individual as physically or emotionally harmful or threatening" and consequently has "lasting adverse effects on the individual's functioning and physical, social, emotional, or spiritual well-being" (SAMHSA 2014, p.7). Trauma is triggered by a wide variety of events, lending to its widespread impact on the consumer experience. For instance, individuals who have experienced trauma are four times more likely to become alcoholics, three times more likely to consistently miss work and have job problems, and two times more likely to have serious financial trouble (SAMHSA 2019). Those who have been exposed to trauma events often develop posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD; May & Wisco 2015), which increases the risk of neurological, behavioral, and/or psychological difficulties; social, emotional, and cognitive impairment; and adoption of health risk behaviors as coping mechanisms (eating disorders, substance abuse, violence, etc; Felitti et al. 1998). It is estimated that 1 in 11 adults will be diagnosed with PTSD in their lifetime (APA 2019).

Does an individual's exposure to trauma influence their level of anxiety while shopping? If so, does this anxiety then influence their ability to make purchase choices? An empirical study was conducted to explore these questions. Specifically, we examined whether consumers who report being victims of traumatic experiences, developing PTSD, feel more anxiety while shopping in retail environments, ultimately influencing their ability to make purchase decisions.

Study and Procedure

To explore the impact of trauma on consumer shopping experiences and how retailers can respond, a consumer's instances of trauma were collected to examine how trauma experiences impact instances of stressor complaints (PTSD), subsequently influencing consumer shopping experiences – shopping anxiety and product choice confusion.

Three hundred forty-nine participants were recruited from Amazon M-Turk from within the United States and were paid for their participation (participants were limited to United States with 90% approval rate for more than 0 approved HITs). The average age of participants was 39, and the sample was approximately 65% women. Participants were asked to complete a self-report survey using established scales. Participants were asked to first answer questions about their level of anxiety while shopping followed by questions about how often they experience choice confusion while shopping. Next, participants were asked to complete the Brief Trauma Questionnaire (Schnurr et al. 1999), collecting instances of trauma experiences participants have encountered. Finally, participants indicated the extent to which they suffer from problems or complaints related to stressful events (PTSD). Before ending the survey, participants were asked to complete demographic questions asking their age and gender identity.

Key Findings

After assessing the validity of the measurement model, a series of regression analyses were conducted. Results of the analysis revealed that trauma (M = 3.23, SD = 2.31) significantly predicts instances of stressor occurrences (PTSD; M = 3.53, SD = 1.62; B = .42, t = 8.45, p < .01). These results are in line with previous psychology literature findings and support H1. Next, PTSD was found to significantly predict both shopping anxiety (M = 2.93, SD = 1.76; B = .49, t = 10.42, p < .01) and choice confusion (M = 3.63, SD = 1.77; B = .47, t = 9.81, p < .01). Additionally, shopping anxiety was found to significantly predict choice confusion (B = .59, t = 13.50, p < .01).

To test our hypothesized causal process, a serial mediation analysis was conducted using PROCESS Multiple Mediation Model 6 (Hayes 2017). All regression coefficients are unstandardized, and 5000 bias-corrected bootstrapped samples were used to estimate the indirect effects. Reflected in our hypothesized model, the tested model explored trauma as the independent variable, PTSD as the first mediator, shopping anxiety as the second mediator, and choice confusion as the dependent variable. All six potential relationships were tested for significance. Results of the analysis indicate that the full serial model is significant with a 95% CI (a*b = .18, CI: .12 to .24). The direct effect of trauma through PTSD and shopping anxiety onto choice confusion was non-significant (c = -.06, CI: -.13 to .01). Three additional analyses in which the order of the variables was changed produced either non-significant or weaker models, suggesting that the predicted serial mediation model best explains the data.

Discussion

Results of this study provide support for our exploratory conceptual model. We found that consumer trauma significantly impacts consumer choice confusion in shopping environments through increased instances of stressor complaints in a given month (PTSD), which increases shopping anxiety. Future studies are planned to examine whether or not there are personal characteristic consumers possess, such as psychological resiliency, that may mitigate their anxiety and choice confusion. Given that consumers may be negatively impacted within retail environments based on past trauma events, research is needed to understand how retailers may use market-based solutions to create a more inclusive retail environment and enhance consumer well-being. For instance, safety has been identified as a key principle in trauma-informed care given that trauma victims often feel a loss of control and lack feelings of security (Bowen & Murshid 2016). Thus, retailers may need to show evidence of security measures being taken to ensure consumer safety or implement a security code for people who feel unsafe or threatened within the environment.

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Proceedings: Summary Brief

Enjoying Another's Misfortune: The Effects of Perceived Schadenfreude in Customer-to-Customer Dialogue during Social Media Service Recovery

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Customers continue to use social media to post complaints about poor product or service experiences with firms. One byproduct of social media complaints is third-party customers who can observe or participate in the publicly visible dialogue with a complainant or firm. Recent research examines how some third-party customers misbehave with uncivil language directed at another. However, no research has examined the effects of perceived schadenfreude, defined as the perception that another customer is experiencing malicious joy at another customer's misfortune, or the related sympathy it may produce. The current research seeks to fill this gap by exploring the detrimental effects of perceived schadenfreude and sympathy on customer perceived service climate and future customer engagement intent. The way a brand responds (e.g., passively accepting, supporting, or disagreeing with the other-customer's uncivil comment) will also be examined.

Introduction

People continually treat others rudely in social media online exchanges (Beauchere 2020). Some challenges for firms in the face of customer-to-customer (C2C) incivility are the effects of such dialogue during customer service recovery on a brand's social media channel. Indeed, when one customer complains about a brand or its products, it is a ripe environment for other customers to verbally attack a complainant, which is in plain view of observers (Schaefers and Schamari 2016). Recent research examining C2C incivility during social media customer service shows that perceived fairness, experiential value, perceived service climate, and consumer engagement of complainants and observers suffer when C2C incivility occurs (Bacile et al. 2018; Bacile 2020; Bacile et al. 2020; Wolter et al. 2022).

Yet, one unexplored phenomenon is observers' perceived schadenfreude, defined as the perception that a customer is experiencing malicious joy at another customer's misfortune. Schadenfreude investigations by marketers are limited to contexts of status consumption, advertising, and sports marketing (e.g., Dalakas and Melancon 2012; Sundie et al. 2009). Related to examining perceived schadenfreude is observers' elicited sympathy for a targeted customer when victimized by another's malicious joyful comments in social media customer service situations. Sympathy is a unique emotion to study in a service recovery context because marketers limit their investigations of sympathy to advertising and charitable giving (Escalas and Stern 2003; Sudhir et al. 2016). To date, service recovery research has yet to investigate how this form of malicious enjoyment and the sympathy it produces influence the perceptions of a recovery. Understanding the effects of observers' perceived schadenfreude and sympathy is pivotal because this group of digital onlookers typically outnumber complainants on social media by a scale exceeding 500:1 (Johnen and Schnittka 2019). Thus, this study adopts the observers' view and measures their perceptions of schadenfreude, the sympathy it may produce, and their effects on behavioral intentions as well as their perceptions of service recovery efforts on social media.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this research injects a novel cognition (perceptions of another's schadenfreude) and a unique emotion (sympathy) into the social media service recovery domain. The four primary research questions are:

RQ1: Do observers' perceptions of a third-party customer's schadenfreude in a digital customer service venue produce sympathy from observers toward a victim?

RQ2: If sympathy occurs, does it affect perceptions of service climate or customer engagement intent?

RQ3: Do the effects lessen or heighten if the third-party customer's digital persona is perceived to be more closely associated with a brand advocate vs. a troll?

RQ4: How do different types of brand responses lessen or heighten the effects?

Method and Analysis

This work will incorporate two studies. In Study 1, an online survey will use a 2 (high vs. low schadenfreude response from a third-party customer targeting a complainant) x 2 (the third-party customer's persona is a brand advocate vs. troll) between-subjects experimental scenario. A complaint will be shown to respondents, along with one of four randomly shown responses from another customer. Text and emoji icons in the third-party customer's comment will manipulate Schadenfreude (high vs. low). The profile name, image, and presence or absence of a "top fan" label will be used to manipulate the third-party customer's persona (brand advocate vs. troll). Survey data will be collected from an online panel. Analysis of the variance will assess these initial results for the baseline effects of perceived schadenfreude, sympathy, perceived service climate, future customer engagement intent, and if the persona lessens or heightens any effects. In Study 2, the focus will be on how the brand responds. A 2 (high vs low schadenfreude) x 3 brand response (schadenfreude disapproval vs. schadenfreude support vs. neutral) between-subjects design will be used. In the schadenfreude disapproval brand response condition, the company's response will be disagreeing with the third-party customer's comment; in the schadenfreude support condition, the company's response will be in agreement with the third-party customer's comment; and the neutral condition will involve passive acceptance (i.e., ignoring) of the third-party customer's comment. Hence, Study 2 will provide some insights into an optimal type of brand response and how it affects the dependent variables. Analysis of the variance will assess the results.

Potential Implications

Theoretical implications include expanding the influence of schadenfreude and sympathy to social media customer service. Neither has been conceptualized within a service recovery framework until now. Second, we broaden schadenfreude's scope to show its effect on third-party observers instead of a targeted customer. A noteworthy distinction is the peer assessment of anonymous customers, which differs from extant schadenfreude evaluations involving upward social comparisons (e.g., a celebrity) or prestigious brands. Third, we add to our understanding of customer engagement by identifying the effects of a unique cognition (perceived schadenfreude of another's comments), emotion (sympathy), and newer service-related construct (customer perceived service climate). Aside from developing theory, our work will provide managerial insight into different types of responses to reduce or increase negative perceptions. This managerial implication is important because brands that offer customer service via social media are likely to experience C2C rude interactions, yet may not understand an optimal way to respond.

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Summary Brief
When Using Robots in Service Backfires: Human versus Robot Service Failure on Negative WOM

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The use of robotic agents is growing in the services sector. This sector is prone to service failures; hence it is critical to explore how consumers react when a robotic agent causes a failure compared with a human. We conducted three studies in diverse service domains to explore how consumers' negative word-of-mouth (NWOM) intentions differ depending on the types of service agents. Our studies provide evidence that consumers express a higher intention of spreading NWOM if a robotic agent causes failure than a human agent, and this effect is stronger for people with high collectivistic orientations. Our results also show that the levels of human-likeness of service robots do not influence consumers' NWOM. These findings provide interesting implications for both service researchers and practitioners.

Introduction

Service environments have become more competitive than ever before. Consumers can easily access diverse service options and share their experiences via social media. It is well documented that word-of-mouth (WOM) plays a significant role in the consumers' decision-making in the service industries (Litvin et al., 2008). Recognizing that negative experiences hurt service providers more than positive ones help them (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2006; Lee, 2018), service providers attempt to deliver failure-free services. Nonetheless, the human element of services means that service failures may be inevitable (Mattila & Cranage, 2005; Shapiro & Nieman-Gonder, 2006). For this reason, service robots are increasingly utilized in service. It is estimated that service robots will acquire 96% of hotel frontline jobs and 42% of delivery-related tasks in the hotel industry within the next decade (Belanche et al., 2020). Additionally, such adoption of service robots has been accelerated because of the COVID-19 pandemic, and sales of service robots increased by 32% in 2020 (Jiang & Wen, 2020). While artificial intelligence and robots are often perceived as failure-free and invariant in service delivery, they are also prone to technical failure and user adaptability issues because of the evolving user interfaces, which lead consumers to experience service failure (Honig & Oron-Gilad, 2018), resulting in consumers' negative reactions (Leo & Huh, 2020).

Conceptual Background and Research Questions

When encountering service failure, people tend to spread NWOM about their bad experience as one way to take revenge on the service provider (Grégoire et al., 2018). Notably, previous research suggests that consumers' tendency to engage in NWOM may depend on the types of service agents (e.g., artificial intelligence [AI] vs. humans) when service failure occurs. For example, consumers are less likely to spread NWOM if an AI recommendation system causes service failure as compared with a human employee because of the perceived connection with the AI recommendation system that stores personal behavioral data (Huang & Philp, 2021). Seemingly contradictory to that finding, however, Chen et al. (2021) show that consumers have a higher intention of spreading NWOM when self-service technologies (e.g., self-service kiosks), relative to human employees, cause a service failure. While these previous studies offer insight into different responses to the types of service agents after a service failure, their findings are limited to lower levels of AI tasks such as mechanical and analytical service jobs. To our knowledge, little is known about how consumers respond to service robots versus employees in more complex and highly interactive situations (e.g., dealing with a missing suitcase at the airport, encountering a rude service agent at a restaurant). We fill this gap. Given that service robots are evolving to higher intelligence and engaging in high-skilled tasks such as welcoming customers and recognizing human faces (Huang & Rust, 2018), our findings will make a good contribution to service failure literature in the context of robots and human servers.

We further address the issue of whether consumer responses differ depending on the different degrees of human-like appearance of service robots. Previous research exploring the concept of the "uncanny valley" shows

that the human-likeness of robots increases the feeling of familiarity, but if robots resemble humans very closely, then people feel a threat to their self-concept (MacDorman, 2006). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that the human-likeness of service robots may influence consumers' cognition, affect, and behavioral intentions toward such robots. Supporting this, previous research suggests that consumer reaction and perception of service robots may vary as a function of how closely they resemble a human (Lu et al., 2021; Mende et al., 2019). We build on this stream of research. Specifically, we examine whether the different levels of human-likeness (i.e., low human-likeness, medium human-likeness, and high human-likeness) affect NWOM in the service failure context.

Lastly, we examine how individual cultural orientations play a role in responses to service failure as a function of human and robot agents. It is well documented that cultures differ in various dimensions (Hofstede, 2003). In particular, our research centers on collectivistic orientations. People with high (vs. low) collectivistic orientations tend to be interdependent, emphasizing harmony and relationships with others, and exhibit communal relationships (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Those people feel responsible to others, which in turn shapes their behavior and decisions (Srite & Karahanna, 2006). Moreover, when it comes to technology acceptance, people with high collectivistic orientations tend to have less positive attitude toward technology (Kovačić, 2005), whereas those with high individualistic orientations are more inclined to accept and use technological products (Srite & Karahanna, 2006). Given that those with high collectivistic orientations value relationships with others but are negative toward technology, it is likely that they may engage in more NWOM when service failure is caused by robot agents (vs. human agents).

To answer these research questions, we conducted three experiments, where we utilized various scenarios (e.g., different failure types, different service contexts, different human-likeness levels of robots) to enhance generalizability. All data were collected from Amazon Mechanical Turk members (MTurkers) via CloudResearch. In Experiment 1, we provide initial evidence that consumers exhibit higher intentions of NWOM when service failure is caused by a machine than a human agent. The objective of Experiment 2 is to replicate the finding of Experiment 1, as well as differentiate the levels of humanlike appearance of robot agents to investigate whether the effect observed in Experiment 1 differs. Finally, Experiment 3 explores the role of cultural orientations (i.e., high vs. low collectivistic orientations) in the relationship between the types of service agents and NWOM.

Experiment 1

Participants were 200 MTurkers ($M_{age} = 40.28$, $SD = 12.78$). The study had a two-group between-subjects design (machine vs. human) using an outcome-failure scenario in an airport setting. All participants were asked to imagine that they arrived at the airport for travel. Participants in the machine (human) condition were presented with a machine image (a human agent image) and continued to read that while checking in, an automated machine (a human agent) issued a boarding pass for the flight. All participants then read that after they arrived at their destination, they found that their luggage was sent to the wrong destination because the machine (human agent) printed and attached the wrong bag-tag. Following this scenario, participants were asked to indicate their intention to engage in NWOM at that moment on a 7-point scale (i.e., "I would share this negative experience with others").

The results showed that participants in the machine condition increased significantly higher NWOM for the service failure ($M = 5.92$; $SD = 1.24$), relative to the human condition ($M = 5.29$; $SD = 1.47$; $F(1, 198) = 10.68$; $p = .001$). The study provides evidence that consumers are more negative toward a machine than a human in the context of a service failure.

Experiment 2

We aim to extend our previous study in the following three ways. First, unlike Experiment 1, which used an outcome failure scenario, this study utilizes a process failure scenario in a restaurant context. Second, we examine whether the effect obtained in Experiment 1 varies depending on the degrees of human-likeness in the appearance of service robots. That is, one may speculate that the effect obtained in our previous study may disappear if participants were presented with humanlike robot images. We test this possibility. Last, we used a multi-item scale of NWOM, compared with a one-item scale.

Participants were 207 MTurkers ($M_{age} = 38.82$, $SD = 12.76$). The study had a four-group between-subjects design (human vs. low human-like robot vs. medium human-like robot vs. high human-like robot). All participants read a process-failure scenario adapted from Smith et al. (1999) describing an inattentive restaurant server at a restaurant. Participants in the three robot conditions were presented with three images of robot servers differing in the levels of human-likeness (See Figure 1), whereas no image was provided to participants in the human condition.

After the scenario, participants indicated their intention to engage in NWOM on a 3-item, 7-point scale (α = .92) and then the levels of human-likeness of the robot images.

Figure 1: Robot Images Used in Experiment 2

| Low humanlike robot | Medium humanlike robot | High humanlike robot |
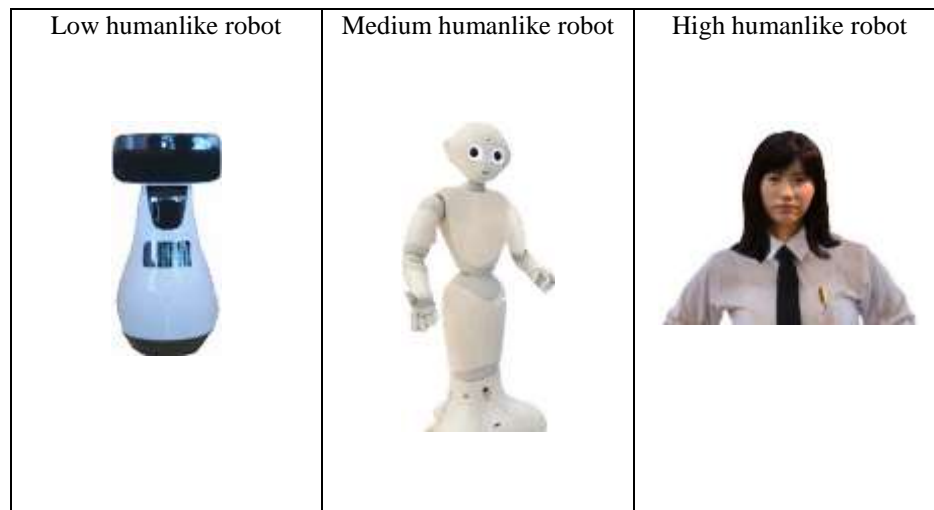
To examine the effectiveness of our manipulation of the three robot images, we performed a one-way ANOVA on human-likeness. The results revealed a significant difference among the robot conditions (F(2, 152) = 14.48, p < .001; $M_{\text{low-humanlike}}$ = 1.73, SD = 1.04; $M_{\text{medium-humanlike}}$ = 2.56, SD = 1.71; $M_{\text{high-humanlike}}$ = 3.42, SD = 1.91; p < .01), suggesting that the manipulation was successful. Next, we examined the effect of server types on NWOM. To this end, we conducted a one-way ANOVA. The results revealed that there was a significant difference among the conditions (F(3, 203) = 2.93, p = .035). More specifically, there were significant differences between the human condition and the three robot conditions (M_{human} = 5.18, SD = 1.56; $M_{\text{low-humanlike}}$ = 5.75, SD = 1.17; $M_{\text{medium-humanlike}}$ = 5.68, SD = 1.40; $M_{\text{high-humanlike}}$ = 5.90, SD = 1.08; ps < .089). However, there was no significant difference among the three robot conditions (p > .36).

These results suggest that consumers perceive the service failure caused by robot servers to be more negative than the failure by human servers, regardless of whether the robots look human-like or not.

Experiment 3

In this study, we identify cultural differences as an important boundary factor. Participants were 251 MTurkers (M_{age} = 37.71, SD = 12.24). The experimental manipulations were identical to those used in Experiment 1. For our dependent measure, we asked participants to indicate their intention to engage in NWOM using the same item as in Experiment 1. Finally, participants completed a collectivistic-individualistic measure adapted from Gelfand and Triandis (1998) using a 16-item, 7-point scale (α = .73). We reverse-coded the items that measured individualism with higher numbers reflecting higher collectivism.

There was a significant main effect of the agent type on NWOM (M_{human} = 5.22, M_{robot} = 5.63; $F(1, 249)$ = 4.61; p = .03), replicating Experiment 1. To test our moderation model, we used Hayes (2017) Model 1. There was a significant two-way interaction between the agent type and the cultural orientation (B = -.86, SE = .35, p = .02). Participants with higher collectivistic orientations reported significantly more NWOM under the robot (vs. human) condition (B = -.86, SE = .27, p = .001). The pattern of results is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Results in Experiment 3
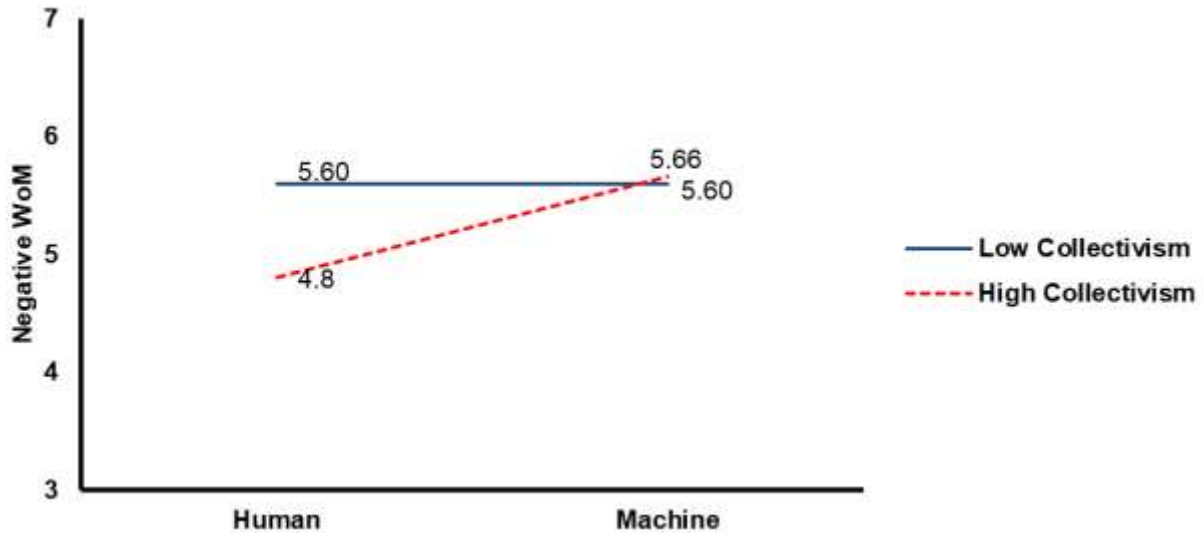
Conclusion

In this research, we make novel contributions to the literature surrounding word of mouth and service failures caused by robotic and human service agents. We find that consumers would be inclined to spread negative word of mouth (NWOM) when robotic agents (vs. human agents) cause service failures. We also find that the effect of the failure agent (human vs. robot) is also influenced by culture. Specifically, only high collectivistic individuals will have higher NWOM for service failure caused by robots (vs. caused by human agents). In an era in which robotic usage is gaining popularity in the service sector, we suggest that managers and marketers take this information to analyze when a robotic agent may or may not be appropriate and consider the possible repercussions of using a robotic agent. Moreover, the use of robotic agents in the service industry should be judiciously employed, catering to varying mindsets and considering specific cultural norms and orientations that may affect consumer sentiment. Our findings suggest that further exploration into the effects of service agent type in service failure scenarios considering other cultural dimensions is warranted.

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SESSION 11D: POTPOURRI: A SWEET BLEND

CHAIR:

Ran Liu

Summary Brief

Marketing as discipline, general theory, and key strategy for business: Towards a comprehension of Shelby D. Hunt's outstanding contributions

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This is not an attempt to summarize Hunt's vast contributions to marketing. It only addresses some milestones and highlights Hunt's efforts to help develop marketing as university discipline, applied discipline, and professional discipline, with responsibilities to society, students, practice, and the academy. Three broad areas benefitted from Hunt's outstanding intellectual contributions: 1) marketing as a discipline, 2) a general theory of marketing, and 3) the role of marketing as key strategy for business. The three areas are approached sequentially, as they evolved and impacted on the development of the next stage.

Marketing as discipline

After broadening the concept of marketing in the 1970's, to make it inclusive of not-strictly business practices, such as social and public policy concerns (Ferber, 1970; Kotler and Zaltman, 1971), health services (Zaltman and Vertinsky), population puzzles (Farley and Leavitt, 1971), among other matters, the field of marketing embraced important developments aimed at portraying marketing as a comprehensive discipline. First emerged the "generic" concept of marketing (Kotler, 1972) followed by an abundant debate on the scope of marketing (Kotler, 1972; Hunt, 1976, 1978). As a corollary of the debate, the 1985 AMA Board (Bennet, 1988) approved and published a definition that included a schema containing 8 distinctive components of the marketing phenomena, in lieu of a redefinition of the marketing field: micro versus macro, normative versus positive, and profit versus non-profit. The outlined scope added the subfields of macro, positive, and nonprofit to the existing areas of micro, normative, and nonprofit, considerably enriching the broad field of marketing. In addition, "exchange" substituted "transaction" as the focus of analysis, significantly improving the academic and professional approaches to the marketing phenomena.

Hunt's "Three Dichotomies Model" (Hunt 1991) overlaps with the 1985 AMA 's approach to the scope of marketing. In fact, Hunt was a participant member of the committee that studied, debated and delivered the report to the AMA (Hunt 2010). Hunt's model became a general taxonomical framework for marketing in the following years, but was reviewed by the AMA along its new definitions in 2004 (Lusch, 2007) and 2007 (Gundlach, 2007; Ringold and Weitz, 2007). Hunt was member of the 2007 AMA committee in charge. The 2007 AMA-adopted definition of marketing 1) acknowledges the activity of marketing, the institutions of marketing, and the processes in marketing, 2) recognizes the role of marketing in creating, communicating, distributing, and exchanging market offerings, and 3) points out how the normal everyday ethical and responsible practice of marketing benefits customers, clients, partners, and society (Hunt 2010).

Marketing as a general theory

Hunt's contribution to marketing science is exemplary. His textbooks on Marketing Theory (1976, 1983, 1991, 2010) provide a structured and detailed manual for developing and employing marketing theory on the basis of science. "A major task of science is to explain the phenomenon that constitute its basic subject matter" (Hunt, 2010, p. 101). And these are the requirements to explain phenomena in marketing: the phenomenon should a) be expected to occur, b) be intersubjectively certifiable, and c) have empirical content. Marketing science has benefited from these contributions and developments and achieved some hallmarks in the explanation of marketing phenomena. Nonetheless, progress in this endeavor is compromised by the fractionalization and tribalization of current research.

Marketing knowledge integration is necessary to achieve the common goals and ideals of the marketing profession. Some current trends in how scholars and practitioners use marketing, however, have taken rather the route of micro-segmentation, fractionalization, or tribalization, in important areas of knowledge like consumer behavior, marketing channels, and marketing communication. The trends reflect increasingly unproductive disagreements and misunderstandings in key areas such as methodology, statistical analyses, and theory

requirements. The outcomes deprive the marketing field from reaching a comprehensive view and a robust response to firms' growing needs to compete in ever more turbulent markets. Nevertheless, if this trend has to be reversed, what are conditions or aptitudes we need to foster to still achieve integration?

The early attempts to advance a general theory of marketing have fallen victim of the tribalization process mentioned above. Bartels' initial proposition of a general theory of marketing in 1968 included seven sub theories that reflected contemporary marketing theories (Bartel, 1968). Hunt (1971) formalized those propositions and found that none of the seven constructions were theories at all. To supply an alternative, Hunt established criteria for formalizing theories that can be applied to all marketing phenomena: "theories become systematically related sets of statements, including some lawlike generalizations, that are empirically testable" (Hunt, 2010, p. 194). The formulation is obviously deductive, not inductive. The requirement of lawlike generalizations affect theoretical structures; they must include systematically related law lawlike statements, not just systematically related sets of definitions or classifications, as exemplified in various published articles (Blalock, 1969; Bunge, 1967). "Theories must contain lawlike generalizations because it is precisely these statements that give theories their explanatory and predictive power" (Hunt, 2010, p. 187). In addition, theories must be empirically testable, that is, intersubjectively certifiable, capable of explaining and predicting real-world phenomena, and differentiated for purely analytical schemata (Hunt, 2010).

Marketing as key strategy for business

The early efforts to integrate marketing knowledge following Hunt's three dichotomies, the emergence of marketing science, and the formalization of a general theory of marketing have served to build up marketing as a field of knowledge and practice. However, the tribal-like separation and compartmentalization of marketing issues and topics following specific theoretical frameworks and methodologies, often just different statistical approaches, not only disjointed the bestowed efforts by scholars to confront common problems in the discipline, but also reduced the effectiveness of the marketer scholar and professional to influence firms' strategies and decisions.

Hunt's response to the challenge of micro-segmentation of knowledge in marketing has been analytical. Following Wilkie and Moore's (2003) thesis on how marketing has evolved as a discipline, Hunt (2018a, 2018b) examines in detail 'Era IV' of the evolution, that is, a process of fragmentation of marketing strategy into special fields like marketing orientation, relationship marketing, brand equity, and market segmentation, after 1980, and proses 'Era V' to represent the future advancement of marketing after 2020. The critical commentaries on Hunt's proposal were contributed by Varadarajan (2018), Jaworski (2018), and Jones & Shaw (2018). The backbone of Hunt's proposal is the R-A Theory of Competition, which is integrative and offers auspicious paths to remedy the fragmentation of marketing knowledge in 'Era IV' (1980 to now). It is an overarching theory that helps explain the changes in the markets and understand the ubiquitous role of investment, innovation, and organizational learning in economic growth. It may even depict better the shifts of fortune in the world economy, such as those in emerging markets, during the last decades and the pandemic.

From a research and practical perspective of the R-A Theory of Competition, scientific realism and inductive realism (Hunt 2011) and the positive theory of competition (Hunt and Madhavaram, 2012) can be applied in testing the R-A Theory. Inductive realism postulates that "the long-term success of a scientific theory gives reason to believe that something like the entities and structure postulated by the theory actually exists" (Hunt 2010, p. 333). In fact, when examining how the process of competition takes place, it starts in the market. A firm's first concern is not the acquisition, possession or control of resources, such as physical, technological or human. Instead, the firm is first concerned with the markets and their conditions, which may allow the firm to develop a marketing strategy. So, demand considerations are first, and then supply considerations. Thus, the firm will first seek competitive advantages in the markets via cost savings or value delivery or both. The pursuance of one of those strategies will guide the firm to acquire or share the appropriate resources, the firm's comparative advantages.

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Additional References Available Upon Request

Full Paper

Blockchain in Marketing: A Preliminary Exploration of Use Cases

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A singular financial application based on blockchain has been in the news frequently while discussions surrounding the foundational technology behind it has not been widely reported in the business media. Blockchain is that underlying technology that seems to have a multitude of applications in almost every sphere of business activity. This paper examines the basics of blockchain and potential use cases in the field of marketing. This attempt is exploratory in nature given that marketing applications of blockchain are mostly in the introductory phase of its lifecycle. The paper will provide a brief introduction to blockchain; explaining the properties of the technology & how a transaction is processed in the system; provide a lengthy overview of the marketing use cases; and concludes with a brief discussion including some of its current limitations. In providing this overview of blockchain applications in marketing, the hope is that marketing faculty can understand this new technology and impart their learning to students.

Keywords:

Marketing, Blockchain, Consensus, Immutability, Decentralized, Smart Contracts, Provenance, etc.

Introduction:

Technology has always played a significant role in marketing and business in general resulting in becoming a core driver of organizations' operations, innovations, and competitiveness (Allam, 2018). From the advent of the Internet to digital marketing ideas to the latest incarnations of social media, both front- and back-end technologies have been providing the underpinning infrastructure for marketing processes. Blockchain embodies the continuing revolutionary relationship between marketing and technology, commonly referred to as MarTech. Beyond efficiency and automation to drive cost reduction, technology is adopted at the functional level to serve marketing strategy (Allam, 2018; Eickhoff et al., 2017). According to a report by Market Research Future, the entire blockchain market is forecast to grow with a compound annual growth rate of 68 percent by 2030 (Market Research Future, 2022). This data was compiled taking into account the potential usage by service providers, by organization size, by end-user, by application, and by regions.

While the term "bitcoin" was invented in 2008, it became part of the wider lexicon around 2013. Most discourse during the decade focused on cryptocurrencies with limited discussions of the underlying blockchain technology. Not only is there is much hype around crypto, but the space is fragmented with more than 1500 different types, a majority of which were developed in the last 5 years. Their total market cap is close to $500 billion (Ridder, 2016; Stan, 2022). According to multiple sources, there are many crypto millionaires and billionaires (Platinum Crypto Academy, 2021). While nobody knows exactly who controls all the accounts, there were 101, 554 bitcoin accounts each with a value of $1 million as of February 2022 (Sams, 2021). While many crypto enthusiasts are riding high and are ardent advocates, there are those that think that these currencies are a very speculative in nature especially since they are not backed by any guarantees (Jafar, 2021; Ong, 2020). Recently, the market is experiencing a "crypto winter" with a meltdown of sorts of their market values and crypto exchanges freezing hiring and laying off employees (Powell, 2022). This paper is not about cryptocurrencies but about their underlying infrastructure, blockchain, how marketers can potentially leverage its capabilities.

According to the World Economic Forum, by 2025 10% of the world's GDP may be on the blockchain system (Dhaou et al., 2017). While there might be some variations from that prediction due to the pandemic-induced effects on business, the technology is here to stay and may be help with the pandemic data integrity, reporting, prediction and so on (Dimitrov, 2020). Blockchain is a trusted decentralized peer-to-peer (P2P) network of shared ledgers that allows for the distribution of auditable ledgers in an immutable (unchangeable), transparent, and secure way (Linn & Koo, 2016; Reyna et al., 2018). Having diverse applications beyond crypto, blockchain has attracted the interest of investors across a wide range of industries such as banking, insurance, communications, entertainment, marketing transportation, healthcare, education, and public services (Friedlmaier et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2017).

Adoption of any innovative technologies, such as blockchain, is dependent on the added value derived from them. Estimates of global spending on blockchain solutions vary but is expected to grow from $ 4.5 billion in 2020 to about $19 billion in 2024 and to $67 billion by 2026 (Ajayi, 2022). Surveys of businesses show the excitement around the concept and plans among over 60 percent of the companies a budget of at least $1.0 million allocated for the technology (Ajayi, 2022). While the future of blockchain gives companies hope for greater efficiencies, it is coupled with a lack of understanding of its value proposition and use cases. Some of the misunderstanding is caused by conflating blockchain with bitcoins and thus the perception of it being just a hype. According to Deloitte, blockchain is at an inflection point with companies moving away from simply understanding it to building practical applications (Deloitte, 2016). In the 2021 survey of 1,280 senior executives and practitioners in ten countries, a majority of the respondents see compelling business case for using the technology including the opportunity for competitive advantage (Deloitte, 2021).

As mentioned earlier, this exploratory paper is an attempt to discuss the basics of blockchain and potential uses in marketing. Given the evolving nature of the technology and the emergence of newer use cases, this paper is and initial examination and by no means exhaustive.

What is Blockchain?
The marketing aspects of blockchain can be thought to represent the "what" and "why," while the technology aspect can explain the "how." The concept underlying the blockchain system might be based on the old public ledgers that were used in societies to record notable events – transfer of assets, births, marriages, deaths, judicial rulings, election results, etc. Today, it is made possible by cryptography and distributive networks in order to achieve "a secure, transparent, immutable repository." Blockchain can be described as a sequence of blocks, which holds a complete list of transaction records similar to a conventional public ledger (Chuen, 2015). Each block points to the immediately previous block, called the parent block, via an encrypted reference (Zheng et al., 2017). The blocks contain an incessantly growing list of entries or records consisting of the encryption of new data, such as a sales transaction, merged with the encryption of the prior entry (Yermack, 2019). These blocks periodically are time stamped and made available (DePatie, 2017). The technology allows protocols/standards to validate new blocks before it can be added to the existing chain. Such sequential merging of encrypted transactions creates robust form of security because any retroactive alteration or change will require changes in all subsequent entries.

Figure 1: Blockchain data structure
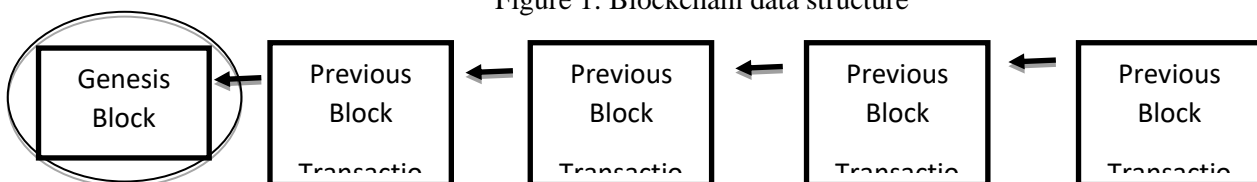
Block 1   Block 2   Block 3   Block 4 . . . . .   Block . . .*"n"*

The first block in the blockchain is call the genesis block (Figure 1). This type of linked data is recorded and re-recorded thousands of times but not copied. Once the blocks are published, they are linked to other blocks in the chain and the entirety of the chain is automatically verified for accuracy by miners or human checkers (DePatie, 2017). This system removes the need to trusted intermediary such as a broker, clearing house, or a bank. *Deloitte Insights* calls blockchain "democratized trust" (Deloitte, 2016). The authors of *Blockchain Revolution* define block chain as "an incorruptible digital ledger of economic transactions that can be programmed to record not just financial transactions but virtually everything of value" (Tapscott & Tapscott, 2018).

Blockchain, is a distributive system or shared ledger of transactions, each of which "depends on a logical relationship to all its predecessors" (Business Insider, 2017). Under the distributed system, transactions are updated simultaneously and shared by multiple actors. It is transparent and those involved are to account for their own actions. The data is spread over and stored in various physical/virtual locations rather than be tethered to a central location or database. The data being held within a network of machines is shared and continuously reconciled on all the databases within that network. This allows the records of transactions to be public and verifiable rather than in a hidden central location. Thus, hacking, and degrading data is nearly impossible since it would be difficult to do so on the entire network. In other words, the data is not controlled by any one person or entity and thus has no single weak link for failure.

This system helps prevent falsifying of the information since it is copied throughout the network with no one central authority keeping all the records/data. Some say that decentralization, transparency, cryptographic security, and immutability are the cornerstones of blockchain technology (Carson et al., 2018; Rosic, 2016).

The Basic Blockchain Process: In a blockchain based system, when customer A wants to buy widgets from seller B, the system collects and stores all such transactions that during a certain period of time. The requested transactions are sent (broadcast) to all participating computers in the specific blockchain network. This network of participating computers is part of a peer-to-peer (P2P) decentralized network. When the participants/miners receive the request, it checks, i.e., validates the transaction against a set of rules/protocols set by the creators of the particular blockchain network. The protocol establishes the manner in which new entries are initiated, edited, validated, recorded, and finally distributed. Cryptology is utilized as the "keeper of trust," with the computers in the network running complex routines/algorithms to certify the integrity of data/transactions/ blocks. These verified transactions are assembled together in packages (blocks) and added/linked in a certain manner, hence the name blockchain. The block is locked within the system. When other computers in this specific network validate if the lock on the block is correct, it becomes part of the chain of blocks. Once it becomes part of the blockchain it can be seen but not altered. Blockchain technology can lead to increased transaction efficiency and cost reduction across the business network. A basic blockchain transaction might look like what is depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2: The Basic Blockchain Process

Flowchart: (1) Buyer A want to buy an item from Seller B. → (2) A Block that represents this transaction is created. → (3) The Block is broadcast to all the members (miners) of this blockchain network. → (4) Members (miners) in the blockchain network verify the transaction → Transaction 1 Date-Stamped / Transaction 2 Date-Stamped / Transaction n Date-Stamped (The member-verified block is date-stamped and linked to other related) → (6) The purchase is verified, and Buyer A & Seller B consummate the transaction.

Marketing Applications of Blockchain Technology

In 2019, McKinsey had proclaimed the emergence of Blockchain 2.0 because of the uncertainty about cryptocurrencies and the emergence of business applications (Batra et al., 2019). According to the same report, blockchain applications in business are being enhanced as "BaaS simplifies implementation" and the demand by corporate users might outnumber the cryptocurrency miners (Batra et al., 2019). Initial impact of the technology is likely to be cost savings, tokenization and, some level of disintermediation of transactions (Carson et al., 2018). Sustained efforts in unearthing the full potential of blockchain could lead to optimal scaling of the technology resulting in transformation of business models as we know them today.

One measure of serious consideration of blockchain in business is tech companies such as IBM, Microsoft, Amazon, Alibaba securing patents, investing heavily, and creating large employee pools in related projects. Google is using blockchain in its cloud ventures to differentiate itself, Walmart using it to track produce to its source, Maersk to access it cargo data, British Airways to manage flight data, UPS looking to use it in its customs brokerage business, FedEx to solve customer disputes, etc. (TechRepublic 2018). Others such as Toyota, AB InBev, has also had some success with implementing blockchain. For instance, Toyota in 2019 launched the Toyota Blockchain Lap to integrate the technology into various functions and provide more value for their customers. According to their press releases there are four focus areas: customers, vehicles, supply chain, and digitalization (Kaaru, 2020). While customers, for instance, will be able to utilize ID sharing and points services, the technology will help the company access accurate information related to the functioning and life cycles of vehicles. Transparency in recording and sharing information will help both manufacturing and logistics. Digitalization (tokenization) will make it easier for financing and tracking both tangible and intangibles such as vehicles, intellectual property rights, etc., (Sharma, 2020). Table 2 below provides a sampling of blockchain applications in the marketing.

Table 2: Sampling of Blockchain Applications by Marketing Sectors

Industry Sectors	Application Briefs and Key Players
Media Applications including IP rights.	Smart contracts can protect copyrights and automate the sale of creative endeavors online, thus eliminating the risk of file copying and re-distribution. Ex. TRST.im, Blockparti, BitProof, etc.
Advertising	Provides transparency in cases of data inflation and discrepancy in advertising platforms; disintermediation of ad buying and selling; ad verification, content management, etc.
Supply Chain Auditing and other SCM applications	Blockchains provide an effortless way to certify origins of products. Blockchain timestamping of dates and locations would correspond to product numbers.
Internet of Things	IoT technologies are by nature distributed and thus blockchain will play are role in how devices communicate with each other. Also, smart contracts can automate remote systems through a combination of software, sensors, and network facilities. Ex. Filament, Chimera-inc.io, etc.
Sharing Economy	By enabling p2p payments, the blockchain opens door to direct interactions between parties. Ex. BTC Jam, Codius, BitnPlay, La'zooz, etc.
File Storage	Decentralizing file storage on the Internet helps prevent hacking and lost files. Ex. Ascribe, ArtPlus, Stampery, Storj.lo, Peernova, etc.
Identity Management	Distributed ledgers offer enhanced methods to prove who a customer is and her/his status. Having a secure, digitized identity will be important as online services continue to evolve. Examples could include civil registries, voting records, identity fraud, etc. Ex. The Real McCoy, BlockVerify, Uniquid, Onename, etc.
Static and Dynamic Registries	Static registry for storing older, non-changing reference information such as patents, land titles, origin for produce, etc. Dynamic registry for updating transactions or assets when they are exchanged on the network. Ex. Factom.
Smart Contracts	Distributed ledgers enable the coding of simple contracts that will self-execute when predefined conditions are met. Ethereum is specifically developed to realize this potential. Examples include latest music/movie releases online, stock trading, insurance-claim payouts, refunds on returns, etc. Ex. Otomomos, Mirror, etc.

In general, some of the advantages of blockchain technology, such as cost savings, consumer trust, and tokenization, have inspired companies to consider experimentation with the technology along the following properties:

- **Consensus/Transparency:** all parties in the system can view and verify transactions.
- **Immutability:** once a block of data is confirmed, records cannot be altered.
- **Provenance:** it keeps track of the records of assets with unique identifiers.
- **Distributed:** In the shared ledger, information is copied on to all the nodes/computers
- **Decentralized:** There is no central authority/server that controls the system.
- **Smart Contracts:** Actions and transactions executed automatically when terms of the contract are met.

- **Privacy/Security:** permissions and identity ensure appropriate visibility of transactions.

Cost Savings:

One of the main benefits touted for the implementation of blockchain is its ability to impact cost savings is likely to be driven by operational efficiencies resulting from the reduction of time, effort, reduced human involvement in keeping records and the need for reconciliation between parties. As seen with other areas of MarTech there are certain cost savings to be had by disintermediation, increase efficiency using smart contracts and secure payments, authentication of transactions by verifying customer data, etc. (Soohoo, 2019). In marketing, blockchain can bring about efficiencies in verifying and transference of information and payments/assets between sellers and buyers. Another example of cost savings is in the behavioral targeting strategies. In the current system, display ads follow the customer from site to site even after they have purchased the item. A blockchain enabled implementation can provide tracking and transparency to halt ad-buying networks to programmatically bid for space for the item already purchased. Even with startup, implementation, and training costs, savings from efficiencies and reduction in paperwork is projected to effect cost savings gradually.

Building Customer Trust:

When transactions are democratized and transparent between the parties, it empowers consumers with knowledge and helps them interact better with marketers. The promise of a consumer-owned and controlled identity and personal information within the blockchain helps them limit the type and amount of data being shared. (Prescher, 2018). Customers are more likely to transact with businesses with verifiable reputation and this has been a major limitation for newer and smaller businesses online. Newer businesses have to rely on third party platforms such as Amazon, Walmart, or Facebook to be proxies of trust. This proxy trust system has its own drawbacks. Blockchain presents a solution to such limitations by enabling trust and credibility of transactions since one of its foremost characteristics is trust-enabling (Seebacher & Schüritz, 2017). Also, blockchain can mandate proof-of-identity to commit any transactions or information change (Iansiti & Lakhani, 2017). For instance, Everledger, an independent technology company, utilizes the use of blockchain to promote trust, enable transparency and allow tracking the history of assets. Stolen credit or debit cards domestically or across borders could be automatically rendered unusable within a blockchain with other location-verifying blocks in the chain. Similarly, chargeback fraud activities could be slowed in the process (Vaccaro, 2019).

By helping leverage new channels across the digital marketing space, blockchain can enhance consumer trust and engagement (Treiblmaier, 2018). Given that many marketing activities involve settlements with third-party companies for services rendered, smart contracts may be one of the most transformative application of blockchain (Iansiti & Lakhani, 2017). A smart contract, for instance, can automate the process of sending a payment to a supplier once the system confirms shipment is delivered and allows disintermediation between transacting parties to protect from malicious or accidental exceptions (Christidis & Devetsikiotis, 2016). Smart contracts can also be used to validate payments, international trade arrangements, loans, and voting (Cong & He, 2019); in healthcare and clinical trials (Nugent et al., 2016); for Internet of Things (Christidis & Devetsikiotis, 2016), or other applications such as gaming (Bartoletti & Pompianu, 2017).

Tokenization/Products: Tokenization is an important aspect of using blockchain technology. In spite of the difficulty to transform physical assets and intangibles into a digital format, blockchain allows for their conversion into digital equivalents or tokens for transactions purposes. In the real estate market, for instance, if one owns a house worth $200,000, it can be converted into 200,000 tokens, each worth 0.000005% share of the property. So, when a home buyer obtains one token through the blockchain system, she/he has 0.000005% ownership of the house. Similarly, if somebody buys 100,000 tokens representing the asset, she/he owns half of the house or owns the asset completely when all 200,000

tokens are bought. And because the purchases take place in a blockchain where transactions are transparent and immutable, the token owner is ensured of the ownership, and nobody can erase it even if the deal is not yet registered with any County. The recent NFT (Non-Fungible Token) phenomenon illustrates this idea well with artworks being tokenized but are not fungible - meaning that it is not easily replaced/duplicated (Murphy, 2021). With graphic designer Beeple (Mike Winkelmann) selling his "Everydays: The First 5000 Days" artwork for $6.5 million, this phenomenon attracted much attention . Beyond artworks, other items are being traded in the NFT space such as sports trading cards, Twitter co-founder Jack Dorsey's first tweet, Nyan Cat GIF, etc. Some companies/brands have also tried to ride the bandwagon such as Charmin NF toilet paper, Pizza Hut's NF pizza and the like. Another example is the use of "vAtoms" within the "BLOCKv" platform that enables bridging the gap between physical and virtual worlds. In other words, vAtoms represent digital tokens for physical objects that can be transacted and can be linked to customers' emails, phone numbers, added to digital banners, inserted into a video game, etc. Similarly, gold, diamonds, lettuce, haircuts, medical services, etc. can be tokenized and traded within the blockchain. Therefore, tokenization is a valuable tool to transact intangible, fungible, and non-fungible goods / services with all the benefits of blockchain such as transparency, trackability, immutability, etc.

This technology is also useful to marketers by helping reduce the incidence of counterfeit products that violate IP rights by facilitating end-to-end tracking of the product from the origins (Galvez et al., 2018). For instance, LVMH Moet Hennessy Louis Vuitton, the Prada Group, and Compagnie Financiere Richemont are allied with the Aura Blockchain Consortium to utilize and promote a single blockchain solution for all luxury brands worldwide. Bulgari, Cartier, and Hublot have also been using this system. The way it works is: when consumers buy the authentic brand, they are provided access to the system that lists the history of the product, origin, components, environmental info, proof of ownership, warranty and care information (Paton, 2021). Sourcing transactions between all parties in the supply chain can be recorded by the blockchain system which provides both reliability and integrity to the chain. Since parties have the access to the same version of the ledger, the transactions are transparent and the tracking easier. This is especially critical for life-threatening nature of supplies of counterfeit auto parts, medicines, medical devices, food supply adulteration, etc. all of which can be brought into compliance using blockchain technology.

Pricing: An important aspect of cost savings from implementing blockchain technology is the result of disintermediation of pricing platforms that benefit both marketers and consumers with lower prices as the number entities siphoning off a percentage from the total sum are eliminated. Usually, marketers (hence consumers) are forced to pay transaction fees/discount points to credit card companies and online payment portals thereby increasing the cost of sales, resulting in higher prices, possibly lowering profits, and losing customers (Business Insider - India, 2018; PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2017). Blockchain system offers 'almost' zero transaction cost because it can eliminate intermediaries – much to the chagrin of Visa, MasterCard, and others including their issuing banks (Dalton, 2018). Whether the credit card vendors and their banks will allow this scenario is yet to be determined. Marketers could motivate consumers to share information directly with them as reduced cost of transactions lead to lowering prices (Harvey et al., 2018). User tailored deals and personalized pricing could become common place in online transactions. Similarly, in cross-border payment situations in which typical money transfer/ remittance cost can be up to 20 percent of total amount, blockchain could reduce the costs significantly while guaranteeing transparency, verification, and speedy real-time processing (Reiff, 2020).

Distribution/Logistics Applications*:* Blockchain technologies potential solutions to the current limitations in food supply chain management (Tan et al., 2018). It allows autonomous supply chain by collecting real-time data and automating triggered actions based on predetermined conditions. With evolving post-pandemic consumer behaviors that require marketers to provide information on the sourcing of products, sustainability and investigate contamination (thus recalls) of a variety of produce

and meats, there is a need to track all items to its source. Implementing blockchain systems in supply chain/logistics yield three distinct benefits – verifying products, reducing paperwork, and the possibility of end-to-end tracking (Dobrovnik et al., 2018). For instance, Walmart has been working with IBM on a blockchain enabled food supply chain solution (Kamath, 2018; Tiwari, 2016). In this case, Walmart is able to trail pork that was sourced from China – and keep track of where the meat comes from, where it was processed and later stored (Marr, 2018).   The actors in the value chain can also provide/share information concerning their goods making consumers feel safe about buying the product.

Similarly, DeBeers Jewelers uses the technology to track diamonds from the point they are mined to the final sale to customers. This helps the company to avoid selling 'blood diamonds' and certify the authenticity of product to reassure customers. Another mining company, BHP Billiton, uses blockchain to track the mining and supply processes and record data throughout the mining process with its vendors (Marr, 2018). It is designed to increase efficiency internally, but also allows the company to have more effective communication with its partners. Anheuser-Busch (AB) earlier piloted the technology for their global shipping activities (Zhao, 2018). AB was part of a blockchain consortium using the Accenture-developed system that included other participants such as APL Logistics, Kuehne+Nagel and others. Later in 2019 the company joined the IBM blockchain initiative called, "Trust Your Supplier" network along with others such as GlaxoSmithKline, Lenovo, Nokia, and Vodafone (Morrison, 2019). The system allows AB to track and verify documents such as ISO certifications, bank account information, tax certifications and those related to insurance throughout the lifecycle of each supplier. And by doing so on a real-time basis, it reduces costs associated with these activities (Morrison, 2019).

In other words, using blockchain technology in logistics allows for crucial data storage, retrieval, tracking, and verifying across the value chain with little chance of alterations, given that the original documentation is accessible by all parties in the chain. So, the bill of lading, for example, cannot be tampered without the consensus of all the parties involved. An added benefit is the resulting reduction in documentation/paperwork.

Promotions and media applications: While this function of marketing benefitting from blockchain systems is not immediately apparent, marketers that enable advertising within their own websites to promote the contents, products, increase memberships, drive subscriptions, or direct sales can benefit from blockchain technologies by deploying smart contracts for actions/responses and verify consumer engagement. The smart contract tech within the blockchain system also enables marketers to direct users' activities based on their behaviors (viewership patterns, website engagement, etc.) without the need to use intrusive ads or spam. At the same time, it is possible for the advertiser and website owner to transact business without an intermediary such as Google. Toward this end, BitClave has developed a blockchain system that allows users of the site and clicks to be validated in a secure manner without a need for an intermediary. During recent years, marquee brands such as Unilever, Kimberly-Clark, Kellogg's, and others joined the consortium for ad-buying blockchain as a way to disintermediate ad buying and enable them to audit spending. Companies such as Lucidity have begun to develop advertising supply chain transparency in order to minimize fraud and discrepancies. In this system, marketers can create a sole source of recorded & verified information regarding ad impressions, transactions, and related data, thereby creating blockchain-enabled decentralized system to ensure accountability at every step of the buying process. Ho

Promotions and advertising are influential in consumer decision making. Given this influence use of blockchain in the digital advertising space is critical in delivery and billing verification. For instance, it has been difficult to determine how money is being spent on various advertising platforms especially in an increasingly programmatic environment. Programmatic advertising was expected to reach close to $100 billion, about 70% of total digital spend in recent years (Dayal, 2020) and by 2022, digital ad spend is set to rise to $427.26 billion. Given the enormous sums of money involved, transparency in

transactions is of paramount importance (Guzenko, 2019). In an automated programmatic environment with split-second space bidding scenarios, there are bad players trying exploit the system to the tune of $7 billion to $23 billion a year in fraudulent impressions, clicks and conversions that drain marketing budgets (Bailey, 2020). Studies forecast that click fraud could increase to $44 billion by 2022 (Juniper Research, 2017). With multiple parties to a digital ad buy, blockchain can effectively verify that all transactions are transparent and fulfilled (English, 2019). Blockchain technologies can mitigate some of the risks by allowing the ad industry to function in a collaborative and open network where one can authenticate the clicks with comprehensive and verifiable information about the parties involved in the eco-system. For instance, using blockchain's immutability principles, the adChain platform provides a protocol that allows advertisers to benefit from campaign auditing and real-time impression tracking (Goldin et al., 2017). This is an example of using immutability to restrict attempts of pay-per-click providers to profit from fraudulent traffic and clicks.

With marketers realizing the value of the technology and it becomes embedded in various spheres of marketing, additional applications are likely to be developed and refined. For instance, blockchain might solve the problem of tracking celebrity/influencer ROI and performance by using smart contracts that will facilitate payments upon completion of specific actions or delivering contracted results/metrics (Deshpande, 2019). Both Socialmedia.market and indaHash are enablers in this space. Similarly, blockchain can be utilized in realizing the required results in loyalty programs. Survey reports suggest an average consumer is affiliated with 14.8 different loyalty programs but only active in 6 of them (Morgan, 2020). Consumers find it difficult to keep track and utilize them before expiration dates and this is a lose-lose situation for both consumers and brands. Companies such as OrionCoin, Loyalcoin and Sandblock have tried to solve this problem by using blockchain. For instance, OrionCoin developed loyal points system called ORC that is finite in supply unlike the typical loyalty points awarded by credit card companies. In the case of ORC, the built-in transparency enables consumers to retain the value of their points rather than have them diluted by merchants looking for quarterly profits (Single Grain Blog, 2018).

Since the system is decentralized, it can facilitate collaboration among multiple brands allowing customers to redeem loyalty points with any brands within the network. Since the loyalty points are deposited in real time, customers can redeem them on the go (Deshpande, 2019). For example, virtual trusted agreements enabled by blockchain can allow customers to validate rewards programs, email, or newsletters subscriptions. Smart contracts also allow the automation of payments when customers sign up for these reward programs or newsletters. Coupons, another part of the loyalty inducing strategy, have seen paltry redemption rates in the past decades even with slightly better rates for digital coupons (Bickerton, 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). Rouge, a blockchain service provider in this space, allows brands to offer unique coupons and track them through dates coded into them, so they expire automatically online. Similarly, these blockchain-enabled coupons can only be used/shared once and cannot be duplicated. Heineken and the Los Angeles Football Club developed another example of engagement/loyalty program experiment. The two brands, intending to build relationships with fans in a unique way, used BlockV, a system that bridges the gap between physical and digital goods. In this case, fans were able to win prizes (caps, meeting with players, tickets, beer, etc.) in the form of vAtoms digital tokens. Heineken also offered a vAtom empty pint glass (virtual) and when fans shared it the glass would fill up 25% and after 4 shares, the glass would be full, and they could redeem it for the real thing at participating retailers. Coke used a similar tactic to share and redeem virtual bottles of coke. In both cases, the sharing was traced, authenticated, and limited to only one receiver each time.

There are emerging use of blockchain technology in media/publishing businesses whether it is to authenticate works or thwart intellectual property (IP) theft. For instance, the IP rights that belong to a person, band, song writer, or author are difficult to guarantee under the traditional system. Content creators do not yet have a common standard to utilize, protect and police violations. Blockchain might offer the infrastructure to do just that and a way to establish attribution that cannot be falsified. This might

take care of fake news, content piracy and so on. "Blockchain-registered publications provide uncontestable records about a publication's attribution and origins" (Dicker, 2018). A good example of this can be found in Bitcoin Magazine, an early blockchain publication. According to Dicker (2018), the magazine timestamps the entirety of its articles and the associated metadata to a blockchain. This allows the magazine to create a transparent and publicly verifiable record of the article creation and attribution information. When the article is published, its metadata is placed within a blockchain transaction. The transaction block is attached to a blockchain and is stored. The timestamp and attribution information now reside in the blockchain and provides proof of its existence and ownership (Dicker, 2018). Another platform, the Basic Attention Token (BAT) allows more efficient digital advertising "by creating a new token that can be exchanged between publishers, advertisers, and consumers" within a blockchain network (Delisle, 2018).

Tourism Marketing: Application of blockchain in tourism & travel could lead to more than Internet-enabled disintermediation to possibly a radical disruption of the current business models. Major companies of the sector like TUI and Eurowings have already expressed their intentions to test and adopt blockchain technology in their booking, reservation, and payment systems (Antoniadis et al., 2020). Blockchain-enabled systems allow hotels access to real-time data to have better control over occupancy and apply instant special offers when needed (Marr, 2018). Winding Tree, a global travel agent platform, announced its blockchain-enabled platform can bypass intermediaries such as Expedia and Booking.com. In 2019, Hahn Air issued its first airline ticket via Winding Tree blockchain platform. Blockchain platforms also offer small businesses strategic opportunities and connect directly with customers without having to pay commissions to intermediaries. It will be interesting to see if the intermediaries such as Airbnb or Uber might be rendered ineffective when homeowners/car owners are able to use blockchain networks to transact business (Schiller, 2018).

While things are picking up, the last few years saw travel and tourism being negatively impacted by the pandemic. A total of 217 countries imposed some form of international and domestic travel restrictions, world airline traffic fell by 55 percent compared to 2019, and the job losses in the sector reached 100 million in 2020 (Lee, 2020) . In terms of revenue, the estimates are that COVID-19 cost the industry over a trillion dollars (Madden, 2021). But with vaccinations on the rise around the world, there is hope that travel might rebound to profitable levels by the end of 2022 or shortly thereafter. To achieve this goal, countries and companies are exploring ways to make travel safer by experimenting with various forms of vaccine passports such as Travel Pass (IATA), AOKPass (Air France), Digital Green Certificate (EU), Green Pass (Israel), etc. Some of these including AOKpass, IBM's Digital Health Pass and GuardTime pass are blockchain-enabled in order to add another layer of security and make them more secure and tamper-proof (Patel & Drozdiak, 2021).

Socially Responsible Marketing: While there are numerous instances of blockchain applications being energy intensive in nature, studies have also addressed some of the positive implications of blockchain technologies on socially responsible companies as related to the promotion of their brands' quality and sustainability (Ertemel, 2018). The system, when implemented appropriately, allows consumers to instantly verify the extent of the company's environmental and social responsibility claims and the brands' contributions to charities (Deshmukh, 2020). Companies such as Ecovadis produce sustainability ratings to help procurement teams monitor the corporate social responsibility – environmental, social, and governance (CSR-ESG) practices within the chain. Verifying such claims can enhance the brand's image in the marketplace while reducing the risks to the reputation of the brand/company since all the compliance information is accessible and verified in real-time allowing issues to be identified before they become public (Morrison, 2019). In addition, the system can be utilized to authenticate other product/marketing claims such as being organic, halal, kosher, etc. Therefore, working within the blockchain system allows marketers to signal their brands' positive attributes to consumers, thereby, projecting better public image.

Other Marketing Applications: Other miscellaneous blockchain applications in marketing are discussed in this sub-section. For instance, the system can be deployed to allow research firms record customers' activities and associate these activities with micropayments for answering surveys. These payments can go directly to customers based on their online activities such as a click of a button, answering a survey, watching an ad, reading a report, etc. The technology also allows information to be protected from modifications and to be shared directly between users in a secure manner. This presents an opportunity to exchange relevant and accurate information allowing the marketing of products, services, and programs to be more relevant to each user. There are a myriad of other ways blockchain might revolutionize marketing - including affiliate marketing, social commerce, data and privacy protection, digital marketing security, etc. Suffice to say that any innovation that results in cost savings and transparency of transactions will have effective use cases in marketing now and in the future (Tönnissen & Teuteberg, 2020).

Discussion

The enthusiasm in implementing blockchain technologies might have hit a speed-bump due to the pandemic but all indications are that things are going to pick up (Eliaçık, 2022). At its core the technology has a multitude of applications in the marketing space and future spending on blockchain applications looks promising and predicted to go beyond $12.4 billion by 2022 (Soohoo, 2019). Marketers are at varying stages of utilization of the full potential of the technology. The financial services sector is further along the adoption curve compared to other sectors. Interest in the technology has also given rise to a number of start-ups in this space (SmartContract, Filament, RippleNet, etc.) that offer assistance and consultation to business trying to pilot the technology (Taylor, 2018).

Suffice to say, the technology is here to stay but as with every paradigm-changing innovation, there is likely to be growing pains, pushback, and other forces that are likely to (at least initially) reign in its full deployment in industries and the lives of consumers. Although the most popular and early application of blockchain has been cryptocurrency, it has the power to disrupt existing operations and potentially impact all sectors of the economy. But lack of awareness and understanding of the technology might hinder rapid adoption of blockchain (Jao 2019).

Blockchain systems might be disruptive and paradigm-changing in nature, but it is not 100% foolproof. This is evident from the numerous hack and theft of crypto currencies that operate in a blockchain ecosystem. Some of the limitations include slower adoption of blockchain by non-technological companies; lack of understanding and trust in the technology (Gartner, 2019); lack of regulatory and legal frameworks for unlocking the potential; policies that inhibit full implementation of the technology (Menon, 2019); lack of standardizations of protocols and implementation within industries; and possibly the "51 percent hack" scenario (Clarke, 2019; Brandom, 2019).

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SESSION 11E: LET'S TALK RETAIL

CHAIR:

Emily Treen

Summary Brief

When is Consumer Inertia Important?: An Empirical Study on Consumers' Misbehaviors in the C2C marketplace

Emi Moriuchi, Rochester Institute of Technology, USA
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Consumer misbehavior has been gaining attention since the growth of C2C marketplaces. These unethical behaviors exist when there is an interaction between the consumer and the provider, including the sellers. The result shows that procedural justice plays a critical role in consumers' potential to misbehave among the different justices. Through a posthoc analysis, the direct relationship indicates that when there is a procedure mishap, consumers skip the step of being dissatisfied and can direct tries to rectify the situation by misbehaving. However, the presence of consumer inertia, can mitigate the direct impact of misbehavior. Between distributive and interactional justice, consumer inertia moderates between the interactional justice and dissatisfaction but not for the distributive justice. This suggests that the communication between the platform provider, together with consumers' inertia, can reduce the level of dissatisfaction.

Introduction

Consumer misbehavior is a critical topic yet is neglected (Fullerton & Punj, 2004). Misbehaviors are also known by various names including dysfunctional consumer behaviors (Harris and Reynolds, 2006), deviant consumer behavior (Reynolds and Harris, 2006), unethical behavior, or uncivilized behavior (Bacile et al., 2018). Consumer behavior exists when there is an interaction between the consumers and the providers but also when consumers seek resources in the absence of the providers (e.g., indirect misbehaviors). C2C is a context highly prone to consumers' misbehaviors for the following reason. First, consumers can use goods by paying for a product and using it without direct supervision from the provider. This leads to consumers cheating the system and lying about a defective product while the product is functional.

Background

In a C2C consumption content, consumers' misbehavior is a challenge that consumers and sellers encounter. While the portability and low cost of C2C platforms have attracted more and more businesses and consumers, this virtual nature also has serious trust crisis. The cause of dishonest transactions cannot be attributed to a single party (platform provider, seller, consumer). These consumer misbehaviors are not only common, but it is also detrimental to companies and society at large. Unfortunately, the literature provides little insights on this issue, as prior studies have focused more on the misbehavior of consumers in an access-based economy (Schaefers et al., 2016), the relationship between employees and customers (Daunt and Harris, 2013), and reduction of deviant behavior through a service robot guardian (Dootson et al., 2022). Consumer behavior is comparatively under-researched in the online C2C environment. Thus, to understand the problem of commercial breach of trust, we propose to investigate this misbehavior from a routine activity theory perspective. In line with routine activity theory, we hypothesize that more valuable, accessible targets that lack capable guardianship are more likely to misbehave.

Methodology

A preliminary study was conducted. The study tests the proposed conceptual model and tests hypotheses. We test the model with PLS-SEM due to its exploratory nature. We hypothesize that each of the justices has a direct negative impact on dissatisfaction (H1, H2, H3), and dissatisfaction directly affects misbehavior (H5). The moderating role of consumer inertia between the justices and dissatisfaction (hypothesize 4abc), respectively. In this study, we examined C2C eCommerce customers' experience with C2C platforms and their potential for misbehaving on these platforms. All respondents are either current C2C platform customers. Respondents were asked to provide a unique code anonymously instead of their name when submitting their completed survey. Respondents were compensated for their completed questionnaire submission.

We used convenience sampling for data collection. The data was gathered from consumers who use C2C marketplaces. The sample was gathered within Japan. The survey's estimated completion time was 10 minutes. Screening questions were asked to filter out people who have not experienced shopping on C2C platforms. We gathered fifty-five respondents. All respondents were between 18-65 years old. Among the respondents, a majority (61.8%) spend between 1,000-3,000 Japanese yen (equivalent to US $7-$27). Most respondents did not experience any challenges while shopping on the C2C platforms (87.3%). In addition, the majority of the respondents had the intention to sell on C2C marketplaces (60%).

Key Findings

The survey builds on the literature review. The measure for distributive justice has three items (DJ) (Cronbach alpha= .73); Procedural justice has three items (PJ) (Cronbach alpha= .86), interactional justice has four items (IJ) (Cronbach alpha= .83), dissatisfaction has four items (DSS) (Cronbach alpha= .92), and misbehavior had three items. However, one of the items has a low loading and therefore was removed (Cronbach alpha= .89) (MB). Distribution justice has a direct negative impact on dissatisfaction (β=-.54, p<.001), and H1 was supported. Procedural justice did not have a direct negative impact on dissatisfaction (β=-.014, p=n.s.). Interactional justice has a direct negative effect on dissatisfaction (β=-.24, p<.05). Dissatisfaction positively impacts misbehavior (β=.58, p<.01).

Moderating Role of Inertia

Process Hayes Method (Model 1) was adopted to analyze the moderating effect of consumer inertia between the justices and consumer dissatisfaction. H4a predicted that consumer inertia moderates between distribution justice and consumers' dissatisfaction. The result shows no interaction effect (β=.13, SE=.10, p=n.s.). H4a was not supported. However, results show that consumer inertia moderates between procedural justice, interactional justice, and dissatisfaction. Consumer inertia directly impacts dissatisfaction (β=1.77, SE=.66, p<.05), and there is an interaction effect between inertia and procedural justice β=.30, SE=.12, p<.05). The conditional effect shows that the greater the consumer inertia, the lesser the dissatisfaction Effect=-.92, SE=.19, p<.001, CI=-.1.30; -.55), the lower the inertia (-.33, SE=.14, p<.01), the greater the dissatisfaction (CI=-.61, =-.05). Thus, H4b is supported.

Consumer inertia directly impacts dissatisfaction (β=1.04, SE=.41, p<.01), and there is an interaction effect between inertia and interactional justice β=.18, SE=.08, p<.05). The conditional effect shows that the greater the consumer inertia, the lesser the dissatisfaction Effect=-.66, SE=.15, p<.001, CI=-.97, -.35), the lower the inertia (-.30, SE=.11, p<.01), the greater the dissatisfaction (CI=-.51, =.09). Thus, H4c is supported.

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SESSION 11F: REVISITING (AND REINVENTING?) BEST PRACTICES IN TEACHING PRINCIPLES COURSES: A TWO-WAY CONVERSATION WITH VETERAN PRINCIPLES OF MARKETING TEXTBOOK AUTHORS

CHAIR:

Greg Marshall

SESSION 11G: MACROMARKETING AND TECHNOLOGY

CHAIR:

Jie Fowler

Special Session

Macromarketing and Technology

Jie Fowler, Valdosta State University, USA
Kelley Cours Anderson, College of Charleston, USA
David Shows – Appalachian State University, USA
Sunil Erevelles – University of North Carolina – Charlotte, USA

Macromarketing takes a systems view of marketing and society. Specifically, macromarketing focuses on the interplay of marketing and society—how they influence each other. Panelists in this session will present topics related to technology and discuss the implications of emerging technologies to macromarketing, as well as to public policy.

Quantum Marketing - Jie Fowler

Generally speaking, there are five paradigms of marketing (Rajamannar 2021). The first paradigm was driven by the product based upon the simple premise that consumers make logical decisions. The second paradigm delved into the emotional realms of consumers. The third paradigm was the era of the internet and data-driven marketing. Data analytics brought in a new layer of understanding of marketing. The fourth paradigm ushered in mobility via digital devices, which have become an extension of the self (Belk 1988). Mobile and real-time location technology and social media platforms connect consumers and their everyday life. Yet, this panel aims to discuss the fifth paradigm, quantum marketing. Quantum marketing involves emerging technology such as augmented reality, infinite data, 5G, "The Internet of Things", Smart speakers, etc. The term "quantum" is used as the phenomena is difficult to explain by classical theories. Thus, the theoretical and practical implications of emerging technologies for macromarketing scholarship will be featured.

Challenges and Benefits of the Digital Wellness Marketing System - Kelley Cours Anderson

Digital wellness is an emerging topic within marketing and consumer research, yet scholarship has focused prominently on perspectives at an individual level (e.g., Henkens et al. 2021; Zimmermann 2021). Fairly, digital wellness is often an individualistic journey to pursue subjectively balanced relationships with technology (Vanden Abeele 2020). Nevertheless, conceptualizing digital wellness as an emergent marketing system (Layton 2019) will be a fruitful addition to the macromarketing literature. Using a socio-historical approach, I follow the breadcrumbs with Actor-Network Theory (ANT; Latour 2005). Results reveal political and social entanglements that foster entrepreneurial market actors to offer capitalized solutions toward anti-consumption. Nevertheless, disconnecting from these entangled techno-cultures is more difficult than anticipated as consumers are required socially and professionally to stay connected. Implications of the marketized solutions within the emergent digital wellness market impact consumers' experiences, marketing managers, and policy deliberations.

Non-fungible Tokens - David Shows

NFTs and cryptocurrencies are children of the same "thought piece" created by a programmer known as "Satoshi Nakamoto" in 2008 which postulated a way of segmenting data that was secure and combined with a system that promoted the constant security of their existence both online and stored locally. The blocks of data, when given no unique signature, are considered cryptocurrencies and because they are exactly alike, they are fungible within their environment. The same system can give each block of data a unique signature that contains the same kind of integrity. These are non-fungible, or non-fungible tokens (NFTS). NFTS may herald the dramatic change in which we send, receive, and exchange value from consumer to consumer. To understand the future, we must understand their properties and their value. They can possibly bring about a discontinuous innovation in the exchange of value, information, and proprietary data.

Blockchain - Sunil Erevelles

Blockchain technology represents a seminal paradigm shift, likely to radically transform business in the future. While the paradigm associated with the World Wide Web and Big Data is focused on the "sharing of information," the paradigm associated with blockchain is focused on the "sharing of assets." Intellectual assets are among the most valuable of assets, and customer co-creation is a key approach for creating new value for firms. The macromarketing implications of blockchain include many positive ones, such as almost immediate transfer of assets, whereas effortful record-keeping of assets use to be required—sometimes by third parties like local governments. However, some implications of blockchain are more ominous, such as criminal organizations using blockchain to avoid governmental scrutiny. These and other macromarketing implications of blockchain will be discussed.

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SESSION: ACADEMIC PLACEMENT

CHAIR:

Holly Syrdal

SESSION 13A: SALES, ETHICS, & DYSFUNCTION

CHAIR:

Alisha Horky

Summary Brief
Tricks of the Trade: An Exploration of Social Selling Strategies Used by Direct Sales Representatives

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Alisha Horky, University of North Alabama, USA

As both social media and direct selling continue to grow, understanding the use of social media in selling (social selling) has become increasingly important to firms and to individual direct sales representatives. The purpose of this research is to understand how direct sales firms provide direction, training, and support to their salespeople, and how these individual salespeople use these resources as well as develop their own tactics. We undertake a content analysis of direct sales representatives' social media posts and conduct depth interviews to examine social media posting behaviors by direct sales representatives.

Introduction

In the United States, direct selling reached over $42 billion in 2021, setting a record high with the industry's 7.3 million direct sellers (dsa.org). Clearly, this growth underscores the significance of this industry, in which sales are completed primarily through an individual distributor, whether in-person or through the use of technology (e.g., social media) (Ferrell and Ferrell 2012; Peterson and Wotruba 1996). Multi-level marketing (MLM) is a specific type of direct sales consisting of different levels of individual distributors who sell directly to customers (often friends or family members of the salesperson) (Koehn 2001). These agents earn income based on their personal sales as well as commissions earned on the sales of their recruits (i.e., downlines). Ferrell et al. (2010) note that as technology continues to advance, the nature of direct selling is being redesigned so that the face-to-face relationships that direct selling was traditionally known for are supplemented by social media.

The pervasiveness of social media as a selling tool (i.e., social selling) has been noted by many researchers (e.g., Crittenden, Peterson, and Albaum, 2010; Moore, Raymond, and Hopkins, 2015; Ancillai et al., 2019; Itani et al., 2020, Chaker et al., 2021), in both B2C and B2B contexts. While this research stream is clearly growing, more research is needed in the context of direct selling due to key differences between this and other types of sales. For example, direct sales representatives depend to a greater extent on personal relationships and family ties (Koehn, 2001). Research has shown that direct selling companies highly encourage their representatives to recruit from their personal relationships and also place a strong emphasis on their personal lives (Pratt and Rosa, 2003). As an additional distinguishing factor, MLM companies often recruit without consideration of education, experience level, or other such factors (Koehn, 2001), yet these companies often fail to provide much, if any, training. Because of these unique aspects of direct selling, it is important that this specific context be examined.

In the context of direct selling, Ferrell and Ferrell (2012) research the use of social media among direct selling companies by examining the social media of the company, not the social media of individual distributors. These authors organize social media into three main categories: reactive communication, promotional communication, and recruitment communication. Pavelko and Barker (2022) use qualitative content analysis to study MLM organizations' strategies for online promotional messages and recruitment strategies. Yet, scant research investigates social media tactics used by individual direct selling representatives. Studying social media use at the individual salesperson level is noted by Ancillai et al. (2019) as being important in future research. Thus, a better understanding of how individual direct selling agents use social media is needed.

As such, the purpose of this research is to increase this understanding by examining ways in which direct sales representatives utilize social media to gain sales and recruit new salespeople, including the levels of support, training, and direction provided by their firms as well as the representatives' personal strategies and tactics. Two qualitative studies are conducted. Results from the content analysis as well as uncovered themes from the in-depth interviews will be discussed. Methodology is outlined below.

Research Methods

In order to better understand how direct sales representatives, make use of social media, specifically Facebook, we conduct two qualitative studies. In the first study, we analyze 460 posts created by six direct sales

representatives over a six-month period. The direct sales representatives were chosen using a convenience sample of individuals who represent a number of different direct sales firms and who have varying levels of social media followers and experience levels. By choosing this array of individuals, we hoped to understand the sales tactics used on social media by sales representatives both new to selling and those who are more experienced.

Screenshots of Facebook posts were uploaded to the Dedoose online qualitative software system for analysis by individual researchers. The posts were then coded and re-coded using the grounded theory methodology (Spiggle 1994; Goulding 1999, 2005). The posts were coded for a variety of themes, including the perceived purpose of the post (education, entertainment, event invitations, etc.), use of personal or stock imagery, and for identifiable sales tactics and tools. An interesting mix of sales approaches emerged from the initial analysis. The amount of firm direction and support seemed to vary from firm to firm. For example, some representatives almost exclusively posted stock imagery and non-personalized messages, while others tended toward personal photos and stories. Posting frequency ranged from multiple times per day (with primarily stock photos) to week-long gaps between posts. A few of the posting behaviors we identified included storytelling (personal stories as well as stories from others), creating a sense of urgency through special and "today only" sales, and focusing on the rewards, whether financial or interpersonal, that they've gained through direct selling. We also note the use of social media-specific tools, including hashtags and emojis in many posts. Further results from this initial study will be shared in the presentation. But perhaps the most interesting aspect of analyzing these posts was the variation in posting strategies, including frequency, language, and personalization. This leads us to further investigate the amount of direction, resources, and training being offered by the various direct selling firms regarding social selling and the ways in which representatives are putting these resources and training to use.

Therefore, in addition to analyzing public posts made by direct sales representatives, we expand our study by interviewing direct sales representatives. Using multiple methods also allows us to triangulate and validate the findings from our initial analysis. This type of triangulation has been used in previous social media research (Yuksel and Labreque, 2016). We use major themes uncovered in our initial post analysis to construct a semi-structured interview guide that focuses on understanding if representatives are using a set strategy for their posts, how they determine what and when to post, and the training and resources for social media selling (if any) provided by their respective firms. The resulting responses and themes from these interviews will be discussed during the presentation.

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SESSION 13B: IS THAT ANY WAY TO ACT?

CHAIR:

Jana Rutherford

Summary Brief

To Add or to Subtract? An Investigation into the Impact of Ingredient Strategies on Consumers' Brand Evaluations

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This paper investigates the impact of promoting added versus subtracted product ingredients on consumers' brand evaluations. The authors define an added-ingredient strategy as the promotion of ingredients that are either present or purposefully included in a product with the goal of increasing a brand's attractiveness to consumers. Along the same lines, they define a subtracted-ingredient strategy as the promotion of ingredients that are absent or purposefully deleted from a product, again, with the goal of increasing a brand's appeal to consumers. The results from a series of studies point to a stronger positive consumer response to a subtracted-ingredient strategy, moderated by the match between the regulatory orientation of the host brand's product category and the ingredient strategy deployed. Based on these results, guidelines are provided for selecting category-specific ingredient strategies and raise a call to prevent consumer deception by regulating not only added ingredients but subtracted ingredients as well.

Background

Promoting select product ingredients is a common marketing tactic aimed at influencing perceptions of product performance, improving differentiation, and enhancing consumer preference (Desai and Keller 2002). While some marketers selectively promote the presence of one or more ingredients in their brands, others pursue the exact opposite strategy – promoting the absence of specific ingredients in their brands. Some examples of this second approach include Anchor glassware with "BPA free" (bisphenol A) lids, Log Cabin syrup with no high fructose corn syrup, ice creams with no preservatives, body lotions with no sulfates, and shampoos without paraben or SLS (sodium lauryl sulfate). We label the two diametrically opposing promotional approaches as added-ingredient and subtracted-ingredient strategies, respectively.

An added- or a subtracted-ingredient strategy positions the brand in terms of a deviation from an implicit reference point that corresponds to a baseline brand that does not employ any ingredient strategy. When a brand promotes an added ingredient, consumers are more likely to infer that the ingredient addition will help them achieve a positive or desired end-state relative to what would have been possible with merely a neutral, baseline product (Petrocelli et al. 2011). On the other hand, when a brand promotes a subtracted ingredient, consumers are more likely to draw unfavorable inferences regarding the baseline product and associate it with an undesired end-state, which could be avoided by choosing the focal brand (Markman et al., 1993).

Several studies on negativity effects (Ito et al., 1998; Mittal, Ross, and Baldasare 1998; Peeters and Czapinski 1990; Taylor 1991) and message framing (Tversky and Kahneman 1981) show that individuals are more responsive to negative versus positive information. Therefore, messages framed around losses tend to be more persuasive than those framed around gains (Shiv, Britton, and Payne 2004). This issue is also central to Kahneman and Tversky's concept of loss aversion (1979) and the closely related phenomenon of negativity bias (Kanouse and Hanson 1972). The evidence provided by the literature supports the view that people tend to be more sensitive to loss-related than gain-related outcomes. Therefore, we expect that a subtracted ingredient that frames a consumer benefit in terms of a non-loss relative to a baseline, referent product will evoke a stronger positive response than an added ingredient that frames the benefit in terms of a gain.

Key Findings

We found that consumers may have superior evaluations of a brand if it promotes a subtracted ingredient than if it promotes an added ingredient (F(2, 82) = 8.25, p < .01; planned contrasts M_{sub} = 3.82 vs. M_{add} = 3.17, p < .05). The effect was evident both when the featured ingredient was familiar as well as when it was fictitious and unfamiliar (M_{sub} = 5.36 vs. M_{add} = 4.19, F(1, 37) = 4.66, p < .05). Further, we established a moderating effect of the regulatory orientation induced by the host brand's product category (F(1, 62) = 10.52, p < .01). Our results were consistent with our argument that an inherently promotion versus prevention product category can cue a similar focus of self-regulation in consumers. One of the effects of the change in consumers' regulatory focus is an increased sensitivity to gains versus non-losses, which, in turn, influences the ingredient strategy that they respond more favorably to. We did find that, in a promotion-oriented host product category, participants responded more favorably to an added-ingredient strategy (M_{add} = 4.31 vs. M_{sub} = 3.73; t(30) = 2.49, p < .05), while in a prevention-oriented category the pattern of responses was the exact opposite (M_{sub} = 4.46 vs. M_{add} = 3.93; t(32) = 2.13, p < .05).

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Summary Brief

Exploring Discontinuity and Nostalgic Consumption During the Global Pandemic

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A persistent theme in the field of marketing is offering products that are reminiscent of the past. Observers believe that this renewed interest is rooted in nostalgia. While research revealing the outcomes of nostalgia has proven to be insightful, there is still room the literature to look at its antecedents. The purpose of this article is to investigate discontinuity, as an antecedent to nostalgia and its role in influencing the preference for and consumption of nostalgia-related products.

Introduction

When one thinks of nostalgia it typically relates to a time that has long since passed. However, in the case of the Corona Virus the past that people were nostalgic turned out to be only one month prior to March 2020. An event of this nature is proposed by Davis (1979) as an antecedent nostalgia. Thus, purpose of this article is to investigate discontinuity (global pandemic), as an antecedent to nostalgia, and its role in influencing the preference for and consumption of nostalgia-related products. Managerial implications include attempting to explain the phenomena, predicting when it is likely to occur, and reducing the level of guesswork about when its use is most impactful. Figure 1 illustrates the proposed conceptual model with theory and hypotheses following.
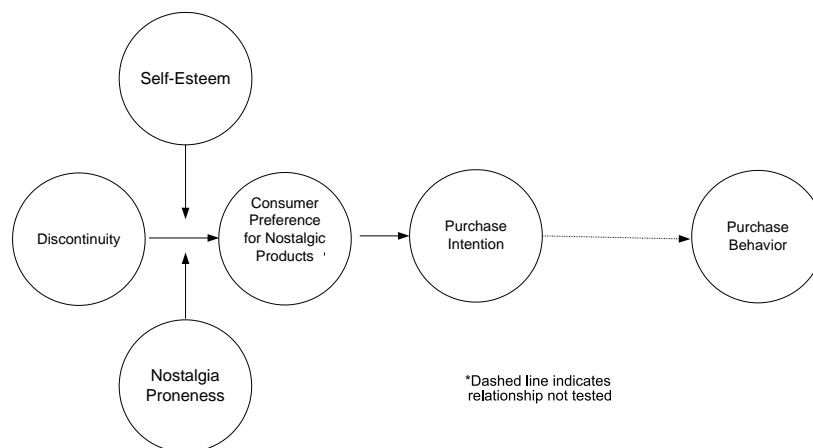
Figure 1: Conceptual Model

Nostalgia

In modern times, nostalgia has been associated with 'homesickness'. The definition relevant to this paper is "a positively toned evocation of a lived past in the context of some negative feeling toward the present or impending circumstance" (Davis', 1979). His discontinuity hypothesis found that nostalgia, in part: (1) intensifies in periods of personal discontinuity and (2) is induced by collective discontinuity. It can be reasonably considered that the recent events fall into both personal (threats to one's health) and collective categories (global pandemic).

Discontinuity

Dynamical social psychology (Nowak & Vallacher 1998) proposes that an individual's psychological state evolves overtime but moves toward equilibrium. These authors describe a dynamical system as "a set of elements that undergoes change by virtue of connections among other elements" (p. 2). One would typically be in a state of stability until a discontinuous event occurs creating anxiety and changes in one's behavior. People whose lives are disrupted will likely rate the past more favorably and become more nostalgic than those experiencing continuity.

Consumer Preference

The marketing literature indicates that nostalgia influences consumer preference (Khoshghadam et al., 2019). Preference for nostalgia-related products might be considered as a mechanism to come to terms with the present. Nostalgia-related products can provide continuity in uneasy times enabling individuals to 'transport' feelings of security from the past into the present. It is conceptualized that people faced with evoked by discontinuity will show preference for products that remind them of a simpler past.

Nostalgia Proneness

Nostalgia proneness is "a potential facet of individual character-a psychographic variable, aspect of lifestyle, or general customer characteristic-that may vary among consumers, independent of time- or age-related factors." (Holbrook, 1993, pg. 245). Nostalgia proneness is viewed as an individual difference variable or personality trait that operates independently of time and age-related factors. Nostalgia prone individuals would be predisposed toward object associated with that tendency.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem, which is a core component of Terror Management Theory (TMT) (Pyszczynski, Solomon and Greenberg, 2003), has been proposed as a psychological buffer in the face of threatening or uncertain circumstances. TMT maintains that thoughts of death arouse fear causing one to engage in defensive behavior designed to reduce fear. Self-esteem functions as a shield against anxiety. Individuals with high self-esteem should be less drawn to products that remind them of the past and vice versa. All of this gives rise to the following hypotheses:

H1: There is a positive and significant relationship between discontinuity and consumer preference for nostalgic products.

H2: A significant and negative relationship exists between self-esteem and nostalgia proneness.

H3: Self-esteem moderates the relationship between anxiety and consumer preference for nostalgic products such that the greater (weaker) self-esteem the weaker (greater) consumer preference for nostalgic products.

H4: Nostalgia Proneness moderates the relationship between anxiety and consumer preference for nostalgic products positively and significantly such that the greater nostalgia proneness the greater consumer preference for nostalgic products and vice versa.

H5: There is a positive and significant relationship between consumer preference for nostalgic products and purchase intention.

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Summary Brief
The Effect of QR Codes on Consumer Overconsumption

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Laura Boman, Mercer University, USA

As obesity rates in the U.S. continue to rise (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2022), marketers are beginning to turn their attention to decreasing maladaptive consumer behaviors such as overconsumption (Reimann and Jain 2021; Haws and Redden 2013). Prior literature suggests overconsumption occurs to a variety of factors, such as inaccurate caloric estimation (Chandon and Wansink 2007), the influence of individual differences in self-control on satiation (Redden and Haws 2012), and assumptions about the satiation levels derived from different foods (Finkelstein and Fishbach 2010).

Visual cues can also affect overconsumption. For example, the size of packaging can influence consumption such that larger package sizes increase usage (Wansink 1996). Importantly, overconsumption may be more reliant on perceptions of visual cues as on physiological factors (Wansink, Painter and North 2012). For instance, heuristic processing of container shapes influences consumers' perception of volume, affecting actual consumption. Thus, marketers can seize upon opportunities to positively impact consumers' wellbeing through thoughtful visual cues.

One way in which marketers may influence consumer overconsumption is in the use of evolving technologies, such as smart packaging. Smart packaging, such as the use of QR codes, are growing in use among food products. For example, Oreo incorporated QR codes in their packaging to give the opportunity to consumers to win a special experience from Lady Gaga (Liffreing 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic has fueled the usage of QR codes, with scans growing by 110% from 2019 to 2021 (Digital Signage Today 2022). Given the increased interest in these smart technologies, it is imperative to understand how consumers use and perceive these codes, as well as how they influence consumer behaviors.

In this research, we hope to examine how QR code usage in food packaging can influence consumer outcomes such as overconsumption. We propose that using QR codes increases taste perceptions and in return increases consumption. Our proposed research has important theoretical and practical implications, especially given widespread concerns about overconsumption and obesity.

While little research has been done on the use of smart packaging such as QR codes, the primary streams that do exist include barriers to use (Singh and Bamoriya 2013), factors which influence adoption and the use of QR codes in online shopping (Shi, Jung, and Chang 2012). To our knowledge, no research to date has examined the impact of QR code smart packaging on overconsumption.

We suggest that consumers use QR codes as heuristic cues. Prior suggests heuristic cues can influence perceptions about foods as well as consumption. For example, shape of the container (Lefebvre and Orlowski 2019; Raghubir and Krishna 1999), atmospherics such as ambient scent (Lefebvre and Biswas 2019), sounds (Biswas, Lund, and Szocs 2019) or lighting (Biswas, Szocs, Chacko, and Wansink 2017; Lefebvre, Hasford, and Boman 2022), and the way in which food is displayed (Romero and Biswas 2016) affect taste perceptions and consumption. These heuristic cues can influence consumer opinions about product attributes which may be unrelated to the cues themselves (Yan and Dando 2015), thus influencing decision making (Biswas et al., 2019; Lefebvre and Biswas, 2019; Lefebvre, Hasford, and Boman 2022). We suggest that QR codes, too, act as heuristic codes. These cues positively influence perceptions and thus impact overconsumption behaviors. Specifically:

H1: Consumer will display higher consumption for packaging with QR codes compared to the ones that do not have a QR code.

H2: The effect between packaging type and consumption will be mediated by taste perception.

We to test our hypotheses in three stages. In the first stage, we will conduct a pre-test to identify appropriate stimuli (e.g., donuts, cookies, candy, etc.). In the second phase, we will test the proposed effect along with mediation using two different stimuli. Participants will be recruited from a Southeastern University and will be randomly assigned to either QR code or no OR code conditions. Participants will be presented with a packaged food item (with or without QR code) and told that they may eat as many as they like. Participants will indicate their repeat purchase intentions (7-point scale, 1=not at all/7=very much) and the extent to which they think the food is delicious/flavorful/tasty on a 7-point scale (1=not at all/7=very much). Finally, we will record age and gender. After participants have completed the study and left the lab, we will weigh the remaining food items to determine how much food was consumed.

In the third stage, we will examine two boundary conditions for the effect. First, we will examine the moderating role of organic vs. non-organic. Prior research suggests that consumers believe organic foods are healthier than their nonorganic counterparts (Schuldt and Schwarz 2010). However, while foods perceived to be healthy are often incorporated as part of consumers' holistic healthy lifestyles (Geotzke, Nitzko, and Spiller 2014), consumers have lower taste expectations for healthy foods (i.e., the "unhealthy equals taste intuition"; Raghunathan Naylor, and Hoyer 2006).

Second, we will examine the moderating effect of the location of the QR code displayed in the packaging. By making the QR code less salient (e.g., on the bottom of the package rather than the top), consumers should be less likely to use these heuristic cues in their decision making, leading to less overconsumption.

The proposed research aims to improve the understanding of factors affecting consumers' food consumption behaviors and overall well-being. Findings would lend credibility in selecting packaging that may prevent overconsumption in food retail and would provide implications for marketers when creating the consumer experience through marketing mix efforts.

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Summary Brief
Are Loyal Customers Always Best?

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Restaurant loyalty program are continuing to grow in numbers across foodservice types. Yet, the impact of these types of programs on customer tipping behaviors has been underexplored across disciplines. This research attempts to narrow this gap by examining how loyalty program members influences psychological ownership and customer tip amount.

Introduction

The use of loyalty programs by foodservice operations has become increasingly popular. National Chains offer a variety of loyalty programs. For instance, Chili's offers My Chili's Rewards and Burger King offers the Royal Perks loyalty program. Loyalty programs provide the opportunity for companies to collect massive amounts of data about their customers and their purchasing behaviors. The widespread use of loyalty programs is based on the belief that they create emotional bonds with customers and increase satisfaction rates (Mattila, 2001). This research examines the underexplored effects of loyalty program membership on tip amount and psychological ownership.

Background

The foundation of loyalty programs is to provide an incentive to enhance customer consumption over time (Baker & Legendre, 2021). In most cases, the restaurant is providing some form of reward (e.g., points, a discount, free item). Based on the concept of reciprocity, when receiving a loyalty member benefit it can be expected that the customer will be more likely to reciprocate the benefit in some form.

One aspect of loyalty programs that has been underexplored in the literature is the impact on customer tipping behaviors. Tipping is considered a social norm in most service industries, even those that provide a limited amount of service (Karabas, Orlowski, & Lefebvre, 2020). It is often motivated by the desire to show gratitude (Kim & Baker, 2019) or reward or punish employees (Karabas et al., 2020. In the context of loyalty programs, when a customer receives a loyalty member benefit, might there be the potential for the customer to reciprocate the receipt of the benefit through the amount tipped?

Since loyalty programs are often used with the goal of managing customer relationships it could be suggested that members of loyalty programs have a stronger sense of connection with the establishment. Psychological ownership, conceptualized as consumers' feelings that items belong to "them" (Peck & Shu, 2009), has been shown to influence consumer satisfaction (Kovacheva and Lamberton 2018), valuation (Atasoy and Morewedge 2018; Stoner, Loken, and Blank 2018), and choice (Atasoy and Morewedge 2018). We predict that members of loyalty programs will have a stronger sense of psychological ownership towards the establishment, which in turn leads the loyalty member to reciprocate the receipt of the benefit by tipping more than a non-loyalty member. Formally stated:

H1: Membership in a loyalty program will increase tip amount indirectly through psychological ownership.

According to Chaiken's (1980) heuristic-systematic model of information processing, consumers rely heavily on attribute-based mental shortcuts or "rules of thumb" in decision-making contexts. These attribute-based inferences allow for consumers to make decisions with minimal cognitive effort and are commonly used in low-involvement situations (Chaiken, 1980) such as repeated and inexpensive decisions (Lastovicka & Gardner, 1978). In food-service establishments, check amounts serve as price cues (Karabas et al., 2020), suggesting other aspects of the experience. For instance, higher check amounts may infer higher levels of service (Karabas et al., 2020). However, high check

amounts may also lead to feelings of guilt or pain of payment, creating cognitive dissonance for consumers (Kim & Baker, 2020). Thus, we predict that when check amount is high, the effect of loyalty program membership will be attenuated.

> **H2:** The effect of loyalty program membership on tip size through psychological ownership is conditional on the check amount. Specifically, when check amount is low psychological ownership will mediate the relationship between loyalty program membership and tip amount, yet when check amount is high the indirect effect will be attenuated.

In sum, we predict that consumers who participate in loyalty programs will not increase their tipping behaviors as check amounts increase. In contrast, those who do not participate in loyalty programs *will* show an increase in tipping behavior as check amounts increase. Because loyalty program members experience a sense of psychological ownership relative to those without loyalty program membership, loyalty members will not increase their tipping behaviors as check amounts increase. We investigate our predictions in two lab studies and one field study.

Key Findings

Across two lab studies, we found support for our primary hypothesis, that loyalty program membership has a positive effect on tip amount through psychological ownership (study 1: [indirect effect = .57, 95% CI from .05 to 1.32]). Further, we found support for our second hypothesis, that the mediation effect is conditional on the size of the check (study 2: [index of moderated mediation: -1.70, 95% CI [-3.63 to -.20]), where the indirect effect is attenuated when the check amount is high.

A field study was conducted to assess the external validity of our findings. A significant interaction effect of loyalty program membership and check size on tip amount was found ($a_3 = -.08$, $p < .001$). Further examination of the interaction determined the effect to be significant at one standard deviation below and above the mean, however the direction of the effect differs based on the check amount. At a low check amount, loyalty program membership has a positive effect on the amount tipped ($effect_{1.00} = 0.68$, $p < .001$), while for high check amount, loyalty program membership had a negative effect on tip amount ($effect_{23.99} = -1.20$, $p < .001$).

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Summary Brief
Brand Loyalty and Negative Emotion: The Dark Side of Product Customization

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In the past, product customization has been shown as a customer-brand relationship construct that is always advantageous to the brand. There is no doubt that there are numerous advantages of product customization, however, our study proposes that customization can create a negative emotion for consumers when it is time to part ways with the product, because of product maturity or any other reason, after they have used the customized product for a while and have had a relationship with the brand.

Nowadays, various companies are offering customization to their customers for products, ranging from shoes, like Nike, to cars, like Tesla. In a study conducted by Deloitte (2019), 36% of consumers indicated an interest to purchase a customized product or service and 48% expressed their willingness to wait longer for their customized product or service. The study even indicated that one fifth of those consumers also showed willingness to pay a 20% premium price for the customized product. Catering to individual consumer needs, through customization, can work as an important differentiation strategy for products (Mousavi, Adl, and Rakowski, 2001). It can also help the brand build a relationship with its consumers (Keller and Swaminathan, 2019).

In spite of all the advantages of product customization as discussed above, when a consumer has used the customized product for a while and has had a relationship with the brand (Keller and Swaminathan, 2019), when it is time to part ways with the product, because of product maturity, it can create a negative emotion for the consumer against the brand. For example, if a consumer customizes a shoe from Nike By you, after wearing it for a few days/months/years, he/she/they will eventually have to part ways with the shoe that they had personally customized. Due to product emotion (Desmet, 2008), this can lead to formation of negative emotion against the brand.

Although research has been conducted to show how product customization can lead to customer satisfaction (Du, Jiao, and Tseng, 2006), there is also a dark side of customization that has not been investigated yet. Therefore, the current research proposes to close that gap by examining the following research objectives in two different phases:

Phase 1 (When the consumer is using the product) - Research Objective 1: Does product customization impact brand loyalty? Research Objective 2: Does consumer-brand relationship mediate the relationship between product customization and brand loyalty? Phase 2 (When the consumer is not using the product anymore)- Research Objective 3: Does product customization lead to negative emotion? Research Objective 4: Does level of customization moderate the relationship between product customization and negative emotion? Research Objective 5: Does resale value moderate the relationship between product customization and negative emotion? Research Objective 6: Does negative emotion impact brand loyalty? Research Objective 7: Does trade-in option moderate the relationship between negative emotion and brand loyalty?

Using Keller's and Swaminathan's (2019) mass customization, we propose that product customization positively impacts brand loyalty, and consumer-brand relationship mediates this relationship. In addition, using product emotion (Desmet, 2008) as a theoretical foundation, we propose that after the consumer stops using the specific product, product customization leads to negative emotion, which in turn impacts brand loyalty negatively. Finally, we propose that low level of customization, as compared to high level of customization, produces lower levels of negative emotion at the time of product separation.

Based on the above discussion, we will be developing the following hypotheses:

H1: Product customization positively impacts brand loyalty

H2: Brand relationship mediates the relationship between product customization and brand loyalty

H3: Product customization positively impacts negative emotion

H4: Level of customization moderates the relationship between product customization and negative emotion, such that when level of customization is high (low), product customization leads to more (less) negative emotion

H5: Resale value moderates the relationship between product customization and negative emotion, such that when resale value is low (high), product customization leads to more (less) negative emotion

H6: Negative emotion negatively impacts brand loyalty

H7: Trade-in option moderates the relationship between negative emotion and brand loyalty, such that when there is trade-in option (no trade-in option), negative emotion leads to high (low) brand loyalty

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SESSION 13C: SUSTAINABILITY

CHAIR:

Samuel Staebler

Summary Brief
Green Marketing or Greenwashing: How Consumers Evaluate Environmental Claims

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Green marketing has become an inevitable part of businesses due to increasing customer concerns for the environment and demand for green products. At the same time, greenwashing has grown in popularity now more than ever, making some consumers develop skepticism to protect themselves from marketers' false or misleading advertisements about green products. In this research, we examine how consumers evaluate environmental claims in ads. We explore factors that may heighten consumer green skepticism, affecting their intention to purchase green products. We demonstrate that consumers who have a strong attitude toward the environment will have more knowledge about greenwashing. Thus, they have higher green skepticism and may process specific environmental claims adversely. In contrast, consumers who have a weak attitude toward the environment will be easily persuaded by environmental claims, leading them to form a higher brand evaluation and higher intention to buy the product featured in the ads. Our findings have important implications for marketing practitioners. Although environmental claims can help to improve companies' financial performance and build brand loyalty, consumers with different levels of attitude strength may process environmental claims differently.

Introduction

Green marketing refers to a company's strategies to promote products or services with environmental impact (Balasubramanian & Jain, 2011). Many companies use green marketing as a tool to build trust relationships with their stakeholders (Coombs & Holladay 2015), strengthen customer loyalty (Amoako, Doe, & Dzogbenukuz 2021), and improve their financial performance (Cronin et al., 2011). Dishonest claims from companies to promote the sustainability aspects of a product can undermine consumers' confidence in green advertising (Chen & Chang, 2013). We argue that with the increased incidents of companies engaged in greenwashing, certain consumers have developed green skepticism, a tendency to doubt the environmental benefits of a green product (Mohr, Eroğlu, & Ellen, 1998).

Our research has important implications for marketing practitioners. We suggest that although green marketing can help improve companies' financial performance, consumers with different attitude strength toward green products may process environmental claims differently. Unlike weak-attitude consumers who are easily persuaded by environmental claims, strong-attitude consumers who already have green skepticism may perceive such claims as greenwashing, leading to a negative evaluation of green products and lower intention to purchase.

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SESSION 13D: MARKETING EDUCATION IS FUN

CHAIR:

Jen Riley

Summary Brief

Using TikTok to Improve Students' Learning Outcomes in Marketing Classes Through Active Engagement: An Exploratory Study

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Whenever a new social media platform is introduced, there is a lot of excitement and trepidation as to how the innovation is going to change human lives. After the experimental phases are concluded, the real work of utilizing the platform for the common good begins. Of course, company plans for the common good can always be thwarted by bad actors. At this point, TikTok is certainly in the experimental phase, and not unlike a brand, education professional is trying to use it to reach across to their students, who by virtue of their age are the very targets of the platform. This exploratory study is an investigation of the use of TikTok in upper-level business classes to determine whether students' active engagement with TikTok, as content creators as opposed to content consumers, leads to a better learning outcome among students. This study also examines the underlying mechanism behind the effectiveness of students' active engagement with TikTok.

Introduction

A recent study published noted that students "learned more when taking part in classrooms that employed active learning strategies" (Reuell, 2019). In this study, while students felt that they learned more in a traditional format, their assessment scores reflected the greater learning after active learning sessions. This thought process is often reflected in the use of various technologies in classroom learning. One such technology that has been experimented with and used in the classroom is social media. Of course, the use of social media in learning is beyond likes and re-tweets and, when used appropriately, reflects engagement in an active learning process that fosters the development of students' creativity, critical thinking, and similar learning measures. The "social" in social media is critical for social or peer learning since it promotes active learning. While there are many social media/learning platforms, including those that are not in the 'top of mind' awareness set such as blogs, Wikis, collaborative tools such as Google Docs, etc., one particular tool has forged into the popular consciousness during the last few years – TikTok. TikTok has the potential to become the largest learning platform in the world as it is the most downloaded app in over 40 countries, available in over 75 languages, and #LearnOnTikTok has more than seven billion views (Faktor, 2021). There are new TikTok teachers (or influencers) that are using the platform to teach and becoming very wealthy in the process. Examples include the creators of miss.excel, herfirst100k, flo.create, rachelrileyrr, billnye, etc. They have hundreds of thousands of followers and generate revenue via subscriptions and/or advertising.

This study is an exploratory investigation of the use of TikTok in marketing classes to determine whether students' engagement with TikTok leads to greater learning outcomes. Interestingly, almost all of the prior studies regarding the students' engagement with TikTok examine this phenomenon through the lens of TikTok content consumers (passive learning). However, the present study examines the same phenomenon through the lens of the TikTok content creators (active learning). Furthermore, this study seeks to understand the underlying mechanism behind the greater learning outcome as TikTok content creators. These are the two main contributions of the present study.

Background

A considerable number of studies across multiple disciplines indicate that active learning is the most effective method to learn (Peters, 2011). Riley and Ward (2017) found that students retain information better through active learning compared to passive learning. Although using an interactive platform such as TikTok as a tool to engage students might appear as something that enhances active learning among college students, that is not necessarily true in all cases. Fundamentally, TikTok, like most of the other platforms that can be used to disseminate information, which includes everything from textbooks to the internet, is merely a medium. It is how students engage with these media that determines whether the learning is active or passive. Prior research found evidence that adopting active learning in the classroom helps students to improve their critical thinking skills (Nelson and Crow, 2014; Rossi et al. 2021). The important question is, "how does TikTok relate to critical thinking?" As mentioned earlier, despite its highly interactive nature, TikTok is merely an information transmission medium in most circumstances. By default, engaging with TikTok does not necessarily enhance critical thinking skills, especially when TikTok is used as a passive information dissemination tool. However, critical thinking skills can be enhanced when TikTok is used actively through activities that are designed to mentally stimulate and engage thinking in a relevant context. An example of such activities includes using TikTok to create a video to explain class material.

In this exploratory study, we aimed to examine the effectiveness of engaging with TikTok actively as TikTok content creators and the underlying mechanism behind that effectiveness. Specifically, we asked the following four research questions.

RQ1: Does actively engaging with TikTok improve the learning outcomes among college students?

RQ2: What is the underlying mechanism behind the effectiveness of actively engaging with TikTok?

RQ3: Do the results of learning outcomes after actively engaging with TikTok vary based on the type of content?

RQ4: Is TikTok the only social media platform that can improve the learning outcome among college students?

To answer these research questions, we conducted a few exploratory studies. In study 1, we examined the effects of actively engaging with class material through TikTok compared to engaging with the same class material passively without TikTok. In study 2, we examined the underlying mechanism behind the effectiveness of actively engaging with TikTok as a content creator. In study 3, we examined the effect of the type of content participants engaged with on information retention. Lastly, in study 4, we examined the effect of TikTok compared to another popular social media platform on information retention.

Through these four studies, we found initial evidence to support the notion that actively engaging with TikTok can help improve learning outcomes among college students. We failed to find initial evidence to support the notion that critical thinking is the underlying mechanism behind the effectiveness of engaging with TikTok actively. We found that different types of classes, i.e., math-oriented or non-math-oriented, can cause the effectiveness of actively engaging with TikTok to vary. And lastly, we found that actively engaging with Twitter can also yield similar results as TikTok. Overall, we believe that TikTok is a fantastic tool that can be used to improve students' learning outcomes through active engagement.

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References can be provided per request.

Summary Brief

The New Normal: Student Preferences and Expectations of Faculty Communication Outside of the Classroom

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There is no question that the landscape of higher education has been significantly disrupted and impacted by COVID-19. Undergraduate students who had previously enrolled in face-to-face, in-person learning environments found themselves adjusting to online platforms for both classroom experiences as well as faculty interactions. Faculty who traditionally taught and interacted with students in person were required to pivot with little notice and/or training. Students wanted and needed more from faculty both in and out of the classroom in these challenging moments. This time-consuming and often exhaustive pandemic online modality has created a lack of work-life balance and led to faculty burnout. As we transitioned back to the new normal of in-person learning and engagement, students' communication preferences and expectations are unknown. The authors propose a research agenda to explore students' out-of-class communication preferences and expectations after their online teaching and learning experiences. The goal is to provide best practices for norming classroom expectations to serve students and protect faculty work-life balance and well-being.

Introduction

According to the National Center for Education Statistics, nearly 85% of all U.S full-time undergraduate enrollment at postsecondary institutions are under the age of 24 and belong to the Generation Z cohort (National Center for Education Statistics., 2022; Dimmock, 2022). Gen Z has unique characteristics, to begin with, coupled with the Covid-19 pandemic disrupting their education, social experiences, and expectations, and their future.

When the pandemic hit and universities suddenly transitioned online, many students were unprepared for online learning, which requires more self-regulated learning. In response, anecdotally, it seems many students sought more out-of-class interaction from faculty than in a face-to-face (f2f) environment, often creating excessive demands on faculty time and serving to contribute to faculty workload and ultimately faculty burnout in many cases.

While much has been studied and learned on appropriate online teaching pedagogies and technology, as we return to the classroom – an environment where the majority of a program's classes are in person face-to-face, are faculty and students coming back to this environment with aligned understandings and expectations? What is the new normal? Understandably, many faculty wish to return to the classroom and interact with students out of class in a pre-covid fashion. However, there are multiple problems with this naivety.

- Students today may not have experience or know pre-covid college culture
- Even without the impact of Covid-19 severely disrupting their education, this generation has different characteristics than the generations that preceded them.
- This generation of students has learned different behavioral patterns for succeeding academically

Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine current students' expectations of faculty communication outside of the classroom in a predominantly face-to-face environment and, as such, provide best practices for norming classroom culture and student expectations to serve students and protect faculty time and well-being in this new normal.

Literature Review

Generation Z Demographics and Preferences and the Impact of COVID 19

Born from 1997-2012 Gen Z is the most diverse, educated and technically savvy generation to date. They are accustomed to twenty-four hours a day access, having a constant connection defines their lives (Barber, 2020).

The pandemic disrupted nearly every aspect of Gen Z's life; thus, their expectations of the world, work, family, school, and faculty are and will be impacted moving forward. When the global pandemic hit, Gen Z students who chose a face-to-face learning environment abruptly shifted to online learning with no in-person access to faculty. Students were often unprepared to learn independently and self-regulate their behavior in a suddenly changed environment (Crittenden, 2021). Additionally, Gen Z students experienced new challenges, notably increased anxiety and concerns about keeping up and isolation (Ripple et al., 2021). The lack of preparation and increased mental health concerns often increased the need for support outside the "classroom" during the pandemic.

Role of Out of Classroom Faculty Interaction

Research supports that increased out-of-classroom communication improves student motivation, retention, achievement, and continued study (Reynolds, 2020). For faculty who primarily taught in a face-to-face setting, pre-pandemic, in-person out-of-class communication occurred typically during the working hours during office hours, interacting in person before and after class, and impromptu interactions on campus and in public. Electronic communication channels, most commonly email, were a widely used pre-pandemic method for out-of-classroom communication. Responsiveness, helpfulness, and promptness have positively impacted students' satisfaction (Sinclaire, 2014; Sheer and Fung, 2007).

Impact of COVID 19 on Out of Classroom Interaction

As students struggled to adapt to the online learning environment, they required more in nearly every aspect of teaching and learning; more thoughtful curriculum design, more faculty feedback, more opportunities to interact with content, more clarification, more questions on technology platforms, more assistance on group projects, more time for academic advising. According to Taylor and Frechette, "on average, marketing educators experienced moderate levels of burnout, which was increased by work demands in research and teaching, as well as student interaction, whereas research productivity decreased burnout." They also suggest that burnout may have been even more prevalent among Marketing faculty based on their understanding of the marketing concepts and the importance of satisfying student needs. Simply put, the demands of pandemic related online teaching and learning have changed all of us. The question now is how online learning and out-of-class communication norms have been impacted by pandemic-related online teaching and how has it shaped students' expectations as they return to the face-to-face learning environment?

Therefore, we propose the following research agenda to (1) examine the current literature on outside-of-class communication; (2) collect quantitative data on current communication channel preferences, expectations on availability, and response time and how that impacts their evaluation of faculty, and (3) provide best practices for norming classroom expectations to serve students and protect faculty work-life balance and well-being.

The authors are currently proceeding with collecting the initial student responses on preferred and expected faculty communication at a comprehensive midwestern public university.

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Summary Brief

What Marketing Students want in a Professor: The Impact of Expectancy-Task Value Beliefs

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This study replicates and extends the work of Senko et al., (2012) and Knoster et al., (2021) by using a budgeting paradigm to identify the attributes deemed most important when teaching in professional fields such as business. It also examines the relationship between student values or reason for enrolling in a course (expectancy of success and subjective task value beliefs) and the attributes they desire in a professor. The findings from this study provide insight into best practices and how to mentor new business faculty in an effort to create a successful and satisfying learning environment for students.

Introduction

The importance of high-quality teaching and the instructor's role in creating quality cannot be overstated. The "relationships between lecturers and students, focusing on the exchange of information and ideas, are the cornerstones of an institution's teaching quality," an attribute consistently ranked as a deciding factor in student's selection of a course and university (Linney, 2020). An instructor's ability to understand and closely match students' expectations and ideals has been shown to facilitate student learning and retention (e.g., Trammell & Aldrich, 2016).

Background

Studies examining the attributes that make instructors effective date back well over 50 years with numerous attributes being identified relating to personal characteristics, professional characteristics, and delivery and pedagogical characteristics. Feldman (1976) in his synthesis of this work narrowed the number to 20 main characteristics and Marsh (1984) further reduced the list to 9 broad attributes of effective teaching. These attributes include enthusiastic/entertaining; intellectually challenging; high expertise; clear expectations; good at presenting/explaining; reasonable workload; interactive; warm/compassionate; and provides helpful feedback related to classwork.

Multiple studies have found that students' prioritization of these attributes can vary, for example, by age/class level (e.g., Strage, 2008); learning goals or style (e.g., Senko et al. 20012) gender of subject (e.g., Woods et al., 2012), academic entitlement (Goldman et al. 2017); and discipline (Knoster et al. 2021). Respondents in most studies come from a cross-section of liberal studies disciplines (e.g., Goldman, et al. 2017; Trammel & Aldrich, 2016; Senko, et al, 2012; Strage, 2008; Woods, et al., 2012). Surprisingly, very little research on prioritization of faculty attributes was found in the professional fields. One exception is a study of graduate medical students that found slight differences in attribute preferences for clinical versus non-clinical instructors (Knoster, et al., 2021).

In addition, most studies in this area use Likert-type measures, which allows students to rate the importance of attributes independently and potentially rate *all* attributes high. More recent research examines importance in relative terms, recognizing that no instructor can be perfect on every attribute and students need to consider trade-offs. These studies typically use a budgeting paradigm that has become known as the "build-a-professor" methodology (e.g., Senko, et.al., 2012; Goldman et.al., 2017; Knoster et.al., 2021).

Expectancy-value theories (e.g., See Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) link performance, persistence, and choice to individual's expectancy-related and task-value beliefs. Choices are influenced by negative and positive characteristics associated with the task; in this case taking a specific course, and all choices are assumed to have costs associated with them. Expectancy related beliefs are defined as beliefs about competence in an area or domain. Task-value beliefs are based on attainment value, utility value, intrinsic value, and cost. Attainment value is the importance of doing well on a task; utility value is based on how the task relates to future (career) goals; intrinsic value is the enjoyment or subjective interest associated with the task; and cost reflects the negative aspects of engaging in a task (e.g., difficulty, time).

Key Findings

This study expands upon previous research by examining how students in marketing classes prioritize their preferences for teaching behaviors and characteristics of marketing versus finance instructors. The study utilizes the budgeting paradigm approach and the broad instructor attributes identified previously in the literature. In addition, the study examines how student expectancy-task value beliefs about the class (e.g., beliefs about success, importance, interest, or costs) impact students' prioritization of professor attribute importance.

Survey data was collected from 660 undergraduate business majors enrolled in introductory Marketing and Finance classes at three 4-year Midwestern campuses (U.S.). The top majors represented are Finance (24%), Marketing (22%), Management (22%), and Accounting (13%). The majority, 55 percent, are juniors, 17 percent are seniors and 27 percent are sophomores or freshmen. Almost all, 97 percent, are traditional, full-time students.

The primary variable of interest is the weight or importance students place on faculty attributes, using a budgeting paradigm where students are given a $20 budget, $40 budget, and a $60 budget and can "spend" a maximum of $10 on each attribute, without exceeding their overall budget (See Senko et.al., 2012). The $20 budget is very minimal and should reflect core attributes students desire and faculty members should strive to attain. With the more generous budget of $60, students can purchase additional units of an attribute or more attributes; with the idea being these reflect extra or luxury attributes – attributes that are appreciated but are not critical. The five most important attributes designated by marketing students across all budgets are: good at presenting; enthusiastic/entertaining; reasonable workload; clear expectations; and high expertise. Interestingly, when given a larger budget, students tended to supplement these same attributes, rather than add more attributes. It appears it is not that some attributes are necessities and other attributes become desired after a certain threshold is met; rather, students want as close to perfection on the most important attributes. The only exception is students spent a larger percentage of their last $20 (the difference between the $40 and $60 budgets) on warmth and compassion, which could be considered a luxury attribute – nice to have, but not a necessity.

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Summary Brief
Cross-Sectional Experiential Learning in Marketing Education

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The purpose of this study is to explore student perceptions of the benefits of experiential learning activities. Semi-structured individual and focus group interviews were conducted with 22 students in multiple School of Marketing courses at a Southeastern University in the United States. Using constant comparative analysis, the results of the study recommended four themes covering all stages of the experiential learning process. Theoretical and practical implications are provided, along with future research directions.

Introduction

It is vital for today's marketing academia to not only instruct students but prepare them to enter their career industry with real-world experiences. A terrific way to implement this is through experiential learning in marketing courses. Experiential learning theory defines learning as the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Experiential learning allows students to cultivate greater comprehension and reflection on knowledge because of the experience (Cohen & Nite, 2019).

This teaching setup included presentations from multiple facets including academic professors and industry practitioners, field trip experiences, and a series of evaluations including verbal and written feedback. While there has been extensive research regarding experiential learning in the Journal of Marketing Education with over 279 instances since the journal's inception in 1979, almost all those projects included single-subject experiential learning situations. With less than a handful of multi-subject experiential learning occurrences, this research study provides a research study with two distinct academic majors instead of only traditional marketing courses.

Background

Kolb and Kolb (2005) categorized experiential learning theory (ELT) as a learning process that which knowledge is acquired through an experience. Cohen and Nite (2019) emphasized that ELT allowed increased understanding and reflection with involvement in the experience. Furthermore, experiential learning activities challenge students to integrate classroom concepts and challenge their ability to analyze, reflect critically, and communicate real-world suggestions (Gundula et al., 2018).

Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience (Kolb, 1984, p. 41). The ELT model portrays two dialectically related modes of grasping experience— Concrete Experience (CE) and Abstract Conceptualization (AC)—and two dialectically related modes of transforming experience—Reflective Observation (RO) and Active Experimentation (AE) (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Kolb (1984) stated that experiential learning occurs in four stages: (1) abstract conceptualization, (2) active experimentation, (3) concrete experience, and (4) reflective observation (see Figure 1). Abstract conceptualization provides an appraisal of the student's conceptual understanding of the experience and applies it to explain and justify their actions (Falloon, 2019). Abstract conceptualization is the stage in which the experience is fashioned into active experimentation (Kolb et al., 2014). Active experimentation fulfills the experiential learning cycle as completed when the new knowledge is applied to a real-life issue (Miniano & Rui, 2020). Expansion of knowledge, including other areas, is introduced. Concrete experience occurs when a student participates in a new learning experience (Elliot et al., 2018). The concrete experience provides a basis for the next stage of reflective observations. Reflective observations offer students opportunities to objectively analyze the issue and review their experience (Elliot et al., 2018). It is through reflection and observation that the experience is thoroughly evaluated from the student learning experience.

Marketing has been cited as a practical field in which experiential learning can enrich student learning and stimulate learning motivation (Brennan, 2014; Petkus, 2000). Furthermore, experiential learning has been broadly perceived as a valuable way to bridge marketing theory with business experience and prepare students for their

profession (Payne et al., 2011). Experiential learning theory (ELT), with its emphasis on procedural skills appears to offer a great deal of potential as a useful approach in marketing education (Higgs, 2006). Higgs (2006) integrates ELT into all aspects of the program – lectures, tutorials, and assessments. The experiential learning method in the hospitality and sport management field has been primarily implemented in a single class or one subject area (e.g., Askren & James, 2021; Montgomery & Van Dyke, 2013). There have been limited research studies involving collaboration with two classes (Bobbitt et al., 2000; Kurpis & Hunter, 2017).

Key Findings

The research collaboration project with experiential learning between hospitality and tourism and sport management classes provided real-world experiences for students to learn the planning process of preparing for a sporting event with understanding customers' and fans' needs in the hotel and sport industry. These multiple teaching interactions reinforced important concepts in the students' specific academic major while also providing introductory knowledge of an additional academic major and how the two areas must coincide to benefit the customer and fan. Through qualitative research including individual interviews and focus groups with 22 participants, four major themes were derived from the results including the (1) identification of connections, (2) preparation of students, (3) absorption of knowledge, and (4) analysis of the process.

First, the identification of connections by increasing awareness occurred for the participants. This occurred with personal motivation, academic knowledge, and professional working experiences. Second, the preparation of students with pre-visit learning occurred with participants receiving information from various sources. Information was initially relayed by the primary instructor related to the major and then additional information was highlighted by the collaborative instructor. Additionally, each major instructor reinforced all information from lectures and outlined upcoming field trip experiences. Third, absorption of knowledge occurred during the experiences for the students. This included two field experiences for students in both their academic major and non-academic major to gain valuable insights into the process including connections. Fourth, analysis of the process includes reflecting on the experience that occurred by the participants. This included multiple evaluations including both verbal and written feedback with participants' reflections on the experiential learning process.

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SESSION 13E: HEALTHCARE AFFAIRS

CHAIR:

Mario Gonzalez

Summary Brief
Internet Pharmacy Whack-a-Mole: FDA Warning Letters in the Fight Against Unapproved or Misbranded Pharmaceutical Sales over the Internet.

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This study content analyzed FDA warning letters to illicit internet pharmacies and then collected observational data from 1,108 websites to explore the factors influencing compliance with FDA recommendations to illicit internet pharmacies. One out of five internet pharmacies that were issued warning letters failed to comply with FDA recommendations. While most internet pharmacies selling opioids complied with recommendations, pharmacies selling numerous nonopioid drug classes were less likely to comply. Compliance decreased for illegitimate internet pharmacies operating multiple websites and those dispensing several drug classes. The number of websites, drug categories, diseases, and unapproved and misbranded drug brands varied by year. The most frequently cited drug class during the pre-COVID-19 pandemic period was opioids, but nonopioid drugs were cited more frequently during the COVID-19 pandemic period. Most opioids dispensed by these internet pharmacies were sold without a prescription. Nonopioid prescription drugs were marketed as generic drugs more frequently than opioid prescription drugs.

Introduction

Online pharmacies are a large and growing internet retail sector. The number of illicit internet pharmacies has continued to grow and now they outnumber legitimate internet pharmacies. It is estimated that over 35,000 online pharmacies operate worldwide. Astonishingly, 95% of them operate illegally in violation of regulations (Alliance for Safe Online Pharmacies, 2017), and a majority of them offer prescription drugs without a valid prescription (Fittler et al., 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic has further intensified online medical misinformation and illegal sale of unapproved and misbranded prescription drugs. Illegal online pharmacies violate the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act (FD&C Act) by selling misbranded or unapproved prescription drugs of unknown origin, safety, and effectiveness; prescription drugs, controlled substances, or other medical treatments without a prescription or without adequate directions for safe use; and prescription drugs without FDA-required warnings to consumers about the serious health risks associated with those prescription drugs.

The FDA is increasingly concerned with the unlawful sale of misbranded or unapproved drugs to U.S. consumers. The FDA, sometimes jointly with the U.S. Drug Enforcement Administration, has been taking action against numerous illicit pharmacies by issuing warning letters informing them of their FD&C Act violations and requesting a halt to illegal sales of regulated drugs and other corrective actions. It advises the website operators to review their websites, product labels, and other labeling and promotional materials to ensure that they are not misleading. Pharmacies failing to respond to the FDA or address the violation outlined in the warning letters are subject to legal enforcement action. However, monitoring and investigating rogue internet pharmacies is difficult for law enforcement agencies as several of these websites do not disclose their actual locations, and the vast majority of their website domain names are registered anonymously. Despite increased regulatory oversight by the FDA, many internet pharmacies have continued to violate industry standards and received warning letters. However, very little is known about the factors that influence their compliance with FDA recommendations or the status of pharmacy websites following FDA enforcement. It is important to understand the nature and content of FDA warning letters and observe illicit internet pharmacies' websites to document the determinants of illicit internet pharmacies' non-compliance with warning letters and FDA recommendations. The present study represents the first effort in addressing this issue.

This study combines a content analysis approach with an observational study and, thus, included two steps: (a) We first review the content of FDA warning letters issued to illegitimate internet pharmacies to extract the information on the determinant factors of noncompliance such as drug class and disease category and (b) Next, we carefully observe the websites of internet pharmacies who were issued warnings letters to assess if they complied with

FDA recommendations and to confirm the status of the websites. This study provides the first evidence for the factors related to compliance with FDA guidelines by internet pharmacies.

Research questions

This study sought to address the following research questions.

RQ1. Is compliance associated with the regulated drug, drug category, disease category, country of origin of an internet pharmacy, response timeline, issuance year, or period before or during COVID-19 pandemic?

RQ2. Is compliance influenced by the number of websites operated, drug categories, disease categories, or unapproved and misbranded drug brands?

RQ3. Is website status associated with the regulated drug, drug category, disease category, country of origin of an internet pharmacy, compliance with FDA recommendations, response timeline, issuance year, or period before or during COVID-19 pandemic?

RQ4. Is website status influenced by the number of websites operated, drug categories, disease categories, or unapproved and misbranded drug brands?

RQ5. Do the number of websites, drug categories, diseases, and unapproved and misbranded drug brands differ by year?

Method

First, content analysis was used to review warning letters issued by the FDA to online pharmacies from 2016 to 2021. All seventy-seven publicly available warning letters on the FDA webpage were reviewed independently by two coders who coded numerous variables including warning letter issuance year; country of internet pharmacy; regulated drug (opioid or nonopioid or both); number of websites operated by each pharmacy; number of diseases, drug brands, and drug categories referenced in warning letters; FDA's recommendations to internet pharmacies; response and timeline (2 days, 10 days, 15 days). Then, for the observational data, coders visited the 1,108 websites of all the internet pharmacies that received warning letters to determine whether or not the pharmacy had complied with FDA recommendations (yes or no) and the website status following FDA enforcement (active or inactive). Each coder completed extensive training in using the coding scheme. In this study, intercoder reliability for each variable exceeded .90, which is considered acceptable (Miles, Huberman, and Saldana, 2014).

Key Findings

One out of five internet pharmacies that were issued warning letters failed to comply with FDA recommendations. While most internet pharmacies selling opioids complied with recommendations, pharmacies selling numerous nonopioid drug classes were less likely to comply ($\chi^2 = 15.333$, $df = 2$, $p \leq .001$). Compliance decreased for illegitimate internet pharmacies operating multiple websites ($\beta = -.021$, $p \leq .05$) and those dispensing several drug classes ($\beta = -.635$, $p \leq .05$). Internet pharmacies that sold opioid drugs discontinued their websites following FDA warnings, but the majority of internet pharmacies issued warning letters for selling nonopioid drugs kept their websites active and continued to offer regulated and/or other drugs ($\chi^2 = 12.126$, $df = 2$, $p \leq .01$). The website status was influenced by the number of drug categories ($\beta = .806$, $p \leq .05$). Internet pharmacies that offered a higher number of unapproved and misbranded drug categories were more likely to keep their websites active even after FDA warnings. The number of websites, drug categories, diseases, and unapproved and misbranded drug brands varied by year. The most frequently cited drug class during the pre-COVID-19 pandemic period was opioids, but nonopioid drugs were cited more frequently during the COVID-19 pandemic period. Most opioids dispensed by these internet pharmacies were sold without a prescription. Nonopioid prescription drugs were marketed as generic drugs more frequently than opioid prescription drugs.

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Summary Brief

An Empirical Study of Mental Health Awareness Campaigns on Social Media: A Storytelling Approach

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Stories have been with us since ancient times to inform and pass on common lessons across cultures. Compelling stories engage audiences reducing their motivation to counterargue the message they encapsulate, generating a broader array of cognitive and emotional responses than the one pursued by traditional advertising. This study explores how different elements of digital stories (social media posts) play a role in the audience's engagement. The stories we examine address mental health issues, a domain for which little research exists at this moment and can potentially derive implications for not-for-profit organizations and socially oriented campaigns.

Motivation

Stories are at the core of the human experience, and they have been used since ancient times to inform and pass on common lessons across cultures (Gonzalez-Fuentes, Robertson, & Davis, 2021). Whether presented as a book or a movie, they are universal ideas with the potential to transform cultures (Wolf, 1999). Thus, stories can reflect the norms and values of the groups in which they are created and transmitted (Gonzalez-Fuentes & Zhou, 2021). Compelling stories engage audiences reducing their motivation to counterargue the message they encapsulate (Escalas, 2004). Stories' engagement is long-lasting and increases over time (Appel & Richter, 2007), particularly when the stories are user-generated (Brown & Patterson, 2010), generating a broader array of cognitive and emotional responses than the one pursued by traditional advertising (van Laer, de Ruyter, Visconti, & Wetzels, 2014). Storytelling has been extensively researched in psychology, communications, and the humanities. However, until recently, marketing research has started exploring the power of storytelling to engage audiences (van Laer, Feiereisen & Visconti, 2019).

The existing marketing literature exploring storytelling can be classified according to four categories. Studies addressing the psychological mechanisms through which stories become memorable make the first category. The second category focuses on the effects of storytelling among consumers. A third group examines how stories' elements (characters, settings, etc.) interact to generate engagement. A fourth category explores the domains (consumer markets, types of products, etc.) under which storytelling is used as a communication tool. Most studies fall into two or more of these categories (Dessart, 2018; Hamby, Brinberg, & Daniloski, 2019; Kao, 2019) with only a few focusing on only one of them (Escalas, 2004; Krause & Rucker, 2020). Research gaps can be found in all four categories. This study attempts to contribute to two of them. First, we inquire whether visual and aural elements enhance engagement in a story and if interactive features, such as those that encourage participation in a narrative, do so. Second, we explore this in two domains sparsely addressed in the literature. We focus on stories addressing mental health issues, a domain for which little research exists at this moment, and we examine these stories in the form of social media posts. Our findings could potentially derive implications for not-for-profit organizations and socially oriented campaigns.

We will use the Extended Transportation-Imagery model (van Laer et al., 2014) as an underpinning theory. This theory sees narrative transportation as determined by 1) the features of the story receiver, and 2) the characteristics of the storyteller and the story being told (Figure 1). Narrative transportation is the degree to which an audience empathizes with the story's characters and experiences suspended reality during the story's delivery (van Laer et al., 2019). In turn, narrative transportation persuades consumers to engage in cognitive and emotional responses. Our methodological strategy involves the use of experiments. In the first experiment, we aim to test whether a storied social media post about a person experiencing mental health issues is more effective at engaging the audience than a fact-based post. In the second experiment, we will test the difference between a story that uses only text to convey the experience and one that uses visual/aural elements to supplement the narrative. In the third experiment, we test the introduction of interactive elements, such as opportunities to dig deeper into the story presented, versus a more passive type of story.

To create the stimuli used in our experiments, we consider a story to be a narrative that captures a storyteller's perspective of an event or a sequence of events that lead to a transition from a character's initial state to a subsequent one or outcome (Bennett & Royle, 2004). Thus, the stories of mental health used as our stimuli possess 1) an identifiable character, 2) a series of events that drive the character to experience conflict, and 3) a final state at which the character arrives that represent a resolution of the story. Currently, recruitment for the first experiment is taking place, and data collection is planned to be conducted during August and September. Our goal is to present preliminary results during the SMA annual conference in November and benefit from other attendees' feedback.
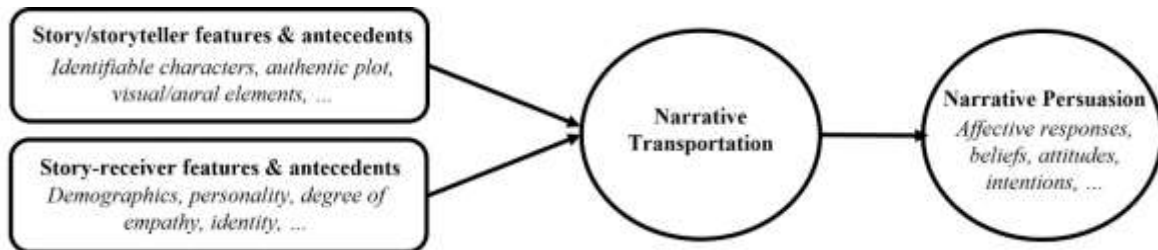
Figure 1 – The extended transportation-imagery model

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Summary Brief
Consumer Co-Creation and Participation in DIY (Do-It-Yourself) Health

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In most developed societies, consumers have traditionally turned to physicians and other medical professionals for their health needs. Medical professionals' education and expertise qualified their opinions, diagnoses and treatment recommendations largely without question. However, overloaded health care systems in many developed nations, along with recent technological advancements have led customers to rely less on the input of the health care provider, and more on their own ability to monitor, diagnose and treat conditions. One way consumers do this is by utilizing consumer health monitoring (CHM) products —particularly technological devices and direct-to-consumer testing. While prior CHM devices (e.g., blood pressure devices) allowed limited self-assessment, new consumer health-monitoring tools have increased exponentially in number and sophistication in recent years. For example, the Oura ring measures heart rate variability, body temperature, and other vital signs. Concerning direct-to-consumer testing services, companies such as Viome offer consumers an assessment of their microbiome diversity via a customer-shipped stool sample. Such CHM products are appealing to consumers, because they provide data that was previously only available from a health care professional. Bypassing doctor's visits via consumer use of CHM devices may reduce consumers' monetary, time and psychological costs. CHM devices may further reduce healthcare costs by allowing consumers to adjust lifestyle factors based on frequent feedback from these CHM devices, which may help prevent chronic disease. Importantly, consumers' perceived convenience, cost savings, and positive health outcomes of CHM devices may lead to an increasing number of consumers' circumvention of the traditional healthcare system—or patient self-management. A patient self-management movement, enabled by CHM products and access to credible health information (e.g., PubMed), could have detrimental effects on traditional health companies, as the customer now becomes the competition. This paper frames the research questions surrounding the phenomenon of consumer use of CHM products, specifically wearable devices and home testing.

Introduction

Technology largely drives consumer involvement in the healthcare industry, and it will continue to grow dramatically in the coming years, and it is important to understand the underlying forces so that we can try to align ourselves with them and actively assure the greatest outcomes for society (Thimbleby, 2013). One of these forces is digitalization leading to increased accessibility for patients so that they can be a part of their healthcare journey (Al-Shorbaji, 2022). It has been accepted for a long time that only medical professionals could and should conduct and deliver medical diagnoses to patients, leading to routine visits to a healthcare provider for even a minor disorder or symptom (Hardavella et al., 2017). However, expectations toward healthcare organizations are changing. Patients want to be informed, engaged, and connected to all the stakeholders within the healthcare system to become an expert in their treatment pathway (Zimlichman et al., 2021). One way patients are able to do this is through personalized Consumer Health Monitoring (CHM) products. In this category, we will focus on two types of CHM: personal health monitoring devices and home testing products. The rapid advancement of mobile technology has dramatically increased the use of CHM products that enable consumers to monitor their health outside of the health care system, especially with increasing attention towards well-being, health, fitness, and disease prevention (Dias & Paulo Silva Cunha, 2018). Today CHM devices have reached a new level with the use of artificial intelligence, robots, smart sensors, big data, radar technologies, and digital wearables. These technologies allow consumers to monitor, manage and prevent diseases on their own. They can estimate body temperature, heart rate, and respiration in addition to identifying hazards such as deteriorating health, worsening illnesses, and other life-threatening conditions like raised blood pressure, glucose or breathing issues (Al-Shorbaji, 2022). A few innovative CHM devices offer advanced capabilities, such as skin surface mapping, an imaging technology that will monitor changes in moles to detect malignancies, biosensors that will function as portable laboratories, and alternative input devices like eye blinks (electromyography) or brain activity (electroencephalography) (Care, 2010).

Where traditional medicine utilized a paternalistic model, where the doctor made decisions that the patient must follow to achieve their best health, the current form of decision-making is known as the participatory model, where a consumer's knowledge supports shared decision making (Steurer & Wertli, 2014). This engagement has led to co-creation of value in the health care setting, where consumers work in collaboration with the healthcare professional to develop more individualized and customized care. Co-creation "integrates consumers into the processes of product and service ideation and execution" to increase value, quality, and success (Makhni, 2017).

The new, improved easy-to-use CHM products coupled with the availability of credible healthcare and medical information on health websites such as PubMed have empowered today's consumers to be active participants in managing their healthcare (Gustafson, 1999) (Ouschan et al., 2000). In fact, Consumer health monitoring (CHM) products have the potential to shift to total consumer participation, and away from the traditional healthcare system. Innovative technological devices and direct-to-consumer testing are enabling patients to participate in self-care, totally bypassing healthcare providers (Kalokairinou et al., 2020).

In this conceptualization, we will discuss what CHM products are and provide examples of them, their growth and their uses and benefits. Then, we will explore how and why consumers are incorporating CHMs in their daily lifestyle to implement a DIY healthcare strategy. We will then discuss a research program to address the implications of the widespread use of these products, specifically empowering consumers in their own health care journey on the positive end as well as the potentially negative consequences of completely circumventing the traditional healthcare industry.

Background

The fusion of science and technology has led to the creation of cutting-edge digital health products that facilitate quick and precise diagnosis of illness (Bhavnani et al., 2016). These CHM products can be sub-divided into two categories: technological devices and direct-to-consumer tests.

Technological devices are generally used to determine or monitor your body activity using a wearable device or via Bluetooth. A few examples of technological devices are as follows: an oximeter integrated into a ring to determine Heart rate (Yang & Rhee, 2000), an electromyographic sensor sewn into clothing to determine muscle activity (Finni et al., 2007), an electrodermal sensor built into a wristband to determine stress (Sandulescu et al., 2015), and an accelerometer built into a watch to determine movement or sleep patterns (Jean-Louis et al., 2001) (Yang & Hsu, 2010).

Direct-to-consumer tests are in vitro diagnostics (IVDs) that are marketed to consumers without the assistance of a healthcare provider (also referred to as DTC). For these tests, the consumer is typically asked to gather a sample, like saliva, blood, or urine, and send it to the business for testing and analysis (Research, 2019). Some of the tests that are readily available to customers are pregnancy tests, glucose (blood sugar) tests, fecal occult blood test for colon cancer, and tests that check for signs of infectious diseases, such as hepatitis, HIV, and COVID-19. (Oh, 2019).

Healthcare services have increasingly become more expensive in the United States and in other European, Asian, and African countries to achieve equal and adequate access to healthcare services for all (Tikkanen & Abrams, 2020). For instance, according to (American Medical Association, 2019), annual healthcare spending in the U.S. increased by 9.7% in 2020 to $4.1 trillion or $12,530 per capita. This growth rate is substantially higher than in 2019 (4.3 percent). National health spending is projected to grow at an average annual rate of 5.4 percent for 2019-28 and to reach $6.2 trillion by 2028 (Martin et al., 2020). The analysis predicts that as a result, the health sector's contribution to GDP would increase from 17.9% in 2017 to 19.4% in 2027. Although physician services were the second largest category of health spending, over the last 10 years, spending on physician services has grown more slowly than spending in the other large categories of personal health care.

With healthcare expenses rising, customers are opting for better and affordable alternatives to remain healthy at a fraction of the price. With DIY self-health care utilizing CHM products, patients don't have to incur the high costs of providers and healthcare practices, including overhead costs, such as administrative fees, insurance, support staff, and other related expenses (Brüssow, 2020).

According to healthcare statistics (Thimbleby, 2013), the Do-It-Yourself trend in medical care will increase in the coming years as technology, economy, and education have improved. People won't find it necessary to constantly visit hospitals for regular checkups and other healthcare services since they will effectively execute this service for themselves at the home, office, and anywhere (Gelijns & Halm, 2019). The new techniques in the healthcare industry and the technology used have significantly empowered patients all around the globe to take charge of personal health in their hands. Additionally, with the slowed economy limiting people's income as the foundation, changing political environments, technology, and various health issues, more people are encouraged to take healthcare challenges as their responsibilities (Kamel Boulos et al., 2014). The vital economic sectors such as healthcare and

wellness industries also focus on consumer needs and produce the most appropriate products and services. According to studies, there has been a direct company-client advertisement explosion in recent years, leading to a value cocreation on a shared healthcare platform (Akter et al., 2022). Furthermore, device makers, health plans, clinicians, and other parties are continuously innovating and promoting new products and services with a specific focus on the primary needs of their healthcare customers.

Technological advancements in the medical field coupled with the COVID-19 pandemic have also greatly influenced opting for self-care (Renu, 2021). Unlike in the past, when patients used to wait for appointment, as well as wait for test results., today's patients tend to diagnose themselves using CHM devices to get the most appropriate treatment or control methods for their medical conditions (Butler, 2012). The evolution of mobile health monitoring capabilities and the associated boom of applications has resulted in the creation of medical measuring equipment utilizing smartphone or tablet interfaces. This development has allowed most patients to monitor their blood pressure, heart rate (including ECGs), body temperature, sleep, exercise, blood oxygenation level, blood glucose levels, etc., at the convenience of their homes (Gustafson, 1999).

The wearable industry is also continuously growing, with shipments of these devices estimated to hit half a billion by 2022 (Laricchia, 2022). The United States consumer use of wearables increased from 9% to 33% in just four years, and this number will continue to grow as wearable technology becomes more conventional. According to Insider Intelligence, 19% of the United States population depends on smartwatches, mobile applications, and other wearables to track their health status and physical fitness effectively as of 2021 (Phaneuf, 2022). This number is expected to increase due to numerous patients' increased interest in self-care. Through mobile apps, artificial intelligence, deep learning, and the development of wearables, individuals can now monitor their health conditions and take the necessary steps, where applicable, to address the issue before it starts progressing further (Vesnic-Alujevic et al., 2016). Similarly, the global market for Direct-to-Consumer (DTC) testing is also expected to grow from $1.4 billion in 2020 to $2.6 billion by 2025 with a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 14.2% for the period of 2020-2025 (Wood, 2022).

Proposed Research

To further investigate the use and implications of CHM products, we propose qualitative and quantitative study of the following research questions:

- What are the primary goals of CHM users?
- What motivates consumers to adopt CHM devices?
- Does a consumer's use of CHM products lead to self-diagnosis or treatment?
- How does increased usage of CHM products affect consumers' usage or intentions to use traditional health care providers/systems?

A qualitative study using in-depth interviews with heavy users of CHM products ("biohackers") will explore the motivations and individual and situational factors affecting consumers' adoption of the CHM products, and then their use of the data generated by the CHM products.

From the categories and themes generated by the qualitative study, a quantitative survey of the general U.S. population will further assess more specific behaviors and adoption motivations, psychographics and demographics of CHM product users.

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Complete References Available Upon Request

Summary Brief

Do you dread the Dentist? - Determining Patient Satisfaction and Well-being in Dental Healthcare

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This research involves examining the antecedents of patient satisfaction in dental healthcare while utilizing a grounded theory approach. We created a model of dental care patient satisfaction and well-being and found that past experiences, expectations, desires, emotions, sensations, co-creation behaviors, relational factors, level of involvement, and level of patient engagement influences patient satisfaction, which subsequently affects patient well-being. These findings contribute a theoretical model incorporating extant research on customer and healthcare satisfaction while providing practical implications for dental service providers to implement in their practices. Future research can incorporate dental providers' perspectives and develop a measure for dental patient satisfaction.

Introduction

Dental patient satisfaction and ultimately well-being is important for dental service providers to craft the best type of service experience. This is important not only for the providers' benefit of having long-term satisfied customers but also for facilitating the most beneficial type of care for the patient's well-being. It's previously been found that patient dissatisfaction leads to patients changing dental practices (Newsome and Wright 1999) and 46% of dentists surveyed believed they lost patients from their practices because they were dissatisfied (O'Shea, Corah, and Ayer 1986). There has been a great deal of research in understanding customer satisfaction within the marketing literature (Bagozzi et al. 1992; Cronin et al. 2000; Fornell et al. 1996, Parasuraman et al. 1988; Zeithaml et al. 1993) as well as work in patient satisfaction within the healthcare context (Butler et al. 1996; Naidu 2009; Linder-Pelz, 1982; Tucker and Adams, 2001; Ware et al. 1978). It is important to examine satisfaction within healthcare separately as medical care is a credence type of good (Butler et al. 1996) and there are different types of ways individuals evaluate satisfaction based on the complexities of the service.

More specifically, it is imperative to evaluate satisfaction within dental services as this is an even more unique context than overarching medical care. Dental services are a specialized type of care that not everyone has access to due to various insurance coverage and costs, despite research findings that show that solid dental health is linked to overall healthfulness such as decreased heart disease (DeStefano et al. 1993). Additionally, patients have varied responses to receiving dental care from enjoyment to downright debilitating fear. Dental care is also more time-consuming with more high-touch interactions than other healthcare services (Chang and Chang 2013). Thus, satisfaction in this context should be examined separately. While there is research within the dental and healthcare journals on dental patient satisfaction, none have examined this from a marketing point of view. We examine patient satisfaction and well-being in dental healthcare by using both grounded theory and deductive methods (also called "abductive"

Saldana 2016) and build off of extant models of customer satisfaction from the marketing literature.

We conducted a review of the literature on customer and patient satisfaction as well as a qualitative study, which consists of one 16-person focus group and 9 in-depth interviews concerning patients' experiences, feelings, thoughts, and overall satisfaction with dental healthcare.   We find that patient satisfaction and well-being outcomes in dental healthcare are impacted by the following: experience, expectations, desires, emotions, sensations, co-creation behaviors, relational factors, level of involvement, and patient-level of engagement.

Theoretical Model

The below theoretical model is offered based on an iterative analysis of the literature and the qualitative findings. We found that well-being is impacted by satisfaction, which is impacted by the following antecedents: past experiences, expectations, desires, emotions, sensations, co-creation behaviors, relational behaviors, which then may be moderated by the level of involvement and patient engagement.

Figure 1
Theoretical Model
Patient Satisfaction and Well-being in Dental Healthcare
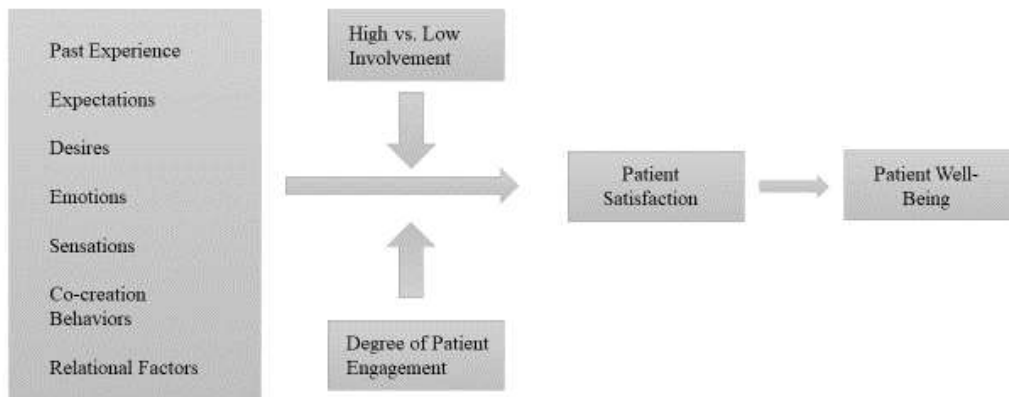
Discussion

Through a mix of grounded theory and deductive methods (called abductive qualitative research by Saldana 2016), we developed a theoretical model of dental patient satisfaction and well-being as influenced by antecedents and moderators. A patient's experience with dental care will impact their current satisfaction and well-being – if in the past they had a difficult time with dental care they will bring those emotions and thoughts in with them to their current provider. Additionally, their expectations and desires will also impact their satisfaction, which is consistent with the expectancy-disconfirmation models of satisfaction (Bagozzi et al. 1992; Cronin et al. 2000; Fornell et al. 1996, Parasuraman et al. 1988; Zeithaml et al. 1993). Emotions and

sensations will further play a role – highly anxious patients may be less satisfied through the entire experience and may end up being less satisfied overall if their anxiety levels are not managed. However, some participants reported feelings of relief post-dental service after feeling anxious and these same individuals also reported that they were ultimately more highly satisfied. Thus, it's not just the emotion but the emotional journey of the dental service.

References are available upon request

SESSION 13G: DIGITAL WELLNESS: REIMAGINING OUR RELATIONSHIP WITH TECHNOLOGY

CHAIR:

Kelley Cours Anderson

SESSION 15A: LETS GO SHOPPING

CHAIR:

Carol Esmark Jones

Summary Brief

The Impact of Physical Store's Website Presence on Increasing Physical Store Visits

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While multi-channel and omni-channel distribution networks have become the norm for retail and services, it remains unclear how the representation of these multiple channels through a single channel (i.e., the presence of physical store photography on a retailer's website) impacts consumer choice. This is important given that the majority of consumers research products or services online prior to visiting a physical store location. As such, a website must do all it can to convince shoppers to purchase their products versus that of a competitor's. The current study takes a first step toward understanding how the inclusion of a physical store's representation on a website reduces consumer perceived risk and, subsequently, increases intentions to visit the store. We also explore how these effects differ by store type (tangible versus intangible goods). Altogether, the results are a first study showing how the representation of the physical store on a website decreases risk for service providers, but this effect does not hold for physical good retailers. This decrease in risk subsequently increases the likelihood the consumer will visit the physical store.

Introduction

Exchange of value, where one asset is traded for another (e.g., money for goods or services), inherently carries some level of risk for both exchange partners. For this reason, depictions of a typical consumer buying process starts with research of the desired goods or services (Cook, 2014). The level of the risk will vary based on the retail channel (online vs physical store) as well as type of product (goods vs services) being offered. While parallel presence (e.g., multi vs. omni) of retail channels has been explored in the literature, very little research has been done on representations of multiple retail channels within a single channel (i.e., the presence of physical store photography on the retailer's website). This study fills this gap by examining how consumers' perception of risk is affected by the type of product within a single versus multiple channel representation.

Background

Intangibility, along with inseparability of production and consumption, heterogeneity, and perishability, is a primary trait that distinguishes physical goods from services (Rathmell, 1966). It also impacts a consumers' ability to evaluate the quality of a good or service (Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1985). As the components of a product become more intangible, consumers have a more difficult time evaluating it (Zeithaml, 1981). Service products, being intangible by nature, have been shown to be riskier to consumers than goods products (Mitchell & Greatorex, 1993). An increase in consumers' perception of risk has been found with service (vs. goods) products (Murray & Schlacter, 1990) and online (vs. physical) stores (Laroche et al., 2005). Just as physical goods and services are distinguished by intangibility, physical stores and online stores share the same distinction. Given the intangible nature of service products and online stores, consumers will experience varying levels of perceived risk depending on the combination of experience. When both dimensions are tangible, risk will be lower than when both dimensions are intangible.

According to Retail Perceptions (2014), 88% of consumer product research begins with online product search followed by a trip to a physical retail location (a.k.a. webrooming). It is critical for the website to be able to

convince and encourage a consumer to visit the physical store. Consumers can better process and comprehend a retailer's messaging online if there are visual representations of crucial decision-making information (Ryu, Park, & Park, 2022). This aligns with cognitive fit theory which proposes that task performance for users is "enhanced when there is a cognitive fit (match) between the information emphasized in the representation type and that required by the task type" (Vessey, 1991, p. 219). Therefore, the presence of physical store photography on a website will decrease perceived risk. Previous literature has found that perceived risk can impact behavioral intentions (e.g., Mullan et al., 2013). Research using the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) supports this notion in that perceived risk negatively impacts shopping intentions (Chang & Chen, 2008).

Various moderators have been shown to alleviate some of the risk due to intangibility of online channels or service products. The commonality across most, if not all, of the moderators is an attempt to perceive the intangible offerings as more realistic, tangible, and consequently less risky. More specifically, Brunelle (2009), demonstrated that the channel used to present information to the consumer (online vs. physical store) moderates perceived channel risk. With respect to showing photography of the physical store on the website, the intention is to increase the processing fluency of the consumer and subsequently reduce perceived risk. Because goods-oriented stores and service-oriented stores differ with respect to the tangibility of the products sold, we anticipate the photographically represented service-oriented stores would strengthen information processing fluency (Reber et al., 2004).

Key Findings

A total of 147 MTurk users were asked to view a snapshot of a website for a new store. Participants were shown one of 4 scenarios (physical store representation: yes/ no; type of store: clothing store/ hair salon). The results showed a significant interaction of physical store presence on a website and retailer type on perceived consumer risk (a_3= -.25, t= -1.95, p=.05). Neither main effect of store's presence (a_1= .06, t= .37, p=.71) nor type of store (a_2= .21, t= 1.21, p=.23) had a significant effect on risk. Specifically, when the store type is a physical goods retailer like clothes, the presence or absence of the physical store on the website did not impact consumer perceptions of risk ($a_{clothes}$= .06, t= .38, 95% CI: [-.26, .39]). However, when the store type was services like a hair salon, the presence of the physical store on the website significantly decreased perceptions of risk (a_{hair}= -.43, t= -2.24, 95% CI: [-.81, -.05]). Risk had a significant and negative relationship to intentions to visit the store (b_1= -1.02, t= -5.46, p<.001). The index of moderated mediation when risk was the mediator was significant (ab= .50, 95% CI: [.02, 1.07]) showing differences of the indirect effect as explained through risk across type of store. When the store was a clothing retailer, the effect of the store's presence on the website on intentions to visit the store as explained through risk was not significant ($ab_{clothes}$= -.06, 95% CI: [-.42, .31]). However, when the store was the hair salon, having the physical store shown on the website did increase intentions to visit the store as explained through decreased risk (ab_{hair}= .44, 95% CI: [.09, .88]).

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Summary Brief

Marketing in Global Environment: Toward a Global Sales Enablement Readiness Framework

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Successful global marketing is contingent upon organizations' international competitiveness, which global sales enablement can help advance. Sales enablement, i.e., an organization's strategic, cross-function effort to support salesforces with resources, education, information, tools, and technology throughout the sales process and customer journey, has emerged as a critical role and capability, especially for global organizations. This research delineates the domain of global sales enablement, introduces related theoretical foundations, and identifies the Global Sales Enablement Readiness (GSER) concept. We build on the resource-based view, dynamic capability, market orientation, and relationship marketing theories. The research enhances marketing scholars' and executives' understanding and operational views of global sales enablement challenges and opportunities. Due to the nature of global sales enablement, such research may expand the boundaries of international marketing at the interface of other functions and domains with interesting research opportunities.

Introduction

Global trade is a significant driver of economic growth and firms' productivity. While international competitiveness, or a firm's ability to market its products or services in global markets, ultimately aims for multinational organizations to achieve superior performance, the latter also relies on organizations' global development maturity. A global firm that can fulfill international customers' needs and pursue local adaptation to specific foreign markets requires strong firm-specific advantages such as managerial and marketing capability to coordinate sales in multiple geographies. International salesforces and channel partners greatly support firms' internationalization and foreign market entry, especially in the case of organizations undertaking marketing orientation and international relationship marketing endeavors. With the ever-changing world of sales and technology-enabled buyer-seller relationships, sales enablement has emerged as a critical function, strategy, and capability, especially in global organizations. While the development of customer relationship management and sales technologies have facilitated the practice of sales enablement in virtual environments and across national boundaries, the contour of its capabilities in enabling more effective global sales strategies raises important conceptual, empirical, and managerial questions. This research seeks to extend our understanding of sales enablement from an international marketing perspective by (a) explicating, through delineating, the domain of global sales enablement, and (b) envisioning, through identifying, the concept of Global Sales Enablement Readiness (GSER). The GSER conceptual framework results from a review of the sales enablement's resource-based view and dynamic capability foundational conceptualizations, which we expand with the market orientation and relationship marketing theories to account for the distinctiveness of global marketing. The GSER concept and framework contributes to reconceptualizing marketing in today's global environment by assessing and leveraging theories that can help organizations understand the current marketplace.

Background and Literature Review

Researchers have only recently devoted attention to sales enablement, yet mostly with conceptual studies and contributions. In a seminal attempt to understand and explain sales enablement, Peterson and Dover (2020) offer an

investigation of its historical business-related context and outline over ten industry-based definitions. While such definitions can be traced back to 2010, they reveal a lack of unified understanding of the nature and scope of sales enablement. The nascent academic discussion on sales enablement thus has mainly focused on its theoretical foundations, conceptualizations, and application frameworks (Peterson et al. 2021; Peterson and Dover 2020; Rangarajan et al. 2020). From a theoretical foundation standpoint, sales enablement can be explained through the complementing lens of the resource-based view and dynamic capabilities theories of the firm. The resource-based view theory helps understand sales enablement through its contribution to the development of superior capabilities and resources that can provide a source of sustainable competitive advantage (Peterson et al. 2021). However, because organizations operate in an ever-changing environment, the dynamic capabilities theory, such as organizational learning and adaptation, helps explain the enablement of business processes for improved performance (Peterson et al. 2021).

Recent conceptualizations of sales enablement advance two main propositions in the literature. Rangarajan and colleagues (2020, p. 2) suggest that *"sales enablement should be viewed as a strategic, organizational initiative, which includes people (both frontline and back office) serving in their roles while engaged in a set of underlying processes which, when coordinated, will have an impact on the performance of the sales organization."* The authors further propose a structural framework where *"sales enablement is about the 3 Ps —People, Process, and Performance—that coalesce to create something that, together, is greater than the sum of their parts"* (p. 2).

Leveraging the firm's resource-based view and dynamic capabilities theories, Peterson and colleagues (2021, p. 543) conceptualize sales enablement as *"an overarching dynamic capability that aligns varied firm resources to benefit the customer journey and selling productivity."* Sales enablement fundamentally also helps institutionalize an environment conducive to organizational learning and disseminating sales and customer-related knowledge.

The consideration of sales enablement outside the organization is also of critical importance to channel partners due to their key roles in driving sales, unlocking new markets, decreasing time to market, especially across national boundaries (Keeling, Cox, and Ruyter 2020). To this end, Keeling and colleagues (2020, p. 113) define strategic sales enablement as *"the process of educating and engaging channel partners in selling more effectively with the objective of increasing sales performance, expanding business and creating more sustainable partnerships."* Hence, it seems worth integrating channel partners' learning disposition in sales enablement, especially when global relationship management is at stake. However, the recent conceptualizations of sales enablement (Peterson et al. 2021; Rangarajan et al. 2020) do not delineate the leveraging of external capabilities, resources, and relationships when it comes to external stakeholders (e.g., channel partners).

When analyzing sales enablement from a global perspective, Peterson and Dover 2021 offer an overview of the differences in North America, Europe, and the Asia Pacific in terms of objectives, process and services, and stakeholders to serve. Although comprehensive in their description of global sales enablement initiatives, Peterson and Dover (2021) do not offer theoretical explanations of the differentiated practices of global sales enablement.

The globalization of sales organizations unveils specific challenges in designing international sales units that also integrate the peculiarities of global marketing strategies. While sales enablement involves the leverage of digital technologies, which can facilitate marketing and sales collaboration at the interface of other functions, technology access remains unequal across the globe.

Conceptual Framework and Contributions

From a theoretical standpoint, our explicating and delineating work proposes and expands a novel framework of the constituents of global sales enablement. Our envisioning and identifying endeavor devise a new conceptual reality of Global Sales Enablement Readiness (GSER) that accounts for organizations' international development maturity and total global strategy competitiveness. The theoretical contributions are grounded in the resource-based view, dynamic capability, market orientation, and relationship marketing theories which concepts have been delineated and identified to align with international marketing settings. From a managerial standpoint, we provide practitioners with a framework to assess Global Sales Enablement Readiness (GSER) and further guide operational

decisions. Such guidance is instrumental in leveraging, adapting, and enabling specific capabilities for the functions and constituencies of the sales region and unit structure, markets, segments, and throughout the process, systems and technology-enabled sales process, and customer journey. Due to the nature of global sales enablement, the proposed conceptual framework challenges the boundaries of international marketing at the interface of other functions and disciplines and offers multiple perspectives research avenues. In doing so, we aim to enhance marketing scholars' and executives' understanding and operational views of global sales enablement challenges and opportunities.

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SESSION 15B: ADVANCEMENTS IN RETAILING

CHAIR:

Ricky Ferguson

Summary Brief
Human, artificial, and hybrid intelligence in the retailing service ecosystem

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John Gironda, Nova Southeastern University, USA
Ricky Fergurson, Indiana State University, USA
Maria Petrescu, Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, USA

Through enhanced data interpretation, machine learning, and flexible adaptation, AI can strengthen business performance and optimize customers' experiences. In the retailing environment, some of the benefits of AI include an increased understanding of customers' needs via learning from their past behavior, supply chain and inventory optimization, and the ability to assist both shoppers and managers in their decision-making processes. All of these advancements have the potential to improve relationships between retailers and customers. Given these developments, a new stream of research related to AI's impact on marketing is emerging. Thus, both marketing researchers and practitioners can benefit from a systematic review and summary of research findings on the use of AI in retailing. Using a bibliometric methodology, as well as a framework based on the retail ecosystem and value co-creation, this study seeks to synthesize the empirical contributions on AI-related research regarding AI-related implications for stakeholder well-being, social interaction, and societal welfare. Our study contributes to the existing body of AI research by providing generalizable insights and managerial implications and formulating new directions for future research that can facilitate new knowledge for the modern retailing environment.

Introduction

Studies highlight the need for more research in various facets of retailing-related services, including the use of AI systems for a variety of retail decisions, the behavior of AI-assisted shoppers/consumers, and consumer neuropsychology using advanced AI models (Brock and von Wangenheim, 2019; Marinova *et al.*, 2017; Shankar et al., 2021). Moreover, studies emphasize the need to focus on AI in retailing services from the point of view of the individual consumer, business, and stakeholder perspective, as well as from a social and societal angle (Aksoy et al., 2019; Rosenbaum and Russell-Bennett, 2021).

Therefore, given this need for research, this paper uses an ecosystems value co-creation framework as a lens by which to conduct a bibliometric analysis study, focusing on AI-related implications for stakeholder well-being, social interaction, and societal welfare, considering the value of human, hybrid, and artificial intelligence. This study uses the interdisciplinary bibliometric findings to develop a comprehensive framework of using this combination of intelligence types in retail services and formulates recommendations for researchers, academics, and practitioners.

Conceptual Framework and Literature Review

Retail-related services currently reflect various phases and areas of intervention, including the management of consumer needs, search engagement with consumers, management of consumer choice, purchase transaction intermediation, as well as the follow-up process and loyalty management strategy. This paper focuses on how AI-based new service technologies are impacting human well-being (both positively and negatively), human social interaction, as well as societal welfare (Rosenbaum and Russell-Bennett, 2021), as formulated in Figure 1. We also consider in this service ecosystem the specific mix of human-artificial intelligences, AI, and human decision-making, and rational decisions in the management of services (Eriksson, Bigi and Bonera, 2020; Söderlund, 2021). Therefore, through an interdisciplinary bibliometric analysis we evaluate the following research questions:

RQ1 How do AI-based and hybrid technologies impact stakeholder well-being in the retail service ecosystem?

RQ2 How do AI-based and hybrid technologies affect social interaction in the retail service ecosystem?

RQ3 How do retail service AI-based and hybrid technologies influence societal welfare?

Methodology and Results

In the initial phase, we downloaded articles from Web of Science (WoS) based on keywords related to AI (AI, artificial intelligence, chatbot, robot, virtual assistant, smart agent, smart product, virtual agent, machine learning) and aspects related to retail services (retail, store, advertising, marketing, shop, purchase, consumer, customer, sales). We refined the interdisciplinary results to include only articles from disciplines related to our topic: business, information science, communication, psychology, and sociology. Overall, 2,361 articles were downloaded. We manually checked each article's title to ensure a lack of error-based inclusion due to algorithm and keyword bias, which reduced the list of articles to 777 studies. The network visualization of scientific publications indicates that there are six main clusters of interdisciplinary research areas for the AI-related retailing ecosystem: (1) robotics, (2) analytics, (3) data mining, (4) forecasting, (5) social AI and (6) communication.

In further refining the concepts and themes reflected in the bibliometric analysis, we performed lexical co-occurrence content analysis using Leximancer software to explore the semantic relationships of the main themes present in the abstracts of the 777 WoS articles. The results of the conceptual mapping emphasize an ecosystems view of the AI applications and integration, including stakeholders (users, customers, consumers, marketers, companies), resources and interactions, technology (machine learning, robots, data, information), and social/societal aspects of AI and value creation.

Conclusions

In the bibliometric analysis, we employed an ecosystems value co-creation framework that unveils implications for stakeholder well-being, social interaction, and societal welfare, based on human, hybrid, and artificial intelligence. This interdisciplinary analysis helped aggregate research findings in the marketing and MIS literature about the intertwining and effects of the different types of human and technological intelligence in retail services. Based on a network visualization of keyword relationships and clustered topic areas, as well as a conceptual map of the relationships between key concepts and substantive themes, we were able to answer the key research questions focused on stakeholder well-being, social interaction, and societal welfare and emphasize the way hybrid and artificial intelligence impact this ecosystem.

The network visualization of keyword relationships and clustered topic areas and the conceptual map of the relationships between key concepts and substantive themes emphasize the interdisciplinary characteristics of research related to AI-based technologies. This reflects the need of a multidisciplinary view in research on this topic, especially considering the impact that hybrid and artificial-intelligence technologies have on various components of the business and societal ecosystem – from well-being, to interactions, and societal welfare.

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Summary Brief
Understanding customer experience and value co-creating service encounters using data analytics: Evidence from mealkit brands

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Consumer experience is a multidimensional concept with cognitive and affective responses to a market offering at a personal level. This paper examined consumer reviews on 12 mealkit brands to explore the effect of cognitive and affective customer experience on service rating (Study 1) and how different touchpoints of service shape customer experience by words co-occurrence network and multi-dimensional scaling (Study 2). Theoretical and managerial implications are discussed based on empirical findings.

A consumer interacts with and responds to market offerings across different phases from prepurchase, to purchase, to postpurchase, leading to consumer experience as a multidimensional concept (e.g., affective and cognitive experience) (Lemon and Verhoef 2016). For consumer experience, service is important because it entails intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability, and perishability (Moeller 2010), which engages with a consumer at a personal level. A consumer is central to the definition of service, "specialized competences (operant resources—knowledge and skills), through deeds, processes, and performances for the benefit of another entity or the entity itself (Vargo & Lusch 2008)." Examining a consumer's personal account or reviews may help understand consumer experience and how it is shaped by various critical moments of service (e.g., moment of truth, Klaus 2015), creating unique customer experience in their service encounters.

The growth of meal kit service is noticeable as a recent market study has estimated its U.S. market size as 13 billion U.S. dollars with millions of customers (Statista 2022). Despite this popularity, customer experience of meal kits has not received scholarly attention as meal kit service is a nascent market (e.g., BlueApron's first operation year: 2012) and the meal kit service is a private customer experience with a consumer's private space (e.g., domestic kitchen) and an individual device (e.g., meal kit mobile app). Each mealkit brand's mobile app is important because it serves as a frequent point of contact and engagement for customer journeys: customer interactions before the service purchase, selecting, ordering, and paying the service, and usage and consumption of service, postpurchase engagement, and service request. Specifically, consumer reviews of meal kit mobile apps provide relevant research contexts to understand the role of service and customer experience.

Therefore, consumers' service experience may be captured by service ratings and reviews associated with mealkit brands because mobile apps have become the platforms to interact between a service provider and a consumer as a center of service encounter. Examining service ratings and reviews at a mobile app marketplace may serve as a relevant research context in the rise of tech-infused service encounter and self-service experience because it contains "every aspect of a company's offering—the quality of customer care, of course, but also advertising, packaging, product and service features, ease of use, and reliability. It is the internal and subjective response customers have to any direct or indirect contact with a company (Meyer and Schwager 2007, p. 2)."

As consumer experience is a time-dependent multi-dimensional phenomenon, this paper gathered customer reviews with ratings on 12 different meal kit brands at a mobile app marketplace by using interpretive language R to conduct two studies. Study 1 examined the effect of cognitive and affective customer experience on service rating. For cognitive customer experience, negation judgements (e.g., isn't vs. is not), such as full negation and contracted negation were examined via text mining (Kim et al. 2021). For affective customer experience, anger and trust, emotions are central to regulatory foci (e.g., prevention vs. promotion) were analyzed via sentiment analysis (Ran et al. 2016). The hypotheses were tested by hierarchical linear regression analysis to explore the explore the effects of cognitive and affective experience on consumer experience rating. Drawing upon recent advancement on words co-occurrence network and multi-dimensional scaling (Humphreys & Wang 2018; Kim et al. 2020), Study 2 coded service encounters represented in the consumer reviews and explore how different touchpoints of service shape customer experience.

The expected empirical findings will help academics and practitioners in service marketing. For academics, this research provides critical insights on customer-centric service research beyond the service provider-centric service research. For practitioners, this research shows evidence-based service management as consumer review analysis

using structured (e.g., rating) and unstructured (e.g., text) data can be automated to give real-time application to their service practice.

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Full Paper

Modeling Independent Sales Representative Performance: Application of Predictive Analytics in Direct Selling for Improved Outcomes

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This research addresses essential questions for direct selling organizations of how to predict and foster the success of independent sales representatives. It employs multiple machine learning techniques for predictive analytics to create models for recruits and existing representatives. By predicting representative success factors, direct selling organizations can prioritize recruitment, training, and incentives to maximize performance. Because independent sales representatives are not employees, understanding these factors is critical. The study analyzes the 2018 National Salesforce Survey commissioned by the Direct Selling Association. Allocated time for direct selling, ability to find new customers, gender, and adopting direct selling as a career play key roles in predicting sales success for individuals entering direct selling. The highest performing representatives are characterized by time invested, experience of direct selling, recruitment, tenure, and use of technology.

An age-old challenge for companies is securing the optimal level of performance from their salesforces. Much has been written in the marketing and management literature about salesforce motivation and performance, primarily emphasizing the motivation of internal salesforces (e.g., Churchill et al. 1985; Finch et al. 2018; Herjanto and Franklin 2019; Herzberg 1959; Maslow 1954; Vroom 1964). At the same time, the entrepreneurial literature is strong in entrepreneurial motivations and less robust with respect to success motivation (e.g., Barba-Sánchez and Atienza-Sahuquilla 2017; Cabrera and Mauricio 2017; Rauch and Frese 2000; Sorich and Rivera 2018; Van Eerde and Thierry 1996). The literature on motivation of independent sales representatives (those not employed by the company) is thin at best. This is where the research gap is most evident.

Direct selling is one marketing channel which bridges these subjects due to its reliance on independent sales representatives (also called distributors, advisors, and consultants) to generate the revenues for direct selling organizations (e.g., Mary Kay, Amway, Scentsy, and USANA). Independent sales representatives are independent contractors that are typically recruited by other company representatives. They are effectively microentrepreneurs as they control the level and intensity of participation and are responsible for their own businesses. Research has been conducted on multiple aspects of the representative/distributor and company relationship, the motivations for joining and continuing as direct sellers, and the performance of them (e.g., Coughlan, Krafft, and Allendorf 2016; Crittenden and Crittenden 2004; Peterson and Wotruba 1996; Wotruba and Tyagi 1992). This study seeks to determine the critical salesforce performance factors for predicting and enhancing independent representative financial performance through the analysis of the 2018 National Salesforce Survey commissioned by the Direct Selling Association.

While companies hiring, screening, and employing salespeople use a range of techniques for screening applicants prior to employment and internal leverage with the salesforce, direct selling organizations do not engage in the hiring process and are not employers for their representatives. Maximizing independent salesforce performance is more complex and less studied. Predicting the potential financial success of a direct seller based on parameters available at the time of recruitment can assist decision making processes at direct selling companies. Predicting the financial value of a direct seller`s contribution to the company with high accuracy requires performance data that is not available before recruitment as sellers (sponsors) recruit new sellers through relationship building. The channel employs a "broad tent" approach and welcome recruits to become independent representatives based on recruitment and commitment demonstrated through entering a contractual agreement, often accompanied by the purchase of a

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sales kit. In this case, a classification model predicting a certain level of financial success may provide a better accuracy and applicability. However, a predictive model may be an excellent starting point to make the best decisions in a business process.

Domain knowledge and expertise in the area is needed to create maximum business value. Predictive models can also be used for the scanning of new sample audiences in which there is a high probability of finding direct sellers with a substantial potential for financial success. Hence, area expertise, domain knowledge and other company resources will be effectively deployed for the best productivity and profitability. Peterson (2019) suggests, "...if significant links could be identified between reasons for joining a direct selling company and sales productivity or tenure as a direct seller, the resources expended on recruiting, training, and retaining direct sellers might be utilized more effectively."

This research is designed to address the research question of what factors predict the sales productivity of independent sales representatives in direct selling. It extends prior research on salesforce motivation and performance to a novel but sizeable population and channel. It introduces a typology of theoretical factors derived primarily from Expectancy Theory (Teas and McElroy 1985; Vroom 1964) and Herzberg's (1959) Two Factor Theory including expectancy/expectations, network/social benefits, commitment, and organizational characteristics, as well as demographics. Then, based upon the identified variables and those available in the data set of independent representatives, two predictive models are created via supervised machine learning algorithms including Decision Tress, Bootstrap Forest, Boosted Tree, Logistic Regression, Naïve Bayes, and K-Nearest Neighborhood to predict the sales productivity of a representatives most accurately at recruitment and during time as a representative. These models can be tested and applied by direct selling organizations. The research creates an opportunity for improved recruiting, enhanced training, education, and support, and motivational and other efforts for independent representatives to ultimately increase revenues of direct selling organizations.

Literature Review

This study is situated at the nexus of research on salesforce performance drivers, the direct selling channel, entrepreneurial success factors, and independent salesforce performance. It is at the intersection of predictive analytics, machine learning algorithms, and research on salesforce performance. It examines independent sales representatives (microentrepreneurs) in the direct selling channel which are essential to the go-to-market strategies of direct selling firms. It builds upon direct selling acquisition and retention research of Coughlan, Krafft, and Allendorf (2016) and salesforce research of Crittenden and Crittenden (2004) and is framed in the Expectancy Theory (Teas and McElroy 1985; Vroom 1964) and Herzberg's (1959) Two Factor Theory (motivation-hygiene theory). It fosters the development of models to predict and strengthen sales performance of independent sales representatives in the direct selling channel. Descriptions of the direct selling channel, salesforce performance, entrepreneurial success, and direct selling salesforce research follow, as does a taxonomy of the derived determinants of success.

The Direct Selling Channel

The Direct Selling Association defines direct selling as "a business model that offers entrepreneurial opportunities to individuals as independent contractors to market and/or sell products and services, typically outside of a fixed retail establishment, through one-to-one selling, in-home product demonstrations or online. Compensation is ultimately based on sales and may be earned based on personal sales and/or the sales of others in their sales organizations. (DSA 2019)" Kim and Manchanda (2021, 7) note, "Companies employing this business model (direct selling organizations) rely heavily on independent salespeople to carry the critical channel functions: purchase of products from the direct selling organization, advertisement of products, product sales to end-consumers, registration of end-customers, customer relationship management, and even recruitment and mentorship of salespeople into the network." Direct selling is both a microenterprise (self-employment) strategy for representatives and a go-to-market strategy for companies.

In 2020, the channel generated $40.1 billion in sales in the United States with 7.7 million direct sellers (active business builders), 9.0 million discount buyers, and 32.6 million preferred customers (Direct Selling Association

2021). Globally, in 2020, sales were $179.3 billion with 125.4 million representatives (WFDSA 2021Traditionally, most companies emphasize person-to-person or network sales (71.5 percent) wherein a direct seller (representative, consultant, designer) sells directly to her customers. The second most popular method is the party plan (22.4 percent), wherein a direct seller sells to groups of customers in homes or other locations or through online parties.

Of the U.S. direct sellers, 75 percent are women, primarily selling person-to-person, with the top product categories including wellness, services, home and family care/ durables, personal care, clothing and accessories, and leisure and educational. Of the 7.7 million business builders (those participating for more than product discounts), 88.3 percent are part-time workers. Most direct sellers are ages 35 to 44 (24.8 percent) or ages 45-54 (23.8 percent).

Direct sellers in the United States are independent contractors that are paid for sales on a commission basis with those in multi-level marketing organizations earning commissions on sales by people they recruit and their downline sellers. Most direct sellers are working part-time and selling inside or outside of home both in person and online. Representatives for party plan companies sell in other homes, workplaces, or neutral settings in a social and entertainment-oriented environment (Peterson and Wotruba 1996).

Essential to the direct selling channel is that direct selling firms create and maintain an entrepreneurial culture providing representatives entrepreneurial training, tools, and professional networking (Peterson and Wotruba 1996). The desired result is the development and support of an entrepreneurial mindset. Direct selling firms offer training and coaching on such skills as relationship marketing and generating repeat business. They encourage representatives to connect with the direct selling value chain with access to suppliers, potential customers, and physical and virtual selling platforms (Peterson and Wotruba 1996). The environment is summarized as follows by Crittenden, Crittenden, and Ajjan (2019), "Direct Selling removes the traditional barriers to small business ownership. Independent distributors are backed by established brands who provide them with a 'business in a box,' so to speak, comprised of quality products, marketing tools, business education and a wealth of digital resources for professional and personal development." Even more importantly, one study suggests that while it is an unlikely route to development, for women in poverty, becoming direct sellers, in this case of Avon beauty products, can create a pathway to entrepreneurship with low risk and the potential to reduce poverty (Dolan and Scott 2009).

Company Salesforce Performance Factors

The underlying theoretical frameworks on needs, motivations and expectations lead to the suggestion of factors to examine. Expectancy Theory suggests that expectancy, instrumentality, and valence are critical to the motivational force for the representatives (Vroom 1964). This translates into the likelihood of performing actions necessary to success in sales generation, the expectation of gains from the actions, and the belief that outcomes may be attained and are desirable. In this case, we can consider motivations for entering direct selling and continuing in it as they apply to performance. Herzberg's (1959) Two Factor Theory is more explicit in the factors that can be mapped to the direct selling channel. According to it, motivators include responsibilities, supervision, and interpersonal relationships. The broader workforce literature includes the oft cited job demands and resources (JD-R) model which considers these as drivers of experience and performance (Bakker and Demerouti 2007).

There is a long history of investigating the relationship between such factors and salesforce productivity. A recent meta-analysis looked at over 250 published articles from 1986 to 2017 on salesperson performance and created a typology (Herjanto and Franklin 2019). It found that the most principal factors for increasing salesforce performance are personal, organizational, co-worker, buyer, and situational dimensions. An earlier meta-analysis of 116 published and unpublished articles regarding determinants of salesperson performance found, "The results indicate the determinants can be ordered in the following way in terms of the average size of their association with performance: (1) role variables, (2) skill, (3) motivation, (4) personal factors, (5) aptitude, and (6) organizational/environmental factors. (Churchill et al. 1985)" According to the meta-analysis, all of these are moderated by the types of products salespeople sell. The relationship between manager coaching and salesperson performance is also critical (Bolander et al. 2019).

More recent studies have built upon the earlier work of Maslow (1954), Herzberg (1959) and Vroom (1964) to identify determinants and moderators. For example, the findings of a 2018 study highlight that one performance

indicator can be organizational identification when an organization considers the return gained on marketing investment (Finch et al.). Gammoh, Mallin, and Pullins (2014) identify the importance of salesperson-company value congruence, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and outcome performance. Employee engagement is also a key factor with pride of work, career focus, and ownership as significant determinants (Mathews 2010).

Far less studied are the factors that contribute to successful performance of independent sales representatives (contractors). One of the rare studies of independent sales representatives, suggests that examination of theories of attitude and behavior relationships be considered in the creation and testing a scale of independent sales contractor relationship quality (Finch, O'Reilly, and Abeza 2018). The results demonstrate that relationship quality is determined by contractor attitudes and behavioral intentions such as trust, satisfaction, commitment, loyalty, advocacy, and cooperation.

The common thread in this research is that there are multiple internal and external factors which motivate and determine salesforce performance. They primarily include expectations, internal and cognitive factors, and organizational characteristics.

Direct Selling Independent Sales Representative Performance

Direct selling organizations depend on recruiting and retaining top performing independent sales representatives for revenues and growth. Without brick-and-mortar retail stores or wholesalers, the companies rely on representatives as their go-to-market strategy and channel. Therefore, direct selling organizations focus considerable attention on recruiting, motivating, and retaining their independent salesforces. In this channel, no sales experience is required, and recruitment is primarily through the distributor network without the usual screening involved in hiring in-house salespeople. Entry into direct sales has a low entry cost with an average of $199 for a starter kit (Gamse 2016) and companies and other representatives provide training, mentoring, and performance incentives. Moreover, "At the heart of the recruiting strategy for many direct selling firms is a tendency to take on people who appear interested in the product and/or personal selling and then letting them sink or swim. (Crittenden and Crittenden 2004, 41)"

Direct selling organizations have changed to focus more on end customers and foster entrepreneurial cultures while providing greater transparency in the company-distributor-customer dynamic (Fleming 2017). In the October 2017 issue of *Direct Selling News*, the chief operating officer of Total Life Changes points out this marked change in direction stating, "If you lead with the product, you have a chance to make a business out of it. But if you lead with the business opportunity, you might not sell the product. Then you have no business (Fleming 2017, 18)." Traditional perceptual or attitudinal variables – job satisfaction, organizational commitment, unmet expectations, job image, and motivation all matter (Kim and Machanda 2021). Further, research in direct selling suggests that non-pecuniary benefits, personal networks, income, career growth, social recognition, and autonomy all have influence (Coughlan et al. 2016, Wotruba and Tyagi 1992).

Each direct selling organization has its distinctive brand and organizational culture, a set of factors often noted in the literature. They invest sizeable resources on culture and sharing it with their field salespeople. Charismatic company founders often become "heroic" or "legendary" to representatives, being front and center at company meetings and incentive trips and posting routinely on social media. This company culture and the collaborative work styles inherent in direct selling support the networks (Bhattacharya and Mehta 2000; Biggart 1989; Crittenden and Crittenden 2004; Lan 2016; Merrilees and Miller 1999; Sparks and Schenk 2001). In addition, rather than creating a brutally aggressive, competitive sales environment, direct selling firms encourage teamwork, coaching, and mentoring (Biggart 1989). The life of an active representative is interconnected with the brand, the lives of other representatives, and the company itself. In fact, "Committed distributors see their work as a superior way of life that embraces political values, social relations, and religious beliefs. It gives them not a job, but a worldview, a community of like-minded others, and a self-concept (Biggart 1989, 9)." They can easily and inexpensively join and exit the companies, yet they often join for the products and stay for the environment (Coughlan et al. 2016). Early channel research suggests that differences in met expectations explain staying and going. Met expectations and job satisfaction are different and that making realistic expectations is better than overselling (Wotruba and Tyagi 1992).

The factors pertinent to direct selling salesforce success have been examined in several studies. The importance of understanding this information is clear to direct selling organization leaders, as the salesforce is self-employed, giving individual micro-entrepreneurs control over the amount and type of effort expended, while productivity is essential to company performance. Crittenden and Crittenden (2004, 39) note, "Self-employed individuals, these reps are instrumental to their firms' success and growth. Interviews with direct selling executives have helped identify universally applicable sales force success variables: selecting the right individuals, maintain their motivation, developing appropriate skills, and providing high perceived value and supply."

One study suggests that high job satisfaction, high perceptions of the marketing mix, high organizational commitment, and average performance are exhibited by network marketing representatives (Msweli-Mbanga 2001), while another notes that success for direct sellers is directly related to their willingness to commit to performance in the form of building the business (Pratt 2000). A third one found that organizational commitment and customer profile were most strongly related to performance. "This suggests that the extent to which NWM [network marketing] distributors sell to their social networks determine the level of performance they display. The results also show that organisational commitment is a stronger determinant of performance compared to the customer profile. (Merrilees and Miller 1999, 38)." Still others have explored communication and motivation as keys to success (Peterson and Wotruba 1996). Along similar lines another mediating factor that has been explored is internal motivation. Using a three-step regression analysis, researchers found that the entrepreneurial success factors of personal quality, effective management, and family support were partially mediated by internal motivation (Zakaria et al. 2016). In any case, monetary awards are not sufficient incentives (Coughlan et al. 2016; Crittenden and Crittenden 2004).

The factors identified are largely parallel to those for salesforces plus those of entrepreneurs, which is sensible considering direct selling representatives being self-employed micro-entrepreneurs with highly coupled relationships to their direct selling companies.

A Taxonomy Sales Performance Determinants

Taking into consideration the theories and studies discussed here, primarily with the categorizations of Expectancy Theory (Vroom 1964) we have created a taxonomy categorizing and identifying the key potential determinants of direct selling independent representatives' performance which are moderated by demographics such as education, company tenure, and experience. Table 1 illustrates this.

Table 1: Taxonomy of Sales Performance Determinants

Category	Determinant/Factor
Expectancy & Expectations	- Direct sales as a career *(Mathews 2010; Coughlan et al. 2016)* - Long-term supplemental income *(Benzing et al. 2009; Coughlan et al. 2016)* - Get products at a discount *(Coughlan et al. 2016)* - Short-term supplemental income *(Coughlan et al. 2016)* - Work harder will yield more income *(Vroom 1964; Pratt 2000; Coughlan et al. 2016; Li et al. 2021)* - Task characteristics *(Herzberg 1959; Bakker and Demerouti 2007)* - Income earning - part of the reason for joining *(Coughlan et al. 2016; Li et al. 2021)* - Seeking other forms of employment or government assistance as alternative *(Coughlan et al. 2016)* - Recognition *(Vroom 1964; Biggart 1989; Wotruba and Tyagi 1992; Gatewood et al. 2002; Coughlan et al. 2016; Agarwal et al. 2018; Kim and Manchanda 2021)* - Need for achievement *(Biggart 1989; Rauch and Frese 2000; Li et al. 2021)*

	● Alignment with company *(Gammoh et al. 2014, Li et al. 2021)* ● Met expectations *(Vroom 1964; Wotruba and Tyagi 1992; Coughlan et al. 2016; Li et al. 2021)* ● Locus of control *(Rauch and Frese 2000; Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Agarwal et al. 2018; Peterson et al. 2020; Li et al. 2021)*
Network & Social Benefits	● Social benefits – desire to grow networks *(Vroom 1964, Benzing et al. 2009; Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Personal connections *(Herzberg 1959; Cabrera and Mauricio 2017; Li et al. 2021)* ● Closeness of relationship to sponsor (upline) *(Herzberg 1959; Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Bolander et al. 2019)* ● Repeat customers *(Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Family support *(Herzberg 1959; Zakaria et al. 2016; Cabrera and Mauricio 2017; Agarwal et al. 2018)*
Representative Commitment	● Goal commitment *(Wotruba 1992; Merrilees and Miller 1999; Agarwal et al. 2018; Przepiorka 2018; Sorich and Rivera 2018; Li et al. 2021)* ● Number of hours worked inside direct selling *(Vroom 1964; Coughlan et al. 2016; Li et al. 2021)* ● Number of hours worked outside direct selling *(Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Product Use *(Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Sales training time *(Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Sponsoring and recruiting time *(Msweli-Mbanga 2001; Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Risk taking *(Rauch and Frese 2000; Mitchelmore and Rowley 2013; Agarwal et al. 2018; Li et al. 2021)* ● Tenure with company *(Li et al. 2021)*
Organizational Characteristics (DSO)	● Quality products offered by company *(Msweli-Mbanga 2001; Gammoh et al. 2014; Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Properly priced products *(Msweli-Mbanga 2001; Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Range of products *(Msweli-Mbanga 2001; Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Business education *(Hsu et al. 2014; Bakker and Demerouti 2007)* ● Environmental characteristics (organizational identification, leadership consideration) *(Biggart 1989; Bakker and Demerouti 2007, Gammoh et al. 2014; Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Recommendation likelihood *(Merrilees and Miller 1999; Coughlan et al. 2016)* ● Sponsor *(Herzberg 1959; Coughlan et al. 2016; Li et al. 2021)* ● Responsibilities *(Herzberg 1959; Bakker and Demerouti 2007; Li et al. 2021)* ● Challenging work (Herzberg 1959; Bakker and Demerouti 2007)

Methodology

Data Collection and Participants

To answer the research question of what the critical salesforce performance factors for predicting and enhancing independent representative financial performance are, this study uses a proprietary data set of 6,941 individual direct selling independent representatives from firms across a broad range of demographics and levels of experience to create two predictive models of independent sales force performance within the direct selling channel. The total dataset includes 8,714 records, and the sample for this research is a subset of that containing only active sales representatives, ones that answered the question regarding direct selling income and did not answer "don't know" to the question. The survey was distributed by direct selling organizations that are members of the Direct Selling

Association with a total of 122 member companies. The questionnaire collects data about each respondent's potential to spend time for direct selling, gender, ability for finding new customers, motivators to become and remain independent representatives, and a plethora of other topics. JMP Pro (by SAS) installed on a Dell Precision workstation with Intel Xeon 2.6GHz processor, and 256GB RAM is used as data analysis platform. Summary statistics are illustrated in Table 2 with data regarding high performers.

Table 2: Sample Characteristics and Profile (N=6941)

Characteristics	# of reps	% of reps	# of reps with income >=$10K	% of reps with income >=$10K
Age Group				
Under 35	1242	19.64%	143	2.26%
35 to 54	3248	51.37%	597	9.44%
55 or over	1833	28.99%	366	5.79%
Gender				
Male	717	11.34%	248	3.92%
Female	5606	88.66%	858	13.57%
Ethnicity				
Hispanic/Latino	954	15.09%	239	3.78%
Other	5260	83.19%	853	13.49%
Prefer not to answer	109	1.72%	14	0.22%
Race				
American Indian or Alaska Native	99	1.57%	12	0.19%
Asian	180	2.85%	33	0.52%
Black or African American	164	2.59%	18	0.28%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	34	0.54%	8	0.13%
White or Caucasian	5204	82.30%	859	13.59%
Marital Status				
Single, never been married	691	10.93%	69	1.09%
Married	4682	74.05%	885	14.00%
Divorced or separated	750	11.86%	117	1.85%
Widowed	122	1.93%	23	0.36%
Other	78	1.23%	12	0.19%
Education				
Some high school or less	136	2.15%	36	0.57%
High school graduate	1081	17.10%	168	2.66%
An associate of arts degree, trade school or some college	1887	29.84%	283	4.48%
College graduate	1964	31.06%	379	5.99%
Graduate or professional degree	1255	19.85%	240	3.80%
Current Representative Status				

Characteristics	# of reps	% of reps	# of reps with income >=$10K	% of reps with income >=$10K
Represents one direct selling company	5261	83.20%	1017	16.08%
Represent more than one direct selling company	1062	16.80%	89	1.41%
Number of direct selling companies represented				
1	5261	83.20%	1017	16.08%
2	786	12.43%	55	0.87%
3	183	2.89%	19	0.30%
4	67	1.06%	9	0.14%
5 or more	26	0.41%	6	0.09%
Hours spent on direct selling business				
Less than 1 hour per week	769	12.16%	7	0.11%
Between 1-9 hours per week	2871	45.41%	211	3.34%
Between 10-29 hours per week	1947	30.79%	535	8.46%
30 or more hours per week	647	10.23%	352	5.57%
Don't know	89	1.41%	1	0.02%
How long have you represented your company?				
Less than 6 months	751	11.88%	49	0.77%
6 months to less than one year	775	12.26%	51	0.81%
1 year to less than 2 years	1149	18.17%	139	2.20%
2 years to less than 3 years	711	11.24%	83	1.31%
3 to 5 years	1129	17.86%	211	3.34%
6 to 10 years	843	13.33%	228	3.61%
Over 10 years	961	15.20%	345	5.46%
Prefer not to answer	4	0.06%	0	0.00%
Reasons to become an independent representative				
Direct selling is a career for me	1201	18.99%	394	6.23%
Short-term supplemental income	2272	35.93%	402	6.36%
Long-term supplemental income	3070	48.55%	641	10.14%
I get the products at a discount	4033	63.78%	556	8.79%
The harder I work, the more income I can make	2592	40.99%	619	9.79%
It gives me flexibility	3676	58.14%	772	12.21%
I like to tell people about the product	3311	52.36%	588	9.30%
To meet new people/expand my social circle	2434	38.49%	405	6.41%
I get recognition for accomplishments	1581	25.00%	414	6.55%
To help a friend/family member	2033	32.15%	375	5.93%
I want to be my own boss	3262	51.59%	748	11.83%
I had difficulty finding other employment	408	6.45%	89	1.41%
To be part of a supportive team	2260	35.74%	468	7.40%

Characteristics	# of reps	% of reps	# of reps with income >=$10K	% of reps with income >=$10K
Reasons to stay an independent representative				
Direct selling is a career for me	1859	29.40%	702	11.10%
Short-term supplemental income	1837	29.05%	281	4.44%
Long-term supplemental income	3462	54.75%	840	13.28%
I get the products at a discount	4031	63.75%	562	8.89%
The harder I work, the more income I can make	3190	50.45%	836	13.22%
It gives me flexibility	3863	61.09%	912	14.42%
I like to tell people about the product	3809	60.24%	762	12.05%
To meet new people/expand my social circle	2960	46.81%	625	9.88%
I get recognition for accomplishments	2312	36.56%	651	10.30%
To help a friend/family member	2156	34.10%	474	7.50%
I want to be my own boss	3408	53.90%	856	13.54%
I had difficulty finding other employment	399	6.31%	79	1.25%
To be part of a supportive team	3019	47.75%	722	11.42%

Measures and Procedures

This study analyzes the literature and data on direct selling, entrepreneurial motivation, and salesforce motivation. It classifies key factors in motivation and performance and tests them in predictive models. Prior research has employed optimization models for sales force management (Albers 2008), stochastic frontier analysis to infer salesperson capability (Feng and Fay 2016), and factor analysis to improve direct selling systems (Tornillo et al. 2019). A survey article by Albers, Raman, and Lee (2015), points out that if we wish sales-force decision models to be utilized by practicing sales managers, they must be able to have at least some ability to make useful predictions. D'Haen, Van den Poel, and Thorleuchter (2013) used a supervised learning approach and compare logistic regression, decision trees, and bagging to predict the profitability of new customers and assisting sales force acquisition strategies. In our study, we also adopt a supervised learning approach for the task of predicting high-performing direct sellers before and after recruitment. This study considers the data from the *Direct Selling 2018 Salesforce Survey*.

Using supervised learning techniques from among machine learning algorithms, we developed two classification models (i.e., Model I and Model II) to classify high-performing direct sellers before and after the recruitment. Appendixes 2 and 3 show the complete list of variables we analyzed to develop our predictive Models I and II. Through multiple supervised learning techniques, we tested the predictive capability of the variables and their contributions to predictive models. The independent variables with the best predictive contribution are used as predictor variables for high performance in Model I and Model II.

Supervised Learning Techniques

In this study, we use multiple established data mining techniques to develop two classification models to identify the sales performance of direct selling representatives most accurately based on the predictors. Using the supervised learning techniques of Decision Trees, Bootstrap Forest, Boosted Tree, Logistic Regression, Naïve Bayes, K-Nearest Neighbor (see Shmueli et al. 2019 and Appendix 1 Glossary), we test the predictive capability of the variables outlined in Appendixes 2 and 3 and assess the accuracy of resulting models to find the best model and its predictors to assist direct selling organizations in optimizing recruitment, training, performance, and retention.

Evaluation Criterion and Target Response in Supervised Learning

As is standard practice for developing classification models that will classify unseen data (future performance), we randomly divided the survey data into training (75%) and validation (25%) sets. We train the Model on the training data and evaluate the model performance on the validation data. The goal is the minimize the misclassification rate and maximize model accuracy. The misclassification rate over the validation set and the area under the Receiver Operating Characteristic curve (ROC) are used to estimate model accuracy on the future data. The categorical target response in our classification models is based on the variable for annual net income from direct selling after all expenses (NET_INC). Direct sellers answered the question in the survey by choosing one of the predetermined 16 income intervals. In total 82.5% of direct sellers have income below $10,000 and 17.5% are above that threshold. The $10,000 level is a usually accepted income threshold for high-performing direct sellers and serves as our desired output value (supervisory signal). The Pareto principle (i.e., 80-20 rule) can also inspire an analyst to choose $10,000 level as the most appropriate high-performance threshold by assuming that approximately 80% of revenue is generated by approximately 20% high performing direct sellers in the population.

In our classification models, we used the following binary variable as the target response:

$$Above10K = \{1, if\ annual\ net\ income\ from\ direct\ selling\ is\ above\ \$10,000\ 0, otherwise$$

Hereafter, the levels 0 and 1 in the target variable "Above10K" represent low-performing and high-performing direct sellers, respectively. In our analysis, high-performing direct sellers are the target audience. For model stability, it is essential to ensure that the target audience is similarly represented within the training and validation sets. That means there must be a similar Above10K=0 and Above10K=1 ratio in the training and validation data. Using the stratified random method, we balanced the training and validation sets across the levels of Above 10K. Table 3 shows the distribution of survey data across the levels of Above10K.

Table 3: Validation Column across the levels of above 10K

	Above10K=0		Above10K=1	
Validation	**Column %**	**Row %**	**Column %**	**Row %**
Training	75.00%	82.50%	75.05%	17.50%
Validation	25 %	82.53%	24.95%	17.47%

Model I - Predictive Model - Recruits

We implement several supervised learning techniques (i.e., Decision Trees, Logistic Regression, Naïve Bayes, K-Nearest Neighbors, and Bootstrap Forest) to select the best performing model predicting the performance of a direct selling candidate based on variables available before recruitment. The 16 independent variables (plus 14 underlying ones) we tested for model development are listed in Appendix 2. The Model's target variable is the direct seller recruits who are most likely to make more than $10,000 annual net income from their direct selling efforts. Our analysis in this section deduces that the decision (classification) trees with a special profit matrix (associated with the target response) perform best to achieve the best accuracy for the classification of the target audience. Table 4 enables the comparison of overall misclassification rates of the supervised learning techniques we used in our analysis.

Table 4 shows that the boosted tree technique generates the lowest misclassification rate. Another important performance evaluation criterion for classification models is the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC). ROC curve plots sensitivity versus 1-specificity. A high-performing classification model is visually represented by a

ROC curve close to the upper-left corner of the plane. Figure 1 shows the ROC curves for decision tree and boosted tree techniques generated by using validation data.

Table 4: Model Comparison on Validation Data (Measures of Fit for Above10K)

Creator	Entropy RSquare	Generalized RSquare	Mean -Log p	RMSE	Mean Abs Dev	Misclassification Rate	N
Decision Tree	0.2161	0.3004	0.3631	0.3381	0.2202	0.1646	1580
Naïve Bayes	0.1836	0.2589	0.3782	0.3467	0.2239	0.1690	1580
Boosted Tree	**0.2282**	**0.3154**	**0.3575**	**0.33.57**	**0.2275**	**0.1595**	**1580**
Bootstrap Forest	0.1822	0.2571	0.3788	0.3475	0.2403	0.1722	1580
Logistic Regression	0.1956	0.2798	0.3964	0.3556	0.2467	0.1892	1295
K Nearest Neighbors	.	.	.	.	.	0.1684	1580

Figure 1: Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Curve for Above10K=1 on Validation Data
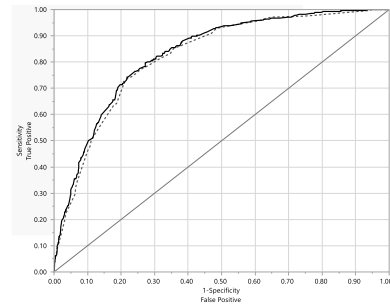
Predictor	AUC
---- Decision Tree	0.8211
___ Boosted Tree	0.8311

The area under the ROC curve is an important measure of the Model's predictive performance. In particular, the closer the ROC curve is to the upper left corner, the higher the Model's overall accuracy. That means a higher Area Under the Curve (AUC) value is the indicator of better accuracy. Table 5 compares supervised learning techniques in AUC values.

Table 5. Area Under the Curve (AUC) Values

Technique	AUC	Std Error	Lower 95%	Upper 95%
Decision Tree	0.8211	0.0130	0.7943	0.8451
Boosted Tree	**0.8311**	**0.0126**	**0.8050**	**0.8543**
Bootstrap Forest	0.7779	0.0135	0.7503	0.8033
Logistic Regression	0.8096	0.0142	0.7801	0.8360
Naive Bayes	0.8161	0.0130	0.7893	0.8401

Tables 4 and Table 5 show that the boosted tree and decision tree techniques generate lower misclassification rates and greater AUC values than other techniques. However, we are more interested in classifying the target level "Above10K=1". Table 6 compares the boosted tree and decision tree in terms of the percentage of the target audience misclassified.

Table 6. Misclassification Rates for the Target Level Above10K=1

Creator	Above10K=1	Correctly classified as Above10K=1	Incorrectly classified as Above 10K=0	Misclassification Rate at the level Above10K=1
Decision Tree	**276**	**62**	**214**	**0.7754**
Boosted Tree	276	53	223	0.8079

Considering the better target level misclassification rate, we conclude that the best-performing model is the decision tree. Another advantage of the decision tree trees is that leaf reports and trees created by classification trees are easy to understand and deploy. Hereafter we shall call this decision tree model *I*. Table 6 shows the misclassification rates that enable the comparison of models. Table 7 lists the dependent variables that contribute most to the Model I's predictive capability, include hours spent selling per week, the number of potential new customers solicited, focus on direct selling as a career, gender, availability of product discounts, expansion of social network, and long-term supplemental income plans.

Table 7: Model I-Variable Contributions for Partition (Classification Trees)

Variable	Survey Question/Predetermined Response	Number of Splits	$G^2(*)$	Portion
HOURS_DS	How many hours per week do/did you spend on your direct selling business?	6	789.1447	0.6744
ATTEMPT_SELL	In a typical month, how many new potential customers do you attempt to sell to?	9	153.5405	0.1312
CAREER	Direct selling is a career for me	6	71.2069	0.0609

Variable	Survey Question/Predetermined Response	Number of Splits	G^2(*)	Portion
GENDER	Please indicate your gender.	6	51.2537	0.0438
DISCOUNT	I get the products at a discount	6	37.5171	0.0321
SOCIAL	To meet new people/expand my social circle	4	35.9346	0.0307
SUPP_INC	Long-term supplemental income	9	31.487	0.0269

(*) G2 (likelihood-ratio chi-square) in the report is twice the [natural log] entropy or twice the change in the entropy. The highest G2 value is used as a splitting criterion in classification trees. The portion column shows the proportion of G2 or the sum of squares attributed to the variable (i.e., proportion column shows the contribution of the variable to the model)

Obviously, the overall misclassification rate of Model I is better than the "no model" approach, its classification accuracy for the target level "Above10K=1" is 22.5%. In our comparative analysis (i.e., sensitivity vs. 1-specificity), we concluded that the probability threshold 0.2 with the profit matrix, given in Table 8 maximizes the accuracy of the model for the target level.

Table 8: Specified Profit Matrix for Model I

	Decision	
Actual	**1**	**0**
1	0	-1
0	-0.25	0

The Model I associated with the specified profit matrix in Table 9, and a specified probability threshold of 0.2 correctly classifies 78% of validation data at the target level "Above10K=1". Table 9 gives the Model's overall and target level classification accuracies before and after the use of the profit matrix.

Table 9: Comparison of Class level classification accuracy and overall classification accuracy of CART over the validation set

	Classification Accuracy for Target Level (Above10K=1)	Overall Classification Accuracy
Before Profit Matrix	22.5%	83.6%

After Profit Matrix	77.9%	77.4%

Figure 2. Lift Curve on Validation Data (Performance Improvement Applying Model I)
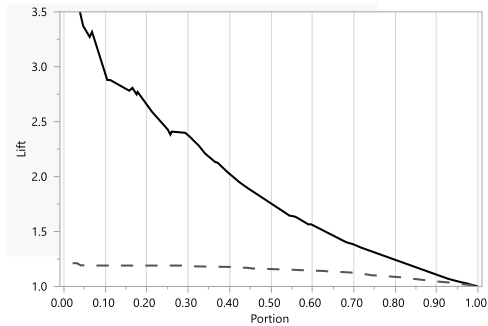
Above_10K
— 1
--- 0

We can consider the lift curve in Figure 2 as another graphic representation of model's predictive performance. The lift, in other words, the altitude of the solid curve corresponding to the target audience in Figure 2 at the portion 0.20 is almost 2.5. One may interpret these values as follows: suppose a direct selling company uses this classification model to select the top 20% new representatives who are predicted to be most likely to make more than $10,000 annual income from direct selling. In that case, the company will get 2.5 more target level candidates than "no model baseline".

Model 2: Classification Model-After Recruitment

In this section, we develop a predictive model and identify the most influential factors for the financial success of the current (active) direct sellers using variables that can be available only after the recruitment. The 35 independent variables (plus detailed underlying ones) tested in this section are listed in Appendix 3. Again, the indicator column Above10K is the target response of our analysis. Finally, the supervised learning techniques used in our analysis are listed and compared to each other in Table 10. The model's accuracy estimate is based on the misclassification rate over the validation set.

Table 10: Model Comparison on Validation Data (Measures of Fit for Above10K)

Creator	Entropy RSquare	Generalized RSquare	Mean -Log p	RMSE	Mean Abs Dev	Misclassification Rate	N
Boosted Tree	**0.4004**	**0.5131**	**0.2777**	**0.2903**	**0.1761**	**0.1184**	**1580**
Bootstrap Forest	**0.4110**	**0.5243**	**0.2728**	**0.2876**	**0.1741**	**0.1165**	**1580**
Decision Tree	0.3290	0.4349	0.3108	0.3053	0.1734	0.1234	1580
Logistic Regression	0.3640	0.5014	0.3681	0.3410	0.2209	0.1596	727
Naive Bayes	-0.396	-0.827	0.7785	0.3799	0.2018	0.1768	871

Table 10 shows that the Bootstrap Forest and Boosted Tree techniques generate the lowest misclassification rates. Table 11 includes the Area Under the Curve column that compares supervised learning techniques in AUC values.

Table 11: Area Under the Curve (AUC) Values

Techniques	AUC	Std Error	Lower 95%	Upper 95%
Logistic Regression	0.8892	0.0133	0.8602	0.9128
Naive Bayes	0.8747	0.0132	0.8465	0.8984
Bootstrap Forest	**0.9114**	**0.0096**	**0.8907**	**0.9286**
Decision Tree	0.8779	0.0115	0.8536	0.8987
Boosted Tree	0.9091	0.0099	0.8878	0.9266

Tables 10 and 11 show that Bootstrap Forest performs best on the validation data. Hereafter, we shall call this Bootstrap Model *II*. Our column contribution analysis for Model II shows that the variables listed in Table 12 are most significant to obtain the best accuracy with classification trees.

Table 12: Model II Variables and Contributions for Partition (Classification Trees)

Variable	Survey Question	Number of Splits	G^2	Portion
DOWNLINE	q55: What is the total number of independent representatives in your downline?	2214	391.8158	0.2493

Variable	Survey Question	Number of Splits	G^2	Portion
HOURS_DS	q13: how many hours per week do/did you spend on your direct selling business?	1504	216.9524	0.1380
SALESQUAL	q14r4: I have developed a sales team of my own - Please answer the questions below based on your current direct selling experience.	546	176.9932	0.1126
TENURE	q19: How long have you represented your company?	2029	130.2316	0.0828
SALESTYPE	q38r1: Sales to your customers - Of all the orders you place per month, what percentage are:	1952	128.7537	0.0819
SATIS_DS	q21: How do you rate your actual experience in direct selling? Has it been...?	1389	124.1606	0.0790
MET_EXPECT	q20: Now, please think about your expectations when you started direct selling. Has your experience...	1116	90.3898	0.0575
VIDEOCONF	q65r5: I use Zoom, Skype, Google Hangouts (or other video conferencing) for business	1184	69.4189	0.0442
CAREER	q23r1c2: Direct selling is a career for me	1072	67.2371	0.0428
INC_SATIS	q78: How satisfied are you with the amount of money earned for the amount of time you spend on your direct selling business?	1303	62.7765	0.0399
SUCCESS_RCRT	q52: In a typical month, how many people do you SUCCESSFULLY recruit?	958	45.0898	0.0287
AGE_GR	Age Group	1550	39.6218	0.0252
LATINX	q16 (Ethnicity): Are you of Hispanic or Latino origin?	858	28.5079	0.0181

Model II has the classification accuracy rate of 50.4% for the target level "Above10K=1" in the validation set. It is natural to assume that the profit of the correct classification of the target audience (i.e., Above10K=1) is greater than the correct classification of low-performing direct sellers (i.e., Above10K=1). In this case, one may consider using a specified profit matrix to assign costs to undesirable outcomes and profits to desirable outcomes. Therefore, to improve the classification accuracy for the target level, we use the probability threshold 0.2 with the profit matrix, given in Table 13.

Table 13: Specified Profit Matrix for Model II

	Decision	
Actual	**1**	**0**
1	0	-1
0	-0.25	0

Model II associated with the specified profit matrix in Table 13 provides a better classification accuracy for the target level Above10K=1 without losing too much overall classification accuracy. Table 14 compares target level accuracy and overall accuracy before and after usage of the profit matrix.

Table 14: Comparison of target level classification accuracy and overall classification accuracy over the validation set

	Target Level (Above10K=1) Accuracy	Overall Accuracy
Before Profit Matrix	50.4%	88.3%
After Profit Matrix	84.1%	83.5%

Results

Assessing influential factors for the financial success, a better experience management, or an efficient use of resources in direct selling companies is of vital importance. In this study, using a data set of 6,941 individual direct selling independent representatives from firms across a broad range of demographics and levels of experience, we developed two predictive models that can be used before and after recruitment of direct sellers to predict sales performance.

Predictive Model-I depends on data (variables) potentially available before and at recruitment. Based on these variables, Predictive Model-I can generate the probability that a new candidate belongs to the target audience of direct sellers who can generate more than $10,000 net annual income from a direct selling business. The most crucial factors include:

- Hours to spend selling per week (commitment)
- Number of potential new customers solicited (commitment)
- Focus on direct selling as a career (expectancy)
- Gender (demographic)
- Discounted products (organization)
- Expansion of social network (expectancy)
- Long-term supplemental income (expectancy)

It was found that deployment of the Predictive Model-I on a new population can correctly classify almost 78% candidates who can generate $10,000 annual net income from direct selling. This can help direct selling companies identify and recruit the most productive candidates in each population.

Another interesting problem is how to optimally use a given capacity or resource to choose the best audience including the maximum number of most productive direct selling candidates. In Figure 2, we show that if a direct selling company uses Predictive Model I to select the top 20% new representatives who are predicted to be most likely to generate more than $10,000 annual net income from direct selling, the company will get 2.5 more number of productive candidates than "no model baseline". Here no model base line is basically classifying everybody as belonging to majority class (e.g., not likely to make more than $10K) in the historical data. While direct selling organizations do not screen recruits, they could use this data to determine the best prospects and design recruitment and support systems to optimize performance, as well as creating adaptive learning systems to support incoming recruits.

In Predictive Model II, by using data or variables available only after recruitment of a representative, we calculate the likelihood of financial success, defined as generating more than $10,000 annual net income from the direct selling business. In this case, the critical factors are:

- Downline size (network)
- Hours spent selling per week (commitment)
- Sales team experience (expectancy)
- Time with the company (commitment)
- Mixture of sales to customers and for self-consumption (network)
- Satisfaction with direct selling experience (expectancy)
- Met expectations (expectancy)
- Use of videoconferencing (networks)
- Focus on direct selling as a career (expectancy)
- Number of successful recruitment efforts (network)
- Age group (demographics)
- Ethnicity – Latinx (demographics)

This can assist companies in focusing on the business factors that can significantly contribute maximum financial success of direct selling representatives, thereby fostering their companies' success. By using a Bootstrap Forest technique associated with a specified profit matrix, we show that Predictive Model-II can correctly classify 84% of representatives who are more likely to generate more than $10,000 a year. Specific organizational training and support can be developed based upon this knowledge.

Limitations include lack of data about company (e.g., number of direct sellers, revenue) and products (price interval, units sold), and variables with excessive missing data.

Discussion

This study sought to address the essential questions for direct selling organizations of how to predict the financial success of independent representatives at recruitment and how to best foster sales performance for current representatives. The literature in sales force management entrepreneurship is robust in motivations, intentions, and competencies. However, it is thin with respect to entrepreneurial performance and predictive models for independent salesforces. By considering the performance of independent sales representatives building their own organizations in direct selling, we bring a new lens into this gap in the literature and value to direct selling organizations and sellers alike.

This research consists of a review of factors that impact entry and continuation decisions of the top and bottom performing independent direct sellers in U.S. direct selling organizations. Recent evidence shows that there are multiple factors at play simultaneously. More specifically, we find that the intersection of direct selling, firm environment, personal and motivational factors, and entrepreneurial culture are critical in the sales performance. Our central contribution is the development of two predictive models of sales performance. The framework developed advances motivational theory and predictive modeling.

Interestingly, the results suggest that predictors of independent salesforce performance for direct selling representatives align in some ways with those expected from the literature on salesforce performance and entrepreneurial motivation but diverge in other ways. The distinctive aspects of the contractual relationship between companies and representatives as well the roles of independent sales representatives in recruitment, training, and other aspects traditionally managed by companies with internal sales teams, combine to create novel factors for performance. For example, performance of recruits was more dependent upon commitment of time and expectations regarding their roles and performance than on company factors and demographics. This aligns more with Expectancy Theory than Herzberg's Two Factory Theory or the JD-R model. It suggests that direct selling organizations should focus on recruiting sellers that are willing to commit time and efforts with the goal of a career, long-term supplemental income, and expansion of their networks.

On the other hand, performance of sellers once engaged includes more engagement factors such as recruitment of downlines (perhaps because of the recruitment interest in expanding networks), use of devices and technology, and satisfaction with direct selling and met expectations. This means that the direct selling organizations

have critical responsibilities in the retention and growth of their independent sales representatives. Ensuring the establishment of realistic and attainable expectations and the creation of an environment that fosters satisfaction with the channel is essential. Again, this aligns with Expectancy Theory. Surprisingly, less weight is given to upline support and organizational factors. In addition, the significance of age and ethnicity warrant further investigation.

Study outcomes demonstrate a need for testing the predictive model in action and for additional research on the motivation of sales professionals in entrepreneurial firms where they are independent representatives. They also suggest that the findings cannot be generalized to all independent sales representatives and other gig workers, and the additional research and testing is needed. Particularly useful would be running the same supervised learning analytics on individual company data. However, considering Peterson's (2019, 7) recommendation, "Given the many different reasons why individuals join a direct selling company, direct selling companies might consider screening (perhaps by a straightforward questionnaire) potential independent contractors on the bases of the number and type of reasons they give for wanting to be direct sellers as well as accounting for different demographic segments," this study is a leap forward for direct selling organizations.

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Appendix 1 – Glossary

Bootstrap Forest - A statistical technique that may be used when a single tree may not provide good predictive performance. Combining results from multiple trees can improve the performance. Bootstrap Forest (or random forests) is an ensemble version of decision trees. The idea is based on drawing random samples from the training data, developing multiple trees, and obtaining a final model as an average of all the trees.

Boosted Tree - Is based on creating a large tree by summing individual smaller decision trees, called layers. Boosting is an iterative procedure that starts by fitting a small tree to data with a random sample of predictors. The Model calculates the scaled residuals from this initial tree. In each iteration, a new simple tree is fit to these scaled residuals calculated in the previous step. The process continues until a predetermined number of layers are created. The final boosted Model is the sum of the models for the individual trees.

Decision Trees (Classification and Regression Trees) - Are created by splitting the dataset into subsets using the levels of the independent variable. In each split, the idea is to achieve maximum homogeneity within the new subsets. In other words, the purpose is to split the data set into two subsets with the greatest dissimilarity. In the literature, there are several impurity measures for splitting, including Gini Index and Entropy Measure. The Decision Tree platform in JMP PRO uses a dissimilarity measure called G^2 as a criterion for choosing the best split. The growth of the decision tree (i.e., splitting) stops when the maximum R-Square value is achieved on the validation data.

Direct Selling Organization - A company that markets products and services directly to consumers through an independent, entrepreneurial salesforce.

Downline Distributors - Used in multi-level marketing to identify direct sellers that an individual has recruited or those recruited subsequently by these recruits. Their efforts result in income for the initial recruiter. Generally, direct selling companies limit the number of layers (generations) of downline representatives that generate revenue for any individual independent representatives.

K-Nearest Neighborhood - Is a data-driven technique that makes no assumptions about the data. For a given record to be classified, K-Nearest Neighborhood identifies nearby records and classifies the given record as the predominant class among the nearby records. The Euclidean metric is used to calculate the distances between the record to be classified and existing records.

Logistic Regression - Is a model-driven technique that extends the idea of linear regression to the case in which the dependent variable (target response) is categorical. This technique calculates probabilities for all target response levels and assigns the record to the level (class) with the maximum probability. The logistic response function used in probability calculations is given as follows: $F(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-(\beta_0+\beta_1 x_1+\beta_2 x_2+...\beta_r x_r)}}$
where $\beta_i, \ i = 1,2,...,r$, are constants and $x_i, \ i = 1,2,...,r$, are predictors.

Naïve Bayes - Is a data-driven technique that makes no assumptions about the data. Naïve Bayes assumes the independence of predictor variables within each class of target response. This is called the Naïve Assumption. For a given record to be classified, Naïve Bayes calculates the probability of sharing the same predictor variables across all records of each class of target response. The given record is classified by comparing the class probabilities to the cutoff score.

Sponsor - A direct selling independent representative that recruits an additional representative is called a "sponsor."

Supervised Learning Algorithms - A subset of machine learning algorithms design to determine, based on training an algorithm, which function best describes the input data to estimate a result. The input and output variables are known, and the computer learns patters. When the relationships and dependencies are modeled, output values for new data can be predicted.

Upline - The sponsor and sponsors preceding them in higher levels of a multi-level marketing company. The upline receives a percentage of sales.

Appendix 2 – Independent Variables for Recruits

Variable	Type	Survey Question	Category
STATE	Nominal	q1: In which state or U.S. territory do you reside?	Demographic
DIV	Nominal	Division (1-10)	Demographic
REGION	Nominal	Region (1-5)	Demographic
AGE_GR	Nominal	Age Group (Under 35, 35 to 54, 55+)	Demographic
GENDER	Nominal	q3: Please indicate your gender (Male/Female)	Demographic
STATUS	Nominal	q4: Are you currently an independent representative for any direct selling company? (Yes/No)	Demographic
HOURS_DS	Nominal	q13: How many hours per week do/did you spend on your direct selling business?	Commitment
LATINX	Nominal	q16 (Ethnicity): Are you of Hispanic or Latino origin? (Yes/No)	Demographic
RACE	Nominal	q17: Which one of the following best describes your race? (6 options)	Demographic
REASONS_BECOME	Nominal	q23c1: Reasons to become independent rep (There are 14 predetermined reasons. There reasons are defined as binary variables Q23C1-R1- Q23C1-R14)	Expectancy
ATTEMPT_SELL	Numeric	q31: In a typical month, how many new potential customers do you attempt to sell to?	Commitment
DEVICES	Nominal	q64: Do you use any of the following devices for your business? etc. (6 Categories)	Network
OL_PLATFORMS	Nominal	q65: Do you use any of the following online platforms for your business? etc. (10 categories)	Network
HOURS_NOTDS	Numeric	q67: Excluding time for all direct selling work, how many other hours, if any, do you work for pay in a typical week?	Commitment
MAR_STAT	Nominal	q70: Marital Status	Demographic
CHILDRENU18	Nominal	q71: How many children under age 18 are present in your household? (5 categories)	Demographic
EDUCATION	Nominal	q73: What is the highest level of education you were able to complete? (5 categories)	Demographic

Appendix 3 – Independent Variables for Active Representatives

Variable	Type	Survey Question	Category
AGE_GR	Nominal	Age Group (Under 35, 35 to 54, 55 or over)	Demographic
GENDER	Nominal	q3: Please indicate your gender (M/F)	Demographic
STATUS	Nominal	q4: Are you currently an independent representative for any direct selling company? (Yes/No)	Demographic
N_COMP	Nominal	q5: How many direct selling companies do you represent? (1-5 or more)	Commitment
HOURS_DS	Nominal	q13: How many hours per week do/did you spend on your direct selling business?	Commitment
DS_ACTIVS	Nominal	q14: Please answer the questions below based on your current direct selling experience (purchased/used/re-sold products in the past 12 months or developed a sales team of your own)	Commitment
LATINX	Nominal	q16 (Ethnicity): Are you of Hispanic or Latino origin? (Yes/No)	Demographic
RACE	Nominal	q17 (Race): Which one of the following best describes your race? (6 options)	Demographic
TENURE	Nominal	q19: How long have you represented your company? (6months to 10 years or more)	Comm
MET_EXPECT	Ordinal	q20: Now, please think about your expectations when you started direct selling. Has your experience met your expectations? (Scale 1-3)	Expectancy
SATIS-DS	Ordinal	q21: How do you rate your actual experience in direct selling? Has it been...? (Scale 1-5)	Expectancy
PROD_USE	Nominal	q22: Did you use products before selling? (Yes/No)	Commitment
STAY-DS	Nominal	q23c2: Reasons to stay independent rep (There are 14 predetermined reasons. There reasons are defined as binary variables Q23C2-R1- Q23C2-R14)	Commitment
SATIS_CO	Nominal	q24: Thinking about the company you represent (not your upline/sponsor), how much do you agree with each of the following statements about it? Please use a 1-to-5 scale, where "1" means you don't agree with etc.	Commitment
SATIS_UPLINE	Ordinal	q25: Now, thinking about your sponsor and/or upline, how much do you agree with each of the following statements about them? Please use a 1-to-5 scale, where "1" means you don't agree with the statement at all etc. (13 reasons to scale 1-5)	Network

Variable	Type	Survey Question	Category
SATIS-TRNG	Ordinal	q26: Your COMPANY on the training and support it provides overall. Now please rate both your company and your sponsor or upline overall on the training and support they provide (Scale 1-5)	Organization
CUST_CONTACT	Nominal	q29: Who do you approach to find new customers? etc. (8 options)	Network
ATTEMP_SELL	Numeric	q31: In a typical month, how many new potential customers do you attempt to sell to?	Commitment
NOREPEAT	Numeric	q33: On average, what percent of your customers buy just once, but never again (meaning they are not a repeat customer)?	Network
EFFECT_SELF	Nominal	q36: Please rate the effectiveness of how you sell on a 1-to-5 scale, where "1" means "NOT AT ALL EFFECTIVE" and "5" means "VERY EFFECTIVE." If do you not use the location or tool, simply select "DO NOT USE".	Expectancy
DSO_CUST_HELP	Nominal	q37: Please rate each of the items on how effective they are in helping you retain customers on a 1-to-5 scale, where "1" means "NOT AT ALL EFFECTIVE" and "5" means "VERY EFFECTIVE." If you do not use the tool, simply select "DO NOT USE". (Scale 1-5)	Organization
ORDER_MIX	Numeric	q38: Of all the orders you place per month, what percentage are: Products for you (or your household) or Sales to your Customers	Network
INC_DOWNLINE	Nominal	q48: In your company, are you compensated only on your own sales, or do you also receive compensation based on the sales of those downline from you? (2 categories)	Organization
EVER_RCRT	Nominal	q49: Now, thinking about recruiting, did you attempt to recruit anyone to become an independent representative in the last year? (Yes/No)	Commitment
ATTEMPT_RCRT	Numeric	q51: In a typical month, about how many people in total do you ATTEMPT to recruit?	Commitment
SUCCESS_RCRT	Numeric	q52: In a typical month, how many people do you SUCCESSFULLY recruit?	Network
SOURCE_RCRT	Nominal	q53: Who do you recruit? etc. (9 options)	Network
DOWNLINE_SIZE	Numeric	q55: What is the total number of independent representatives in your downline?	Network

Variable	Type	Survey Question	Category
DEVICES	Nominal	q64: Do you use any of the following devices for your business? etc. (6 Categories)	Network
OL_PLATFORMS	Nominal	q65: Do you use any of the following online platforms for your business? etc. (10 cats.)	Network
HOURS_NOTDS	Numeric	q67: Excluding time for all direct selling work, how many other hours, if any, do you work for pay in a typical week?	Commitment
MAR_STAT	Nominal	q70: Marital Status	Demographics
CHILDRENU18	Nominal	q71: How many children under age 18 are present in your household? (5 categories)	Demographics
EDUCATION	Nominal	q73: What is the highest level of education you were able to complete? (5 categories)	Demographics
INC_SATIS	Ordinal	q78: How satisfied are you with the amount of money earned for the amount of time you spend on your direct selling business? (Scale 1-5)	Expectancy

Summary Brief
Strategic analytics of inclusionary zoning policies

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This paper discusses the key effectiveness and impact indicators of inclusionary zoning policies and their effect on sustainable development and homelessness in the United States. Inclusionary zoning represents the primary relevant policy approach to evaluating specific affordable housing strategies in a socially responsible development context. Improving metrics and analytics of policy provision in zone development services would allow marketers, policy makers, and service providers to improve their strategies for diverse regional communities more effectively. The results of our exploratory and confirmatory regression analysis show that the effects of an inclusionary zoning policy contribute to a reduction in overall homelessness.

Introduction

Public organizations, non-profits, and businesses are increasingly interested in formulating possible solutions to manage the shortage of affordable housing in the U.S. through policy approaches and stakeholder collaboration. This project focuses on the metrics and indicators of the approach to sustainable development and social responsibility based on affordable housing offered by inclusionary zoning and its relationship to homelessness (Dawkins, Jeon, and Knaap 2017). Currently, there is a relative lack of metrics evaluating the effectiveness of inclusionary zoning, public and private policies, and their effects on homelessness (Dawkins, Jeon, and Knaap, 2017). We evaluate and compare measurements of the overall homeless populations in regions with affordable housing policies against regions without them, based on data from the Department of Housing and Urban Development's (HUD) annual Point-in-Time (PIT) count in comparison with treatment data extracted from the Inclusionary Zoning Database.

Background

Many regions in the country have a significant affordable housing shortage, made worse by preventative protest the implementation of affordable housing measures by real estate and housing lobbyists, despite a slowly emerging body of research suggesting the alleviative effect of affordable housing policies on homeless populations (Stabrowski 2015). As a response to the housing crisis and the concurrent increase in wealth disparities, many communities have instituted affordable housing policies amongst other preventative and palliative policies to combat the rise in homelessness, economic inequality, and social stratification (Dawkins, Jeon, and Knaap 2017).

Housing First is an approach to affordable housing that postulates that offering housing as a primary intervention is the most efficient and effective method of harm-reduction for homeless families and individuals (Tsemberis, Gulcur, and Nakae, 2004). Inclusionary zoning is another essential tool used to incentivize the creation of affordable housing defined by specific programmatic parameters that determine the nature and scope of any given inclusionary zoning policy. In the U.S., inclusionary zoning policies are usually encouraged with planning bonuses, like density increases, and concessions, like reduced fees (Gurran and Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute, 2008).

To approach the research questions of this project, we sought to measure the effect of voluntary and mandatory inclusionary zoning policies on homeless populations across the U.S. using data measuring the years 2007 to 2019. Using the combined HUD PIT counts from 2007 to 2019 to compare homelessness by continuum of care (CoC), we excluded all measures of homelessness except for overall homeless, which we determined to be the most efficacious and pertinent measure of homelessness across time for the purposes of this project.

We merged the treatment dataset containing 39 unique observations with the panel dataset of homeless counts by continuum of care containing 5,108 unique observations to form one complete dataset with several pertinent variables. We then performed a regression analysis on the new binary variables to determine how long the treatment has been in effect against the dummy variables for continuum of care and homelessness and to evaluate the key metrics that can be used for this strategic approach.

Key Findings

This paper conducts several econometric tests to measure the relative effect of different inclusionary zoning policies on homelessness in CoCs nationwide and to formulate the key performance indicators to be used in evaluating this strategy. The first test run measured overall homelessness against any type of inclusionary zoning policy. This test showed an increase in overall homelessness in response to inclusionary zoning policies relative to our set of controls. We then ran two additional differences tests to measure the relative effects of voluntary versus mandatory inclusionary zoning policies on homelessness. Testing voluntary inclusionary zoning policies against homelessness showed a relatively insignificant increase in homelessness, while testing mandatory inclusionary zoning policies showed a significant increase in homelessness.

By regressing pre and post-treatment groups on overall homelessness, we were able to measure the effect of inclusionary zoning policies on homelessness in CoCs in terms of the duration of time each policy had been in effect. We then took the natural log of the dependent variable, overall homelessness, as a robustness correction and regressed the new variable, the natural logarithm of overall homeless, on the pre and post-treatment groups along with a cluster correction for CoC. This process allowed us to isolate the differential effects of inclusionary zoning policies on overall homelessness in CoCs across the nation relative to the time elapsed since treatment. These results indicate that while any generic type of inclusionary zoning policy will influence overall homelessness, inclusionary zoning policies have an immediate downward effect on overall homelessness in treated groups relative to corresponding changes in the controls, which intensifies each year following policy implementation. The results emphasize the key input, output, and process metrics that can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of zoning policies, as well as potential areas of co-creation for public and private stakeholders, including non-profit and business organizations.

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SESSION 15C: PROMOTION EFFECTIVENESS

CHAIR:

Binay Kumar

Summary Brief
Creativity is in the mind of the beholder: Hail the analytic thinker

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Creativity is a subjective judgment that depends on the stimulus, the perceiver, and other external factors. Despite the fact that judgments of creativity can vary even among copywriters and art directors, little research has explored the impact of individual differences on perceptions of creativity. In this research, we examine the impact of thinking style of creativity judgments. Three studies support that analytic thinking increases creativity assessments. Implications for how marketers can maximize their creativity investments are discussed.

Introduction

Research shows that advertising creativity enhances consumer responses such as attitude towards the brand, and purchase intentions (e.g., Yang & Smith, 2009) and differentiates consumer experience and increases return on investment for advertisers (Forrester, 2019). Yet, management resources such as time, energy, and human capital are needed to design a creative advertisement (Benoit & Miller, 2019). Also, creativity is not an inherent quality of a stimulus – it is a judgment that depends on how one perceives or interprets the stimulus and it is impacted by the stimulus itself as well as other external factors. For example, the positive impact of creativity depends on consumers' involvement and familiarity with the product, as well as type of consumption (utilitarian vs. hedonic) and advertisement claim set-size (Benoit & Miller, 2019; Rosengren et al., 2020). However, little research has explored the impact of individual differences on perceptions of creativity. In this research, we discuss and across three studies show that analytic thinking leads to higher creativity perceptions than holistic thinking.

Background

A creative advertisement is usually defined as an advertisement that is both novel and meaningful (e.g., Rosengren et al., 2020). However, while ad novelty and meaningfulness have an interaction effect, and novelty has a main effect on creativity perception, meaningfulness does not predict creativity assessments alone (Lehnert et al., 2014; Smith & Yang, 2004; Smith et al., 2007). Thus, ability to notice novelty is more critical to assessing creativity than the ability to recognize meaning.

According to the dual processing model, individuals tend to be either more of analytic/systematic or holistic/heuristic processors (e.g., McElroy & Seta, 2003). While holistic thinkers focus on the whole picture rather than the components constituting it, analytic thinkers focus on attributes of the components (e.g., Nisbett et al., 2001). Holistic thinkers make inferences without elaboration of the individual parts, while analytic thinkers apply more effortful and systematic processing of the individual parts in detail (Choi et al., 2007; McElroy & Seta, 2003). In addition, analytic thinking enhances creative thoughts since analytic thinkers are more likely to put the effort for connecting distant concepts (Pennycook et al., 2015). They also evaluate information piece-by-piece and combine them together to evaluate the overall situation (Yang et al., 2019). Hence, they pay more attention to details and stay focused longer; leading them to do better at focused-attention tasks (Lee et al., 2021).

Creative advertisements are harder to understand and ask for more extensive processing and effort than uncreative ads since they do not deliver the message directly (Simola et al., 2020). In order to notice the creativity in a creative advertisement, individuals need to notice the novel elements of the ad, and integrate those unexpected details for an overall meaning (Benoit & Miller, 2022). Accordingly, since analytic thinking leads consumers to focus more on details and process elements in a piece-by-piece manner, consumers should be more likely to notice the novel pieces in a creative advertisement leading to increased creativity perceptions (H).

Key Findings

We support our hypothesis across three studies. The studies use different operationalizations of thinking style (measured and manipulated) to enhance internal validity (Campbell & Fiske, 1959), different manipulations of

thinking style for construct validity, and different advertisements and product categories (juice, coffee) for external validity. Further, we show that level of creativity moderates this effect, such that thinking style only affects perceived creativity when there are elements within the ad that can be judged as creative. This research contributes to theory and practice by presenting a new individual factor (analytic thinking) that positively influences the perception/assessment of the creativity construct.

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Summary Brief

Religious Ad Appeals in For-Profit vs. Nonprofit Marketing: Divine or Demonish?

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As nonprofit marketers strive to uncover effective alternatives to fear appeals, the current work examines the effectiveness of one possible alternative: the religious appeal, which seeks to motivate individuals to purchase the product (or donate to the cause) based on the premise that doing so would please God. The under-investigated religious appeal has seen a renewed interest in political campaigns and in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. Congruity theory supports the notion that religious (versus non-religious) appeals should be more effective in creating favorable attitude-toward-the-ad, attitude-toward-the-brand, and purchase intentions for nonprofit ("non-commercial") than for commercial brands. In addition, congruity theory supports the notion that religious (versus non-religious) appeals should be more effective in creating favorable attitude-toward-the-ad, attitude-toward-the-brand, and purchase intentions for morally-charged than for morally-neutral non-commercial brands. Two studies were conducted. While the proposed hypotheses were not fully supported, in one study type of ad appeal (non-religious/religious) had a main effect on all three dependent variables, such that non-religious appeals resulted in more positive attitudes and behavioral intentions. Type of brand (non-commercial/commercial) had a main effect only on attitude toward the brand, such that non-commercial brands were associated with more favorable attitudes.

Introduction

Nonprofit marketers have traditionally relied on fear appeals in their advertising (Bennett & Sargeant 2003; Hastings, Stead, & Webb 2004). Research suggests, however, that fear appeals are not only often ineffective in influencing attitudes and behaviors, but may serve to discredit the ad sponsor (Hastings et al. 2004, Yang 2018). Nonprofit marketers are thus keen to find effective alternatives to fear appeals. One type of appeal that they have yet to consider widely is the religious appeal—an advertising appeal that seeks to motivate the consumer to purchase a product or support a cause based on the premise that doing so is religiously-desirable, or would please God.

Religious advertising appeals and themes have received little attention in both the mainstream and the nonprofit marketing literatures. Fortunately, there has been a renewed interest in the topic in light of its use in the contexts of COVID-19 and political campaigns (Bradberry 2016; La Ferle, Muralidharan, & Roth-Cohen 2022). The current work investigates the effectiveness of religious advertising appeals, relative to non-religious ones, in influencing attitude-toward-the-ad, attitude-toward-the-brand, and purchase/donation intentions, for different types of brands. Specifically, the aim is to answer the questions: (1) What is the effect of the use of religious (versus non-religious) advertising appeals on a.) attitude-toward-the-ad, b.) attitude-toward-the-brand, and c.) purchase intentions, for nonprofit (or "non-commercial") brands relative to commercial brands?, and (2) What is the effect of the use of religious (vs. non-religious) advertising appeals on a.) attitude-toward-the-ad, b.) attitude-toward-the-brand, and c.) purchase intentions for non-commercial brands that have moral implications ("morally-charged" brands) relative to ones that do not ("morally-neutral" brands)?

Conceptual Background

Congruity theory (Osgood & Tannenbaum 1955) posits that individuals seek to achieve cognitive consistency among their thoughts. An ad which employs an appeal that is congruent with the type of product being advertised is thus likely to be more effective in terms of attitude change than one where the appeal and the product are incongruent.

The advertising literature provides conceptual and empirical support for this notion. Johar and Sirgy (1991), for example, propose a model whereby value-expressive (image-related) advertising appeals are more effective for value-expressive products, whereas utilitarian (functional) appeals are more effective for utilitarian products. Empirical studies also support the importance of the congruence between the type of ad appeal and various aspects of the advertised product. For example, Zhang and Neelankavil (1997) found that the effects of individualistic versus collectivist advertising appeals on attitudes and product choice varied based on whether the product was to be used publicly or privately. By the same logic, one would expect religious appeals to be more effective relative to non-religious appeals for non-commercial than for commercial products, for two reasons. First, non-commercial brands evoke values that are congruent with those evoked by religion. For example, religion has a strong and persistent cultural association with morality (Williams & Demerath 1991). Religion has also been associated with philanthropy and a desire to help others (Hemingway & Maclagan 2004). These values are congruent with those associated with nonprofit marketing, whose "intent is to deliver a positive benefit for society" without commercial gain (Kotler & Lee 2008, p. 8). Second, commercial brands tend to evoke values that are *incongruent* with those evoked by religion. At the extreme, commercial brands may be associated with ostentatious sexuality, for example (Michell & Al-Mossawi 1995). More typically, however, commercial products are thought to blatantly encourage materialism and indulgence (Loroz 2006), while religion discourages them (Percy 2000). In addition, commercial products, particularly when they are advertised, are met with consumer skepticism (Obermiller & Spangenberg 1998).

Furthermore, a non-commercial brand that more strongly evokes religiously-congruent values should benefit more from religious advertising appeals than one that evokes such values less forcefully. More specifically, because the notion that morality and religion go hand-in-hand is so deeply embedded in culture (Williams & Demerath 1991), a non-commercial brand related to a cause that has strong moral implications (e.g., human trafficking) should benefit more from religious advertising appeals than a non-commercial brand related to a cause that has weaker moral implications (e.g., obesity). This is consistent with congruity theory, which accounts for the *degree*, and not merely the direction, of congruity between elements and the resulting attitude change (Dean 2002).

Key Findings

In the relationship between type of ad appeal and type of brand, there were significant multivariate main effects for both type of ad appeal (F (3, 61) = 3.11, p = 0.033) and type of brand (F (3, 61) = 5.15, p = 0.003). Non-religious appeals resulted in a more positive attitude-toward-the-ad (m = 17.21) than did religious appeals (m = 13.91; $F(1, 63)$ = 8.41, p = 0.005). Non-religious appeals also resulted in a more positive attitude-toward-the-brand (m = 15.12) than did religious appeals (m = 12.71; $F(1, 63)$ = 6.67, p = 0.012). Finally, non-religious appeals had a more positive impact on purchase intentions (m = 13.88) than did religious appeals (m = 10.62; $F(1, 63)$ = 6.15, p = 0.016). Type of brand only had a significant main effect on attitude-toward-the-brand. The non-commercial brand resulted in a more positive attitude-toward-the-brand (m = 15.66) than did the commercial brand (m = 12.29, $F(1, 63)$ = 13.65, p <0.001). In the relationship between type of ad appeal and type of *non-commercial* brand, type of ad appeal (non-religious/religious) and type of non-commercial brand (morally-neutral/morally-charged) had no effect on attitude-toward-the-ad, attitude-toward-the-brand, and purchase-intention as a multivariate set.

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SESSION 15E: MONEY, MONEY, MONEY, MONNNEEEYY!

CHAIR:

Jingjing Wu

Summary Brief
Impact of Covid-19 on Consumer Tipping Behavior: An Empirical Analysis of Taxi Rides in New York City

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The Covid-19 pandemic significantly impacted consumer behavior, such as tipping. Analysis of trip-level data on over 86 million taxi rides taken in New York City between January 2019 and July 2021 explores this issue by comparing tipping behavior during the pandemic with that before. The study finds that the likelihood of tipping has decreased. Further, results show that while the average tip percentage has increased by a modest in the Manhattan area, it has decreased in the outer boroughs of New York City. The findings suggest that the effect of covid-19 on tipping behavior varies by the market.

Introduction
Employees in a service industry (e.g., servers in restaurants, taxi drivers, etc.) depend on tips from their customers for a substantial portion of their income (Lynn 2016). The total reported tip amount for 2016 is about $32 billion (Shierholz et al. 2017), representing a pervasive feature of the US service economy. Given its practical importance, tipping has been a research topic for academia and industry for a long time. Majority of these studies focused on identifying motivations and how different factors influence consumer tipping behavior (e.g., Devaraj and Patel 2017; Lee ad Sohn 2020; Azar 2020; Tan and Zhang 2021). However, all these studies on tipping used the data from the pre-Covid-19 time, which is a relatively normal time in terms of public health and economic stability. A few studies examined tipping behavior during the Covid-19 pandemic (Conlisk 2021; Lynn 2021). This study focuses on a highly concentrated New York City (NYC) taxi market, the largest in the United States. Specifically, the study examines how Covid-19 influenced consumer tipping behavior in the Manhattan area compared to other boroughs: Bronx, Brooklyn, and Queens.

Theoretical Background
Extant literature on tipping indicates that consumers' tipping behavior (why and how much) could be motivated by different reasons: abiding by social norms, expressing gratitude, desire to help workers, rewarding worker's effort, and receiving better future service (Azar 2020). On the other hand, motivations against tipping could be consumers' desire to save financial resources and treat workers as equals. Therefore, the balance of motivations for and against tipping could determine the consumer tipping behavior (Lynn 2015). Further, Lynn (2021) argue that public crisis such as the covid-19 pandemic may shift that balance. Two recent studies (Lynn 2021; Conlisk 2021) are most relevant to this study. Analyzing the data from pizza delivery in Texas (Lynn 2021) and taxi rides in Chicago (Conlisk 2021) found that the average tip amount increased after Covid-19 was declared an emergency. These studies suggest that the overall increase in tip percentage may be due to a greater perception of workers' need during the pandemic (altruism) and drivers' effort during the pandemic (reciprocity). This study extends the literature on tipping during a pandemic by offering a new context – taxi rides in NYC, a highly concentrated and leading taxi market in the USA.

Data and Methodology
NYC Taxi and Limousine Commission (TLC) regulates the taxi market in NYC. TLC disseminates the ride-level taxi data. For empirical analysis, the study used Yellow Taxi and Green Taxi data for the study period: January 1, 2019, to July 31, 2021. The study excludes rides picked up in Airports and Staten Island, and focuses on taxi rides taken in four boroughs: Manhattan, Bronx, Brooklyn, and Queens. Further, the study filters the data to trips paid at a standard rate using a credit card and selects the data to include trips with fare amounts greater than $2.49 but less than the total amount of $1000. The study complements the taxi trip data with the weather data

(temperature, rainfall, and snowfall)[1]. The dependent variables in this study are the likelihood of tip and tip percentage conditional on the tip given. The data were analyzed using segmented regression (Lynn 2021). In this analysis, the trip date was recoded as the number of days since January 1, 2019, and then re-centered to March 13, 2020[2]. Then the outcome variables are regressed on the trip date, before-after Covid-19, the product of trip date and Covid-19, and several control variables.

Findings

The likelihood of tipping has decreased during the Covid-19 period (i.e., after the declaration) in both markets: Manhattan (β = -3.323, sig.<0.01) and Outer boroughs (β = -8.107, sig.<0.01). However, results for tip percentage are mixed. In Manhattan, tip percentage was decreasing over time before the Covid-19 (β = -0.001, sig.<0.01). However, after the declaration (i.e., during the Coivd-19 period), it increased by moderate by 0.68 percentage points (β = 0.688, sig.<0.01), and the previously negative trend was eliminated. These findings suggest that the pandemic emergency declaration immediately increased tips in the Manhattan area. In contrast, in outer boroughs, tip percentage was increasing over time before the Covid-19 (β = 0.000, sig.<0.10). However, after the declaration, the tip percentage decreased by moderate by 1.39 percentage points (β = -0.139, sig.<0.01), and the previous positive trend was continued at a higher rate.

Conclusions

The study provides evidence for the varying effect of the Covid-19 pandemic on consumers' tipping of taxi drivers. While the pandemic appeared to increase the average tip percentage given to a ride picked up in the Manhattan area, it decreased the average tip percentage for rides picked up in outer boroughs such as Bronx, Brooklyn, and Queens. Explanations for these results can only be speculative, but they may be attributable to the consumer need for balancing motivations for and against tipping. For consumers in the Manhattan area, the balance shifted towards giving more tip to taxi drivers who are in need. In contrast, for consumers in outer boroughs, the pandemic shifted the balance towards saving money rather than giving more tips to taxi drivers.

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[1] Weather data was collected from https://meteostat.net/. Meteostat interpolates data based on nearby weather stations (#KJRB0, #72502, #KNYC0, #KTEB0).

[2] On March 13, 2020, the US President declared a national emergency concerning the coronavirus disease 2019 (Covid-19) pandemic.

Summary Brief

The Psychological benefits of faking it: Do counterfeit users fool themselves?

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A brand's appealing personality may encourage consumers to obtain positive self-signals from using counterfeit branded products. The purported mediating mechanism is the consumer's need to protect their self-concept from the negative implications of counterfeit use. The self-protection effect is expected to be: Stronger than the self-enhancement effect from using the authentic brand; stronger when the product is used visibly; equal in deceptive and non-deceptive counterfeit purchases; and weaker when the degree of imitation is low. The primary potential implication is expanding the understanding of the role of self-deception in consumer tolerance for questionable consumption practices.

Introduction

Product manufacturers fulfill consumers' symbolic needs by establishing a desirable brand image/personality which consumers can perceive and want to be associated with (Aaker, 1997). Unfortunately, a strong brand personality makes a brand a target for counterfeit producers who serve consumers that desire but cannot symbolic products. Counterfeit branded products (CBP's) account for about 70% of the growing counterfeit market (Nia and Zaichworsky, 2000, Fontana et al, 2019). Studies have revealed that consumers' indulgence in CBPs is motivated by the possibility to deceptively signal a desired image to oblivious viewers (Nia and Zaichworsky, 2000). However, very little is known about the extent to which consumers could send similar signals to themselves. The prevalent view in the literature is that counterfeit products have negative implications for the self-concept (Davidson et al, 2017; Gino et al, 2010). Yet, some consumers hold a positive view of CBPs despite experiencing psychological and moral discomfort from using them (Nia and Zaichworsky, 2000). This tolerance for CBPs could be understood further by investigating the role of brand personality in providing a favorable CBP consumption experience through positive self-signaling. The current study proposes that a consumer may get positive self-signals (an improvement in self-perception based on a brand's personality), due to self-protection, from using a CBP with an appealing brand personality. The study also examines the extent to which deceptive positive self-signaling is influenced by consumption setting (product visibility), degree of imitation, and type of counterfeit purchase (deceptive/non-deceptive).

Background

The information in a brand's personality serves a social and symbolic function, allowing brand users to socially identify, to self-express and to self-enhance (Keller,1993). Brands build strong personalities by portraying an idealized or typical user in advertisements, packaging, sponsorship, etc. (Plummer, 1985) but hardly by demonstrating superior product attributes/performance. Consequently, symbolic benefits are realized from mere association with an appealing brand regardless of the product's attributes. This distinction between a product and its brand explains why branded products have a competitive edge over generic products, and well-known brands over lesser-known ones, irrespective of product characteristics. The existence of uniquely brand-related value warrants the proposition that users of CBPs could experience improvements in self-perception from the brand even though it is inauthentic. The presence of an appealing brand provides a source of favorable self-improvement. Conversely, the consciousness of the counterfeit nature of the product suggests unfavorable information to the self (Nia and Zaichworsky, 2000, Gino et al, 2010).

Faced with negative information, people feel a discrepancy in their self-perceptions. Hence, motivation is garnered to maintain a favorable self-concept by self-protecting from the unfavorable suggestions in the negative information (Mazar et al,2008). These self-concept maintenance theories suggests that consumers will employ self-deception to self-protect from the negative implications that counterfeit use has for the self-concept. Mele and Williams (2001) propose that self-deception is driven by desires that lead to motivationally biased beliefs. According to this view, a self-deceived person is unintentionally motivated to mistreat evidence either by negative misinterpretation, positive misinterpretation, selective focusing/attending, and/or selective evidence gathering.

Given the two contrasting pieces of evidence in a CBP consumption scenario (strong but negative evidence– the product is counterfeit and does not represent what the true brand represents, and weak but positive evidence- the brand has an appealing personality), it is expected that the consumer would seek to protect themselves from the implications of the negative information. The consumer would likely apply selective focusing (by ignoring the negative evidence that threatens the self-concept and focusing on the evidence that the brand has an appealing personality) and selective evidence-gathering (by overlooking easily obtainable evidence of what the counterfeit product implies for the self and noticing less accessible evidence for a favorable self from the brand's personality). The predicted outcome should be observed by an improvement in the user's self-perception on the personality traits of the brand.

Based on prior theoretical evidence that bad is stronger than good, improvements based on self-enhancement from authentic products should be less than improvements based on self-protection from counterfeit use. In addition, self-deception is more likely in situations of high self-consciousness (like in public settings). So, self-protection should be higher when counterfeit products are used in public than in private. Finally, self-protection should occur regardless of whether the purchase is deceptive or non-deceptive because the need to self-protect prevails in both cases. However, self-protection should not occur when the counterfeit brand looks clearly different from the authentic brand because perceived dissonance in physical appearance will impede self-deception.

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SESSION 15F: TEACHING MOMENTS SESSION 1

CHAIR:

Prachi Gala

Teaching Moment

Economist Magazine Ad Campaign Copywriting Project

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This assignment involves having students attempt to replicate the iconic Economist Magazine ad campaign. This famous series of ads simply used a bold red background and various short statements all meant to deliver the same message regarding how important reading the Economist was to one's business career. Students must identify a brand to work on and develop a succinct single most persuasive idea that they want the ad campaign to deliver. Students must then generate no less than ten unique ad lines that deliver the same main message in an interesting and engaging way.

Teaching Moment

Building Emotional Intelligence Through Social Self-Reflection

H.L. Dent, Western Carolina University, USA

This paper outlines different student-centered marketing pedagogy initiatives, briefly describing their design and implementation and reflecting on how they can enhance student emotional intelligence and overall engagement.

Introduction

Soft skills are an important factor considered for hiring managers. Educators are tasked with developing both hard and soft skills for students to prepare them for post-graduation opportunities. Students, through self-regulated learning, can increase their awareness of orientation (Kelly & Bhangal, 2018). Emotional awareness and an understanding of the role emotions play are beneficial soft skills for marketers ((Bagozzi et al., 1999). Through qualitative analysis, this research aims to uncover student-centric self-regulated learning activities conducive to nurturing and developing emotional intelligence in students. Specifically, to discover 1) how to foster student-regulated learning through self-reflection activities, 2) how to develop 'emotional literacy' to prepare students for post-graduation through self-reflection, and 3) can self-reflection through online behavior be used as a tool for emotional awareness?

Agency

The capacity to act independently and make one's own choices is known as Agency and is key to development. A sense of "agency" is achieved when learners feel they are in control of things around them and can influence the events. Therefore, creating experiential learning activities can help foster learner agency. Decisions and actions taken will impact the thinking, behavior, or decisions of others. When learners can control their own learning (thoughts, feelings, actions), they exercise self-regulated learning (SRL), which is pivotal in becoming lifelong learners (McIenrney, 2008) Therefore, education can play a significant role in the development of learner agency. Life scenarios can act as a powerful tool to guide students from simple reflection to critical self-reflection and foster SRL. This increases learner agency, generates alternative narratives that challenge dominant norms, and increases learners' awareness of orientation (Kelly & Bhangal, 2018). Lifelong learners can better equip individuals to understand their own and others' emotions. Students who are more emotionally intelligent are more self-directed, which leads to higher achievement and increased satisfaction (Zhoc et al., 2018).

There are three key emotional abilities (emotional regulation of the self, appraisal of emotions of the self, and emotional regulation of others) that were positively associated with self-directed learning (Zhoc et al., 2018). Since emotions are omnipresent in marketing, incorporating self-directed learning activities can help better prepare students for post-graduation careers. As marketers and leaders, understanding the role emotions play in information processing, persuasive appeal responses, goal setting, and goal-directed behaviors, and how emotions serve as ends and measures of consumer behavior is a beneficial soft skill (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Research suggests learner agency as a key orientation in the curriculum (Manyukhina & Wyse, 2019)

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) can be defined as the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately, and use emotional information to guide thinking and behavior (Halkiopoulos, et al., 2020). EI has been studied in psychology, human resource management, and marketing. Research has shown that EI explains significant variance in personal relationships (Schutte *et al.*, 2001), leadership (Palmer *et al.*, 2001), and individual success (Brackett *et al.*, 2011). EI offers a strong predictor in life settings and work-related outcomes (Prentice, 2020).

The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) is a self-report questionnaire that has been developed to comprehensively cover the trait EI sampling domain (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). For faculty, one advantage of all TEIQue forms and versions is that they are available to researchers free of charge (Petrides, 2009). The test encompasses 15 subscales organized under four factors: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability. Marketers must focus on finding the right audience and understanding and empathizing with that audience to create engaging content to draw the consumer through the marketing funnel. For this exercise, the Emotionality factor is the focus of EI. The Emotionality factor comprises four different traits: Empathy, Emotion Perception, Emotion Expression, and Relationships. Together they indicate the level of awareness of an individual's emotions and feelings, as well as those of other people. The trait scores reflect the value of 'emotional literacy' and when and how to make use of it. Self-aware people, who use emotionality in a balanced way, respond compassionately toward the emotions and feelings of others at the right time. They also express their own feelings clearly and understandably and don't let emotions and perceptions prevent them from thinking logically. These qualities are important to work effectively with other people and create marketing strategies that will engage with specific audiences.

Research on service representatives with a high level of EI shows that tourists' experience can be enhanced through convening the emotional benefits of tourism products, managing emotions, and managing tourists' emotions (Prentice, 2020). An individual's emotional state can influence aspects of information processing, including information retrieval, information processing, evaluation, judgments, and creative thinking (Bagozzi, 1999).

Another important consideration is that with the increase in technology and access to data, increasingly, organizations are utilizing methods to understand consumers. A growing trend in marketing is the utilization of data mining classification techniques to analyze psychological characteristics from social networks and other data online (Halkiopoulos et al., 2020). Therefore, this exercise is intended to help students understand the development of their reputation based on their online behavior and to build their emotional intelligence through critical self-reflection tactics.

Critical Self-Reflection Pedagogy

Reflection is described as an intentional and ongoing evaluation of presupposed knowledge, the narratives and evidence that support that knowledge, and the additional learning, experiences, and clarity to which that knowledge leads (Dewey, 1933). Dewey considered reflection as a tool for problem-solving and higher-order thinking skills. Critical reflection is possible when individuals question and evaluate the accuracy of knowledge, assumptions, and beliefs and the validity of presupposed ideas within changing spaces (Mezirow, 1990). Critical reflection is the intentional unveiling and disruption of assumptions, norms, and universal truths dealing with knowledge, power, social identities, and their subsequent role in the continuation of leadership (Kelly & Banghal, 2018). Telling a story or account of incidents or events is important, but the narrative comes after and adds 'plot' and 'coherence' to the storyline (Boje, 2001). Emergent leaders who want to improve their communication skills can benefit from

storytelling. Engaging students to explore their own narratives involves both students and faculty in a personal, reflective journey.

To develop lifelong learners, education cannot focus on repetition of what is known but rather on learning that disrupts the commonsense view of the world. Therefore, faculty must create opportunities for the narrative listener to embrace discomfort. By developing narrative and critical self-reflection, educators, narrators, and listeners can collectively foster the development of emerging emotionally competent leaders. Fostering self-directed learning, opportunities for storytelling, critical self-reflection, and emotional intelligence will likely have an impact on student engagement and foster learner agency.

Experiential Exercises

Students will participate in a three-prong activity. In the first part of the activity, students will document a week in their lives using the free social app, One Second Every day (1SE). This application, founded by Cesar Kuriyama, is a video journal that makes it easy to create meaningful movies that include every day of their lives. Cesar documented a year of his life with a six-minute video. He was invited to share the first year of what became a lifelong project at TED 2012 and created a Kickstarter campaign to fund the app 1SE. Students can access this app free of charge and will be tasked with recording 1-3 seconds each day for a week to create a 7 to 10-second video. They will have the creative freedom to create a professional video in compliance with university conduct standards.

Part 2 of the exercise will be for the students to write a self-reflection paper, a minimum of 500 words analyzing their video, what they learned about themselves, what they feel the images/videos project to other viewers and why they selected these daily "snapshots" for the video. Their self-evaluation will be analyzed by artificial intelligence to measure personality factors from their reflection. They will also be required to submit a cover letter and resume. This information will be run through the Big 5 and DISC algorithms to determine the personality profiles of the students. This information will be shared back with the students.

Part 3 of this exercise will include a survey using the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) to evaluate their EI. Students will then write a short reflection on their experience and impression of whether they felt that this activity helped or hindered their emotional awareness as influenced by internal and external sources.

Each part of the experiential exercise offers self-regulated learning options and applications of emotional awareness. Students utilize internal and external forces to learn about themselves and to see what data is revealed about them from their communication skills.

Conclusion and Limitations

This study is currently in progress. Therefore, there may be limitations that have not been determined at this time. Data needs to be gathered and analyzed. This research contributes to scholarly work on emotional intelligence, marketing pedagogy, and technology in the classroom. Students and organizations can benefit from tactics to help foster the development of communication skills and increase the EI of emergent leaders.

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Teaching Moment
Where should the next NFL franchise be located?

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This assignment is designed to get students to consider whether societal issues, such as racism, influence the location of an NFL franchise.

Instructions for Students

In this Short Assignment we will think about a different type of product, an NFL franchise. NFL franchises bring lots of great things to cities and states, e.g., revenues, jobs, and camaraderie. However, many of the franchises seem to be concentrated in particular states within the US, especially the Northeast and Midwest.

Notice that Alabama, Arkansas, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Oklahoma do not have teams while Florida has three and Ohio has two. However, Mississippi, Louisiana and Alabama have each supplied more talent to the NFL, per capita, than other states. Yet only Louisiana has an NFL franchise among the three. Additionally, southern states such as Arkansas, South Carolina and Kentucky have been top producers of talent, yet they do not have NFL franchises.

Questions: You do not have to consider divisions or conferences when answering these questions. Just assume that you can select any location you want.

1. Assume the NFL is considering expansion. Where should the next NFL franchise be located? Identify the city, state, and name of your team. Explain the relevance of your name and make your case for why this would be a good location.

2. The 'South' produces a lot of talent for the NFL, so why aren't there more franchises in the south (remember Ohio has 2)?
    a. Do you think institutional racism, i.e., racism that is embedded as normal practice within society or an organization, might be the reason?

Teaching Moment

Brands up!

Annie McCoy, University of Central Missouri. USA

Branding and building brand can be a difficult and abstract concept to understand. Students often struggle with understanding the need for consistency in their communications. Make learning branding fun with this simple game. Bring learning and laughter to the classroom with *Brands Up*!, a twist on the well-known mobile phone game *Heads Up*!

Teaching Moment
The Value of Thank-You Notes

James Blair, Eastern Kentucky University, USA

The job market can be competitive, and employers can have a difficult time choosing between finalists. Hand-written thank you notes are one way for job candidates to positively stand out in the interview process and be remembered positively by professionals. This in-class activity highlights the value of thank-you notes to students and goes through the process of properly filling out an envelope to send out through the United States Postal Service.

Value of Thank-You Notes

Some people can dislike writing thank you notes (Aaronson, 2006). This can be for several different reasons. They may be unsure what to write, intimidated by the process, or unsure how to go about the mailing process.

Thank-you notes can be looked at positively by employers and professionals who receive them, but they can also be disappointed for not receiving one after an interaction like an interview (Knight, 2017). This is one way to make professionals feel appreciated (Gibson, O'Leary, & Weintraub, 2020). Binn (2014) recommends the use of thank you notes based on their benefits. Therefore, business instructors can leverage the power of thank-you notes by encouraging students to utilize them and providing students an opportunity in-class to practice creating them.

Thank-You Note Activity

For this assignment, students are asked to write a thank-you note to someone from their past. This could be a past coach, teacher, volunteer supervisor, work supervisor, or someone else who provided them an experience, developed a skill set, or served as a mentor. This process involves students showing their gratitude to a professional who helped them to where they are today. Students are excluded from writing a thank-you note to a personal contact (family member, friend, partner, etc.).

Sometimes students can be intimidated by the writing process. They are encouraged to type out a few sentences in a Microsoft Word document. This helps with proofreading for grammar and spelling. The instructor should encourage students to be brief and to the point.

Once the student has their note written, they can look up the address of the employer for their professional online. Through a Google search, students can find the employment address of the professional and write it on the envelop in addition to the student's own address as the return address. At this point, the student can bring the thank-you card up to the instructor. They can verify the content of the note is satisfactory, the address information is correct, and then direct the student to seal the envelop and add a stamp to envelope. It is important for the instructor to walk the students through where information is placed on the envelope. Putting a visual of an example on the board showing where the sender address, return address, and stamp go on the envelop is beneficial.

Instructors can buy thank-you notes in bulk at a relatively low price. Stamps are the more expensive material but are still at a relatively low cost. Some students may send their notes internationally. The instructor needs to buy a special international mailing stamp. After the class session, instructors can mail out the thank-you notes at a local United States Postal Services box. Depending on where the notes need to be delivered, the professionals should receive them within a few days. Often professionals will follow-up with the students who sent the notes. This provides an opportunity for students to continue building their relationship with the professional and stand out positively in their minds.

Personal Branding Implications

This assignment has the potential to directly impact the perceptions of professionals on students sending the thank-you notes. As a result, this can improve the personal brand of students. Personal brands can allow professionals to differentiate themselves from others in the marketplace positively when seeking out work opportunities (Gorbatov, Khapova, & Lysova, 2018; Peters, 1997). This assignment can add to other activities students can get involved with to create, build, and maintain their personal brands (Allison & Blair, 2021; Fore, Blair, & Allison, 2021). Students creating an authentic personal brand during their time at college can help them with the job search and realizing what career opportunities they want to pursue after graduation (Allison et al., 2020). With the employment landscape changing and the rise of the gig economy (Blair, 2016), activities for students and professionals to positively position their personal brand could be beneficial throughout their careers.

Discussion and Conclusions

      Based on the past findings from the literature and the positive personal branding consequences, this assignment has the potential to positively impact students in the short-term and long-term throughout their careers. The assignment is relatively straightforward and is one that can be implemented in a variety of courses throughout the marketing curriculum. Future research could explore the effectiveness of this activity and alternative ways to also effectively improve professionalism skills of students to prepare them for the workplace.

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Teaching Moment
Adding Business on Google Maps and Its Impact on Your Business

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Google Maps has become an effective lead generation source for any business. It is a free marketing promotion platform that any business use. Businesses use it to generate leads and improve sales by quickly adding their business on Google Maps and getting verification. Companies can easily modify their pages (business.google.com) by adding their website, telephone, address, timetable, menus, product information, and interior and exterior photos. Companies may put their event announcements and will be able to manage their customers' reviews. Google reports the most used keywords, and companies can use them as hashtags on their social media channels.

Teaching Moment

Principles of Marketing: A Blind Taste Test In-Class Experiment

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Experiential Exercise

In this experiential exercise, students are exposed to brand strategy involving name brands verses private label, or store brands. How do managers know to position a private label vs a national brand? Historically, private labels represented lower-quality, but additional research is now finding that consumer perceptions have changed, with national brand loyalty down by 30% in 2015 (Deloitte, 2015).

A 2020 research study on consumer misinformation and brand premium found that the majority of participants in the blind taste-test study conducted reported a high perception of the quality of private labels. Participants described the private labels as "at least as good" as the leading national brand (Bronnenberg, et al, 2020).

"I think it is smart to try store brands to see what is just as good as name brands. Also, I don't think I'm brand loyal at all anymore. Whatever is on sale or I have a coupon for is what I'll buy. There are just a tiny handful of items that I will purchase at full price… – Consumer survey respondent

As a Principles of Marketing Instructor, I conduct a blind taste-test experiment in class with students. 3 brands of bottled water are hidden behind a cardboard display and students are given individual straws. Participation is voluntary. They will taste test one at a time and decide which water they prefer. The majority of the time, it is a store brand they choose. I will use one top tier brand like Fiji, a national brand like Dasani, and a store brand from Sam's Club or Kroger. The same experiment has been conducted with crackers using Saltines vs store brand with crackers being placed on 2 different trays. After the test, students discuss in class why they chose the one they did and what factors affected their choice. Taste, flavor, smell, color, etc. Many products can be used in the simple classroom demonstration of name brand vs store brand to teach this concept in class.

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Teaching Moments

Using E-Portfolios as a High-Impact Practice in Digital Marketing courses

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Students typically earn multiple certifications in digital marketing and social media marketing classes. These certifications are either simulation certifications or certificates presented at the end of an industry on-line training such as Google Analytics. AAC&U lists e-portfolios as a high-impact practice and are resume based. Using e-portfolios for the certifications and other achievements provide students a consistent tool to retain a record of their accomplishments as well as to showcase their newly obtained skills to prospective employers. High tech marketing recruiters receive e-portfolios from applicants and students that do not have these tools may be perceived as less professional.

SESSION 15G: HOW TO EFFICIENTLY INTEGRATE CENTER ENAGEMENT INTO EXISTING FACULTY RESPONSIBILITIES

CHAIR:

Reanna Berry

SESSION 16A: EDUCATION ABOUND

CHAIR:

Ann Springer

Summary Brief

Analyzing the Effects of Classroom Design on Student Mental Wellbeing: A Case Study

Robert McDonald, University of Southern Mississippi, USA
Gallayanee Yaoyuneyong, University of Southern Mississippi, USA

The purpose of this study is to determine the impact of various classroom environments available within a case study building on the mental well-being of students. The proposed study will gather data for quantitative analysis via a survey instrument. A questionnaire investigating student perceptions of the impact of classroom design on their mental well-being will be distributed to students who take courses in both a modernized classroom and in older generic classrooms within the case study building.

Introduction

Until recently, the potential impacts of classroom design have often been overlooked by educational institutions. Classrooms have been around since the earliest known civilizations, and, since the late Middle Ages, these environments have been left fundamentally unchanged (Park & Choi, 2014). However, there is now a call for the places in which we learn to change in concert with continuing changes in knowledge and culture. Recent innovations demonstrate the potential of modern classroom furniture that takes into consideration the needs of students, including mobility, accessibility, and integrated storage (*e.g*., the *Steelcase* Node Tripod Base Chair) (Steelcase, 2018). Beyond furniture, many other factors, including color, lighting, and integrated Active Learning Classroom (ALC) features, can contribute to the design of interior educational environments. Color has been shown by psychologists to affect mood and impact overall well-being (AL-Ayash *et al*., 2016). Lighting, in terms of both temperature and brightness, can also affect eye strain and alertness throughout the day (Samani, 2012). The utilization of Active Learning Classroom (ALC) design, which has been shown to increase student engagement and sense of community, is another way to improve student mental well-being (Steelcase, 2018). These factors can all contribute to creating learning environments that are more comfortable and stimulating, which foster learning, and which positively affect student well-being. With these factors in mind, college administrators and other design professionals can design interior educational environments that aid student mental well-being for a more inclusive and healthy learning environment. While researchers have extensively explored the impact of active learning in various disciplines, limited studies investigate the influence of ALCs, especially on students' mental well-being.

Background

Mental well-being has been shown to be linked to academic performance in many studies. For some students, the classroom can be a stressful and socially isolating place. In the literature, 'Ill-Being' is the term used to describe a lack of well-being amongst students. This lack is characterized by low performance and attention, and decreased graduation rates (Steelcase, n.d). The goal of ALCs is to dispel the traditional locational hierarchy of classrooms by facilitating student mobility and encouraging instructors to walk about freely, and by integrating media systems so that all students can hear and feel engaged with the material (Farrow & Wetzel, 2021).

In traditional classrooms, key zones, such as the 'Golden' and 'Shadow' zones, have been identified as optimal areas, and least optimal, for student learning (Park & Choi, 2014). ALC environments utilize moveable furniture so that students can easily move around the classroom and interact with other students, integrate speakers that evenly distribute sound, and use displays that allow students to easily view lesson plans and other learning materials. Research shows that facilitating the option to move and reconfigure furniture throughout the classroom can increase students' tendency to socialize and interact, both with other students and with teachers, which can improve overall student well-being (Sowani & Lavalekar, 2020).

Aside from classroom furniture and integrated media, other environmental characteristics, including color, lighting, and temperature, can affect student well-being. Color is one of the most basic elements of a space. For

decades psychologists have shown the effects of color on human behavior. In terms of performance, paler colors (especially blues and yellows) are known to have a more calming effect (Al-Ayash *et al*, 2016). When discussing color in interior educational spaces psychologists usually refer to levels of arousal. Different colors have been shown to have a direct impact on mental arousal in students, which can improve their performance and overall well-being (Küller *et al*., 2009). Without proper mental arousal, students can show decreased attention, which can affect test scores. Using brighter or paler colors, universities can trigger responses in the minds of students that can improve both attention and retention of classroom material (Stone, 2001). Additionally, lighting is an important aspect of any working space. Not only does lighting affect the ability to see presented materials, but it also subconsciously affects attention and behavior. Light temperature (*i.e*., coolness and warmth) has been shown to affect the natural circadian rhythm of students, which can in turn affect their mood and alertness (Llinares *et.*al, 2021).

Hypotheses Development

Based on the literature, ALCs are expected to provide a better learning environment, resulting in enhanced student understanding of class content. Additionally, ALCs may provide a better classroom environment, which will then positively impact students' mental well-being. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: Compared to traditional classrooms, students will have a higher perceived classroom environment in an ALC.
H2: Compared to traditional classrooms, students will have a higher mental well-being score in an ALC.

Proposed Methodology

Researchers will recruit students who either took or are currently taking a class (Creative Marketing) that utilizes an ALC in the case study building, and who are also taking other courses in traditional classrooms in the same building. Students will be asked to think about their experiences in both the ALC and the traditional classrooms while completing the questionnaire, which measures perceived classroom environment and mental well-being. Additionally, demographic information will be collected. Paired *t*-tests will be used to test both hypotheses.

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Summary Brief

Implementing Data Privacy into the Consumer Insights Course

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Abstract

The purpose of this manuscript is to illustrate a teaching innovation used in an undergraduate marketing research course that teaches students how to collect, store, and analyze data in an ethical manner. The teaching innovation incorporates CITI training as a module in the marketing research course that is taught in conjunction with teaching ethics in marketing research. Using a pretest posttest experimental design, students learned more about ethics of data collection than they knew at the beginning of the course. Qualitative responses reveal that students are cognizant of ulterior motives of firms to collect their data and use it in nefarious ways. As data and data responsibilities continue to democratize throughout the organization, incorporating this module is an important facet in creating ethical data stewards.

From an industry and legal perspective, collecting and storing data in an ethical manner is of utmost importance, particularly regarding consumer data privacy concerns. Despite the concern that many consumers have regarding data privacy, identifying how to teach about how to ethically collect, store and analyze consumer information, and in which course (i.e., Marketing Research, MIS, Computer Science, etc.) to teach these skills continues to perplex university professors across disciplines.

Previous literature has explored how students react to data (i.e., third party cookies) being collected about them on the web (Labrecque et al., 2021), creating a new course regarding socially responsible data collection (Walker & Moran, 2019) as well as how to incorporate new marketing technology into the classroom (Ferrell & Ferrell, 2020). Nevertheless, despite the importance in the consumer realm, there is a dearth of research about teaching business students to collect and store data in an ethical manner that specifically relates to the marketing research course and one that can be added to a content-congested course. The purpose of this manuscript is to illustrate a teaching innovation used in an undergraduate marketing research course that teaches students how to collect, store, and analyze data in an ethical manner. The teaching innovation incorporates a module that is taught in conjunction with teaching ethics in marketing research.

Background

In the consumer insights industry[3], there are two governing ethics organizations that ensure consumer insights firms conduct their research in an ethical manner. These organizations are the Insights Association (formerly CASRO) and the European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research (ESOMAR). In the insights industry, if firms do not comply with the ethics standards listed by these two agencies, they risk a tarnished reputation as well as being ousted from the associations (e.g., Insights Association and ESOMAR) which further isolates them from knowledge sharing. In academe, collecting data on any human subject, requires a review by an Institutional Review Board (IRB) in the US or with an Ethics Committee in Europe. If a researcher does not receive approval from their IRB or Ethics Committee, they risk receiving disciplinary action from their university.

However, a more obscure group—the marketing research do-it-yourself (DIY)ers—use marketing research platforms (i.e., Google Survey, Qualtrics and SurveyMonkey) to *occasionally* collect data (Reavey & Lambert, 2021). Some collect more data, some collect less data, but regardless, there is virtually no oversight regarding survey creation (i.e., the types of questions asked), data storage or data analysis. This is in part due to Section 230 of the Communications Decency Act.

Section 230, as it is commonly referred, is a section of Title 47 of the United States Communications Decency Act, that—for the most part—indemnifies website platforms with respect to third-party content creation (Newton, 2020). For instance, Section 230 is one of the reasons why Yelp.com and RateMyProfessor.com are allowed to publish negative reviews about restaurants and professors, respectively, without any fear of being sued for libel because the platform is indemnified for posting content that another user creates. Companies often use survey

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[3] Please note that marketing research, market research and consumer insights are often used interchangeably in industry.

platforms instead of using a marketing research firm for cost savings (Brereton et al., 2020), faster access to the results (Callegaro & Yang, 2018), and inherent distrust in third-party vendors (Bode & Geiger, 2021). The key point, though, is that there are no ethics associations such as the Insights Association, ESOMAR or the university's IRB that oversee the practices of DIY market researchers. As of 2020, DIY platforms account for 2% of the insights industry's market share (Brereton et al., 2020) and in 2021 about 50% of marketing brands indicate that they are switching over to in-house data collection with, one can assume, DIY platforms (Poynter, 2021).

Given the prevalence of survey platforms, recent graduates are now more likely to participate in survey development, data collection, data storage and analysis than ever before (Reavey et al., 2021). Conceivably, the assistance of these platforms amplifies hubris because the platform makes the writing and analysis appear "easy." Bridges (2021, p. 9) has warned educators about the follow-on effect of these tools:

"…greater availability of enhanced software tools means that the researcher can avoid putting careful thought into the tasks of data collection and analysis, making use of software-based recommendations instead."

As noted above, survey platforms are prevalent. More often than not, the people who usually consider themselves market research DIYers are digital marketers who occasionally collect opinions from their customers (Reavey & Lambert, 2021), but spend the rest of their time working with data from other digital content (i.e., email, social media, web traffic). This diffusion of marketing research tasks has evolved from marketing research experts—who had been carefully trained in survey design and sophisticated data analysis—to novices conducting marketing research without consulting an expert (Reavey et al., 2021). Thus, who is teaching these casual data collectors how to ethically write questions, collect data, store data and analyze data?

The Data Privacy Innovation Module

An effective classroom module (as either a one-time or continuous learning exercise) for teaching students about the various facets of being an ethical data collector, and one in which every student can participate during the semester, entails having students receive their Collaborative Institute Training Initiative (CITI) training. If CITI training is not available through the university, the nonprofit FHI 360 provides a free alternative. In addition to having the students take the CITI or FHI 360 training, the instructor can talk about all of the reasons why departments like the Office for Human Research Protections (OHHP) works with universities and the market research community to ensure that data is collected and stored in an appropriate manner. While CITI training is typically used to train psychology students and social workers at universities, the CITI training module provides clear and understandable materials for all business students to implement in their classroom.

The steps and suggested timeline for the innovation are listed below for a 15-week course:

1. Week 2: Send pre-test survey to your students to test students' baseline knowledge of the subject.
   - The first survey should take about 7-9 minutes to complete.
   - Grade assignment as pass/fail. Ask students to enter random number generated at the end of survey into the LMS assignment so you can give them credit for the assignment if they completed.

2. Week 3: *Homework assignment.* Ask students to get CITI certified through [school] or have them get certified through the non-profit FHI 360.

    - Have students upload either their CITI certificate or their FHI 360 cert to LMS to show that they completed the assignment.
    - Link for the materials. https://www.fhi360.org/resource/research-ethics-training-curriculum-retc-second-edition
    - Link for the MOOC that tests their knowledge https://www.classcentral.com/course/independent-from-data-collection-to-data-use-19140
3. Week 4. Link material to ethics in marketing research
    - Discuss Tuskegee project
    - Discuss other unethical medical/psychology projects to help students learn that what society deemed was okay at the time, is no longer socially acceptable and the reason why we have oversight from OHHP and IRB to keep these "experiments" from happening again. https://www.onlinepsychologydegree.info/unethical-experiements-psychology/
4. Week 5: Send out this post-test to see how much they learned.

Innovation Effectiveness
Direct Measures

Utilizing a pretest-posttest experimental design across two universities and several marketing research courses, the scores of the pretest and posttest were examined using a paired samples *t*-test. The data were collected at a private university in the Midwest and a public university in the Northeast. The courses included undergraduate students only. Students who completed the pretest and posttest received pass/fail credit for their assignment as opposed to grading their correct responses. They were also graded as pass/fail for uploading their CITI certification.

Between the two universities, 249 students completed the pretest and 193 completed the posttest. The total number of students who completed both the pretest and the posttest was 186 as some students completed the pretest but not the posttest and vice versa. Test scores were taken before and after CITI training. There were 16 questions asked on the pretest and posttest and are available in Appendix A. On average, students performed worse before ($M_{pretest}$ = 6.74, SD = 1.90) than after they received CITI training ($M_{posttest}$ = 7.23, SD = 2.34). This improvement, .49, was statistically significant; t (185) = -2.73; p < .05; Cohen's d = 2.44).

Qualitative Responses

The last two questions in the pretest were open-ended and asked students to respond to, "Question 16. Before today, about how much thought have you given towards data privacy and human ethics research?" and to, "Question 17. In your opinion, what are some of the biggest challenges regarding data privacy and/or human subjects research?" Table 1 lists a select group of the responses. Responses for Question 16 ranged from students claiming that they think about data privacy often because of their job or previous work experience to not giving it any thought at all. Most respondents noted that they never, or more likely rarely, thought about the ethics regarding human ethics. Responses for Question 17 prompted more philosophical answers where students pondered how much greed played a role in firms collecting as much data as they do.

Insert Table 1 About Here

Adaptability of Innovation in Other Marketing Courses

The teaching innovation was used in a marketing research course and was taught alongside the chapter on marketing research ethics as a way to ground the material for the students. Given the prevalence of data in marketing, at some point in the marketing program, all students should get CITI certified as a way to learn how to be ethical stewards of data. If there is no room for extra content in the marketing research course, other courses which would make sense for students to get CITI certified is Marketing Analytics, Marketing Strategy, Marketing Management and within the Digital and Social Media courses. Marketing departments often compile massive amounts of data on customers and having students understand how to ethically collect, store and analyze the data is necessary as we move towards Web 3. Web 3, often written as Web 3.0 is the idea that firms will incorporate concepts such as decentralization by using blockchain technologies, token-based economics and will include the metaverse (Stackpole, 2022).

Discussion

Disruptive technologies abound in marketing. Marketing research technology, often referred to as MarTech, are revolutionizing the industry as data continues to be democratized in an effort to allow all employees access to information for decision making. Data that used to be held centrally within the customer relationship management (CRM) database, typically in the marketing department, are now being decentralized and the data is held in an insights engine (van den Driest et al., 2016) so that all employees in the company can access the data to aid in reporting and decision making. As technology continues to swarm the consumer insights industry, this manuscript provides an effective module that will help marketing instructors teach their students to become ethical data stewards of the future. By incorporating CITI training into the marketing research course, students learn the reasons *why* agencies like the Insights Association, ESOMAR and OHHP exist as oversight boards to ensure that consumers are protected from nefarious researchers.

In the pretest the students keenly recognized that most folks who are collecting our data have an ulterior motive of making money more than protecting their consumers. By teaching students about the ethics of data collection and storage through the CITI module, students are able to gain knowledge in an otherwise content-heavy course.

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Table 1. Qualitative Responses to Questions 16 and 17 on the Pretest

Question 16. Before today, about how much thought have you given towards data privacy and human ethics research?	Question 17. In your opinion, what are some of the biggest challenges regarding data privacy and/or human subjects research?
I don't know much. I always hear about issues in regards to privacy data and how companies are selling this.	*What we do with the information after. Respecting human boundaries is very important. Making sure we do not with this information to other companies who might be unethical*
I've actually given this topic much thought because I'm currently interning at a tech company where we focus on data privacy and human ethics has a big role in what we do.	*I believe that one of the biggest challenges is hackers because they are very good nowadays and can hack almost every single system to steal data. Also, most people do not read the fine print when signing up for surveys or things in that matter.*
Little to none	*The advances and overall growth in technology are concerning as it seems that nobody's information is truly private. I also feel like on a smaller scare the ethics of human subjects research is considered important but when conducted on a federal scale when the information is considered confidential, little concern is present (ie. Standford Prison Experiment/Tuskegee Experiment vs. a smaller more local research study)*
Not much at all. I guess I just know that doctors offices, schools, and places like that, that I give personal information to, I know that the information is safe and so I've not given it much thought. And I have not really been in a course about research so the ethics of research never really came to mind until now.	*I feel that a lot of data that is considered private is actually old off to other companies for profit or some sort of advantage. Our privacy is not taken as seriously as it should be.*
I had some knowledge and concern about privacy and human ethics in research. However, I did not give it much thought.	*Educating the general public on data privacy laws and how to protect themselves. It is challenging for the average person to keep up with changing technology and legislature surrounding data privacy and human subjects research. Most people, when offered a generous sum of money, will throw caution to the wind to make some quick cash that they deem to be "easy money". They may be unaware of the unintended consequences of divulging valuable personal information.*
I have thought about it, especially recently after watching the documentary, The Social Dilemma. I also though about data privacy when I worked as a Marketing Manager previously.	*Human's greed. People sell data.*
I think that data privacy and human ethics research are very important. Because I always get advertisement phone call. I think that is also count data privacy because my phone number sold to another company.	*Internet has no rules and regulations, you agree to terms and conditions without reading the contract, and they sell your data without you really knowing*

Appendix A. Questions used for Pretest and Posttest

1. Which of the following is an example of implicit consent?

   ○ The researcher has full authority to do whatever they want with the respondent.

   ○ The individual understands what the researcher wants him or her to do and agrees to be a participant in the research study.

   ○ The individual must sign a waiver indemnifying the researcher of any liability.

   ○ The researcher will keep the respondent's survey responses in a separate file to maintain data privacy.

2. What is an example of debriefing a respondent after an experiment?

   ○ Explain the actual experimental variables applied following the experiment's completion.

   ○ Gaining the willful cooperation of the research subject.

   ○ Making sure to thank the respondent for their participation.

   ○ Reviewing a proposed research design to try to make sure the proposed research will satisfy the research objectives.

3. Do-not-call legislation restricts _____.

   ○ telemarketing calls to consumers with unlisted numbers

   ○ telemarketing calls to consumers who register with a no-call list

   ○ business calls to new customers

   ○ survey calls from non-profit organizations

4. The idea that information involved in a research will not be shared with others is known as _____.

   ○ consent

   ○ privacy

   ○ anonymity

○ confidentiality

5. The team tasked with carefully reviewing proposed research designs to try to make sure that no harm can come to any research participant is called a _____.

○ Institutional Review Board

○ Cross-functional team

○ Research ethics committee

○ Market research committee

6. A political candidate asks staff workers to call registered voters of another party to ask a leading and negative question about his opposing candidate. This is a form of ____.

○ a push poll

○ advocacy research

○ a research supplier

○ a cross-functional team

7. Jamal is conducting research studies for two national rental car companies. Jamal's action represents a potential ____.

○ illegal situation

○ advocacy situation

○ push poll

○ conflict of interest

8. Which of the following is NOT a fundamental principle of human research ethics?

○ Respect for Persons

○ Beneficience

○ Justice

○ Compassion

9. Who of the following group is (are) considered a vulnerable research participant(s)?

○ Someone who is low-income

○ Someone who works in the health field

○ A union worker

○ College students

10. Which of the following statements about individually identifiable research data is correct?

○ The university's policies override state laws regarding individually identifiable data.

○ At times, researchers have to release individually identifiable information to an outside agency.

○ Researchers have the utmost duty to ensure that individually identifiable data is never released outside of the research being conducted.

○ Researchers have the sole discretion to inform subjects about possible reasons why their individually identifiable information might be released outside of the research study.

11. Which of the following scenarios is the best solution to help protect individually identifiable data against a data breach?

○ The data files should be in physical possession of the researcher at all times.

○ The researcher should have two files: (1) Respondent ID's linked with the respondent's name and (2) the data file with the respondent's name stripped and only the Respondent ID listed.

○ The researcher should only report the data by combining all of the individual responses (aggregate).

○ The research file should be encrypted and stored in a password protected file on a server that restricts access.

12. Which of the following is true regarding data collection?

○ Collecting data should follow a detailed plan that is set in advance.

○ It is often hard to get the proper number of respondents to fill out your survey, therefore, it is okay to involve other researchers to help you collect the data.

○ If you find an existing data set from previous research, it can be used without restriction.

○ It is best to plan for flexible data collection since there are often many changes that occur during the data collection phase.

13. Who owns the data in a research project?

○ The researcher who physically collected the data.

○ The professor and the graduate student who collected the data.

○ The respondent.

○ The organization that receives federally funding for the research project.

14. What is the CCPA ?

○ Consumer Collection of Privacy Accounts

○ Collection of Consumer Proprietary Association

○ California Consumer Privacy Act

○ Consumer Collection of Privacy Alliance

15. What occurred during the Tuskegee experiment?

○ The US Department of Health did not treat men with syphilis in order to study the long term effects of a syphilis infection.

○ Dr. Lauretta Bender subjected children to electroshock therapy while trying to cure schizophrenia.

○ Researchers from the University of Iowa where groups of children were placed in two groups. Group 1: received positive speech therapy and Group 2: received negative and belittling speech therapy.

○ Researchers from Stanford wanted to understand the power dynamic between prisoners and guards and were placed in two groups to determine why conflict arises.

16. Before today, about how much thought have you given towards data privacy and human ethics research?

17. In your opinion, what are some of the biggest challenges regarding data privacy and/or human subjects research?

Summary Brief

Teaching for Social Justice in Marketing: Master Narratives in the Modern Marketing Curriculum

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This early stage research explores what it means to teach for social justice in marketing education. Through the identification of the most prolific master narratives in marketing, the counter narratives that allow those marginalized by the master narratives can be identified and/or constructed. On a larger scale, the implications of this research call for educators to consider the extent to which business school curriculums and missions, generally, allow for the inclusion of counter narratives.

Background

Narratives allow individuals to be socially constructed within subcultures of society. The stories and connections made between them, emotions elicited by them, and the rituals around their telling help individuals within a particular culture to form a common understanding. These cultures can be broad, such as Christianity having the narrative of Jesus as a divine being, or within microcosms, such Bridgewater Associates having the narrative of the company's success being built on 'radical transparency' as realized by its founder in the early days of the business. Certainly, an entire culture is not built on a sole narrative. Sticking with these two examples, Christianity is understood by its followers through a series of stories and their interpretations to operationalize them in daily actions. At Bridgewater Associates, radical transparency is a ritual that is practiced in tandem to other beliefs and customs that make up the company's professional environment. Social scientists refer to the entire body of such stories within a particular cultural context as a master narrative.

A master narrative is the basis for the common understanding of intangible concepts within a cultural context. The common understandings that master narratives produce tend to remain relatively constant throughout history (Halverson et al. 2011). For instance, the narratives that are taught in history courses in the United States that facilitate in children their socially constructed identities as 'Americans' include the original European settlers (Christian, white), the American Revolution (nationhood), the Civil War (abolishment of slavery), and Martin Luther King, Jr. (racial equality), among many others. The concepts and feelings elicited by these narratives are deeply embedded in consumers' identities as 'Americans,' and knowing this, it is not uncommon to see marketing communications that invoke them in order to facilitate brand identities around these same feelings (*e.g.*, Bang et al. 2017, Weik 2019).

Within the study of master narratives is the concept of counter narratives, which are stories, generally from groups of people marginalized within a dominant culture, that elicit feelings that are opposed to the dominant master narratives (Lueg and Lundholt 2021). Often, counter narratives are invoked in resistant movements to the perceived oppression resulting from or alongside the commonly understood master narrative within a particular culture (*e.g.*, Demoiny and Waters 2021, Godley and Loretto 2013, Helmer 2016, Thomas 2020). Sticking with the last example of what it means to be American, there are counter narratives about the original European settlers (colonial genocide), the American Revolution (enslaved people serving as soldiers), the Civil War (debt slavery in its aftermath), and Martin Luther King, Jr. (opposition to capitalism) that are rarely embedded in the telling and immediate recall of the master narrative understanding. For the Bridgewater example, alongside the common associations of radical transparency and financial success, are the rarely mentioned counter narratives of harassment allegations and extreme surveillance of employees (Stevenson and Goldstein 2016).

The identification of master narratives and identification and/or construction of counter narratives have increasingly been used in classroom settings as a way to facilitate social justice through teaching (*e.g.*, Helmer 2016, Sosa 2020, Thomas 2020). Social justice is, generally, the idea that the distribution of wealth and opportunities in a society is just, with the latter being a notion that has been debated as to its meaning in society in terms of equity, equality, egalitarianism, dignity, solidarity, and other considerations (Zajda et al. 2006). In societies where educational provision is treated as a public good, where taxation is used to fund some level of schooling, such as through twelfth grade in the United States or through post-secondary studies in Germany, for example, it is done so because of the common belief that society as a whole benefits from an educated populace. Benefits such as higher standards of living and improved economic production are frequently cited arguments in favor of the public provision of education (Levin 1987, Samuelson 1954). Thus, in societies that believe that education is important enough to social and economic welfare that it should be funded communally, an educated populace is a part of the function of a just distribution of

wealth and opportunities in society. Or, in other words, educating is an act of social justice in societies that value it.

Certainly, educating its populace is not the sole determinant of a just society. A complete set of the proponents of a socially just society (Miller 2001) is not the scope of this research, but if we have established that education is necessary to bring about social justice, and if a society has indicated that social justice is an goal, then by transitivity, educators must ensure that their teachings align with socially just values. This exploratory, and as of this submission purely conceptual, research explores what it means in marketing education to teach for social justice, including whether business studies in the context of capitalistic values allows for resistance to master narratives via the identification and/or construction of counter narratives. In order to begin to explore these broad questions, this research explores marketing education in the context of business studies, generally, from the perspective of teaching for social justice as a holistic value.

Teaching for Social Justice in Marketing Education

As of this conference submission, this research in the early stages, including a development of the conceptual basis for study and a plan for data collection through narrative analysis of modern marketing curricula. The theme of this year's conference is *Reconceptualizing Marketing in Today's Global Environment*, and certainly, today's global environment includes movements in various pockets of society to bring about social justice in the face of perceived major social injustices. We see the effects of these movements in branding (*e.g.*, Dick's Sporting Goods, Patagonia) and perceptibly socially responsible supply chains (*e.g.*, Nike, Starbucks), as just a couple marketing examples. Thus, it seems timely to explore how the principles of social justice (Miller 2001) are furthered in marketing education, including what allowances exist in the objectives of business schools for the consideration of counter narratives.

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SESSION 16B: IT'S ALL ABOUT THE SERVICE CHAIR:

Heitor Kato

Summary Brief
Optimizing Prolonged Coproduction: A Theoretical Typology and Research Agenda for Coproduction Habits

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Many service contexts require prolonged coproduction, where customers participate in the production and delivery of a service by completing coproduction tasks assigned by the service provider that must be repeatedly enacted for extended periods of time before the customer can obtain value from the service offering. Recent research suggests that individuals sustain prolonged coproduction through their habituation of coproduction task, however, research is limited in marketing to explain how habituation sustains prolonged coproduction. The purpose of this paper is to synthesize research in multiple disciplines to explore the ways that customers habituate coproduction tasks to sustain prolonged coproduction. In this study, we specifically explore the following research questions: (1) how can customers habituate coproduction tasks, and (2) what types of coproduction habits exist? The study proposes that two distinct types of automatic processes, goal automaticity and routine automaticity, interact to create four primary types of coproduction habits: nascent/sterile habits, pure habits, triggered habits, and routinized habits. Suggestions are offered for future research directions.

Introduction

Many service contexts require prolonged coproduction, where customers participate in the production and delivery of a service by completing coproduction tasks assigned by the service provider that must be repeatedly enacted for extended periods of time before the customer can obtain value from the service offering (Bendapudi and Leon, 2003; Mende *et al.,* 2017; Spanjol et al., 2015; Temerak et al., 2018). Service providers from healthcare, finance, and professional tutoring programs regularly assign prolonged coproduction tasks, such as prescriptions for chronic medications, recommendations to save every month for retirement, and daily completion of assignments for tutoring services. Customers take the coproduction tasks into their customer sphere and transform them into behavioral routines that lead to goal (coproduction task) attainment. For prolonged coproduction, customers must regularly activate the tasks and enact goal-supporting routines for long or indefinite periods of time before the customer can derive value from the service offering. Although coproduction tasks simplify the decision complexity surrounding the attainment of the customer's desired focal goal (Camacho et al., 2014; Gill and Hicks, 2006; Seiders et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019, Yaniv, 2004), customers struggle to sustain prolonged coproduction efforts (Spanjol, et al., 2015; Temerak et al., 2018). Evidence suggests that individuals support prolonged coproduction through their habituation of coproduction tasks (Spanjol et al., 2015), but research is limited in marketing to explain how habituation sustains prolonged coproduction. The purpose of this paper is to synthesize research in multiple disciplines to explore the ways that customers habituate prolonged coproduction.

Research alludes to the idea that customers optimize prolonged goal-pursuit through habit formation, where repetition and contextual consistency make coproduction task and corresponding routine behaviors increasingly automatic in activation and execution (Aarts and Dikiksterhuis, 2000; Gardner et al., 2019; Kruglanski and Szumowska 2020; Wood and Runger 2016). Behaviors that sustain prolonged goal pursuit incrementally develop automaticity through repetition and contextual consistency (Lally et al., 2010). As automaticity increases, the behavior's performance becomes less cognitively demanding and begins to operate automatically, where less awareness, intention, motivation, and effort are required to perform the behavior (Bargh, 1994). Thus, successful prolonged coproduction may be due to the customer's ability to habituate the activation and enactment of the coproduction task. However, there is limited insight into how coproduction behaviors become automatically activated and routinized (Spanjol et al., 2015). Consequently, service providers have little guidance on how they can design coproduction tasks to support their customer's prolonged coproduction efforts. In this study, we attempt to bridge this gap by focusing on the following research questions: (1) how do customers habituate coproduction tasks, and (2) what types of coproduction habits exist?

Background

      Synthesizing goal system and habit automaticity research, the authors suggest that two distinct forms of automatic processes interact to form habitual behaviors: goal automaticity and routine automaticity. Goal automaticity occurs at the goal level, where goal-means activation is automated via contextual associations that, when encountered, effortlessly activate the means. *Coproduction goal automaticity* is the degree to which the goal-context associations are unconsciously activated, where internal or external cues trigger the automatic selection of a coproduction routine that will lead to coproduction task attainment. This is akin to habitual instigation (Gardner et al., 2016; Gardner et al., 2019). Contextual cues act as automatic coproduction task reminders, reducing cognitive demands by alleviating the burden of deliberation (Gardner et al., 2019). Decision-making is cognitively optimized through repetition, contextual stability, and learning so that coproduction tasks that were once consciously activated become automatically activated via contextual cues that were repeatedly paired with the successful completion of the task in the past.

      Automaticity also accrues at the performance level when the enactment of the coproduction routine becomes increasingly effortless to perform. This is akin to habitual execution (Gardner et al., 2016; Gardner et al., 2019). When a new coproduction task is activated, the individual must create routines that will accomplish the task. With learning, repetition, and stability, the coproduction routine becomes mindlessly executed, freeing up cognitive resources for other matters (Gardner et al., 2019; Wood et al., 2002). The more efficient the performance of the behavioral routine, the more it becomes automatically enacted, resulting in the effortless achievement of the coproduction task. *Coproduction routine automaticity* is the degree to which the subactions of the coproduction routine can be automatically performed to completion.

      This distinction between habitually "deciding" and habitually "doing" is important, as prolonged coproduction is considered a complex process that delineates instigation and execution (Phillips and Gardner 2016; Spanjol et al. 2015). If two separate forms of automatic processes underlie habitual behaviors, then it may be argued that they may interact to create distinct forms of habitual behaviors. Thus, the authors propose that coproduction goal automaticity and coproduction routine automaticity are separate automatic processes that interact to create four distinct forms of habitual coproduction behaviors: nascent/sterile habits, pure habits, triggered habits, and routinized habits.

Typology of Coproduction Habits

      Nascent and sterile coproduction habits are coproduction behaviors that are void of both goal and routine automaticity. These types of coproduction tasks must be deliberately activated and purposefully executed. While all iterative coproduction tasks start as nascent coproduction behaviors, some coproduction tasks can acquire automaticity through repetition, consistency, and learning, while others may not. Sterile coproduction habits are those coproduction behaviors that must be regularly enacted but are impotent to both goal and routine automaticity.

      Triggered coproduction habits are coproduction tasks that are automatically instigated by contextual cues but whose coproduction routines are complex, inhibiting the formation of routine automaticity. Developed in highly stable contexts, associations form between the goal-context-routine that transfer goal activation from deliberate decision making to automatic activations of contextual cues that initiate a complex coproduction routine.

      Routinized coproduction habits occur when well-learned coproduction routines require deliberate goal state activation. Coproduction tasks must be deliberately activated, but their goal attainment routines are so well learned that they are automatically executed once activated. With deliberate activation, routinized coproduction tasks are akin to goal-dependent automaticity, where goal states must be deliberately activated before well-practiced action sequences can be performed to attain desired end states (Aarts and Dijksterhuis 2000; Bargh 1990; Bargh and Gollwitzer 1994).

      Pure coproduction habits arise when coproduction goals can be achieved with simple routines that are enacted in stable coproduction environments that, with repetition, become both habitually instigated and habitually executed. Customers maximize the value derived from a coproduction task when they transform it into contextually cued, well-learned behavioral routines that lead to effortless coproduction task attainment (De Houwer 2019; Gardner and Rebar 2019; Wood et al. 2022; Wood et al. 2022; Verplanken and Orbell 2019).

References
Upon Request

Summary Brief

Authentic socio-political activism and the consequence of woke activism

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Nowadays, brands actively engage in socio-political issues are considered highly partisan and socially controversial. There is a growing consensus among various stakeholders that brands need to be more active in socio-political campaigns. That kind of consensus is influencing brands to involve in socio-political issues. However, one of the biggest concerns for brands is to be seen as opportunistic, and consumers may perceive their involvement as inauthentic. We conduct four experimental studies with both student samples and the general population to test what kind of activism message is perceived as more authentic. The result shows that a concrete message focusing on internal policy changes inside the organization is perceived as more authentic.

Theoretical Framework

Brand's involvement in socio-political activism is defined as "public speech or actions focused on partisan issues made by or on behalf of a company using its corporate or individual brand name" (Moorman, 2020, p. 388). There is a growing consensus among various stakeholders that brands need to be more active in socio-political campaigns. That kind of consensus influences brands to be involved in socio-political issues (Bhagwat *et al.,* 2020; Hambrick & Wowak, 2021; Kotler & Sarkar, 2017). The overwhelming number of consumers (86%) are likely to see that brands play an active role and are four times more likely to gain from their involvement in socio-political issues (Edelman, 2020). However, one of the biggest concerns for brands is to be seen as opportunistic, and consumers may perceive their involvement as inauthentic (Vredenburg *et al.,* 2020). The concern is valid as consumer resentment against the brands is very high if consumers perceive that the brand's involvement is not authentic (Milfeld & Flint, 2021). Gillette experienced such kind of consumer resentment for its 2019 toxic masculinity campaign as the message lacked authenticity (Ritschel, 2019), and tens of brands were criticized for their hollow support for the Black Lives Matter movement (Nguyen, 2020).

Therefore, brands struggle because there is a disconnect between what brands communicate and what consumers want to hear. When brands are formulating the communication message, brands can choose to make the message concrete or abstract. Abstract message relies on abstract terms (hope, happiness) without specific details, and a concrete message focuses on the details of the message; therefore, concrete message conveys more information (Miller *et al.,* 2007; Wagner *et al.,* 2009). Therefore, a brand's socio-political message that conveys more information may seem a good strategy. However, the research shows that the abstract message is more effective in a situation of high causal uncertainty (Namkoong *et al.,* 2019). Socio-political issues that society is experiencing nowadays lead people to think about why this is happening, and this kind of question is an example of a high causal uncertainty-specific event. However, consumers demand concrete action from brands when socio-political incidents occur, triggering high causal uncertainty and leading consumers to seek more diagnostic information (Weary & Jacobson, 1997). Brands can respond to those demands by either communicating what changes they are making inside the organization (concrete internal action) or helping external organizations (concrete external action) working for meaningful changes. However, concrete internal action shows that the brand cares about its activism and therefore is perceived as more authentic.

Findings

There is a statistically significant main effect of message abstractness on brand's proximity to the socio-political activism (F (2, 182) = 15.48, p < .01) and on brand authenticity (F (2, 182) = 15.62, p < .01). Concrete message focusing on internal changes makes the Brand more aligned to the socio-political cause than the abstract message (Concrete Internal : M =69.87, SD = 23.12; Abstract: M = 43.39, SD = 24.19; MDIF = 26.48, p < .01) or the concrete message focuses on working with external organization (Concrete Internal : M =69.87, SD = 23.12; Concrete External: M = 54.11, SD = 31.47; MDIF = 15.76, p < .01). The result also supports our hypothesis that Brand's concrete internal message will be perceived as more authentic than abstract (Concrete Internal: M =5.28, SD = 1.08;

Abstract: M = 3.82, SD = 1.81; MDIF = 1.46, p < .01) or concrete external message (Concrete Internal: M =5.28, SD = 1.08; Concrete External: M = 4.52, SD = 1.37; MDIF = 0.76, p < .01).

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Summary Brief
Addressing the Coronavirus in the Long-Term: The Perception of Factors that Prevent the Spread and Physical Activity in Older and Younger Consumers

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This study examines the differences between older and younger consumers regarding the perception of prevention measures for the Coronavirus (COVID-19) as well as the increase in physical activity as a result of the Coronavirus Pandemic. A questionnaire was administered to over 600 respondents, which recorded basic demographics and then asked psychographic questions using various scales, some of which were designed for this study. A series of t-tests were run to compare the two groups. Implications for policymakers and health and fitness marketers were discussed.

Introduction

In 2020, a new acute viral respiratory infection (ARI), known as Coronavirus Disease 2019, or COVID-19, became an international pandemic. About 80% of cases are asymptomatic or with mild symptoms, the remaining cases can be severe and may result in death (Silveira, Silva Fagundes, Bizuti, Starck, Rossi, & Silva, 2020). As consumers deal with variants of the Coronavirus, it appears that the virus is not going to be totally eradicated from the marketplace. And although anyone can be infected with the virus, typical characteristics or higher risk candidates for infection have been identified: older consumers, those with hypertension, diabetes, cardiovascular disease, respiratory disease (Jimenez-Pavon & Carbonell-Baeza, 2020) and/or a compromised immune system (Ranasinghe, Ozemek, & Arena, 2020). A quarantine for those with significant symptoms of the Coronavirus may result in a major change in lifestyle, including a reduction in the level of physical activity (PA). Recommendations of social isolation have reduced physical exercise patterns, increasing a sedentary lifestyle.

Background

In the case of the Coronavirus, regular physical exercise can improve the immune response (Nyenhuis, Greiwe, Zeiger, Nanda, & Cooke, 2020; Silveira, Silva Fagundes, Bizuti, Starck, Rossi, & Silva, 2020) and prevent the virus from progressing to severe stages (Ranasinghe, Ozemek, & Arena, 2020). The reaction to the Coronavirus is dependent upon the host's immune system response, which is influenced by the following: genetics, age, gender, nutritional and physical status. Although challenging due to physical isolation and subsequent anxiety and stress, addressing general health via physical fitness, nutrition, sleep, and improving mental health, will boost the immune system (Ranasinghe, Ozemek, & Arena, 2020). Unfortunately, one third of the population doesn't engage in any physical exercise. Older consumers in particular benefit in terms of many diseases, including those that impact aging (Jimenez-Pavon & Carbonell-Baeza, 2020).

Purpose

The purpose of the study is to assess the perception of the importance of risk-reducing precautions for COVID-19 as well as the value of physical activity between older consumers (Matures, Baby Boomers, and Generation X) and younger consumers (Generation Y and Generation Z). Since older consumers are more vulnerable to the virus, it is especially important for them to engage in physical activity to address the Coronavirus over the long term. The results of the study may be significant for policymakers and health and fitness marketers as they implement their promotional strategies.

Findings

Based upon the demographic data collected in the final sample size of 611, the typical older consumer (Matures, Baby Boomers, Generation X) in this study is female, earns over $70,000 annually, is married, white (Caucasian), has completed a graduate degree, and works for a company or business. In contrast, the typical younger consumer (Generation Y, Generation Z) in this study is female, earns up to $10,000 annually, is single, white (Caucasian), has completed high school, and is a student.

The independent samples t-test was conducted to determine whether there were significant mean differences between older and younger consumers in terms of the following: 1) Factors that Prevent the Spread of Coronavirus, 2) the Physical Activity Risk Factors for Severe COVID-19, 3) Level of Physical Activity, and 4) Behaviors that Reduce Health Threats.

There are significant differences in Factors that Prevent the Spread of Coronavirus. Older consumers more strongly agree than younger consumers that the documented practices to reduce the transmission of COVID are effective: masking, social distancing, avoiding large gatherings, and getting vaccinated. There are also significant differences in the Level of Physical Activity. As a result of the Pandemic, younger consumers have increased their light, moderate, and vigorous physical activities significantly more than older consumers.

Conclusions

Some irony accompanies the results of this study. Older consumers realize the importance of practices to prevent the spread of Coronavirus more than younger consumers, yet they have not increased their level of physical activity as greatly as younger consumers. Increasing the level of physical activity, as discussed, is important for the prevention, or reduction of the severity, of most illnesses, including COVID-19. Furthermore, physical activity is more important for older consumers, since they are more vulnerable to the effects of the Coronavirus. Thus, older consumers should be increasing their physical activity significantly more than younger consumers as a result of the Pandemic.

Ranasinghe, Ozemek, & Arena (2020) state that "promoting physical activity has never been more critical" (p. 1196). Public policymakers and health and fitness marketers as well can promote the value of increased physical activity, whether that is a basic home exercise routine requiring little or no equipment, a health club membership, or a major investment in a home gym.

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Summary Brief
The Effects of Brand Logos on LinkedIn Profiles on Personal Branding

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Brand logos associations affect the behavior of consumers. A LinkedIn profile is the online personal brand representation of a professional. The profile always displays logos associated with the professional at the top. In this research, we conduct a series of experiments to identify the effects of brand logos on a LinkedIn profile on the personal branding communication of professionals and how others perceive them.

Introduction

In the groundbreaking research of Fitzsimons et al. (2008) about how brand encounters generate effects, participants exposed to Apple logos show more creative behavior. In this research, we want to find out the results of the brand logos displayed on a LinkedIn profile on the personal branding of the professionals and how others perceive them.

Online Personal Branding

According to Khedher (2019), the job market is becoming more competitive because digital technologies are causing professionals to pay more attention to their brands. Ries and Trout (1981), in their groundbreaking book "Positioning," dedicated an entire chapter to pointing out the importance of an individual developing their positioning strategy to stand out from the competition.

Vitelar (2019) find out that professionals want to learn how to develop and improve their brands. The theoretical concept of the personal brand in the last 20 years has progressed in how to do it online with particular emphasis on social media. (Ollington et al., 2013).

Thomson-Whiteside et al., 2018 suggest that using new communication technology like social media helps professionals to create and communicate their brand. LinkedIn, the social media platform, is the perfect vehicle to do that in the professional world. Especially in today's hyper-connected world (Swaminathan et al., 2020)

Therefore, this research aims to explore the effects of the brand logos on the LinkedIn profile of professionals, their personal brand, and how others perceive them.

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SESSION 16D: BE OUR GUEST!

CHAIR:

Aditya Gupta

Summary Brief
Service Technologies as Service Agents: When Customer Experiences are Negative

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Service robots have increasingly enhanced efficiency in the hospitality industry. However, little research has been done to fully understand service robots' interactions with customers when the service experience is perceived negatively. The purpose of this study is to examine the role of the service agent (human vs. humanoid robot server) in the relationship between perceived service manner (civil vs. uncivil) and its influence on customer emotions and Word of Mouth (WOM) intentions. Results of this study reveal that: 1) anger mediates service manner and WOM intentions, 2) service agent moderates service manner and anger, and 3) service agent moderates the indirect relationship between service manner and WOM intentions.

Introduction

Service robots are now assuming server roles in many service settings (Blaurock et al., 2022), and the hospitality industry is welcoming innovations to transform the customer experience (Liu et al., 2022). Literature on service robots to date mainly focuses on consumer adoption of these technologies. Few studies have examined how customer experiences are shaped by these service technologies (i.e., Hu et al., 2021; Choi et al., 2019). However, service manner has not been fully investigated, particularly when service agents' interactions with the customers are perceived negatively. Therefore, this study focuses on the influence of human vs. humanoid robot servers and their perceived service manner on customer emotions and behavioral intentions.

Experiences with Human and Humanoid Robot Servers in Hospitality Settings

Service robots are cool, and in the hospitality industry, customers experience "coolness" upon their first encounter with robot services (Tung & Au, 2018). Çakar and Akyol (2020) have reported higher customer engagement and WOM communications through online channels for hospitality contexts with service robots. WOM, as a behavioral response, has a potent influence on recruiting customers and increasing sales. Especially in today's online sharing environment, the decision-making of many hospitality consumers is influenced by WOM (Sukhu & Bilgihan, 2021). As service robots are the cool thing, customers would be more willing to engage in positive word of mouth in hospitality settings where humanoid robots are service agents. Research shows that when customers positively evaluate the service manner of the service agent and improve customer outcomes (Ryu & Lee, 2017) yet uncivil behaviors by service agents are frequently observed during interactional service experiences such as in restaurants and hotels (Okan & Elmadag, 2020). In many of these interactions, customers are involved as direct targets and observers (Henkel et al., 2017). Anger is evoked when a situation is assessed as unpleasant, mainly because the satisfaction of some objective is blocked. Thus, when customers witness incivility, we expect anger may be evoked.

Additionally, as consumers feel angrier, they will cope with this feeling by not engaging in positive WOM. Additionally, customers have high expectations of humanoid service robots and expect robots to respect social norms (Lu et al., 2020). However, as customers perceive a mismatch between the Humanoid robot server anticipated human qualities and its imperfect, nonhuman qualities, consumers feel discomfort (Mende et al., 2019). Since incivility also creates discomfort and thus negative emotions, customers will feel angrier when humanoid robot service agents are

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uncivil compared to human service agents. Moreover, the negative indirect effect of incivility on WOM intentions will be stronger for humanoid robot service agents.

H1: Perceived anger mediates the relationship between service manner and WOM intentions, such that consumers feel angrier toward the service organization when the service agent (human or humanoid robot server) interacts with an uncivil tone rather than a civil tone and, in turn, has lower positive WOM intentions.

H2: Service agent (human vs. humanoid robot server) moderates the relationship between service manner (civil vs. uncivil) and perceived anger. In other words, consumers feel angrier toward the service organization when the humanoid robot server interacts with an uncivil tone than the human server.

H3: Service agent moderates the indirect effect between service manner and WOM intentions.

Methods: Procedures, Participants, Measures, and Data Collection

A 2 (Service Agent: Human *vs.* Humanoid Robot) × 2 (Service Manner: Civil *vs.* Uncivil) between-subjects experimental study was designed. First, respondents were asked to imagine that they reserved a table to dine in a restaurant for lunch. Then, they were assigned to either the human (gender unspecified) or the humanoid robot server condition. After viewing one of the two pictures, respondents then read the descriptions of the service agent's behaviors. Next, respondents answered perceived incivility, anger, WOM intention, and demographic questions.

Findings

The independent samples t-test shows that the service manner manipulation check was successful (P. Incivility$_{Civil}$=2.5, P. Incivility$_{Uncivil}$=4.9, p<.001). To test the mediation effect of anger between server manner and WOM, we used Hayes' (2018) Process Macro Models 4, 1, and 7. Our findings show that anger fully mediates the relationship between service manner and WOM intentions (Service Manner on Anger β=-1.6, p< .001 and on WOM Intentions β=-.3, p= .1; and Anger on WOM Intentions β=-.6, p< .001). Moreover, the service agent (Human *vs.* Humanoid Robot) moderated the relationship between service manner and Anger (Anger$_{Human\_Uncivil}$=3.33, Anger$_{Human-Civil}$=2.2, Anger$_{Humanoid\_Uncivil}$=4.4, Anger$_{Humanoid-Civil}$=2.2; t=-2.7, p< .01). In cases where the service manner was uncivil, customers were significantly angrier when the service agent was a humanoid robot server. Finally, the moderated mediation results show that the service agent moderates the indirect effect between service manner and WOM intentions (Index of Moderated Mediation β=-.6, BSE=.2, LLCI/ULCI = .1/1.1*).* When the service agent is a human, anger partially mediates the relationship between service manner and WOM Intentions. However, when the service agent is a humanoid robot server, anger fully mediates the relationship between service manner and WOM Intentions. All hypotheses (H1, H2, and H3) were supported.

Discussion, Theoretical and Practical Implications

In summary, the results of this study add to the literature that anger fully mediates service manner and WOM intentions. The service agent moderates not only between service manner and anger but also the indirect relationship between service manner and WOM. This study reflects the notion of social aspects of human interaction with a service robot and how customers react to service failures (Huang & Philp, 2021). In the literature, studies pointed out that service encounters often occur in front of a social audience, which therefore influences bystanders' perspectives (Abboud et al., 2020; Liu & Mattila, 2019). As such, the service agent's uncivil behavior would directly lead to affect customers' negative feelings and also customers in the service setting. Prior studies have also identified the role of

anger between service failure type and dissatisfaction and willingness to switch (Chen et al., 2021). The current study adds more evidence to the negative consequence of uncivil service, leading to loss of customers in the service setting and WOM of unhappy customers.

From a managerial perspective, this study indicated that restaurant managers should closely monitor service agents' behaviors. For frontline human employees, managers may need to focus on recruiting the "right" employees and providing service training and recurrent training. For frontline humanoid robots, literature has indicated the attractiveness and coolness of using robot-serviced restaurants (Cha, 2020). More service robots are utilized in hotels, airports, and restaurants as a tool for recovery from COVID-19 due to their touchless characteristics (Kim et al., 2021; Parvez & Cihan, 2021). Our findings show that service robots can cause negative and undesirable outcomes if not handled appropriately. Thus, restaurant managers should consider their restaurant types (e.g., quick service, upscale) and restaurant diner demographics (e.g., young vs. old) when using service robots (Belanche et al., 2020). For example, if the restaurant has more families with young children, service robots should adopt more cuteness or use jokes to increase emotional attachment to the service agent. This positive result may reduce customers' negative emotions (e.g., anger) in the event of service failure.

References Available Upon Request

Summary Brief

A multilevel Analysis of Hotel Industry Customer Clustering using A Hybrid Data Mining-Decision Making Approach

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With the advent of the internet, availability of data has been tremendously increased. Most of the companies enter new environments that obligate them to endure competitions. Hence, they have to use relevant technologies for surviving in such conditions and the tourism industry is not an exception. In such circumstances, they must use this idea to enhance their profits (Palmer and McCole, 2000). CRM is a critical system for companies to take advantage of the competitive environment. There are a few studies in the field of tourism marketing which evaluate customers at multilevel analyses. The main purpose of this study is to achieve accurate customer clustering results by combining various data mining – Multi Criteria Decision Making (MCDM) methods. This is extremely important in any service operations specially leisure and hospitality industry where customers are of crucial importance to profatibility of the organizations. The data will be collected from publicly available hotel industry databases.

Keywords: Multilevel Analysis, Hotel Industry, Customer Clustering, Decision_making Methods

Customer Clustering

Accurate customer clustering would help organizations to run more efficient marketing campaigns, eventually leading to higher profits. Such evaluations require to analyze customers precisely, helping managers to identify valuable customers. A combination of Multi Criteria Decision Making (MCDM) and data mining tools was applied in various industries like assessing bank customers (Mahdiraji et al., 2019), however, they have not been used to assess hotel customers. To advance hotels' profits, this approach is practical and useful through concentrating customers.

As noted by Dursun and Caber, data mining tools can extract applicable knowledge whenever the CRM system has more information about customers. Data mining and MCDM helps us to understand customers' behaviors (Dursun and Caber, 2016). Data mining methods can define customer features (like gender or age) and behavioral information; thus, association rule and clustering reveal both information at group level i.e clusters and individual level i.e customers. Eventually, hotel managers can allocate resources, offer customized strategies, and render suitable services to each group.

The most common clusters can be loyal customers, potential customers, new customers, lost customers, and collective customers. For instance, loyal customers are eminent due to the profits they can bring to companies. There are various ways to attract them such as customization products or services and inform them about new services by sending messages. This group can join travel agencies and recreational centers which help customers to choose different parts of their travel with their affordable prices. Potential customers should be attracted to spend more money by divergent promotions with suitable prices; as an illustration, by producing packages offering a single room for more than three nights. New customers can

be motivated by proper advertisements such as installments without any profit; thence, they can pay hotel costs after they travel in specific durations or have free breakfast or transfer. Agencies should keep lost customers by offering promotions and low price services. Collective buying customers travel in groups; accordingly, hotels can gain their profit by discounts using plan amounts. As a consequence, hotel managers should develop their CRM actions to maintain customers and enhance their Customer Life Value (CLV).

In this case, CRM is identified as an invaluable resource for hospitality companies. More importantly, it obligates hotel managers to distinguish customers' demands before they seek new alternatives. Moreover, it can improve their Relationship Qualities and Customer Lifetime Value (Wu and Li, 2011). This system results in a significant rise in the number of faithful and satisfied customers (Colgate and Danaher, 2000). A recent study, by Dursun and Caber (2016), indicates that analyzing CRM's data obtained by data mining method give a deep understanding of tourists' behavior, remarkably ameliorating managers' performance. Data mining is a common technique applied to placed on big data developed by the of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). This technique can be divided into divergent cases based on various tasks. Some of the data mining methods, employed to extract information and find meaningful patterns, are proved to be robust and lucrative tools in marketing (Cheng et al., 2018; pal, 2011). These methods define a process called 'knowledge discovery' which comprises various steps to learn from hidden information (Ristoski and Paulheim, 2016). Data mining has two capacities: first, it is applied to big data, and second, hidden information can be extracted out of data (Liao and Chen, 2009). Moreover, data mining enables managers to disentangle relevant patterns and relationships between customers, data, and services and consequently reduce business operational risks (Cheng and Chen, 2009). Clustering as a data mining tool claims: synergies made inside the cluster, boosts the productivity, innovation economic performance of companies and creates competitive advantage. On the other hand, customer segmentation is critical for markets seeking suitable promotion strategies for different clusters (Seraphin et al., 2018).

In recent years, a myriad of studies in the field of planning and clustering in hospitality have been conducted utilizing different techniques. Using k-means and TOPSIS algorithms, researchers have thoroughly investigated travellers' choice behaviour towards hotels reservations. The results demonstated that the sleep quality was one of the most important factors contributing to eco-hotel selection in the majority of segments (Yadegaridehkordi et al., 2021). Besides, a comprehensive comparison among four cluster algorithms (Hierarchical clustering, K-Medoids, Fuzzy Clustering, and Self-Organising Maps (SOM) has been made by Arunachalam and Kumar (2018) to evaluate hotel's customers. In this work, four cluster validation (Silhouette, Dunn, Davies-Bouldin, Xie-Beni) were applied to assess clusters. Finally, they concluded that Fuzzy and SOM based clustering techniques are comparatively more efficient than conventional approaches in revealing the hidden information. Leelakasemsant and Boonchoo (2017) classified hotels in Taiwan with the two-step method to find meaningful relations between hotels' characteristics and performances. They noted that in each cluster pivotal factors governing are: hotel managers, hotel size, gender, and types of manager (owner vs. non-owner). Taking advantage of k-means and RFM approaches, Dursun and Caber (2016) clustered hotel's customers into six groups based on their characteristics, and conclusively indicated appropriate strategies for each of them.

In this paper, data mining and Multi-Criteria Decision Making (MCDM) methods are combined to extract highly accurate results. To begin with, customers are clustered by the K-means algorithm found on RMD attributes (Recently, Monetary, Duration). Three internal validation indices are selected to find the number of clusters, weights of these indices and obtaining the best number of clusters are computed by Shannon entropy and TOPSIS respectively. Afterward, hidden information and valuable patterns are discovered by

applying association rules. In the next step, appropriate strategies based on clusters' attributes are offered. Ultimatley, to evaluate clusters, TOPSIS, and CLV methods are applied.

RMD Model

RFM is based on the purchasing behaviors of customers, and customers are mainly clustered based on these attributes (Recency, Frequency, Monetary) (McCarty & Hastak, 2007) due to its reputation in detecting valuable customers (Hu and Yeh, 2014). As a consequence, effective strategies are offered for marketing by this tool. RFM has some advantages and disadvantages; first, RFM costs are affordable and let the managers understand customers' behaviors readily (Kahan,1998, Miglautsch, 2000). Second, it helps firms to anticipate and enhance their profits (Baecke & Van den Poel, 2010) third, it is an effective model for customers' purchasing behaviors with smaller set of variables. However, RFM only focuses on profitable customers (Wei et al.,2010), which means that it applies limited variables to understand customers and does not have prospects for new customers (McCarty and Hastak, 2007). Also, many services have limited resources with regards to gathering Frequency data since this variables requires assigning uniques customer IDs to each customer. To develop some of the RFM features by strengthening the weaknesses, researchers add some other variables to RFM such as TRFM (Timely), RFD (duration), FRAT (Amount and Type of products). Notwithstanding, in other industries, RFM and K-means have been used to identify valuable customers (Utomo, 2020). In this study, RMD (Recency, Monetary, Duration) is presented in order to overcome the difficulties discussed in acquiring Frequency data and also mitigate other weaknesses of the RFM model. RMD is defined as follows.

- R (Recency): Defined as the number of days between the latest presence of a hotel's customer and the date of analysis. It determines the most recent customers' presence.
- M (Monetary): The amount of money each customer spends.
- D (Duration): The number of days each individual stays at the hotel.

Research methodology

Three phases of this study include:
1- K determination-after data preparation.
2- Customer classifications, and rules extractions.
3- Clusters evaluations by CLV, and decision-making methods (TOPSIS and BWM).
These processes have been depicted in Fig. 1.
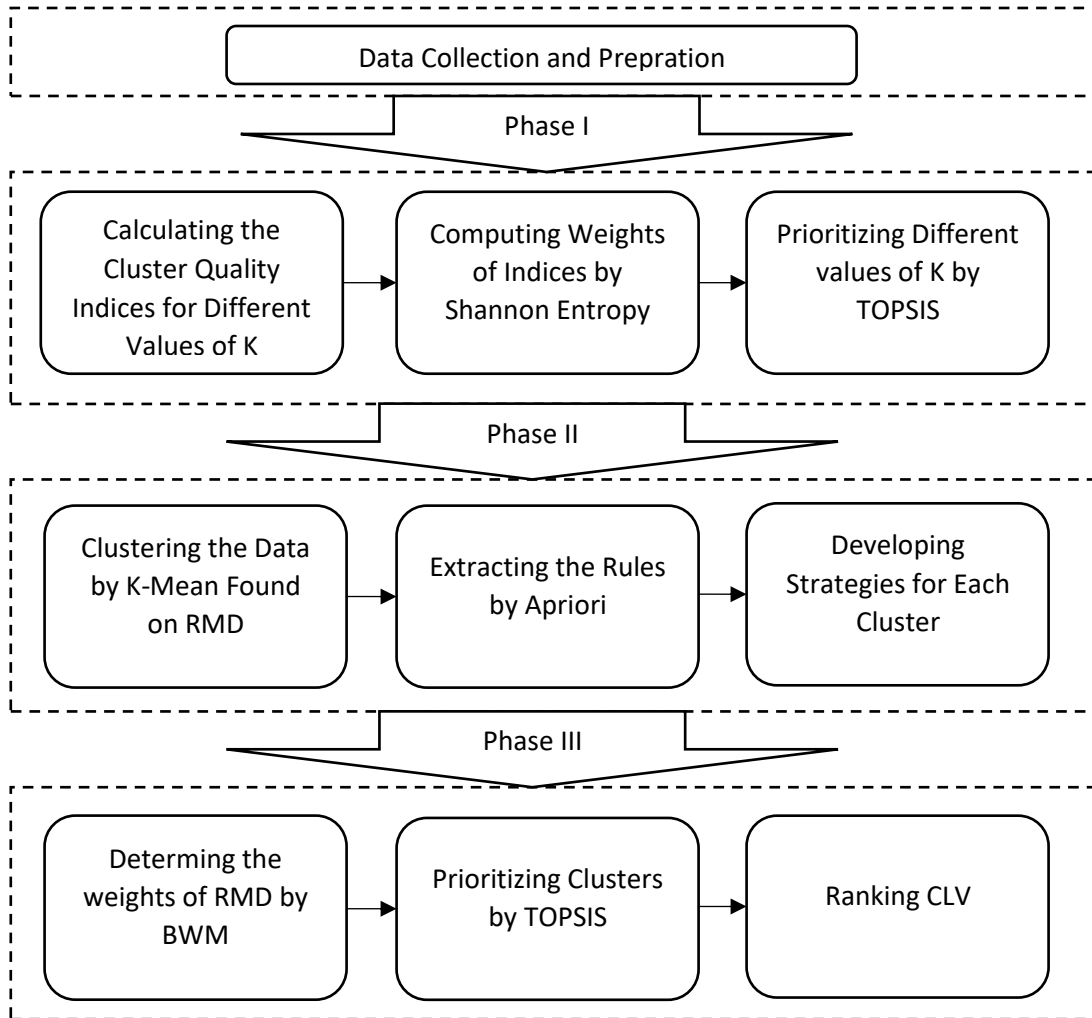
Figure
1. Research process to evaluate hotels' customers

2.1. **Phase I**

In phase I, the optimal number of clusters (K) is determined by the below steps.

1- The clusters are evaluated based on cluster quality indices including Silhouette Analysis, Calinski-Harabasz and, Calinski-Harabasz.
2- These indices are considered as decision criteria and their weights are extracted by Shannon Entropy
3- Different values of k are considered as decision Alternatives which are prioritized by TOPSIS

2.2. **Phase II**

1- Customers are clustered by the K-Mean algorithm found on RMD attributes. The optimal obtained number of phase I is considered as the number of clusters. To measure the distance, Euclidean distance.
2- Apriori as a method of an association rule is employed to extract the rules.
3- Tailored strategies are developed for each cluster based on its characteristics.

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2.3. Phase III

1- RMD attributes are considered as the criteria to assess clusters and the weights are determined by BWM.
2- Clusters are prioritized by TOPSIS.
3- CLV is computed for each cluster.

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Summary Brief

The impact of lobby renovation on guest satisfaction and financial performances

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Introduction

Service quality and guest satisfaction have become the key instruments for establishing a competitive edge in the hospitality industry (Nunkoo et al., 2019). To that end, there has been an increase in studies related to guest satisfaction and financial performance in the marketing and service literature (Sun & Kim, 2013). From an industry perspective, hotel owners, operators, and brands are particularly interested in determining the factors influencing guest satisfaction and financial performance. However, there is a paucity of research examining the relationship between hotel guest satisfaction and financial performance (Turner & Hesford, 2019), particularly when satisfaction has been influenced by a renovation or redesign of a hotel. This first contact between guests and hotel employees in the lobby shapes guests' initial impressions of the hotel (Nanu et al., 2020). A guest's first impression of the lobby can influence how they perceive the hotel brand throughout their stay (Mooney, 2019). The lobby is considered a vibrant social hub that integrates technology and is also a place to socialize, dine, and network. Furthermore, the lobby is a 24/7 revenue-generating space that caters to the guests' diverse needs (Upchurch, 2022). The customer journey physically starts from the lobby area, the initial touch point in the hotel, which is an important factor in the hotel's brand image (Pillai et al., 2021). Although the guestrooms are considered the backbone of the hospitality business, the lobby is its heart (Kilburn, 2018). A hotel's lobby has the capacity to cultivate a sense of hospitality, a sense of community, and even an emotional connection with the guests.

Renovating the lobby to include proper design criteria is a value creation act that might improve the hotel's branding, marketing, and ability to compete. According to a study by TripAdvisor, hotel properties with at least one renovated picture online will see an increase of +138% in travel engagement and have a +225% likelihood of booking inquiries (Amerail Systems, 2020). Lobby renovations not only impact the guest experience but also maximizes the hotel's return on investment (Fox, 2017). It may also help to encourage loyalty, facilitate social media promotion, and increase revenues (Huang & Tsaih, 2021). Therefore, lobby renovations are unavoidably necessary for hotels to remain competitive. Despite its importance and cost, hotel renovations are being understudied in hospitality literature from an academic perspective (Bloom, 2015). Although previous studies have investigated the effects of store remodeling on customers' cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions (e.g., Brüggen et al., 2011), specifically, to the best of our knowledge, there are no studies examining the impact of lobby renovations on guest satisfaction and financial performance. This study will examine guest satisfaction surveys and

TripAdvisor ratings from a 248-room hotel that went through an extensive lobby renovation in 2015. Data from 2013/14 will be compared to data gathered from 2016/17. Post renovation data will also be broken up into short-term (up to one-year post renovation) and long-term (longer than one year since renovation). In addition, the financial performance of the same hotel (RevPar, ADR, and Occupancy %) will also be used to help measure any improvement in revenue generation post-renovation as compared to pre-renovation.

Literature review

Hotel renovations may be generally defined as: "the process of retaining or improving the hotel image by modifying the tangible product, due to a variety of reasons, through any changes in the hotel layout (e.g., property structure-new extension) and/or any additions or replacement of materials and Furniture, Fixture and Equipment" (Hassanien & Baum, 2001, p.278). Stipanuk and Roffmann (1996, p.99) classified renovations in hotels as "minor," "major," and "master" renovations. "Minor" renovations reflect small changes, mainly focusing on replacing or renewing non-durable furnishings, and do not affect or change the hotel's image. A major renovation involves replacing all furnishings and equipment in a certain area in the hotel to enhance the hotel's image. A master renovation denotes the renovation of the entire property to change the hotel image partially or fully. Such a renovation is comprehensive and involves closing the entire hotel for some period of time. A well-planned proactive renovation can help a hotel achieve greater guest satisfaction which in turn increases profitability, reduce operational costs, enhances brand image, and complies with recent trends (Baum & Wolchuk, 1992; Lynn & Seldon, 1993; Watkins, 1995; Chipkin, 1997; Hassanien & Baum, 2002; Nanu et al., 2020). Hotels are focussing on renovating their lobbies to meet their guests' demands, increase the value of a hotel room, and make a greater profit (Keller, 2016; Manley, 2018).

Banker et al. (2005) examined the relationship between customer satisfaction and financial performance (total Revenue per Available Room (RevPAR) and Gross Operating Profit per Available Room (GOPPAR)) for a major hotel chain. Their results demonstrated that customer satisfaction was positively related to RevPAR and GOPPAR. Similarly, Bloom (2015), using a correlational design, found that hotel renovations were positively correlated to customer satisfaction, GOPPAR, and Gross Operating Profit per Occupied Room (GOPPOR). Furthermore, competitors are prone to imitate an idea once a hotel firm launches a new product or service (Turner & Hesford, 2019). As a result of competition, a particular product's benefits are short-lived since the market becomes saturated with competitors (Mia & Patiar, 2001). The advantages of differentiation via renovation are anticipated to diminish over time, given that most markets are competitive (McManus, 2013). Taking together, we hypothesize the following:

H1: "Guest satisfaction and financial performance will be higher after the lobby renovations (2016) than before lobby renovations (2014)."
H2: "Lobby renovations (2015) will be positively related to increased guest satisfaction (2016) and increased financial performance in 2016."
H3: "In the long term, the guest satisfaction (2018) and financial performance (2018) gains from lobby renovation decline."

Methodology

The data for the study comes from a single hotel located within the South-eastern United States. The data for guest satisfaction will include guest satisfaction surveys and data from Trip Advisor. The guest surveys utilized a 10-point Likert scale ranging from unacceptable (1) to outstanding (10) and covered various topics, including satisfaction, FBI, and value for money. The hotel performance (RevPAR, ADR, and Occ %) and revenue measures were obtained from Smith Travel Research.

Expected contributions

It is important for the hotel industry to fully comprehend the relationships between the lobby, guest satisfaction, and financial performance. The current study will help hotels quantify the impacts of lobby renovations (both in the short and long term) from a customer and financial perspective. Further insight into how lobby renovations impact a hotel's reputation on unsolicited review sites, such as TripAdvisor, will also be examined. Hotel owners and operators have limited budgets for capital expenditures and facility renovations and must make hard decisions about where money and renovations should occur within a hotel. The current study will help to measure the importance and impact of a lobby renovation, add to the current body of knowledge and allow hotel owners and operators make more informed decisions about where to spend their time and money.

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Full Paper

Canvases of Self-Discovery or Blueprints of Self-Creation? Conceptualizing Two Pathways for the Experience of Meaning in Experiential Consumption

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The current work proposes a dual pathway framework for the experience of personal meaning in instances of experiential consumption. Building on the results of a qualitative research methodology comprising depth interviews with consumers, the paper highlights how meaning can be achieved through serendipitous self-discovery or planned self-creation. The resulting framework provides an initial step toward understanding how pre-purchase and post-purchase experiences might differ between the two pathways and the implications that holds for marketing theory and practice.

Introduction

What was the last example of experiential consumption you can recall that you would consider to be personally meaningful? And how did it come about? Did you intentionally plan for the consumption experience in a bid to add something to your sense of self? Or did it happen serendipitously because you stumbled onto a nugget of self-knowledge over the course of that experience? Based on a subset of findings from an earlier research project, I propose a conceptualization of two possible pathways that could be used to study how consumption experiences become imbued with a sense of personal meaning.

Theoretical Background

While the domain of experiential consumption (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman 1982) has attracted a wealth of scholarly attention since its inception (Caru and Cova 2003; Lanier and Rader 2015), recent calls for research have increasingly begun arguing for expanding the ambit of this topic. Scholars have expressed a need to go beyond pleasurable consumption experiences and explore what makes consumption experiences meaningful (Alba and Williams 2013; Schmitt, Brakus, and Zarantonello 2015). While the degree to which a consumer finds a particular experience personally meaningful is, by its very nature, immensely subjective, two broad classes of consumption experiences can be discerned: instances of serendipitous self-discovery and episodes of intentional self-creation.

Methodology Note

This conceptualization is based, in part, from my findings from a qualitative research project which entailed asking respondents about instances of meaningful purchases. I chose a depth interview research methodology given the exploratory nature of the research question and analyses comprised multiple rounds of open, axial, and thematic coding to distill respondent accounts into a process framework. Qualitative findings from such interviews with 21 respondents from a demographically diverse background revealed these two distinct pathways of experiencing meaningful consumption within experiential service contexts.

Respondents who exhibited a self-discovery narrative shared instances where certain purchases made in the context of travel, internships, and work-away assignments helped them gain insight into their sense of self and shaped their subsequent behaviors. In contrast, respondents who exhibited a self-creation narrative shared accounts of deliberately and purposefully planning and executing one or more purchases in a bid to add to their sense of self (purchases ranged from skill-enhancement lessons to college courses and DIY furniture).

Conceptual Framework

Briefly, the former would occur when a consumer chances upon a flash of revelatory insight into their own self when they participate in a consumption experience (which they may have embarked on for completely unrelated reasons). The latter, in contrast, would occur because of proper planning and deliberative decision-making wherein at least part of the reason for making the purchase is rooted in a high likelihood of the consumption experience adding to a consumer's sense of self. An illustration of the difference between the two can be provided through the example of a travel-related consumption experience: kayaking. Consumer A, who has never kayaked before, happens to participate in the experience as part of a package tour around Lake Michigan and discovers, to her delight, that she loves it because it combines beauty and exercise. For Consumer B (also on the same tour), on the other hand, kayaking is a key reason why he signed up for the package tour in the first place because his goal is to kayak in all the Great Lakes. The same consumption experience, therefore, ends up serving as a canvas for self-discovery for Consumer A and the next phase in the blueprint of self-creation for Consumer B.

Figure 1 shows how antecedents and consequences of consumption experiences can differ for these two pathways. Consumers experiencing self-discovery might be more likely to repurchase the same experience or become more open to trying out a similar experience. Consumer A, for instance, might decide to kayak again because she enjoyed it and/or she might become open to try out other water-based experiences like canoeing or sailing. Consumers accomplishing self-creation, in contrast, might go on to the next consumption experience in their planned sequence (if they have one) or decide to embark on a different self-creation sequence necessitating a different set of planned consumption experiences. Consumer B, for instance, might start planning for kayaking in any of the remaining Great Lakes and/or (if that was the last lake on his list) might shift his sights to the next goal he has set for himself in his self-creation journey and start planning for mountain biking in Colorado. While not shown in the figure, it is also possible that consumers might alternate between different pathways depending on their experience. Thus, Consumer A might end up planning a self-creationary sequence of certain consumption experiences (because of her positive experience with kayaking) while Consumer B, over the course of his otherwise planned trip, might experience a moment of serendipitous self-discovery during another type of consumption experience.

Figure 1: The Pathways of Serendipitous Self-Discovery and Planned Self-Creation: A Conceptual Framework
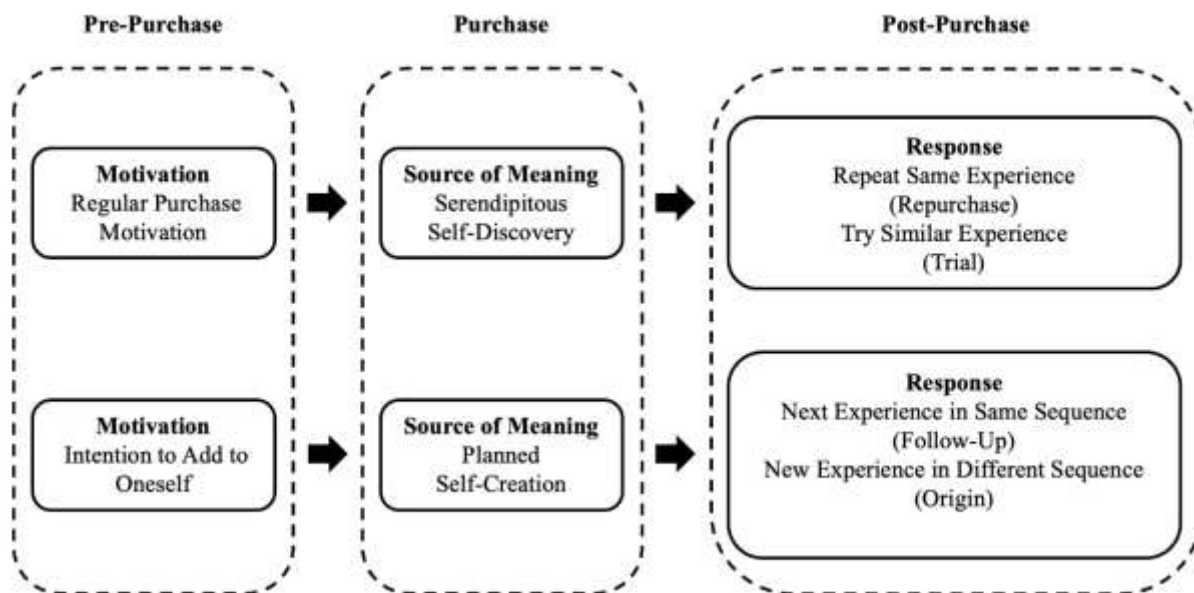
Implications for Theory and Practice

Theoretically, it may be worthwhile to explore how different consumer-level and purchase-level features may help or hinder these different experiences of meaningfulness from consumption experiences. Managerially, marketers might decide to adjust their market offerings depending on the kinds of consumers they get. While they are likely to be better off if they focus on providing a robust core experience for consumers engaging in planned self-creation, they might benefit from designing the experience to be more open-ended and fluid to interpretation to aid self-discovery for the other type of consumers. Overall, though, I believe it may be worthwhile to delve deeper into the differences between these two classes of consumption experiences: the ones we deliberatively choose to pursue meaning and the ones through which we are lucky enough to experience meaning.

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Summary Brief

To Quit or Not to Quit: How Directive Modification, Organizational Identity and Team Orientation Influence Internal Boundary Spanner Behavior

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This study considers some influencers of intentions to quit in an internal customer service environment. Utilizing survey responses from employees of eight different U.S. organizations, hypotheses derived from the relationship investment model were tested. Results indicate that directive modification, organizational identity, and team orientation of the internal boundary spanners influence their intentions to quit their current job.

Introduction

While most marketing research focuses on externally oriented interactions between the organization and its customers or suppliers, there is a growing body of literature that considers the benefits of an effective internal marketplace within an organization. The philosophy of internal marketing is rooted in the assertion that by marketing to employees and persuading them to "buy in" (in the form of increased efforts that more closely align with organizational goals), the organization will in turn be able to provide more effective marketing efforts to external partners (Berry et al. 1991). One important aspect of many marketing efforts is customer service. Some organizations even focus on customer service as the source of their competitive advantage in the external marketplace. Customer service is a critical part of the internal marketplace as well as the external environment. Just as it may be a significant form of value creation in the external marketplace, customer service can also create value within the internal market as well (Boukis 2019). Research has shown that external boundary-spanners may exercise their own tacit knowledge and judgement by serving customers in ways that deviate from managerial guidance (McAmis, Evans, and Arnold 2015). It is not unreasonable to expect the same could be true in an internal marketing situation. Also, the receiver of customer service is not necessarily the only one who is affected by that provision, particularly in an internal marketing setting. It is critical to note that in an internal marketing scenario, the provider of that service is an employee of the firm whose welfare should also be considered. Assuming a social exchange theory approach, we examine the notion that providing support to fellow employees represents a sunk cost in the relational exchange that will increase the commitment of the exchange partner to the organization. The purpose of this research is to investigate employee helping behavior through the lens of an internal marketplace. Treating this helping behavior as a form of intra-organizational boundary spanning/exchange, we test the effects of these kinds of relationship investments on employee attitudinal outcomes. Specifically, we consider directive modification by the employee as a means of helping other departments, its influence on organizational identity, and the resulting impact of organizational identity on intention to quit. The moderating effects of team orientation on the relationship between organizational identity and intention to quit are also tested.

Background

We draw from Rusbult's (1980) relationship investment model as a framework for this conceptualization. In essence, this framework suggests that when individual needs in a relationship are not being met, better quality alternatives contribute to a decrease in commitment which leads to, among other outcomes, an intention to leave the relationship and ultimately, the organization. Using commitment as a central mediator, Rusbult's model posits three potential antecedents to commitment (satisfaction, quality of alternatives, and investments) as well as relationship stability as an outcome of commitment. For the purposes of our research, we focus on the investment leg of Rusbult's overall model.

Helping colleagues within the organization represents an investment in the relationship with these coworkers. We consider directive modification as a form of helping behavior within the intra-organizational context (or the internal marketplace). Directive modification is defined as "any behavior or behavioral intention by a boundary spanner that partially or wholly deviates from the actions prescribed" (McAmis et al. 2015, p. 204-5). By this definition, directive modification represents a potentially significant investment for the employee engaging in the behavior because of the increased risk of prospective negative personal consequences. Organizational identity is defined as "the extent to which an organizational member defines himself/herself with reference to his/her organizational membership" (He & Brown 2013, p. 12). Favorable organizational identity should be positively correlated with a commitment to an employee's organization. As Rusbult, Agnew and Arriaga (2011) note, commitment is more strongly related to why employment relationships endure than an individual's level of satisfaction with their work/employing organization. Personal and material investments in relationships tend to create a strong psychological inducement to persist in relationships. High commitment individuals are more inclined to forego personal preferences for the sake of acting on behalf of one's partner and relatedly more inclined to forgive a partner in the event they have underperformed.

Key Findings

Results of hypothesis testing are depicted in Figure 1. The findings indicate that individual empowerment of employees to allow flexibility in delivery of goods and services in the internal market can benefit the firm in the form of higher organizational identity and lower intentions to quit from individual employees. In addition, the cultivation of a strong team orientation can help to accentuate the positive impacts of the provision of internal customer service.
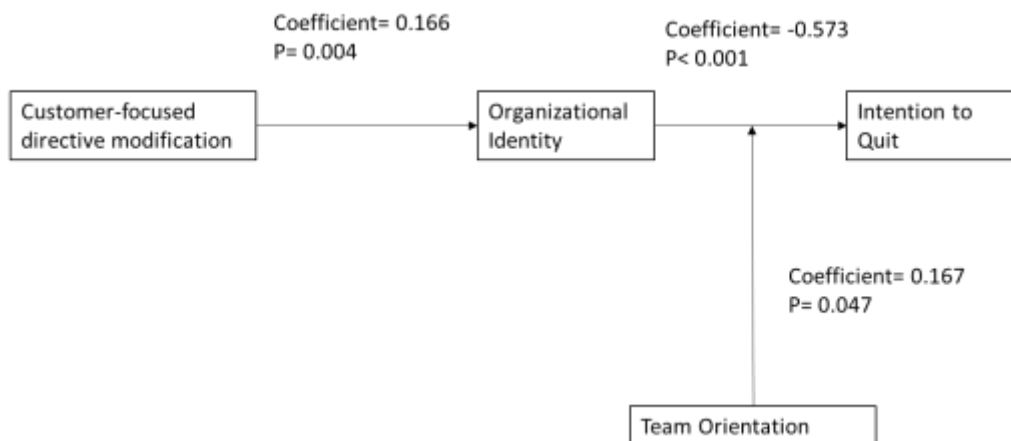
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SESSION 16E: TOWARD A RESEARCH AGENDA FOR THE FUTURE OF SOCIAL SELLING IN BUSINESS-TO-BUSINESS MARKETS

CHAIR:

Wendy Ritz

Panelists:

Wendy Ritz

Joie Hain

Todd Bacile

SESSION 16F: TEACHING MOMENTS SESSION 2

CHAIR:

Prachi Gala

Charles Drehmer

Parker Wooddroof

Innovations in Teaching Competition
Pitching Across the Curriculum

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Gary Johnson, University of Montevallo, USA

Marketing professors are well versed in teaching the concept of integrated marketing communication and stressing the importance of marketing divisions working together to create a unified image. Similarly, marketing educators could improve on teaching and learning opportunities by integrating the concepts taught in various courses across the marketing curriculum (Ayers & Underwood, 2007). Often, a lack of integration comes from the fact that courses are often taught in isolation and feature different pedagogies and content (Liu and Levin, 2018). This lack of coordination has caught the attention of accreditation boards, such as AACSB, who have called for greater integration between courses (AACSB, 2019). This innovation works within the marketing curriculum to integrate personal branding and personal selling skills across the marketing curriculum by linking four assignments across three courses.

Marketing is a diverse academic discipline where the course content must work together to meet the overall marketing objectives. The marketing curriculum in higher education seeks to provide students with academic and practitioner experiences that will assist them secure employment upon graduation. As the workforce continues to evolve to adapt to new workflows, environments, and a continued increase in global markets, hiring managers are seeking employees who possess a dynamic set of soft skills and other critical professional skills (Lastner & Rast, 2016; Lie & Levin, 2018). Marketing courses provide an opportunity to utilize important marketing principles and to learn critical communication and listening skills. Among these communication skills is the ability to confidently speak to others about one's personal value in the marketplace.

While these skills can be developed in a variety of courses, often it falls within the sales curriculum. Personal selling increasingly plays a more important role in the marketing curriculum. (Spiller et al., 2020). One reason is because sales is the most common occupation for college students upon graduating with a marketing degree (Sales Education Foundation, 2019). It is estimated that more than ¾ of marketing majors will take a job in sales (Bolander et al., 2014). Further, it is expected that 458,700 new professional selling positions will be added to the workforce every year through 2026 (Spiller et al., 2020).

Colleges and universities are responding to this need, with numerous higher education institutions offering at least one course in sales and increasing sales course offerings by over 300% in the last 20 years (Cummins et al., 2020). The number of schools offering a sales education program has increased by over 400% (Sales Education Foundation, 2019). The increase in sales education programs corresponds to the transition in academics from passive learning to active skill development. (Healy et al., 2011). As an applied profession, sales and professional selling requires balancing conceptual knowledge and theory with technical skills in selling (Schibrowsky et al.,2002) tactile skills such as active listening, building rapport, presentations, benefit alignment, and prospecting (Spiller, et al., 2020).

A formal sales education benefits companies by helping to accelerate the learning curve for students coming to work with them right out of school (Rippé, 2015). This is important due to the high costs associated with training sales people; scholars estimate that it costs on average $22,000-29,000 to train a new salesperson (Krishnamoorthy et al., 2005), with the average organization spending almost $1 million dollars annually on sales training (Ahearne et al. 2019). Studies have shown that new salespeople who studied sales in college show stronger performance in a sales role (Bolander et al., 2014). Content taught in sales and sales management courses should go beyond the fundamentals of the selling process to include development of communication skills, critical thinking, creativity and collaboration (Lastner & Rast, 2016).

Since sales education is behavioral, not merely conceptual, experiential learning is commonly used in sales courses. This can take the form of role plays, sales case exercises, simulations, service-learning, job shadowing, in-

class presentations, coaching and other active techniques (Healy et al., 2011). Experiential learning provides a valuable pedagogy for applying the professional selling process using hands-on practical experiences that can be similar to on-the-job learning (Healy et al., 2011) and creates a foundation for the future success of a student in sales (Saavedra Torres & Rawal, 2021). However, Spiller et al. (2020) researched sales course syllabi and found that lectures are still the most common teaching method used, along with other common techniques of class discussions (91.7%), role-plays (87.5%), and student presentations (79.2%).

It is a challenge for instructors to bring real-life experience into the classroom setting (Pelletier & Hopkins, 2018). This is evident by the fact that field assignments were used in only 12.5% of sales courses (Spiller et al., 2020). Role plays seem the easiest to apply to the sales classroom setting. The activity of role-playing has shown to improve students' communication and critical thinking skills (Pelletier & Hopkins, 2018). There are some well-known problems with the lack of realism in role plays scenarios. Because students are familiar with their peers and in-class role playing has a low risk of making a poor purchase decision. Students don't take role plays seriously, rarely offer serious objectives, and fail to negotiate, thus closing a sale in a role play tends to be easy and straightforward (Saavedra Torres & Rawal, 2021; Shukor, 2021). Role plays also result in a lower level of anxiety than the pressures associated with the real-world sales process from initial approach, quality of presentations, the fear of rejection, the need to meet quotas, and the stress of time restrictions (Pelletier & Hopkins, 2018; Rippé, 2015). Finally, developing effective role-play scenarios can be very time consuming for professors, especially as popularity of sales classes grows (Pelletier & Hopkins, 2018). Similarly, class presentations might help with communication skills, but they don't lack the opportunity for real-life exposure to the sales process.

Issues with these more popular approaches to sales education can be modified by allowing students to engage in a practitioner-focused sales process that includes identifying prospects, learning their needs, developing a sales presentation, overcoming objections to close a sale, while striving to meet defined sales goals. This innovation answers the call to "design and implementation of immersive learning sales projects that move beyond classroom simulations and mock exercises to provide students with actual real-world selling experience." (Lastner & Rast, 2016, p. 43). Others have suggested other hands-on immersive learning activities for sales courses. Many of these approaches utilize service-learning approaches through sales scenarios such as ads in coupon books (Chapman et al., 2016), sponsorships and group tickets sales for a golf outing (Young & Hawes, 2013), and advertising for university media offerings (Levin & Peterson, 2015). Others focus on B2C sales, selling everything from cookies (Whalen & Coker, 2017), chocolate bars (Rippé, 2015), and sporting event tickets sales (Inks et al., 2011). Some have even focused on B2B with using sales education as a method for a startup business in a business incubator (Lastner & Rast, 2016) and selling ad space in a newspaper (Bussière, 2017). This innovation goes beyond these approaches by building on skill development across three courses in the marketing curriculum.

Teaching Innovation Concept

It is not new for marketing courses to incorporate personal branding and career planning with personal selling skills. This activity is unique because it is built as a tiered program across three courses, with learning outcomes at each phase and assessments taken to measure effectiveness. The first phase introduces the concepts through a personal branding pitch in the marketing principles class, where students are learning about the marketing mix and branding. The second phase of this learning exercise focuses on comprehension and is placed withing the personal selling class. The final phase focuses on mastery and is assigned in a sales management class.

Phase 1: Principles of Marketing

This concept is introduced in the Principles Marketing course as a way to have students start to develop their own personal brand. There are two activities that occur over the course of a semester, as students learn more and are able to apply this increased learning.

1. Slide Right. The first activity requires students to post a PowerPoint slide to answer the question "Tell me about yourself." The discussion post is titled "Slide Right" to borrow from the digital dating platforms where people are looking to meet other people. This reference can help the student better connect with the objective of what the outcome should be with the slide and remind students that employers and customers make decisions about future employees and salespeople in a very short period of time. (Berry, 1990).

The students are provided an example from the professor who posts first to the discussion with their slide and information. The discussion post is limited to a single slide to reinforce for the student the need to be brief and to take time to decide what strategically they want others to know about themselves. Each student will post their PowerPoint slide to the discussion for other students to read and comment. The professor will grade this activity and offer students feedback about the list of attributes the student provided the class.

2. Personal Brand. The second assignment builds on the first assignment as students develop greater knowledge of both strategic marketing and branding, after students learn the role personal selling plays in the marketing process. It also helps student, regardless or major or future career aspirations, learn how personal selling characteristics apply in securing future employment (Bolander, et al., 2019). Students will be assigned the "Personal Brand" pitch assignment that requires them to utilize principles they have learned about brand management and personal selling and develop a personal branding pitch. The assignment will require students to video themselves answering a more in-depth answer to the question "Tell me about yourself." The video is limited to two minutes and is submitted for the professor to review and grade. The professor will provide students with feedback about their submission to offer opportunities to improve. To ensure the students take the assignment seriously, the top five submissions (as judged by the professor and other faculty) will be given automatic entrance into a Personal Brand Contest. The remaining students in the class are given the option to update their message and compete for a spot. A panel of faculty members, alumni, and business professionals will judge the final students to select a winner. Winners will receive a prize, recognition on college social media, and earn "bragging rights" for their resume. The competition reinforces to students that they will always encounter competitors for any that personal branding activity or sales pitch situation as om the future, students will be interviewing and competing for one job with many other candidates. These two activities build interviewing skills and ability to communicate confidentially and strategically which will help students be more competitive seeking jobs and internships. In addition, the competition better imitates the personal selling environment where there is perceived risk related to rejection.

Phases 2: Personal Selling Course

The Personal Branding activities become the basis for the next phase, which follow in the personal selling class. Students will build on their learning with personal branding and use the confidence and prior knowledge to develop a sales pitch and build rapport with a real-life customer. Builds on the previous experience, the stakes are higher because students are given an executive bio to research before tailoring their personal pitch to a decision-maker in the community. They will then refine and practice the pitch before presenting to the executive. This helps the exercise move beyond role-playing, because they are actively researching and tailoring their message to a potential employer. It also moves the beyond typical role plays because it creates the same sense of nervousness as a true sales presentation. In addition to the client, the pitches are judged by a panel of two or three volunteers who are established sales professionals who can offer input and assessment directly to the students after their pitch.

Phase 3: Sales Management Course

The experiential learning from this activity will come full circle in the sales management class, the next step in the sales curriculum. The students in this class will serve as mentors to students in the personal selling class and attend at least one or two classes to help students prepare their personal brand pitch. Students in the sales management class learn about the role of mentoring in the sales management process as well as given specific insights into how to mentor. The students in the sales management class will use this activity to get real experience nurturing junior colleagues, an important role for strong sales managers.

Combined, these assignments will help students learn the role sales plays in the overall business relationship, and encourage them to see how basic principles can be utilized to confidently speak to their own brand when meeting with others at networking events, recruiting fairs, and on job interviews. It also provides strong support for AACSB's Assurance of Learning standards. By providing for curriculum mapping of skills and levels of competency from introduction, to comprehension, to mastery, this activity provides a strong tool to reduce competency gaps by linking three courses across the curriculum.

Alternate adaptations and multiple ways to conduct the exercise:
1. Limited curriculum. If there isn't a stand-alone sales management course, it would be possible to have sales students mentor the personal pitch projects in Principles of Marketing. This would still give sales students some experience with the mentoring process.
2. No pitch contests. If the college doesn't have resources or interest to run a pitch contest, student pitches could be shown in the principles class, and students could vote on the best or outside judges could be brought in to judge.
3. Online or in person courses. These activities can be utilized for either an in-person class or an online class. Pitches can be judge by the whole class online through a discussion board or presented in class for the principles course. Personal selling pitches could be scheduled via zoom, or prerecorded. Since salespeople are often remote, the mentoring aspect could use remote tools such as Microsoft Teams or Zoom to hold mentoring meetings.
4. Large class adaptation. Some classes are too large to have each student present, or there is not time in the schedule for all the presentations. In this case, presentations could be placed online or on social media.

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Teaching Moment

A Poster Session on Final Presentation Day

Ream A. Shoreibah, Birmingham-Southern College, USA

Final presentations are an opportunity for student teams to showcase their accomplishments and ability to put theory into practice. In a marketing class where students work with clients on semester projects, a poster presentation session is a valuable alternative to traditional presentations. Each team prepares a poster that includes—for example—the project background, objectives, concepts applied, and accomplishments, with pictures and other illustrative figures. Clients and other community members are invited and may come and go as they please. Students gain practice presenting in this new format and take pride in showcasing their work to a wider audience.

Teaching Moment

Students' Day Out: Experiential Learning on Sensory Marketing

Simran Kaur, Monash University, Malaysia

Learning through experience and active participation is arguably one of the most enriching ways of understanding abstract concepts. Hence, taking your class outdoors (or in this case, a mall) for students to see the 'classroom concepts' in real-world adds significant value to the student learning experience. Moreover, giving this task as a group exercise requires them to reflect and discuss with their peers and provides multiple perspective to a concept. The classroom session is then used for students to briefly present their observations and gives an opportunity for peer as well as instructor feedback.

Teaching Moment

Marketing Goes to the Movies

Jane Dunnett, University of New Brunswick, Fredericton, NB, Canada

Marketing is all around us, including the movies and television shows that we watch. Sometimes it may be evident by a character shopping for a prom dress, and we note the retailer or thrift store where she browses. Often, the storyline follows a child saving change over a time to make a special purchase of a much-sought toy. Still other times we recognize marketing in more subtle product placement as cereal is poured into a bowl or a beverage is opened while the characters sit down to have a serious conversation.

The intention of this project is to provide students with a simulated realistic situation where life is unfolding (for the characters involved) and the marketing around them impacts their perceptions, their learning, their attitudes, and their decisions. We see evidence of the environmental forces at work, such as the economic impact on the student's life, the technological impact on the small business owner, or the political-legal impact on the part-time worker, among others. Students also consider interactions occurring between the six environmental forces.

In the assignment, students view a movie from a list provided and discuss the marketing elements they see, describing the scenes and making connections to material from our Marketing Management course. In these movies, students have observed elements of the marketing mix, segmentation, positioning, fads, the impact of social class, social and cultural factors, and personality. They have identified different levels of needs from Maslow's Hierarchy and examined points-of-difference and points-of-parity when considering brand or retail positioning. They also consider the impact of pricing and observe incidents of product placement throughout the films.

Students have been insightful in their consideration and analysis of the movies viewed and they finish with what they have learned about the dynamic environment in which marketing decisions are made. I've been delighted with their creativity, and, equally important, I really enjoy reading their submissions.

Teaching Moment
"Market Myself, Market Ourselves"

Matthew B. Lunde, University of Minnesota Duluth, USA

How do you engage *Principles of Marketing* students (many of whom are nonmajors) to learn about marketing? You have them market themselves! First, individually, each student will create a resume. Next, they will individually conduct an environmental and SWOT analysis on themselves, followed by identifying their career goals and a 4-Ps marketing strategy. After learning to "market myself," students will form groups (based on their major) to "market ourselves." In groups, students will use their research to innovate a new or extend an existing product/service for their major/industry. Finally, students will present their marketing innovations to their colleagues.

Teaching Moment

Gardener or Carpenter? Using Live Clients to Enhance Students' Learning

Jianping Huang, Jacksonville State University, USA
Mark Sciuchetti, Jacksonville State University, USA

What is the relationship between you and your students, gardeners, or carpenters?

The Gardener approach is students oriented. According to this approach, students are kind like plants; some like shade, and some prefer sun. As a teacher, you need to create a secure, understandable environment to let students be innovative, creative, and successful.

The Carpenter approach is teacher-oriented and results-driven. For example, training students to be vehicle mechanics or swimmers.

As a professor, I strongly believe that it is more beneficial to college students when I use the Gardener approach, as students are from different backgrounds, and have different personalities. In the fall of 2021 and spring 2022, we applied the gardener approach in the Marketing strategy and Geography classes. We understand that not all students are good at taking tests, so I created a variety of marketing and GIS projects with a local non-profit company- we call them live clients.

In these projects, there are five steps to enhance students' engagement, making sure students can choose a project they are comfortable with.

#1 Students were assigned to six different task groups, such as creating posters, logos, brochures, videos, social media, and a Marketing plan

#2 JCOC executive director gave a presentation to JSU students.

#3 Students took a field trip to JCOC, visiting the facilities and interviewing staff.

#4 Students presented their projects to JCOC leaders and collected feedback.

#5 Students revised their final project based on the feedback

Teaching moment
Improving emotional wellbeing through mindfulness practices

Ellen Campos Sousa, Gardener- Webb University, USA

Mental health issues have been identified as an ongoing problem among college students and it has worsening after the pandemic. Student's wellbeing and academic success have been affected by factors such as stress, anxiety, depression, and their sense of belonging. How can we promote emotional wellbeing among students? I propose a simple practice that can be integrated into any discipline by any faculty: the use of short mindfulness-based interventions. Furthermore, students that practice in class will learn tools that can be used daily, potentially leading them to continued independent mindfulness practices, which can improve and sustain their overall wellbeing.

Teaching Moments

Improving engagement in large classrooms

Komal Karani, Lamar University, USA

This year we moved to large, lectures in auditorium style setting for our Principles class. With engagement difficult to capture and measure, I tried out TopHat and PollEv, where students respond to questions using their cellphones. Usually I had objective, single correct answer type of questions on the screen, assuming that getting a grade will keep motivation high. A couple of weeks into the semester I tried using open ended, opinion-based questions using those same platforms. As the responses flashed across the screen, I randomly read out a few, inviting their authors to elaborate. Engagement improved! Success!

SESSION 19A: WILL THAT BE CASH OR CREDIT

CHAIR:

Courntey Szocs

Summary Brief
Aliterate Consumers' Processing of Product Warnings with Incongruent Images

Haeran Jae, Virginia Commonwealth University, USA
Devon S. DelVecchio, Miami University, USA

There has been limited research on the individual factors that affect the interpretation of such warnings. This study investigates the efficacy of product warnings for consumers with varying aliteracy when an incongruent picture accompanies a product warning. When a product warning in advertisements contains pictures incongruent with the product warning, aliterate reading behavior can result in miscomprehension (i.e., misled by incongruent images), which can be more detrimental to consumers than lack of comprehension. This study finds consumers with high consumer aliteracy display a higher miscomprehension of a product warning with an incongruent image. In turn, miscomprehension of product warnings results in a more positive attitude toward advertisement. Visual warning signals did not improve consumers' miscomprehension with a high level of aliteracy.

Introduction

Product warnings are ubiquitous in the marketplace as a result of product safety concerns, liability, and government regulations (Argo and Main 2004). However, consumer advocacy groups raise concern over the proliferation of warning labels and whether consumers ignore warning information, thus reducing the effectiveness of product warnings (Henderson 2013). Research on written product warnings has identified several moderators that may increase the effectiveness of warnings. For instance, the efficacy of warnings increases with varying text or image characteristics (e.g., presentation format, image congruency) (Jae and DelVecchio, 2021; Lochbuehler et al. 2018). While researchers identify potential moderators of the effectiveness of warnings, there has been limited research on the individual factors that affect the interpretation of such warnings. This study investigates the efficacy of product warnings for consumers with varying aliteracy when an incongruent picture accompanies a product warning.

Research Background

DelVecchio, Jae, and Ferguson (2019) defined consumer aliteracy as the habit of not reading marketing-related information when engaging in consumer-related activities despite the ability to do so. Aliterate consumers are related to a lower need for cognition, lower need for precision, a lack of preference for verbal information, skepticism (DelVecchio, Jae, and Ferguson 2019), and a lower comprehension of drug risk information (Jae and DelVecchio 2021). Aliterate consumers are, like low-literate consumers, likely to make suboptimal product choices (Jae and DelVecchio 2004), misuse products, or buy the wrong product altogether (Adkins and Ozanne 2005). Current research in this area investigates whether consumers with a higher level of consumer aliteracy tend to over-rely on peripheral cues (e.g., pictures) to compensate for their reading habits, similar to low literate consumers (Jae and DelVecchio 2004). For aliterate consumers, competing for selective attention is given to non-textual information for processing information first. When they pay attention to reading afterward, they tend to pick up the pieces of textual information rather than complete information. This selective attention further reduces aliterate consumers' deeper processing of written communication (Neill 1977). When a product warning in advertisements contains pictures incongruent with the product warning (Houston, Childers, and Heckler 1987), aliterate reading behavior can result in miscomprehension (i.e., misled by incongruent images), which can be more detrimental to consumers than lack of comprehension because of the acquisition of inaccurate, potentially, harmful information.

H1. Consumers with higher consumer aliteracy levels will have a higher miscomprehension of product warnings when an advertisement contains an incongruent image.

If consumers correctly evaluate an incongruent image with product warnings, they may display lower positive attitudes toward the ad because they understand the potential negative consequences of an incongruent image with a product warning. Thus, lower (higher) miscomprehension when a product warning accompanies an incongruent image will lead to lower (higher) positive attitude toward ad. Consumers with a high level of consumer aliteracy are more likely to miscomprehend product warnings, which will influence their attitude toward advertisements.

H2. A higher miscomprehension of product warnings with an incongruent image will lead to a higher attitude toward advertisement.

H3. Miscomprehension of product warnings with an incongruent image will mediate the relationship between consumer aliteracy and attitude toward advertisement.

Aliterate consumers tend to fixate their attention to visual images (e.g., pictures) (DelVecchio, Jae, and Ferguson 2019). Therefore, even though visual images are not congruent with a product warning, their attitude toward advertising should not be influenced by incongruent image conveying misleading product warning information. Rather their attitude toward advertising is determined by affective nature of the incongruent image. Consumers with higher level of consumer aliteracy are not lacking cognitive capacity but lack reading motivation, thus leading them to process information as if they lack the ability. Cognitive load theory (Sweller 1988) advocates that the effective presentation of the text materials can reduce cognitive load. Aliterate consumers are also much quicker at drawing their attention to pictorial elements of marketing information (DelVecchio, Jae, and Ferguson 2019). Therefore, using an appropriately designed presentation format can be effective in drawing the attention of risk information because it reduces the cognitive load of reading (Jae and DelVecchio 2021). The pictorial product warning signal can reduce cognitive load, thus decreasing the level of miscomprehension of consumers with higher consumer aliteracy levels.

H4. A product warning signal versus no product warning signal with a warning statement will reduce miscomprehension of consumers with higher consumer aliteracy levels at a greater level.

Key Findings

The main mediation test using Hayes Process Version 4.1 Model 4 (Hayes 2022) supported H1-3. It showed that consumer aliteracy related positively to the miscomprehension (t = 4.86, p < .01, LLCI = .1625, ULCI = .3844) and miscomprehension related positively to the attitude toward the ad (t = 2.53, p < .05, LLCI = .0664, ULCI = .5333). Miscomprehension mediated the positive relationship of consumer aliteracy on attitude toward ad (indirect effect= .020. LLCI = .0056, ULCI = .1591). Next, using Hayes Model 7, we included a product warning signal as a moderator about consumer aliteracy on miscomprehension, but there was no moderating effect (index of moderated mediation = -.0863, LLCI = -.2370, ULCI = .0037). H4 was not supported.

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Summary Brief

Mindfulnes enhances one's healthy behavior by enhancing one's self-efficacy perception

Md Fourkan, Kent State University, USA

Mindfulness is a well-studied topic in the field of psychology, and sociology, however, the topic draws attention from marketing and related subjects' scholars only recently. When it comes to consumer health-related decision making the impact of mindfulness is not yet fully explored. In this paper, we would like to explore the impact of mindfulness on consumer health decision behavior and the psychological process through which the impact of mindfulness on health decision behavior occurs is further explored. Relevant propositions on the above-mentioned behavior are presented for future empirical studies to be taken in a later period.

Introduction

Mindfulness is a well-studied topic in the field of psychology, and sociology, however, the topic draws attention from marketing and related subjects scholars just recently (Ndubisi, 2012b). In scholarly work, some topics might lose their appeal too early or might be thought of as an obsolete area of research at a premature stage (Ndubisi, 2014). For instance, there is some empirical work on exploring the impact of mindfulness in management and strategy (Fiol & O'Connor, 2003; Ndubisi, 2012a), and in the marketing field, the use of mindfulness as a determinant of important consumer behavior factors is meager (Ndubisi, 2014). However, some studies have been conducted in the marketing field using the conceptualization of mindfulness (Malhotra, Lee, & Uslay, 2012; Ndubisi, 2012b, 2014; Sheth, Sethia, & Srinivas, 2011). (Ndubisi, 2012a) has confirmed that in marketing we have not yet fully been able to explore the effect of mindfulness on consumer behavior and the decision-making process.

Although there are some studies as referred to in the previous paragraph where mindfulness is studied as a determinant of consumer decision-making or behavior (Ndubisi, 2012b, 2014), however, when it comes to consumer health-related decision making the impact of mindfulness is not yet fully explored (Ndubisi, 2012b). That is, one's cognitive or behavioral control over one's health decision-making relates to one's mental calmness or awareness of thinking. Though the two constructs- mindfulness and health decision behavior- should have some associations or correlations, the studies connecting them are scant or do not exist in behavioral marketing. In this paper, we would like to explore the impact of mindfulness on consumer health decision behavior and the psychological process through which the impact of mindfulness on health decision behavior occurs is further explored. Relevant propositions on the above-mentioned behavior are presented for future empirical studies to be taken in a later period. The author will conduct some empirical studies to check the propositions on the topic soon.

Mindfulness And Healthy Behavior

Recent marketing research finds that customers with high mindfulness show a greater level of satisfaction and loyalty than the low mindful consumers for service providers that provide higher quality service (Ndubisi, 2014). Mindful people are thought of as having more consciousness about a situation they are dealing with (Baer, 2007), more attention to the details of an event they are confronting, and being in an active evaluative mind for any life event. Mindful people can overcome any negative emotions quickly to a less harmful emotional event (Leary & Tate, 2007). Similarly, we would like to contend that mindful people can be argued to have more control over their health decision making such as going to the gym instead of watching tv or sleeping. They can be thought of as having more control over health decision making such as making detection behaviors such as testing for breast cancer and hepatitis B etc.

Proposition 1: Mindful people will be more inclined to make better alternatives in their everyday health-related choices.

Mindfulness Enhances Healthy Behavior Through Augmenting Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy theory suggests that an individual's perception of one's ability or capabilities can be the main determinant of successful outcomes (Bandura, 1977). This theory is part of the broader social cognition theory which is developed by Bandura (1986). Self-efficacy is part of social cognition theory which states that every individual has some competence and ability to be successful as long as they have some opportunities and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1982). Self-efficacy is focused on how individuals can feel like they have empowerment to attain goals. Self-efficacy is not saying having self-efficacy is the main thing of being successful. There is a triadic reciprocal process of personal factors (which are self-efficacy beliefs), behavior, and environmental factors. Even positive thinking or positive expectancy for the future can also not bring success for someone. Self-efficacy theory suggests that personal factors are having more weight but does not ignore the impact of behavioral and environmental factors on outcome.

Now, how mindfulness can enhance one's belief about his/her self-efficacy is needed some more exploration. Our argument is that mindful people will be more inclined to make healthy decisions in their lives as they have more self-efficacy perception and self-ability about performing a task that they undertake. So, this direct effect of mindfulness on healthy decision-making occurs through the enhancement of one's self-efficacy belief, and that triggers healthy behavior.

Proposition 2: the greater effect of mindfulness on positive health decision-making is facilitated through the enhancement of one's self-efficacy perception.
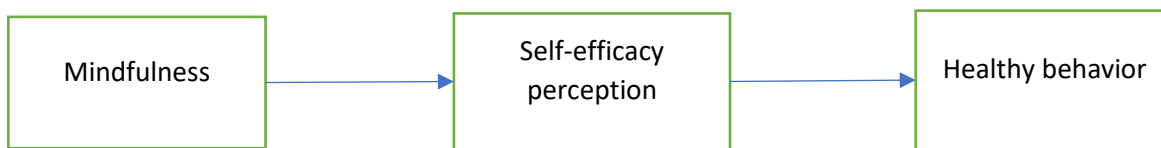
Figure 1: Conceptual Model

Conclusion

Mindfulness is one's mental calmness when people undertake a task, think about a work or process something, observe something, or evaluate an offering from a marketer (Baer, 2007; Leary & Tate, 2007; Ndubisi, 2014; Sheth et al., 2011). Mindfulness is attributed to enhancing one's self-consciousness and ability to stay calm in a tough time and making decisions with greater awareness and observation acumen (Baer, 2007; Langer, 1989; Leary & Tate, 2007). In this paper, we have come up with some propositions that high mindfulness can increase one's ability to make healthier decisions about health-related issues. The psychological process through which the effect occurs is discussed. We have argued that greater mindfulness can enhance one's perception of one's self-ability or efficacy and that ultimately enhance one healthy decision-making.

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Summary Brief

Enhancing the Desirability of Sustainable Luxury Products: A Sensory Perspective

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Sustainability issues are especially important in the luxury sector, given its widespread reach. Thus, the number of luxury brands engaging in sustainability practices is growing. However, evidence suggests that sustainable luxury products are perceived more negatively and seen as less desirable than regular, non-sustainable luxury products. Prior research highlights the need to examine the conditions under which consumers' evaluations of sustainable luxury products can be more favorable. The present research addresses this gap by exploring how perceptions of quality in sustainable luxury products could be improved and help with consumers' evaluations of these products. We focus on how sensory (especially, haptically relevant) messages can signal quality and lower concerns about the luxurious feel/experience of sustainable materials used in luxury products. Two experiments examine the moderating role of incorporating sensory information about the touch and feel of the sustainable luxury products and assess how these interactions affect downstream consumer behaviors through quality perceptions.

Introduction

Sustainability has become an important consideration for many brands and companies (Kunz, My, & Schmidt, 2020). Sustainability issues are especially important in the luxury sector, given its widespread reach (Hennigs et al., 2013). Luxury brands face growing tensions driven by consumer activists critiquing them for their lack of supply-chain transparency and accusing them of animal and worker exploitation (Dekhili & Achabou, 2016). As such, the luxury sector is slowly recognizing its responsibilities and considering the opportunities related to sustainability in sourcing, manufacturing, and marketing. However, evidence suggests that sustainable luxury products are perceived more negatively and seen as less desirable than regular, non-sustainable luxury products (Achabou & Dekhili, 2013). Indeed, luxury (compared with non-luxury) is associated with superior quality, uniqueness, scarcity, exclusivity, and going beyond need. (Kunz, My, & Schmidt, 2020). Given these characteristics, there is an ongoing debate about whether the concepts of luxury and sustainability are compatible. On the one hand, the two concepts share some similarities. For instance, sustainable and luxury products are both durable, thus reflecting the notion of durability and lasting through time (Dekhili et al., 2019). On the other hand, the meanings associated with sustainability and luxury are contradictory. Specifically, sustainability is associated with altruism and ethical behavior (Joy et al., 2012), while luxury is associated with conspicuousness and elitism (Naderi & Strutton, 2015).

Background

Prior research has shown that one key difference between luxury and non-luxury products is the high quality offered by luxury products (Vigneron & Johnson, 2004). The perceived quality of a product reflects consumers' evaluations of the products' overall excellence or superiority (Zeithaml, 1988). Thus, when considering luxury products, consumers typically associate luxury with quality. As such, incorporating sustainability into luxury brands can be damaging if sustainable luxury products are seen as having lower quality than regular luxury products. These findings highlight the need to examine the conditions under which consumers' evaluations of sustainable luxury products can be more favorable. Existing studies investigating the issues of sustainability in the luxury industry are scarce, and no prior research has focused on the use of sensory signals/descriptions to impact consumers' perception of the sustainable luxury products as related to their quality concerns. Since a message is stronger if it can stimulate our senses, the use of sensory elements becomes more and more important to strengthen marketing communication and distribution strategies, especially for luxury brands that promise a sensory product experience. Thus, the sensory component of product experience is an important aspect of a luxury product and its associated retail strategy (Wiedman et al., 2013). Consequently, to address consumers' perception of sustainable luxury products, it would be pertinent to stimulate their sensory organs (i.e., eyes, ears, nose, mouth, and skin) as applicable to the product. The present research aims to examine the role of product messaging designed to stimulate consumers' senses. Specifically, we focus on the sense of touch or haptics. Haptics refers to using the sense of touch to gather information about objects. The skin as a sensory organ is responsible for the haptic perception of sensory stimuli and provides information and feelings about a product through physical and psychological interactions. In the context of luxury products, the tactile perception

elements are crucial (Wiedman et al., 2013). This is especially important when customers are faced with sustainable materials (such as recycled plastic, re-purposed materials, etc.) used in the production of the luxury product. However, in contrast to vision, auditory, and olfactory cues, which might be perceived while a product is at a distance, tactile exchanges occur when one can touch and manipulate objects (i.e., when the haptic cues are within one's peri-personal space; Hadi & Valenzuela, 2020). Given the growth of online purchases and the fact that the Covid-19 pandemic has further necessitated and expedited the shift toward online shopping with the trend predicted to persist after the pandemic (Nielsen, 2020), the inability to directly touch products creates a limitation for online retailers and could potentially affect consumer responses when shopping online. Thus, the present research studies consumer perceptions and purchase behaviors towards sustainable luxury products in an online shopping context and examines the strategic role of providing of haptically relevant messaging (product touch and feel descriptions) for such products in the online context. We expect that the inclusion of sensory information (i.e., haptic description of the touch and feel of the product) will lower quality concerns about the sustainable materials used in luxury products, enhance the sustainable luxury products' perceived quality, and positively affect consumers' overall evaluations of the sustainable version of the luxury product as reflected by increased purchase intention, product choice, and willingness to pay.

Key Findings

In two studies, we focus on two different luxury products (i.e., a luxury SUV automobile and a luxury scarf) and examine the effect of product messaging accompanying the product on sustainable luxury product perceptions and purchase intentions. In both studies, data are collected using an online survey through Prolific. Purchase involvement, individual differences in sustainable shopping, attitude toward the specific luxury brand used in the studies, and need for touch are measured as control variables. Study 1 is a 2 luxury type (sustainable vs. non-sustainable) x 2 product messaging (haptically laden vs. not haptically laden) between-subjects factorial design with a luxury scarf as the focal product. The second study provides participants with a side by side comparison of a sustainable luxury and non-sustainable luxury product (i.e., a genuine leather seat for a new luxury compact SUV automobile vs. a vegan seat made of recycled plastic for the same automobile) where in one condition, the product messaging focuses on features and characteristics of the product (dimension, weight, materials, etc.), while in the other condition, (the message included sensory elements explaining the touch and feel of the seat). Data are analyzed using Process Model 8 to test moderated mediation. The results of Process model 8 provide support for a significant interaction between luxury type and message type on purchase intention, product choice, and willingness to pay. Further, perceived quality mediates the effects.

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SESSION 19B: EDUCATION SUCCESSES & FAILS

CHAIR:

Brian A. Vander Schee

Summary Brief

What I wish I'd Known: Transitioning from Graduate Student to Tenure Track Professor

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The aim of this paper is to discern the difficulties tenure-track faculty face as they attempt to balance their new faculty roles amid a transition from Ph.D. student to faculty. This research analyzes the stressful transition of a PhD student to a tenure track professor and how full-time professors balance responsibilities between research, teaching, and services.

Introduction

The stress faced by a faculty member has been recognized in past research and reported as a common phenomenon across universities globally. From the start of faculty journey, the transition from graduate student to tenure-track professor is a stressful process that is experienced differently depending on individual expectations and capabilities. It is important for the transiting faculty to understand the stressful balancing act that is required concerning research, teaching, and service. The primary focus of this study are the stressful situations faculty face and the underlying reasons for stress. Thus, this research demonstrates the journey of professorship, also highlighting their ambiguities and expectations, and various ways to overcome them.

Research Design and Analysis

The authors conducted interviews across various schools in a research-intensive university in the United States, resulting in a total of 30 interviews: 15 non-tenured tenure track faculty and 15 tenured faculty. The participants were recruited from schools of education, business administration, and liberal arts and were in the first three years of their position held. Researchers integrated the explorative open-ended questions related to situations the faculty members have experienced during the transition from graduate student to tenure-track professors to fully tenured faculty member.

Results

The first theme to emerge was Who Am I. According to the interviewees, the process of entering the PhD helped them find their own self. One key finding across interviews was that majority of faculty were not aware of their career goals and did not intend to pursue a PhD but rather were persuaded by mentors, friends, or colleagues. Upon entering their first year of degree, many of the interviewees were not clear on career direction, but once into it, they gained interest in research and teaching, which provided the motivation to continue. All Work and No Play is another crucial obstacle faced by the interviewees during transition into academia was time mismanagement. Multitasking, balancing diverse responsibilities like research and teaching is a steep learning curve for new faculty members. The Don't Tell Me What to Do-Professional Independence theme is based on a desire for autonomy and control over aspects of their career. The participants indicated a desire for control over daily schedules, did not want to be constrained by a time clock or mandated routines, and that they valued the freedom of academia. Several interviewees praised the ability to engage in varied activities during a typical workday, amount of flexibility they have, and independence in choosing current research or potential teaching opportunities. The Good, The Bad, and The Ugly

theme involves workplace relationships and a sensitivity to imposter syndrome. The interviewees defined their feeling of constantly being surrounded by more knowledgeable colleagues resulting in imposter syndrome. Some also elaborated on the unpleasantness and discrepancies of the field, like politics, and suggested coping strategies like being cautious and distant from co-workers, as a secondary appraisal. I Do What I Want- Professional Flexibility theme refers to the ability to balance professional desires against personal obligations. This theme was based on several categories indicating that, new professors look to achieve equilibrium between professional goals and personal aspects. The last theme of How Do I Do This - Professional Skill Development is a self-discovered path to secondary appraisal. The interviews revealed repeat mention of methods, writing skills, teaching skills, setting research routine, and reputation management, indicating that Professional Skill Development is an important aspect. Interviewees mentioned awareness of these methodological biases will improve the quality of research and increase the likelihood of publication of research.

Upon transitioning from student to a tenure track professor it is necessary to better understand a successful balance required for the three major roles played by tenured faculty members: research, teaching, and service. There were three major themes which emerged in the induction analyses - The Plague of the Vague, Publish or Perish, and It's Not All Work, But It Is. The Plague of the Vague theme generally centered on the ambiguity of RTS. While it seems that faculty fully understand expectations, a deeper look reveals otherwise. Some referred to this process as a "moving target" while others say the "guideline is more like a suggestion". This ambiguity increases the stress among the faculty in process of tenure. The Publish or Perish theme pertains to the given number and quality of publications expected by a particular department, *Publish or Perish* being common terminology in certain departments. Some participants mentioned high-quality publications as an expressed expectation by their department, others discuss a certain number of publications regardless of perceived quality. From the various expectations, one can assume that although the criteria may be similar within certain schools, there may also be some differences in the perception of importance placed on 'quality' publications, resulting in further transitional ambiguity. It's Not All Work, But It Is identifies the importance of balance in which family and work both play a vital role. The ability of the faculty member to balance these harmoniously would be vital to their success as both a family and faculty member.

Discussion

The analyses of transcripts revealed many interesting categories of experience in transitioning from a graduate student to a tenure-track faculty member. Six themes emerged in the life of a graduate student pursuing a tenure track faculty member position- Self – Awareness, Time Management, Professional Independence, Politics, Professional Flexibility, and Professional Skill Development. Theme 1 is critical, as it has its roots in the theory of self-awareness and the importance of this recognition among faculty who can further empower themselves, their students, and their colleagues at work. Faculty members play the role of leadership in every classroom they step in, and thus, self-awareness is key to being better faculty leaders. Theme 2 of time management has been considered as an implicit variable in management theories (Lévesque and Stephan, 2020) and studies have called for future research to have a dedicated piece on time. Time management and leadership go hand in hand, and what better than faculty to be aware of and teach the value of time as effective leaders.

The ability to manage workplace politics and interpersonal dynamics is illustrated in theme four, as new faculty members will be faced with navigating a dynamic professional environment. Graduate students in this transition will need to determine their professional expectations in relation to the amount of flexibility desired and select institutions that meet requirements, to find a professional fit. Graduate students need to utilize their time in school to gain exposure to multiple methodologies, hone academic writing skills, and solicit the advice of mentors and faculty members to best position themselves for a successful transition to the tenure-track position. Thus, future students and faculty should take note of the social cognition impact they can have, accordingly deciding their career. Faculty members navigated the ambiguous process of obtaining tenure with successfully balancing the encompassing

aspects. Faculty must first realize that although expectations may be vague, this vagueness can ultimately benefit the professor in tenure. Neither research nor teaching should be neglected, and research should be prioritized for career advancement while also balancing teaching and service, resulting in long work hours. Although time to oneself and family is important, faculty are aware that there are no set boundaries to work in academia, thus resulting in self-discipline towards work and life. This balancing act can increase the stress of underperforming, and at the same time, allow the flexibility of coping with multiple tasks at hand. Thus, the interviews revealed that faculty ought to be collegial in this journey in order to be politically correct and also not isolate themselves in this stressful journey of tenure. There is a collegial support system available to aid in this process. Although the size and impact of this support system may vary, a journey made alone is often more difficult than one made with ample support.

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Summary Brief
The Road to Student Success with High-Impact Practices

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Introduction

This longitudinal study includes a two-year digital marketing and social media audit for a local district of an international service organization. The audits were performed during the COVID-19 pandemic by both an undergraduate and graduate social media marketing class in a southern university. The course utilized high-impact practices, that included both a simulation and community engagement project. Additionally, it is presented how additional high-impact practices may be implemented in a community engagement project beyond the project itself. Student responses to the project are presented.

Engagement of High Impact Practices

Student engagement is accepted as an important facet of student learning (Weerts & Sandman 2010). Furthering this concept, the American Association of Colleges and Universities - AAC&U, developed a list of eleven High-Impact Practices (AAC&U) with eight corresponding High-Impact Elements (AAC&U). High-impact practices or HIPs are pedagogical practices promoting deep learning through student engagement (Berry & Hammer 2018, University of Wisconsin).

The longitudinal audit occurs at the end of two different physical years for the service organization. Students in a Social Media Marketing capstone course at both the graduate and undergraduate level conducted the audit each year with the second-year building from the first year's audit. As part of the class pedagogy, multiple high-impact practices were incorporated to increase learning and augment student engagement. These high-impact practices will be shared with implications on student learning.

Key Findings

The students, in both classes, were surveyed before the project and after the project, with anonymous responses. The post survey responses, for key questions, using a 7-point Likert scale post project indicate the students report a mean above 6.0 for each of the following questions.

- The social media audit project was a valuable learning experience.
- When working on the social media audit project, I tried to connect the project with what I already know.
- The social media project helped me adapt to new situations.
- The social media audit project helped me to understand the integration of marketing functions.
- The social media audit project helped my think analytically and critically.

The student responses support positive responses to High Impact Practices of
- Performance expectations set at appropriately high levels
- Significant investment of time and effort by students over an extended period of time
- Interaction with diversity, wherein students are exposed to and must contend with people and circumstances that differ from those with which students are familiar.
- Frequently, timely and constructive feedback.
- Periodic, structure opportunities to reflect and integrate learning.

- Opportunities to discover relevance of learning through real-world applications. (AAC&U - 2)

The post project survey reflects the students' belief in the learning impact of the community engagement project. At conclusion of the course, informal debrief course questions revealed that of the favorite course activities, 50% of the students responded that their favorite course activity was the social media simulation versus 36% of the students reported that the social media audit project was their favorite. Completing and receiving three industry certificates was the favorite of 5% of the students. It is a rare opportunity to have a community engagement project as well as a simulation project run side by side during the same class. Both the learning benefits of simulations (Laverie, Hass & Mitchell 2020) and community engagement projects (Buys and Bursnall 2007)) are supported by prior research.

An additional, yet unexpected outcome is the students' favorite "part of the class" was the simulation versus the community engagement project. Courses, typically do not offer both a simulation and community engagement project withing the same course for true comparisons to occur. This initial finding calls for further research.

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Summary Brief

Failing Greatly in the Undergraduate Marketing Curriculum

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Teaching students how to fail well is not part of the typical marketing curriculum. Yet the frequency with which marketing failures hit the headlines, from product flops to offensive ads, means educators have a responsibility to support students as they navigate complex failure experiences. At the same time, marketing creativity requires bold behaviours, free from a fear of failing. In this paper, we present the case for teaching failure and show how inadequately higher education currently manages it. We introduce seven activities under the acronym FAILURE to help students accept, endure, prevent, recover from, and facilitate intelligent failure.

Introduction

Failure sucks. Let's face it. The shame. The embarrassment. The fear. But failure is also an inevitable part of success. To paraphrase John F. Kennedy, those who do not dare to fail miserably, can never expect to achieve greatly. Leaders of innovative companies such as Pixar, Google, Tesla, and Amazon credit their phenomenal growth to a failure-tolerant organizational culture. Behind every popular product launch lies a litany of failures, while the most creative and effective marketing campaigns exhibit a clear willingness to take risks (Wang et al., 2011). This is not to say all failure is equal; preventable failures stemming from disengaged employees need to be avoided (Edmondson, 2011). In contrast, failing intelligently reveals new information that nurtures innovation (Zhou et al., 2020). In this paper, we argue that learning to fail well is as important a 21st century business skill as creativity and critical problem solving (Batey, 2012; Piirto, 2011; Puccio, 2017; van Laar et al., 2020). To produce resilient graduates able to cope with failure experiences, marketing academics need to teach students failure competencies— how to accept, manage, endure, prevent, recover and even facilitate failure. The paper first makes the case that because marketing failures are so common, we have a responsibility to teach our students how to fail better. A short analysis of marketing course descriptions in the top performing business schools reveals a significant lack of deliberate failure instruction. The remainder of the paper outlines seven activities to help students get better at failing, including suggestions for embedding the exercises within the marketing curriculum.

The Need to Teach Marketing Students to Failure Competencies

Failure proliferates all areas of the marketing mix. *Product* flops include Amazon's Fire smartphone and Dash buttons (Palus, 2019). Google's failed products include Wave, Orkut and Google+, which could have been Slack, Facebook or WhatsApp respectively. Disappointing sales led Burger King to drop the reduced calorie Satisfries from its menus less than a year after their introduction (Jargon, 2014), while ruined clothes persuaded Unilever to pull Persil Power laundry detergent after just nine months on store shelves (Cope, 2011). Famous *pricing* failures include J.C. Penney's disastrous experiment with "fair and square" prices that eliminated all store coupons, together with the consumers who loved using them to find a bargain (Mourdoukoutas, 2017). One million subscribers revolted when Netflix increased monthly fees 60% (Wingfield & Stelter, 2011), while Uber's price-surge policy has long been a source of consumer ire (Luckerson, 2014; Popper, 2013). *Place* failures occur when distribution issues lead to global shortages, in categories as varied as cookies (Corday, 2019), computers (Gurman, 2021) and COVID tests (Frosch, 2020). The list of marketing *promotion* failures includes every communication vehicle possible, from packaging to television commercials to social media posts. Tropicana, for example, lost a spectacular $30 million in sales in just two months after a redesigned carton confused consumers (Elliott, 2009) while a Pepsi commercial featuring Kendall Jenner giving a can of the soda to a policeman, ostensibly solving systemic racism, tops many worst-ad lists worldwide.

As these examples illustrate, failure is an undesired, but inevitable aspect of modern marketing practices. To help graduates thrive in today's competitive marketplace, then, we have a responsibility to teach them how to successfully navigate marketing failures. Unfortunately, active instruction of failure competencies appears relatively scarce in contemporary marketing curricula. Recent reviews of marketing curricula reveal a conspicuous absence of skills or content related to failure (e.g. Crittenden & Peterson, 2019; Edmondson & Matthews, 2021; Herrington &

Lollar, 2020; Spiller et al., 2020). Our own analysis of the top one hundred business schools in America (as ranked by Princeton Review, U.S. News and Reports and Bloomberg) revealed similar results, with only 16% of top business schools actively offering deliberate failure instruction.

Teaching Students to Get Better at Failure

We identify and describe seven strategies we use to help students—both undergraduate learners in a creativity class and professionals in a workshop—improve their failure capacity. The steps follow the acronym FAILURE – **F**earing Failure, **A**dmitting Failure, **I**ntelligent Failure, **L**earning Failure, **U**nderstanding Failure, **R**eframing Failure, and finally **E**mbracing Failure – and features hands-on exercises for each letter to help students develop critical failure competencies including how to accept manage, endure, prevent, recover and facilitate intelligent failure.

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Summary Brief

Digital Badging Across Disciplines: Utilizing Services Marketing in Financial Education

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As industry and education transition to online modes of operation, students can expect to take greater ownership of their learning. Marketing and finance educators may utilize technology-based training to foster student motivation and independent learning. Digital badging is one such cross-disciplinary approach where students progress through learning modules with assessment of content knowledge and skills development along the way. The purpose of the study was to assess student motivation and learning in a services marketing digital badging program for finance students using self-determination theory as a foundation. It is premised on autonomy, competence, and relatedness as motivations for growth and well-being. This study applied the three dimensions to a digital badging program focused on services marketing for financial services using Salesforce Trailhead. This study took place using students (n = 104) from three finance courses taught by the same instructor at a public regional university. Survey results provide evidence that financial services badging addressed autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs. Survey results also showed students were motivated and agreed that they understood the content and learned a lot. Therefore, marketing and finance educators can more confidently utilize a cross-disciplinary approach with financial services badging, knowing that it addresses the needs of self-determination to foster student motivation and student learning.

Introduction

Industry organizations provide free training programs, such as digital badging, to give instructors access to the latest trends in industry to improve pedagogy while also gaining access to students for recruitment (Wang et al., 2018). Free credentialing programs are offered by many companies including Google, Hootsuite, Hubspot, and LinkedIn. Salesforce Trailhead is a free module-based program offered by Salesforce, a cloud-based customer relationship management platform. Salesforce Trailhead offers digital badges in marketing, social media, communications, and financial services organized by functional area, skill level, and role (Salesforce Trailhead, 2022). This study uses Salesforce Trailhead by creating a Financial Services Badging (FSB) program. The research question in this study is, "What is the effectiveness of the cross-disciplinary FSB program regarding the student experience and its intended goals of developing financial services content knowledge and student motivation?"

Literature Review

A digital badge is an online display of achieving a skill or competency. The badge icon includes metadata and a link to the sponsoring organization authenticating the validity and integrity of the credential (Heavlin, 2019). Digital badges provide value in that they are publicly documented, transparent, and portable evidence of capability or competency (Everhart, 2018). In this way, they act as a form of currency that industry professionals create for students to earn and then are consumed by hiring employers. Marketing and finance educators act as endorsers in this exchange by verifying the content and skills learned are relevant and valid. The accumulation of digital badges speaks to a student's independence and motivation to further one's own education for a chosen profession.

Methods

The FSB program was utilized in three undergraduate finance courses, namely personal financial management (general education and finance elective), financial management (required for all business majors), and investments (finance major requirement), at a public regional university. Two courses were taught in-person and one was taught online by the same instructor over the same 16-week semester. The FSB took place over the last half of the semester. The instructor checked in regularly with students regarding FSB progress. Completing the FSB was worth 10% of the final grade in each course.

Students were administered a survey after completing the FSB as part of earning full credit for the assignment. The survey included adapted scales measuring autonomy, career preparation, instructor relatedness, and motivation. The survey also collected demographic information and student perceptions regarding their level of learning and comprehension of the FSB content.

Results and Discussion

The results of this study provide evidence that the FSB program addressed the motivational needs of self-determination theory, namely, autonomy, competence, and relatedness. These results have implications for marketing and finance educators in that faculty can build trust with students by utilizing independent learning to complement in-class instruction. More specifically, related to competence, this study builds on the study by Kim et al. (2019) which showed students found digital badging as a great resource for career preparation. In the current research, job search and career preparation were highlighted in the survey results.

The results of the study provide confidence that marketing and finance educators can adapt the FSB program to improve student learning and motivation. This study builds on prior research showing that students are satisfied with using digital badging as part of marketing courses (Humphrey et al., 2021). Industry professionals note that new employees with earned certifications show greater productivity and efficiency at the outset of their employment. Therefore, the FSB also helps students build independent learning that provides benefits beyond course completion.

Future Considerations

Future research could investigate the experience of digital badging with platforms other than Salesforce Trailhead. Although Salesforce Trailhead offers a comprehensive mix of cross disciplinary business materials, other platforms more specialized in areas other than customer relationship management may yield different results. Digital badging also extends to other cross-disciplines such as Tableau Essentials for data visualization, DataRobot University for machine learning, and Google Analytics for data science.

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Full Paper

Taking Experiential Learning Out of the Classroom: The Benefits of Using Experiential Projects in University Organizations

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Experiential projects give students the educational opportunity to learn by doing outside of the classroom. These projects provide hands-on work experience through peer-to-peer learning and give students an insight into their interests, skills, and improves teamwork through supervised professional practice. This paper presents an experiential learning project with a community partner through a university organization that enhances students' understanding of social media marketing and creating a social media campaign.

Introduction

Social Media is now a mainstream form of any marketing campaign and integrated marketing communications. "Social Media marketing (SMM) is a form of Internet marketing that utilizes social networking websites as a marketing tool. The goal of SMM is to produce content that users will share with their social network to help a company increase brand exposure and broaden customer reach" (Bansal, Masood, and Dadhich, 2014, page 2).

"Active learning – or variations referred to as interactive instruction, experiential learning, or 'learning by doing' - has resulted in positive outcomes. Most experts agree that students learn best when they take an active role in the education process" (Smart & Csapo, 2007, page 451). The author and other faculty advisors facilitated an experiential learning project to create a social media campaign with a community partner, the Northeast Delta Human Services Authority, within our registered student organization, the ULM Marketing Club, and had positive results.

The Project

The ULM Marketing Club is a co-ed academic student organization that focuses on various aspects of the fields of sales, marketing, and management. The club consists of undergraduate students (mainly sophomores through seniors), as well as graduate students. The project in discussion is a contracted internship with the Northeast Delta Human Services Authority to serve Franklin and Ouachita Parish through a social media campaign aimed to reduce underage drinking, with parish specific messages. The ULM Marketing Club was responsible for organizing and recruiting students to adopt, develop, and forward anti-alcohol content to the NEDHSA Communications Department funded by the Louisiana Partnerships for Success II (LaPFS2) grant. The purpose of the campaign was to reduce underage drinking among college-age students 17-20 and address the causal factors associated with use.

The ULM Marketing faculty advisors set up an initial meeting with the student members and the community partner representatives to discuss the details of the marketing campaign, expectations outlined in the contract, and everyone's role in the process. We were responsible for the initial scheduling of meeting dates and times, reviewing the contract and signage, consulting with NEDHSA on best practices for specified audience capture, creating a Google Drive for content storage, sending electronic approval of content, and keeping the students on pace to finish the project in the allotted time. Beyond the above-mentioned activities, the faculty advisors provided minimal oversight, emphasizing peer-to-peer learning during the entirety of the project.

The NEDHSA staff was responsible for providing their style and messaging guide, weekly consulting to the student club members, sharing relevant data and resources to assist with accuracy of content provided, and providing a safe space to work with the students.

The ULM Marketing Club student participants were responsible for the content for the social media campaign, which consisted of 40 social media posts in conjunction with prevention and wellness events (such as National Prevention Week, Youth Summit, etc.) and 5 TikTok videos by the specified deadline.

The Importance of Experiential Learning Projects to Marketing Educators

"Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (Kolb 1984, page 38). "Experiential education is a teaching philosophy that informs many methodologies in which educators purposefully engage with learners in direct experience and focused reflection in order to increase knowledge, develop skills, clarify values, and develop people's capacity to contribute to their communities" (Association of Experiential Education, 2012).

Through this project, students gained a better understanding of course material. The students aligned curriculum and industry needs and practices from content learned in MRKT 3011 - Advertising Sales Promotion, MRKT 4011 – Integrated Marketing Campaigns, MRKT 4012 – Digital Marketing, and MRKT 4013 – Social Media Marketing. This was achieved through the peer-to-peer mentoring roles in this project. This is not often achieved in the classroom, because the students are generally the same classification and/or have the same skillset. Some of the students have not taken some of the above-mentioned courses yet, so the upperclassman worked jointly with the underclassman to share knowledge and creative ideas. They worked collaboratively giving and receiving feedback from one another. This resulted in mutual learning. Some students had experience working on this project the previous year with limited instructional role, so they had first-hand knowledge of what the client wanted and expected. They shared these tips with the new students. They helped facilitate the brain-storming meetings and critiques of work through peer assessment. Each student had equal contributions to the campaign.

Students were also able to contribute to their community in a socially responsible way through the nature and subject matter of the social media campaign. "Study findings imply that experiential learning may lead to socially responsible behavior that continues to occur well after the formal learning experience ends" (Caulfield & Woods, 2013, page 14).

Our Experiences
Student Outcomes
A focus of experiential learning is through reflection of the process. "The theory of experiential learning provides a perspective from which to approach these practical problems, suggesting a typology of different knowledge systems that results from the way the dialectic conflicts between adaptive modes of concrete experience and abstract conceptualization and modes of active experimentation and reflective observation are characteristically resolved in different fields of inquiry" (Kolb 1984, pages 37-38). The student participants were asked a series of questions to assess their experience with the project. The author chose 1-2 answers per question from various participants to share their responses. Refer to Table 1 for the survey.

Table 1: Student Participant Survey

Number	Question	Student Participant Answer
Q1	What did you hope to gain or learn from this project?	"I hoped to learn all the skills of a real-life social media marketing campaign. I hoped to further my skills within the creative world. I also want to have this experience to be able to put it in my resume or portfolio."
Q2	How did you feel at the beginning of your experience?	"In the beginning I was a little nervous, because it was a real company we were dealing with and I didn't want to disappoint. I have never done anything like it before."
Q3	What was the first day like? A month later?	"The first day of designing took me so long for one ad as I needed to find the source and created an appropriate ad for it. After a month, it took me just an hour to craft ideas per ad." "The first day felt a bit more formal but involved more conversation. A Month later we were far more informal and comfortable but had less to share with the group."
Q4	Did you feel more confident? More confused? Did you feel successful?	"I felt more confident after doing this project once I knew the expectations for the ads and the

		information needed to fulfill the requirements for the ads."
Q5	What was the most enjoyable and challenging parts of the experience?	"The most enjoyable part was being able to see the others' ads. It was fun because we got to see each other's thought process when creating the ads and it gave me inspiration for my own. The most challenging part to me was creating the TikToks, because I had never created one before."
Q6	Did you enjoy the peer-to-peer learning process?	"I truly enjoyed the peer-to-peer learning process. Being able to learn from other business and marketing majors was one of the most exciting parts for me. It was one of the first times I was surrounded by people in my college and major on campus."
Q7	What did you learn from the other students?	"I learned tips to implement in my work ethic and creative ways to knock out plans. Because I was one of the younger students, I was able to learn from their habits and put a stronger step forward with the campaign and my class work afterwards."
Q8	Did you accomplish your learning goals and objectives? Why or why not?	"I did accomplish my goals; I think what helped was having students to push you to be better."
Q9	Did your experience change the way you thought about a particular issue or your career field?	"Yes, it made me feel like I wanted to go into a social media/advertising type of career. My job working as an intern at Family Solutions Counseling was definitely better because I was able to make them really cute ads and I could help them with their social media better with Canva and etc."
Q10	Why was this experience important?	"IT was important to help get the message across about the dangers of alcohol and drug abuse. It also provided me with some work that I can put on my resume and showcase."
Q11	How does your coursework or career field connect to this experience?	"This was similar to the class, Advertising and Sales Promotion, as far as appealing to our target market.
Q12	Can you use what you learned in other ways?	"Yes, time management skills, communication, teamwork, and the list could go on."
Q13	What would you do differently next time?	"Next time I would explore other software, equipment, and tools to use to create the content."
Q14	How has this experience affected your career path, your personal life choices, or your use of new information, skills, or technology?	"This experience motivated me to look more into advertising and digital marketing careers." Boston-Woods stated, "It has made me more aware of how strategic making content can be. It is more than just having a good idea, but about how it will connect to the audience."
Q15	How are you going to use this new knowledge in the future?	"Using different functions of Canva for my career, either presentation or designing. Recently, I have been looking at job postings for summer internships, and one or two of them require Canva experience, which I am glad that I have some."

Faculty Outcomes

As a faculty member and advisor for an academic student organization at the University, you want to provide a fun, yet educational opportunity for students. This opportunity was presented to us, and it seemed to be a great way for students to collaborate with a community partner, with one another, and to gain experience by working on a marketing campaign from beginning to end. Dr. Zach Moore, assistant professor of marketing and co-faculty advisor, said, "The partnership between NEDHSA and ULM's Marketing Club is the embodiment of the University's mission to transform the lives of our students while having a positive impact in the Northeast Louisiana community. We are

grateful for the team at NEDHSA's mentorship of our students and their willingness to allow our students to engage in the transformative work they do for our community." The author created a series of questions to assess her experience with the project. Refer to Table 2 for the survey.

Table 2: Faculty Advisor Survey

Number	Question	Faculty Advisor Answer
Q1	Why do we continue to partner with HSA for this experiential project in our Marketing Club?	"The students get to see a marketing campaign from beginning to end. It encourages them to collaborate and work collectively towards a common goal. The project emphasizes course material in a real-world setting. It gives students experience to use in portfolios/resumes when applying for jobs-career placement. It also provides a fundraising arm for our club."
Q2	What is the faculty role in the project?	"We facilitate meetings between the community partner and the students. We guide students with time management, critiques/feedback, and edits, and help them stay on track with brand standards and content development."
Q3	What was my experience in helping mentor/guide the students through the strategic planning, campaign creation, and execution process?	"It was exciting to see the students' progress through the campaign. They started off apprehensive and didn't really know where to begin. They were unsure of their abilities. After guidance from our partner as well brainstorming sessions with one another, their ideas started to unfold. They'd create content, receive feedback, and then work on their designs. With a little pushing and encouragement, the students came out with fantastic content that the faculty advisors, partner, and they were proud of. It was a great project for our club!"
Q4	Do I think the more hands-on approach this year (2022) from our partners helped with more favorable outcomes for HSA and the campaign, as well as a better learning experience for our students?	"Absolutely! Starting the discussion earlier helped with planning. We started meeting with HSA in September and then started meeting with students about the project in January. We were able to wrap the project up in April, so it didn't conflict with finals and the students weren't as stressed. The students knew more of what was expected of them from the beginning. They got more feedback on what makes a good design, as well as how to work for a client. Sometimes the feedback was difficult for them to hear, but overall, it made them stronger designers and a better learning experience for them."
Q5	Does this project give our students a valuable educational opportunity through a hands-on experience with a real-world client?	"Yes! Textbook case studies are great, but they aren't as satisfying as working with a real client. The students had to learn how to take criticism, edit their work to the client's standards, and complete the project within a specified time setting. This was equivalent to an internship, so it will be great for their career planning."
Q6	Do I think this helps our Marketing Program for exposure and recruiting? Does it give purpose to our club?	"Yes, this helped create content for our social media accounts, press releases, and participants were even interviewed and featured on a local tv station, KNOE. All this exposure helped us demonstrate opportunities that our club can offer students. We provide not only social, but educational activities for our students that will help them with peer-to-peer

Partner Outcomes

It is important for the partner to find value in the project and have a positive outcome as well. If the partnership is mutually beneficial, it has the potential to continue in the future. In this case, the ULM Marketing Club has partnered with the Northeast Delta Human Service Authority for three years (2020-2022). In 2021, Dr. Monteic A. Sizer, NEDHSA's former director, said, "Agreements like this are ideal for both sides as it plants the message and mission in the target audience's hands and helps the students build their professional experience. We recognize that building sustainable relationships with students and faculty amplifies the message of alcohol's negative effect. Proactively responding to what is occurring in our region is how we build a unified Northeast Louisiana, where individuals are thriving and reaching their full human potential." The current Public Information Director and Public Information Officer who facilitated the 2022 project were asked a series of questions to assess their experience with the project. Refer to Table 3 for the survey.

Table 3: Community Partner Survey

Number	Question	Community Partner Answer
Q1	What was your role in the campaign?	"I served as the lead stakeholder that the students had to get final approval from for their work submitted."
		"I assisted the students in creating the imagery – graphics, photos, and designs to advertise the campaign."
Q2	Why did you choose ULM students/Marketing Club to help with the campaign?	"As a ULM alumnus, I wanted to give the students a real-world experience, so they could see how their marketing efforts impact target audiences."
		"I'm a ULM alumnus. I wanted to provide these students with the insight of what marketing designers think about when trying to reach a target audience, as well as the graphic design challenges they face."
Q3	What was your experience in helping mentor/guide the students through the strategic planning and campaign process?	"I thoroughly enjoyed guiding and mentoring the students throughout the semester. I appreciated seeing the perspective and hearing them describe why they created certain graphics the way they did, and ultimately exposing them to a more targeted approach."
		"My experience was to help the students be better designers. Going through ways to use their graphic software to create better images and help them understand the reasons behind their imagery and messaging."
Q4	Do you think the more hands-on approach this year helped with more favorable outcomes for NEDHSA and the campaign?	"Yes, the hands-on approach definitely helped the students create work that we could use and continue to use. Giving training and instruction also helped the students gain confidence in their creative abilities."
		"Absolutely. Being able to meet with the class in-person and teach them helped immensely to garner better work as well as understanding from the students."

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Q5	Does NEDHSA plan to continue this internship/mentoring program in the future?	"Yes, we will continue this program for as many years as possible through our funding source. The students created work that we continually use to engage our target audiences."
Q6	Do you have any additional thoughts and/or parting words?	"I believe it would be beneficial for NEDHSA and the students to continue with this program." "It was great being in the classroom and exposing the students to a further level of marketing and allowing them to put to practice what they learned in the classroom setting. Our project was not a hypothetical or lost cause, it was a real campaign that is being used right now to engage teens and adolescents. This was a campaign created by students for students." "It was a pleasure to return to the school that made me, to pass on what I had learned in the working world. The ULM Marketing Club students really exceeded my expectations in the short time we got to learn together."

Do's, Don'ts, and Advice
- Involve students in creative brief process
- Provide more direction/hands-on approach from partner at beginning of project
- Start early, providing ample time for project creation
- Create deadline before final exams, even if the partner's deadline is later
- Introduce variety of software, equipment, and tools to students for project creation
- Assign jobs to students
- Monitor students' time management closely
- Offer in-person meetings with key personnel
- Facilitate informal brainstorming sessions with students
- Meet frequently, especially as deadline draws near
- Encourage continuous feedback from partner regarding student contributions

After reading students' responses to Table 1: Student Participant Survey Question 13, we learned that students wanted a more active role in the creative brief process. They stated that they wanted to have more time to create the ads where it didn't interfere with other schoolwork. They wanted to explore other software, equipment, and tools to create the ads. They also suggested assigning jobs to students to help with teamwork cohesiveness.

After the first year of the project, the faculty advisors learned to keep a tighter rein on the students' time management to meet the partner's deadline. After the second year of the project, the faculty advisors learned that we needed more direction from the partner from the beginning as well as offer in-person meetings with key personnel. This was not able to happen the first two years due to COVID. All meetings were facilitated through Zoom in 2020 and 2021.

In 2021, we started the conversation in September with the partner, even though the project would not begin until the spring 2022 semester. All contracts were finalized and the first meeting with the ULM Marketing Club began in January 2022. The meetings were in-person, and we had weekly meetings with the partner and student participants. The partner had a more hands-on approach with the students, discussing brand standards, showing examples of what content they liked/disliked from previous years, and offered resources, tools, and software options for students to utilize in creating content. They gave tips for general graphic design and continued feedback on designs. We offered more informal sessions with the students to brainstorm with one another and finished the project by Spring Break. This was not the final deadline from our partner, but one the faculty advisors suggested, to keep the stress level lower for students, so it wouldn't interfere with finals.

Concluding Remarks

The results from the student, faculty, and partner surveys support the advantages of experiential learning in a university organization. Experiential learning projects in a university organization engage students in hands-on experiences that reinforce classroom teachings in a more laid-back atmosphere conducive to learning and reflecting. Students broaden their skills through professional practice. They work collaboratively through peer-to-peer learning with a variety of students in their program, and not simply others within their classification. They hone their time management skills, having to manage regular schoolwork with social and club activities. Students become more well-rounded and socially responsible adults by engaging in a community partnership. The project can lead to networking opportunities and their marketability upon graduation. Overall, the project is beneficial for all associated parties.

SESSION 19C: IT'S ALL ABOUT THE RELATIONSHIP
CHAIR:
Logan Pant

Full Paper

Liking your pain: an examination of schadenfreude as a driving mechanism of online liking behavior

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A fundamental part of consuming behavior is the "liking" of online content. While most online liking behavior revolves around positively-valenced content, some social media users are intentionally engaging with others to invoke emotion in a negative context. Individuals have begun to derive pleasure from an out-group's misfortune – or schadenfreude – by liking posts that opponents make when losing a game or discussing their teams' misfortune. A study of 293 football and basketball games over the course of two college sports' season provides evidence that individuals indeed are using this positive support tool as a "weapon" of sorts to add to the pain felt by an opponent experiencing a loss. We provide evidence that external recognition of the opponent – national rankings – especially encourages this behavior, as upset losses significantly increase the exhibition of this behavior. We provide theoretical and practical implications of these findings.

Introduction

"Don't forget to like and subscribe" - the simple request that defines online behavior as we know it. Over 70% of Americans use social media to connect with one another (Pew Research Center 2021), a stark progression over the past 15 years (5% in 2005). As the modern-day public square (Debenedetto 2022), understanding online customer behavior, particularly on social media, has been a priority for researchers and firms for many years. Research on traditional marketing topics, such as branding, have been expanded to include online branding (e.g. Rowley 2004; Simmons 2007). Additional research streams on individual online behavior have brought life to research on the impact of emotion on online behavior (e.g. Mazaheri et al. 2014), online buying behavior (e.g. Bellman et al. 1999; Pappas 2016), attachment to social media (e.g. Blackwell et al. 2017) and the benefits of online community building (e.g. Armstrong and Hagel 2009). Firm interest in online behavior has likewise increased, producing research on social media-based marketing strategies (e.g. Li et al. 2021), raising customer engagement (e.g. Sashi 2012), and behavioral segmentation and targeting (e.g. VanMeter et al. 2018). The shift in time individuals spend on social media has made understanding the resulting behavior while online that much more important.

Online behavior on social media is categorized into three levels increasing in effort: consuming, contributing, and creating (Muntinga et al. 2011). The consuming level involves participatory behaviors without contribution, such as reading and watching. Contributing involves interaction between users and content (e.g. commenting). Finally, creating involves producing or publishing content, including sharing (Kim and Yang 2017). A fundamental part of consuming behavior is the "liking" of online content. Though consequences of "likes" have been studied extensively from both an individual consumer (e.g. Burrow and Rainone 2017; Lee et al. 2020) and firm standpoint (e.g. Oh et al. 2017; Seo et al. 2019), the driving mechanisms leading individuals to "like" content have not been fully explored.

While most online "liking" behavior revolves around positively-valenced content, some social media users are intentionally engaging with others to invoke emotion in a negative context. Situations involving sports fans, political supporters, and others can create conditions where parties with opposing stances post conflicting messages to social media – some favorable to their given situation, some unfavorable. As unfavorable posts arise, some non-internal members intentionally interact with them to torment the opposing group. Social media users are motivated to interact, or "like," posts online based on intrinsic values and external grounds. Some users are deriving malicious pleasure from an out-group's misfortune – referred to as "schadenfreude" (Leach et al., 2003). Schadenfreude exists outside of social media; however, the digitalization of communication creates opportunity for and simplifies observation of the schadenfreude emotion. What is not as well understood is the relationship between schadenfreude and other online behaviors.

This leads to our primary research questions: (1) what are the mechanisms that drive online liking behavior?, and (2) What is the relationship between schadenfreude and online liking behavior?

This research addresses these research questions by using Twitter data to examine schadenfreude as a potential mechanism driving online liking behavior. Specifically, we examine likes on Twitter posts including final score graphics posted by teams within the Southeastern Conference (SEC) from the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) to quantify the interaction of multiple groups of online consumers, the in-group associated with fans of the posting team and the out-groups associated with the opponents of the posting team. This data identifies liking behavior of opposing fans linked to negative posts by sports teams. We posit that the low-level effort surrounding "liking" allows for individuals to experience pleasure through schadenfreude without requiring higher levels of effort spent on content produced by an out-group. Thus, we posit that schadenfreude can be a driving mechanism of online liking behavior and further that members of in-groups can and are using online likes as a "weapon" to take pleasure in inflicting emotional pain upon the members of out-groups.

Literature Review

Social Media Liking Behavior

The internet age has opened the doors for immediate criticism (positive and negative) from the entire world with the creation and adoption of social media by society (North 2013). Engagement on social media comes in the form of "likes" which is considered "social currency" by creating social and monetary rewards (Sherman et al. 2018). Paralinguistic digital affordances (PDAs), such as likes and reactions, facilitate communication without the use of specific language (Spottswood and Wohn 2017) whereas users can convey messages or express emotion with a single click. PDA's allow users to communicate both faithfully and ironically and often indicates the relationship status between senders and receivers (Hayes et al. 2016).

Users tend to engage with posts for a social presence, to engage in subjective norms, and to display perceived behavioral controls (Dihr et al. 2019). The personality of a user can also predict their interactions on some social media platforms, such as Facebook (Kabadayi and Price 2014). A societal assumption is that more likes on a social media post is positive for the poster; however, this is not always the case because of inferences related to perceived value of the content (De Vries 2019). Additionally, social media users are more prosocial when they receive engagement, including negative interactions (Lutz and Schneider 2020). Those who are ignored on social media and do not receive any feedback (positive or negative) often withdraw themselves from social interactions. Furthermore, users can also interact with posts using likes, shares and comments while evoking affective and cognitive motivations (Kim and Yang 2017).

Further research is required to understand the motivation of users to like posts of others when a negative context is presented. There is a lack of studies to determine the relationship between likes on posts of others when the two parties are enemies, and it is important to address the stimulus of the interaction.

Schadenfreude

Schadenfreude is a phenomenon where people enjoy and inflict suffering to an out-group (Leach et al. 2003). The emotion can be predicted/driven by envy, stereotypes, and harm as people target others to gain pleasure in their misfortune (Cikara and Fiske 2013). Schadenfreude is closely linked with envy (Smith et al. 1996) but only those with malicious, rather than benign, envy experience the phenome) non (van de Ven et al. 2015). Thus, the desire to possess the same advantage as an out-group, or for an out-group to lose said advantage, creates a rewarding emotional response when misfortune happens to a member of an out-group (Takahashi et al. 2009).

Additionally, "social distance cues influence how one judges the deservingness of others' misfortune which further impacts one's schadenfreude" as this relates to a message's publicness and the use of social media (Wei and Liu 2020). A common area where schadenfreude is observed is in the sports world among fans and rival teams as those with losing teams and poor performances among other issues become victim of schadenfreude (Dalakas and Melancon 2012). Fans have and will admittedly experience joy at the downfall of a rival and are motivated to express this in verbal communications directly towards the opposing fans (Dalakas et al. 2015). Given that people are more likely to experience schadenfreude when the object is self-relevant or advantaged (Takahashi et al. 2009) and use likes on social media as a unit to contribute to another's downfall (Greenier 2015), we expect sports fans to engage in this behavior.

The relationship between schadenfreude and social media is not well reported. Further research is needed to understand if schadenfreude is contributing to likes on social media and how users interact when they experience it. The question remains whether users are intentionally liking posts to inflict pain upon others and if they feel rewarded when liking a negative post from someone else.

Methods

In order to investigate the role of schadenfreude in online liking behavior, our study takes Twitter data from all teams in the Southeastern Conference (SEC) from the three major men's sports: football, basketball and baseball. These teams were selected due to the success experienced by the teams from this conference in recent history, providing a scenario in which envy – and therefore schadenfreude – could be witnessed. Over the past 15 years the SEC has won 11 national championships in football, 8 national championships in baseball, and one national championship in basketball (e.g. NCAA 2022). The data was selected from the 2021-2022 season, where 10 teams were nationally ranked in baseball, 9 teams were nationally ranked during the football season, and 6 teams were nationally ranked in basketball. All games were included in the football season, but due to the lack of engagement during the regular season in basketball and baseball – where there is overlap of the sports – the focus was on SEC conference games, postseason games, and any game where the opposing team and SEC team were both ranked. This ensured that we had a mix of rivalry and non-rivalry games, in-conference and out-of-conference games, and high stakes (season ending potential in post-season games) and lower stakes games. Following data collection, baseball was removed due to the nature of the schedule. In baseball, teams play a three-game series that did not allow for a direct comparison to the "one-off" nature of football and basketball games. Additionally, many teams only made posts for the series, where a team may have lost the game, but won the series, which would drive different behaviors than a loss that is simply a loss in basketball or football. This left us with 293 observations across the two sports.

For each post, the number of likes, retweets, and comments was coded for both the winning and losing team. Along with this, we coded whether the game resulted in an "upset loss" and whether the game involved a rivalry. An upset loss was determined to be when a non-ranked or lower ranked team defeated a higher ranked team. ESPN rankings were used for football and basketball during the regular season. For the post-season in football, the College Football Playoff rankings were used and for basketball, the seeding in the tournament being played was used. This included the SEC Tournament, the National Invitational Tournament (NIT) and the NCAA Tournament. Rivalries were determined using Knowrivalry.com, a research project that surveys over 30,000 fans across different sports. Rivalries between the teams are established on current research (e.g. Tyler and Cobbs 2017) driven by conflict conditions, strong similarity, and deep differences. Across the seasons of both sports, there were seven non-SEC teams that did not have have a post for the game and there were three SEC teams that did not make a post for one game that they were involved in.

Results

In order to test whether schadenfreude does affect online liking behavior, we first look at the descriptives across the data set (See Table 1). As expected, winning team posts received likes, retweets and comments. The average number of likes for the winning team's post was roughly 2280, supporting the well-founded notions that likes are used in a positive situation to provide support. When looking at the losing team posts, however, we find an average of roughly 567 likes per post. This result would be considered unexpected given that liking is supposed to be positive in nature (Gan 2017). Every losing post from the dataset of 297 games has received a like, with a maximum of 8622 likes. That particular game is from the NCAA basketball tournament where underdog and 15th seeded St. Peters defeated the overwhelming favorite and 2nd seeded Kentucky Wildcats. Interestingly, in the entire dataset only four winning team posts had more likes than this losing post. One of those games, the National Championship game for football which consisted of University of Georgia playing against University of Alabama, had the highest number of likes for the winning team – Georgia with 11000 likes – as well as the second highest number of likes for the losing team – Alabama with 7659 likes. What we see here is evidence that schadenfreude is in fact driving opponents to use a positive support tool as a weapon of sorts in order to derive pleasure from the pain of the losing team.

Table 1: Descriptives of Social Media Behaviors

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	St. Deviation
Winning Team Likes	17	11000	2279.86	1894.34
Winning Team Retweets	17	4908	564.76	622.05
Winning Team Comments	0	2370	73.39	232.74
Losing Team Likes	5	8622	567.23	1014.038
Losing Team Retweets	0	2024	114.15	209.829
Losing Team Comments	0	4994	230.93	526.88

In order to test the effects of rankings on this behavior, we conducted an ANOVA comparing games in which there was an upset to games where there was not an upset. Given that schadenfreude is strongly related to envy, the recognition that an opponent is receiving in the form of a higher ranking than the supporter's team should lead to even higher incidence of the use of likes as a weapon to cause pain to the opponent. The results (see Table 2) indicate that this is indeed the case. When looking at the winning team, an upset win significantly increases the amount of likes – and retweets – that the winning team post receives. An underdog win leads to an increase of over 1700 likes when compared to a winning post where the team is ranked higher than the opponent. More importantly, a losing team post in the event of an upset leads to an *increase* in likes of nearly 1000 likes on average, going from 759 likes on a more expected loss to 1730 likes for an upset. This represents nearly two and a half times the number of likes on an expected loss when compared to an upset loss. This seems to indicate that schadenfreude especially drives individuals to use likes as a weapon when there is "extra" pleasure to be derived due to the recognition the opponent had received in the form of a higher ranking from outside parties.

Table 2: ANOVA of Upset Losses and Social Media Behaviors

	Upset Loss	N	Mean	Sig. Value
Winning Team	Yes	43	3765.30	
Likes	No	247	2021.26	< .001
Winning Team	Yes	43	1058.72	
Retweets	No	247	478.77	< .001
Winning Team	Yes	43	119.95	
Comments	No	247	65.28	.155
Losing Team Likes	Yes	240	1729.80	
	No	44	759.21	< .001
Losing Team	Yes	240	382.58	
Retweets	No	44	144.06	< .001
Losing Team	Yes	240	437.63	
Comments	No	44	538.49	.055

Finally, we tested the effect that playing a rival has on schadenfreude's role in liking behavior on social media. Given that schadenfreude is particularly salient when considering a rival, it is expected that this too should increase the liking behavior on a losing team's post. When considering the results, however, we do not find that rivalry had a significant impact (See Table 3). Interestingly, rivalry does impact the number of likes on a winning post, but does not influence the number of likes a losing post receives. A winning post when playing a rival does receive 800 more likes on average than a winning post against a non-rival. However, the losing posts against rivals do not receive more likes than losing posts against non-rivals. This could be due to the fact that post-season games in both sports receive the highest level of engagement on posts and typically involve games against non-conference opponents. Since the majority of the rivals for the teams in the dataset are within the conference, this could be the reason that the losing posts against non-rivals receive more likes than the posts concerning losses to a rival. Further investigation into this seems necessary to fully understand whether the rivalry has an added effect to driving the use of likes as a harmful tool.

Table 3: ANOVA of Rivalry and Social Media Behaviors

	Rival	N	Mean	Sig. Value

Winning Team	Yes	70	2886.99	
Likes	No	220	2086.68	.002
Winning Team	Yes	70	609.93	
Retweets	No	220	618.59	.013
Winning Team	Yes	70	333.81	
Comments	No	220	189.67	.203
Losing Team Likes	Yes	69	639.51	
	No	215	1108.99	.969
Losing Team	Yes	69	169.34	
Retweets	No	215	221.44	.537
Losing Team	Yes	69	654.71	
Comments	No	215	480.09	.569

Discussion

We find strong evidence that schadenfreude can act as a driving mechanism for online liking behavior. Though there exists ample evidence of schadenfreude in everyday life, to our knowledge this is the first evidence that we are demonstrating it through liking posts on social media. Further, to our knowledge, this is the first demonstrated evidence of sports fans physically acting online to be the agent of misfortune to an outgroup for the sole purpose of experiencing schadenfreude.

Consistent with prior research, as shown in Table 1, we find likes are used in positive situations to provide support for in-groups. Contrary to expectation, we also find an average of over 500 likes in negative situations. We thus find evidence of motivation to like the negative posts of out-groups to experience schadenfreude.

As discussed in Table 2, this motivation is increased when there is external recognition for the opponent in the form of rankings. Though the underlying motivation is unclear, we posit that the envy is stronger in these situations and thus the desire to experience schadenfreude increases in these situations. Further, the ranking provides more pain to the out-group in the form of an upset loss, as the expected difference or advantage the losing team had over its opponent is made more salient to all individuals. Thus, the upset loss provides an opportunity for fans to gain "extra" pleasure by weaponizing likes on the posts of the opponent.

Though it was expected that rivalries would increase the liking behavior on a losing team's post, as shown in Table 3 we do not find that rivalry had a significant impact on the usage of likes as a weapon. We did, however, find that rivalry has an impact on the number of likes on a winning post, but it does not influence the number of likes a losing post receives. We posit that this is due to the nature of scheduling within these sports. The data show that the highest levels of engagement occur in the post-season when the stakes are higher and exposure is highest, and the teams included in analysis primarily contain rivalries with teams that they play during the regular season as they participate as members of the same athletic conference. It is rare for members of the same conference to play each other in post-season matchups, especially in football where all bowl games require teams from different conferences outside of the three games involved in the College Football Playoff. Additionally, the potential for the largest upsets exist with teams outside of the SEC. For example, the loss by Kentucky to St. Peters was perceived as one of the largest upsets in college basketball history due to the relative success and resources of the two teams involved. This result seemed to bring in not just fans of St. Peters, but also fans of other teams across the country to pile on the misery of the Kentucky fans. This indicates that even individuals from other teams not involved in the game may exhibit this behavior in the case of an extreme upset involving a highly ranked and historically successful team like Kentucky in basketball. We believe this phenomena should be researched further and is addressed in limitations and future research.

Lastly, we posit that these results could be evolution of removing dislikes from social media. Overtime, multiple social media platforms have removed the ability for users to "dislike" posts of content (e.g. Siucu 2021). However, there is prevalent discussion online about whether these platforms should "bring back" or create dislike buttons that would prevent the results we have found from happening (e.g. Tolcheva 2022). We believe further research should test whether our findings still hold given the option to dislike things, which will be discussed in next section.

Limitations and Future Research

While our results do provide evidence that schadenfreude does manifest in the form of using a positive tool in "likes" to cause pain at the suffering of an opponent, our study does come with some limitations. Our data does only represent one year's worth of games and does not provide any evidence of whether this behavior is changing or a consistent phenomenon. Additionally, we did select a set of teams in the SEC that are notoriously hated. A quick Google search leads to dozens of articles about the SEC being overrated. In other words, our results may not be generalizable to fans of all teams as we found that rankings do play a large part in driving this behavior. Finally, there is great variance seen in the data based on the fan base – for example in basketball Auburn University consistently provided thousands of likes on losing team posts where as University of Florida, for example, averaged around 150 likes per losing team post. Understanding why different fan bases may exhibit this behavior more than others would greatly add to the literature on both schadenfreude and liking on social media.

Other avenues of future research could focus on politics as opposed to sports. This is another area notorious for outgroup degradation and could be useful for understanding the scope of these types of behaviors. As previously discussed, the ability to express negative emotion through "disliking" things on social media could provide an avenue that would decrease the need to use likes in this manner. Future research could determine the effect of the presence of these types of options on schadenfreude manifesting in likes as a weapon. In collecting the data, we noticed that in some cases, individuals would make posts calling for others within the fan base to join them in liking the posts of a defeated or downtrodden opponent. Some of these individuals would declare an "upvote party" or "like party" and provide a link to the post for others to go like as a means of denigrating the opponent. This type of behavior provides an interesting avenue of future research as it goes beyond the ability of one person to cause pain to an opponent – it represents an effort to maximize the amount of pain caused through the entire in-group. This leads to a final area worthy of further study; what types of individuals are most likely to exhibit these behaviors? As previously discussed, the presence of this type of behavior varied by fan base. This would provide more clarity in understanding how and why schadenfreude will manifest in this way.

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Summary Brief

Does Social Media Help Millennials Purpose-Driven Brand Shopping?

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Abstract

The paper purpose is to investigate how social media affects millennials purpose-driven brand shopping. Although the millennials' interests are to meet their purpose of social and environmental issues, there is an interesting gap between the intention and decision. As Millennials are considered the driving generation of the sustainable movement and green consumption, thanks to their lifestyle and behaviors, our study tries to comprehend whether these consumers can be considered the leading purpose-driven purchasing. The study examines how social media shapes and affects millennials' perception of purpose driven brands and the facts that make these brands appealing.

According to the recent study (Deloitte 2014), millennials will represent seventy-five percent of the workforce in the US alone by 2025 which means they make up the largest portion of the workforce today. As millennials achieve most spending power, brands will have to align to more of what this generation demands of businesses. The shifts of consumer spending between generations let marketers become more aware of the changing needs and line up to those or begin to lose their share who will do this sooner or better.

Strength of purpose study (Zeno group 2020) reported that millennials are an outstandingly purpose-driven generation and seventy percent of millennials believe a brand should have a purpose associate with their belief in compared to just forty-eight percent of boomers. These generations also claim that brand should prioritize purpose over profit and act to help social and environmental issues. Products with better sustainability credentials will gain a greater competitive advantage over those with less sustainable practices (Luchs et al., 2010). However, the questions are still remains why only few purpose-driven millennial consumers end up with purchasing sustainable products despite of their intention to purpose-driven brand shopping. Recent study found that sixty-five percent of people want to purchase purpose-driven brands that advocate sustainability, yet only about twenty-six percent actually do so.

To narrow this "intention-action gap" is not only important for achieving corporate sustainability goals but also for the environment. Across various academic realms and for several years, researchers have been studying how to encourage sustainable consumptions (Green and Peloza, 2014). Yet much of the research has focused on public policy, the current research proposes that consumers are more likely to engage in pro-sustainable consumption when the message leverages the psychological factors such as using social influence and appealing to heart or head. As the fact of Millennial has the highest social media usage reach among adults in the United State (Statista 2022), this study examines how social media shapes and influences millennials' perceptions of purpose driven brands and consumptions, and the facts that make these brands appealing.

One of the most effective way to encourage pro-environmental behaviors is the power of social influence. South Korea actor has recently been sharing posts on his Instagram about the shocking amount of unnecessary plastic packaging used on groceries. He posted photos of fruit, vegetables, and more all individually wrapped in plastic, and he wrote, "You're not what I was buying but # plastic." He used social media to encourage people to reduce plastic waste and he is also been a regular donor to Greenpeace, actively taking part in campaigns led the organization. Millions of his followers has positively responded to his environmental protection activism and they also started to post their action of sustainable consumption. Telling online shoppers that other shoppers who belong to similar

segments were buying eco-friendly products led to a sixty-five percent increase in making at least one sustainable purchase.

Another way to promote the purpose-driven purchasing is to appeal emotionally or rationally with message via social media. How brands communicate with consumers has an extensive influence on the adoption of sustainable behaviors. When getting ready to promote or launch a product or campaign, marketers often have a choice between emotional lever or rational arguments. However, numerous studies claim that millennials are most to skip or ignore most forms of advertising, especially video ads that interrupt the streaming video. The key takeaway is that they hate to be interrupted when they are trying to enjoy something. This also translate to cold calls and emails and SMS messaging. In sum, they are cynical about a quite obvious advertising or stereotypical promotional message, but they are more likely to choose their own persuasive message. They are far more likely to connect with the brands if they are identical with their value, lifestyle or purpose and they have the option to "opt-in" for the brands to reach out to them. The research purports to show sustainable or corporate social responsible messages over social media which operated by brands or brand advocates affects to millennial's purchasing decision.

Survey for millennials in U.S wants to reveal that social influence and messages over social media have significant, positive relationships with sustainable consumptions. Results expect that important managerial implications for corporates' sustainability strategy and provide to reduce a gap between sustainable purchasing intentions and actions. (stage in study)

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Summary Brief

Consumer Affinity: Theory, Measurement, Outcomes, and Effects

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There is little consensus on the way consumer affinity is defined, measured, and outcomes or effects identified in marketing literature. There is a disconnect between the current use/application of consumer affinity in marketing practice compared to that which is found in academic literature. It is difficult to sort out the direct impact from the 'noise' of so many other variables. This study advances affinity research with an objective to aid in resolving the importance between formal and informal group-focused application of affinity in marketing practice and demonstrate additional individualistic outcomes of affinity found in academic research. Influenced by both literature and practice, this research delineates the affective and cognitive factors in the definition of affinity. Through qualitative interviews with homebrewers and empirical analysis of members of a homebrewing forum, this article introduces a psychometrically sound and generalizable affinity scale. Finally, using netnography, a form of ethnography, the strength of transference principle is investigated through online forum platforms which provides insights for marketers to maximize efforts towards creating deeper relationships with a fan base.

Introduction

The concept of consumer affinity has become more popular in practice as a way to target and market to like-minded groups and crowd-based psychographic phenomena. The foundation of consumer affinity used in marketing is grounded in social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner 1979). Affinity audiences is an important targeting parameter used by Meta® social media platforms, Google Ads ®, and several third party digital marketing service providers that offer audience affinity analysis as a way to move potential customers more quickly through the online buying journey (https://premierecreative.com/audience-affinity-analysis-nyc/). Social media platforms group users into informal, nominal affiliation groups based on frequency and similarity of posts involving favorite sports team, religious affiliation, hobbies, or other interests to appropriately segment the ads or promotions shown to the individuals in each group. The better the algorithms perform the affinity analysis, the higher return on investment for advertisers (return on ad spend -ROAS) (Bonderud, January 17, 2022). Online platforms benefit from copious amounts of data which serve to create unique, digital fingerprints for individual users, yet seek economies of scale by forming audience groups for ad targeting. Effective ad targeting is important as global digital ad spend is predicted to top $785 billion by 2025 and in 2021, Google had 38.1% market share (Cramer-Flood 2021). The primary function of consumer affinity for digital marketers is effective grouping. From this point on, the term 'affinity' will be used to reference 'consumer affinity'.

Compared to practice, academic research delineates the factors of 'affinity' and offers numerous business outcome effects. Examples of the more nuanced factors include sympathy and attachment (affective), positive self-identity evaluation (cognitive), and the range of affinity strength (Aspara et al., 2008; Macchiette & Roy 1992; Oberecker & Diamantopoulos 2011; Roy & Berger 2007). Yet within academic research there is contradiction on the relevance and ability of social bonding or group affiliation increasing affinity. In addition, extent empirical research blurs the definition and measurement of affinity with factors such as attitude, brand love, and satisfaction (Gail 2004; Mohlmann 2015; Oberecker, Riefler, & Diamantopoulous 2008). Affinity has been applied in several context such as foreign country culture (Oberecker & Diamantopoulos 2011; Swift 1999), the use of technology or social media (Gerlich, Browning, & Westermann 2010), political party brand (Van Steenburg & Guzman 2019), early adoption of the newest trends in products (Mohlmann 2015), and pro-environmentalist movements (Kals, Schumacher, & Montada 1999). An objective of this research is to identify a more comprehensive and generalizable affinity scale.

The Cambridge dictionary defines affinity as, an attraction or sympathy for someone or something especially because of shared or similar characteristics,"(https://dictionary.cambridge.org/english/affinity). Macchiette and Roy (1992) define affinity as "an individual's level of cohesiveness, social bonding, identification, and conformity to norms and standards of a particular reference group" (p.48). Realizing the multi-faceted components of affinity, we define affinity as a positive affective emotional state formed through an involvement (experience) with a subject (person, place, activity, idea, thing) that becomes a part of the individuals' identity (cognitive).

The business-related outcomes of affinity in marketing research are mostly aligned with customer consumption in the form of willingness to pay, buy, protect, visit, or use (Gerlich, Browning, & Westermann, 2010; Oberecker, Riefler, & Diamantopoulos, 2008; Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011; Wongtada, Rice, & Bandyopadhyay, 2012). Individual outcomes of affinity in research include sharing expertise (Hoskins, et al., 2021) and skills development (Yuille, et al., 2014). This research investigates other possible individual consumer outcomes which will inform marketers where efforts and resources may be most effective. This answers a call for more detailed managerial application of affinity while defining mechanisms to influence affinity strength (Serrano-Arcos et al., 2022).

Affinity analysis involves creating zones of interest through channels and around products and services at a given point in time delivers the promise of increasing sales, and awareness as demonstrated by affiliate marketing. Unlike affiliate marketing models which involve paying and trusting affiliates and/or third-party program coordinators; true affinity, is shown to occur in both formal and informal groups and when fostered by marketers yields greater benefits than just endorsement effects on consumer choice (Woo, Fock, & Hui 2006). One such benefit, examined amongst the formal and informal affinity groups is the transference effect of for-profit and not-for-profit organizations, confirming that effective use of affinity is challenging (Woo, Fock, & Hui 2006).

Background

Affinity   An extensive search for a theory of affinity yielded a theoretical framework with no scale. An integrated framework, Affective Self-Affinity (ASA) (Aspara et al.,2008) details elements of, positive emotions, relating to one's identity, and attachments (affective) an individual manifests based on positive experiences with subjects of interest. Passion or love are not required to qualify as ASA, however the strength of emotion can evolve towards those heightened emotions. The extent to which the individual perceives a positive reflective sense of self because of the attachment with the subject of interest becomes a watershed moment for communing, collaborating, or having membership with others also identifying strongly with the subject of interest which leans into the tenants of social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Notably few studies focus on the influence of affinity transference to influence behaviors (Aspara et al., 2008; Oberecker and Diamantopoulos). Aspara et al. (2008) apply the principle of transference where an individual's affective self-affinity "for thing (X) positively influences the strength of his/her affective self-affinity for thing (Y)" (p. 8) where the individual perceives thing (X) as essential and worth representing and supporting. For instance, an individual with a high level of affinity for snowboarding, would likely be a frequent participant and fan in an international, online discussion forum which attracted comments and tips from skilled snowboarders.

The use of affinity in this article is not to be confused with affinity marketing. Commercial entities have used affinity marketing as a way to incentivize members of charity groups and professional organizations to become customers (Macchiette & Roy, 1992), however the emotional attachment does not convey to the product or service (Fock, Chan, & Yan, 2010; Woo, Fock, Hui, 2006). Advertisers using affinity marketing are missing an opportunity to create social and emotional bonds with affinity groups to achieve long-term benefits of transference.

Context   Homebrewers, similar to DIYers, a classification of prosumer, can be passionate about their activities and often enjoy producing and consuming products with others for long periods of time with no compensation (Ritzer and Jurgenson, 2010). The emotional or affective element for homebrewing has been well documented as enjoyment and fun (Olson, Murphy, & Ro, 2014), and passion (Wolf et al., 2020). These positive affects cultivate and increase at a level where individuals begin to identify with the role of being a homebrewer. Some DYIers then connect with formal organizations or informal groups of like-individuals and can transfer these affective attachments to organizations and groups that support the activity or social bonding (Murray & O'Neill, 2015). Affective evaluations and identification of individuals to groups has been applied through social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), however the act of

DIYing and identifying as a homebrewer may be an individual phenomenon or it may grow into greater group involvement. Which is why the individual's affective self-affinity (ASA) is an appropriate lens through which to view homebrewers.

Globally, there are local formal homebrewing clubs, competitions, and informal homebrewing beer forums, discussion, and message boards. For example, the SubReddit 'HomeBrewing' has 1.7 million followers, 1.1 million twitter followers and 16 posts per day (FeedSpot 2022). Social identity theory confers that an individual's social self-concept and self-esteem are derived from groups in which they associate or consider belonging (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Affinity groups in the workplace has shown to increase communication and productivity (Douglas 2008). However, affinity for a subject of interest even when associating with like-minded individuals can produce both positive and negative affects (Asseraf & Shoham 2016).

Transference According to ASA transference, (Aspara et al.2008), when a firm actually supports the existence and actions of a group or club, increasing ease of continuity, and promoting group cohesiveness, group or club members will favorably evaluate and identify with that firm. Subsequently, group members will exhibit fan-like behavior overriding the need to consider alternative choices and increase commitment and loyalty to both the subject of interest and supporting firms.

Key Findings
Study One- *Qualitative Interviews with Homebrewers* -Based on the tenants of ASA, data collection from homebrewer interviews specifically looking for affective elements expressed by interviewees, attachment to the process or art of homebrewing; information seeking activities or skills development activities; a willingness to promote or recruit others; a positive self-image as a homebrewer, and evidence of social bonding. As aside, information regarding the presence of any transference occurrence was noted. Qualitative marketing analytic software ATLAS.ti is used to highlight the occurrence of these themes based on prior research.

Study Two- *Survey of Homebrewers- data is being analyzed using SEM and AMOS.*

Study Three- *Netnography – Transference Principle - data is being collected.*

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Summary Brief
The Nitty Gritty of Inter-Organizational Relationships: Picking a Partner

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Defined by sustained levels of passion and perseverance in the pursuit of long-term goals, grit embodies enduring determination and motivation in spite of adversity. Conceived as an individual-level trait, the consideration of grit has received recent attention at the organizational-level. Gritty organizations have a culture embedded with high levels of passion and perseverance. Developed through shared history, norms, mission, and values, a gritty organization has a collective sense of hard work, resilience to failures, and unified goals. As a developing concept in positive psychology, grit is a significant predictor of many positive individual and firm outcomes. Yet, little is known about how organizational grit influences organizational alignment in business-to-business relationships. In this article, we review the organizational grit literature, conceptualize gritty organizations, and explore its influence on partner relationships. We proffer a framework that advances programmatic inquiry into the impact of organizational grit on partner selection.

Introduction

Business-to-business (B2B) relationships play an important role in creating value through successful organizational alignment. Despite the widely-accepted importance of non-tangible factors (e.g. organizational culture) in successful partnerships, most inter-organizational partnerships fail (Verbeke, Hutzschenreuter, and Pyasi 2021). Relationship alignment starts with selecting an ideal partner. Business mating theory suggests this selection is informed by closeness and competitive characteristics that evolve with environmental changes. However, less research has focused exclusively on the psychological variables underlying partner selection. Specifically, we examine the role of organizational grit in partner selection. In this research, we (a) review and conceptualize organizational grit, discuss its developmental process, and its firm performance influence, (b) deliberate the consequential influence of organizational grit on (B2B) partner selection and relationships performance, and (c) propose a 2x2 matrix of partner selection by gritty versus non-gritty organizations, and (d) provide a platform for progressing organizational grit research in marketing and management.

Background

Grit is defined by passion and perseverance in the pursuit of long-term goals (Duckworth et al. 2007). Moreover, a gritty individual is a person who works relentlessly towards their goals, ultimately, leading to many positive outcomes (Duckworth et al. 2007). Only recently has the concept of organizational grit appeared in the literature. Within organizations, grit is an embedded aspect of the organizational culture, where culture is developed through a company's core values and mission. Established by the firm that maintains effort (perseverance) and consistent interest (passion). In a U.S. military context, Luning et al. (2021) proposed that grit is integral to the core of the unit-level commitment to unified overarching goals (via a hierarchical goal structure). Furthermore, organizational grit has core values and mission as foundational elements, which may be developed or strengthened through a variety of factors. Additionally, within organizations, there are multiple levels of grit (Lee and Duckworth 2018), ranging from individual to unit levels. Following extant organizational culture literature, we propose that like the concept of culture, organizational grit would be dichotomous (gritty or non-gritty) (Chatman et al. 1998).

Using vertical borrowing theory, researchers can apply the concept of grit to the organizational level (Whetten et al. 2009). Similar to organizational resilience research, individual constructs often provide important insight into firm behavior. As a facet of culture, organizational grit likely influences firm performance. Research supports the compatibility of organizational cultures as a factor of successful partnerships (Ellram 1990) that optimize performance when capitalizing on (marketing) synergies (Weber and Dholakia 2000). Still, the influence of grit on partner selection, relationship performance, and subsequent behaviors/outcomes is unknown. Selecting an ideal partner may involve the consideration of many factors (e.g. market share, reputation, productivity) (Lambert, Emmelhainz, and Gardner 1996). Despite these findings, many theories do not consider non-tangible characteristics. Therefore, business mating theory compromised on assortative mating, sexual selection, and relational balance theories is an ideal lens for our research. The perspective of partner selection is more likely by firms who are (a) close

geographically, socially, or physically, (b) display characteristics of competitive fitness, and (c) these characteristics evolve with different environments. In selection, firms are more likely to enter partnerships with complementary and similar partners. Prior research has concentrated on both partner selection (Ellram 1990) and organizational alignment (Wang and Zhang 2017). Still, there is limited research attention offered to psychological variables or cultural dynamics among organizations. Improved performance is a foremost reason for organizational alignment, however, successful selection is influenced by non-operational factors (Campbell et al. 2010).

Key Findings and Takeaways

Organizational grit is a significant topic for academics and practitioners, but there has been scant attention to how and why gritty and non-gritty organizations choose partners. Our framework proposes that (1) *Firms select relationships by a similarity of organizational grit, (2) Alignment by organizational grit leads to more value creation, and (3) The gritty organization selects a partner who best fulfills their goals, this may be by alignment or misalignment of organizational grit.*

We propose a 2x2 model of gritty by non-gritty partner selection. Consistent with relationship psychology (Sternberg 1986), we develop the Empty Selection (Non-Gritty x Non-Gritty), Infatuation Selection (Non-Gritty x Gritty), Fatuous Selection (Gritty x Non-Gritty), and Consummate Selection (Gritty x Gritty). Informed by business mating theory, our model uniquely asserts that there is no one best or worst selection. This is a marked departure from the literature to date that suggests either the Empty (i.e. aligned in culture with unknown goal alignment) or Infatuation (i.e. misaligned in culture with misaligned goals) will have lower success, while the Fatuous (i.e. misaligned in culture but aligned in goals) or Consummate (aligned in both culture and goals) will have higher success. This suggests that both aspects of similarity and/or complementary factors may have positive relationship outcomes.

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SESSION 19D: SO, YOU WANTED A SATURDAY MORNING SESSION TIME

CHAIR:
Jamie Grigsby

Full Paper

A conceptual review of inattentional blindness and its implications for marketers

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The phenomenon of inattentional blindness, defined as a failure to notice an unexpected stimulus when one's attention is focused on something else, has been studied extensively within the field of psychology. However, its applicability to marketing and consumer environments has received limited consideration. In this paper, we review how factors such as task difficulty, stimulus color, and mindfulness in a consumer context can affect the incidence of inattentional blindness, which lead to important directions for future research. This paper also discusses managerial implications resulting from the inattentional blindness phenomenon.

Introduction

When a customer engages with a business, it is the business's responsibility to meet or even exceed the customer's expectations (Bahmani et al. 2020). This includes providing the customer with the desired product or service in a timely and efficient manner. Often times, especially within contexts where a service is being provided, businesses try to go "the extra mile" and offer complimentary refreshments to their customers. One reason for doing so may be to enhance customer satisfaction. However, a key assumption must be met for the business to try to increase satisfaction: its customers must actually *notice* the refreshments. Since customers may direct their attention to other objects, features, or tasks within their surroundings, it is quite possible that even if the business provides refreshments, some of its customers ultimately may fail to notice the offerings and would therefore not be able to attain the benefit that the business is aiming for.

"Selective attention" refers to the differential processing of simultaneous sources of information (Johnston and Dark, 1986). Some sources may be internal (memory and knowledge) while others may be external (environmental objects and events). In the current paper, we focus on external sources of information, which can easily be measured and manipulated within a business context. There has been extensive research regarding the selective attention of individuals in the field of psychology and even marketing (e.g., Ratneshwar et al. 1997), which has led to further research on the negative consequence of selective attention. This consequence is known as a phenomenon called *"inattentional blindness"*, which is a failure to notice an unexpected stimulus when one's attention is focused on something else (Mack and Rock, 1998). There has been a significant increase in interest in studying this phenomenon over the last two decades (Redlich et al. 2021). Although inattentional blindness has been studied by numerous psychology researchers (Mack and Rock, 1998; Simons and Chabris, 1999), this phenomenon has received limited attention in the field of marketing.

The potential impact of this paper is quite significant in that marketing researchers can become more familiar with the inattentional blindness phenomenon, and as a result, businesses can learn how to properly enhance customer satisfaction with the offerings they provide to customers. Therefore, the goal of this paper is to provide a conceptual review of the inattentional blindness phenomenon and outline important directions for future research, which could lead to critical theoretical and managerial implications.

Literature Review

Selective attention

Selection attention refers to the differential processing of simultaneous sources of information (Johnston and Dark, 1986). In other words, the processes that enable a person to choose and focus on specific input for further

processing while simultaneously suppressing irrelevant or distracting information are referred to as selective attention (Stevens and Bavelier, 2012). Numerous researchers have examined this phenomenon (e.g., Neill 1977, Tipper and Cranston, 1985). Some have also presented preliminary evidence for the effects of selective attention on product selection. For example, Janiszewski et al. (2013) researched the delayed impacts of selective attention on the selection of products by consumers, and Florack et al. (2020) discovered that paying attention to products while ignoring others increases preferences when compared to simply looking at them.

To illustrate an example of selective attention, Cherry (1953) presented the "cocktail party problem." In the context of a cocktail party, where multiple conversations are occurring at the same time, an individual tends to focus their attention on a specific conversation while ignoring other ones, at a given point in time. However, since this specific conversation may vary in terms of how strongly it stimulates and keeps the individual focused, it is possible that a person across the room may audibly state the individual's name in another conversation, potentially diverting their attention to this external conversation which may be more self-relevant and stimulating. Thus, it is clear that from a cognitive perspective, attention is selective in nature, as environmental factors may be processed differently.

Referring back to the cocktail party scenario, the selective nature of attention may benefit the individual, in that by hearing their name from across the room, they now may be able to focus on this external conversation and gain information that would have otherwise been unobtainable. However, a clear disadvantage of this situation is that if the individual is now focusing their attention on the more personally relevant conversation occurring across the room, they may now miss information that is being communicated in the original conversation that they were taking part in initially. For example, if the individual is being asked a question but is not paying attention to the conversation, a person may now repeat the question and the individual's name, to bring their attention back to this conversation. This may be an embarrassing situation to be in, but is it really the individual's fault, if their attention naturally drifted to another conversation and they missed what someone said to them? This negative consequence of selective attention, termed as inattentional blindness, is discussed next.

Inattentional blindness
Inattentional blindness, defined as a failure to notice an unexpected stimulus when one's attention is focused on something else, was originally conceptualized by Arien Mack and Irvin Rock in 1998. A famous experiment conducted a year later (Simons and Chabris, 1999) further confirmed the inattentional blindness phenomenon that Mack and Rock had detailed. In this experiment, a group of individuals are filmed passing two basketballs. One ball is being passed exclusively among individuals wearing white shirts, while the other ball is being passed among individuals wearing black shirts. Participants in the experiment were asked to watch the video and count how many times the individuals in white shirts passed the ball to one another. After the video ended, participants were asked to report how many passes they counted. However, they were also asked whether they had seen a gorilla in the video! Nearly 50% of the participants reported they had not seen a gorilla, when in fact there truly was a person dressed in a black gorilla costume walking through the basketball scene (and even waving his arms) for nearly nine seconds. As a result, Simons and Chabris were able to demonstrate that when an individual's attention is heavily focused on a specific task, this may cause them to be oblivious to objects that are unrelated to the task and therefore unexpected.

The gorilla experiment opened the door for many inattentional blindness experiments over the years, due to the fact that there are a variety of factors that may influence an individual's susceptibility to the phenomenon. For example, Devue et al. (2009) found that stimuli such as faces, and self-referential material (such as one's own name) are more likely to capture attention than other stimuli such as objects. Furthermore, Kreitz et al. (2016) found that the speed of the stimulus has a strong effect on inattentional blindness, such that a slow-moving stimulus is more easily noticed than a fast-moving one because a slow-moving stimulus allows for longer exposure time and thus more time for an individual to potentially notice the stimulus.

While many inattentional blindness studies have been conducted using computer-simulated experiments involving static environments, there have also been several studies using physical scenarios, pointing to some strong implications of the consequences of inattentional blindness in the real world. For example, Chabris et al. (2011) detailed a court case in which a Boston police officer was chasing a shooting suspect on foot and ran past a separate assault incident involving other police officers, claiming that he had not noticed the assault. Due to the faulty assumption that just because the officer had the *ability* to notice the incident meant that he *would* notice the incident, the court case resulted in a guilty verdict of perjury and obstruction of justice. With an interest in this context, Chabris et al. (2011) ran a real-world simulation in which subjects pursued an individual on foot, with a separate incident

involving a fight among three individuals occurring off to the side. The results showed that at night, only 35% of subjects noticed the fight, while during the day, this percent only increased to 56%. Thus, this experiment was able to show that the inattentional blindness phenomenon is quite possible in real-world scenarios. Other real-world experiments have been conducted as well, yielding important findings which are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Examples of Real-World Experiments Studying Inattentional Blindness

Research paper	Context	Findings
Strayer et al. (2003)	Using a cell phone while driving	Cell phone conversations while driving increase the likelihood of inattentional blindness, which leads to impaired driving performance. One major difference between this study and previous ones is that prior work involved the simultaneous (and frequently overlapping) presentation of visual images, while this research involves the combination of visual (i.e., driving environment) and auditory (i.e., cell phone conversation) information.
Castel et al. (2012)	Forgetting the location of fire extinguishers in buildings	Despite years of exposure to fire extinguishers, many individuals are inattentionally-blind to the location of these eye-catching and potentially life-saving devices in buildings they work in, and cannot locate them when asked to, which shows the significant distinction between *seeing* and *noticing* objects.
Drew et al. (2013)	Experts missing unexpected abnormalities in CT scan images	Individuals who are operating in their domain of expertise may perform slightly better than naive observers because their attention is not entirely devoted to the primary task. However, experts such as radiologists examining CT-scan images may be inattentionally-blind to unexpected abnormalities that clearly present themselves on CT images, since these experts may be focused on searching for typical, expected abnormalities.
White and O'Hare (2022)	Conversation distraction and visual detection of external targets in simulated flight	There are significant flight safety risks associated with inattentional blindness. Novice pilots distracted by an engaging cellphone conversation failed to detect many objects in the visual scene. However, their recognition accuracy improved when their attention was not shifted elsewhere.

Directions for research in a marketing context

Overall, research into the inattentional blindness phenomenon has been extensive within the field of psychology. This has included the aforementioned computer-simulated experiments, real-world experiments, and even observational studies (e.g., Hyman Jr et al. 2010). However, there is an overall lack of inattentional blindness research in consumer contexts.

Individuals' attention is likely to be diverted to specific objects, people, or even tasks as they consistently engage with the various elements of a consumption environment. Because of the selective nature of attention, it is also possible that these individuals fail to notice certain elements within that same consumption environment. In a bank setting, for instance, some elements such as windows and plants may not have immediate importance to the individual, but others such as informational brochures and complimentary refreshments may. As a result, noticing such elements would likely benefit the individual, and it could also benefit the firm providing these elements, in that increased customer satisfaction could be attained if customers were to notice them. By studying a common consumer environment such as a bank, one could evaluate how different factors affect the incidence of inattentional blindness, and how its incidence has an impact on measures important to the firm, such as customer satisfaction. In the following

sections, we borrow from the extant psychology literature to explain some of the underlying theories and concepts that can be tested and implicated in a consumption environment such as a bank.

Task difficulty

Stemming from Mack and Rock's initial conceptualization of inattentional blindness, several studies have explored and confirmed the effect of task difficulty on the incidence of inattentional blindness (Simons and Chabris, 1999), even ruling out whether individuals' abilities to perform a task explains its incidence (Simons and Jensen, 2009). Cartwright-Finch and Lavie (2007) and Calvillo and Jackson (2014) found evidence that perceptual load theory explains the effect of task difficulty on inattentional blindness. This theory (Lavie 1995), in the context of inattentional blindness, explains that unexpected stimuli will receive attention only when the demands of the primary task do not exceed the available capacity. As a result, if the demands of the primary task exceed an individual's available capacity, it is possible that the individual may become inattentionally-blind to an unexpected stimulus. Calvillo and Jackson (2014) manipulated perceptual load by varying the number of words presented to a participant on a computer screen. By asking participants to search for a specific word in a short amount of time and introducing the unexpected stimulus (an image of an animal or object) later on in the set of several trials, it was found that increasing the difficulty of the task (more words on the screen) led to higher levels of inattentional blindness, as participants' available cognitive resources had been further expended.

In the context of a bank environment, customers face different types of tasks that vary on the spectrum of perceptual load. Some tasks require more cognitive effort on the part of the customer (such as carefully completing a deposit form and counting money), while other tasks require less effort (meeting with a banker to open a checking account). Due to the resulting difference in perceptual load, one may find that customers engaging in a high perceptual load task will experience higher levels of inattentional blindness to salient, complimentary goods offered by the bank as opposed to customers in a low perceptual load task.

Stimulus color

In addition to task difficulty, certain studies have also explored the specific features of the stimulus itself, and how these features affect the onset of inattentional blindness. One such feature that has been studied is the color of the stimulus. In a computer-simulated study, Mack and Rock (1998) found that a colored, unexpected stimulus did not lead to decreased inattentional blindness as compared to a black stimulus. However, these findings conflict with the findings of Koivisto et al. (2004) and Most et al. (2005), who discovered that a colored, unexpected stimulus was indeed detected with a higher probability than a stimulus with no salient color. The primary reasoning behind this conflict in findings is that the degree of inattentional blindness may vary as a function of how *similar* the colored, unexpected stimulus is to the colors used in the primary task. Thus, while the incidence of inattentional blindness may be affected by whether the unexpected stimulus is colored, its incidence may also be affected by the similarity between the unexpected stimulus and the items used in the primary task.

In the context of a bank environment, one would likely not be concerned with the similarity between the unexpected stimulus (complimentary refreshments) and the colors used in the primary task (for example, filling out a deposit form), since this is likely an unnecessary and irrelevant dimension to consider. One may be more interested in seeing whether the use of a salient color that stands out from other items in the consumption environment has an effect on inattentional blindness, and whether this effect differs between varying levels of perceptual load. Similar to some of the previously mentioned literature, one may expect that a colored stimulus has an attenuating effect on inattentional blindness, due to the fact that individuals may notice the stimulus more easily than an object that has no salient color and "blends in" with the environment. More specifically, this effect might be more apparent in a high perceptual load scenario, as individuals with expended cognitive resources would likely benefit from a salient cue that helps divert their attention to the unexpected stimulus. Conversely, the effect may be unlikely to exist in a low perceptual load scenario, as individuals with abundant and unexpended cognitive resources may be unlikely to need a cue such as salient color to grab their attention. This could be due to the fact that they still have cognitive resources, which they can allocate to explore their surroundings. Therefore, one may expect that in a bank context, manipulating the color of a complimentary refreshment display will have an effect on inattentional blindness, with the incidence of inattentional blindness being lower in a colored display scenario as opposed to being higher in a non-colored scenario. Also, the effect of using a colored display on inattentional blindness could differ between varying levels of perceptual load, such that in a low load scenario, a colored display may not have a differential effect on inattentional blindness as opposed to a non-colored display. However, in a high load scenario, a differential effect may exist.

Mindfulness

Rather than relying on manipulations of the unexpected stimulus itself, which includes the potential that many customers still remain inattentionally-blind, one could easily draw attention to the stimulus by mentioning it in a conversation with the customer. In psychology, "mindfulness" has been defined as an enhanced attention to, and open nonjudgmental awareness of, what is happening in the present (Brown and Ryan, 2003). Therefore, in a consumer context, mindfulness can be thought of as a customer's enhanced awareness and understanding of what is currently happening, within the consumption environment. Studies have found that mindfulness interventions can increase awareness of body sensations such as temperature (Daubenmier et al. 2011), reduce binge eating behavior (Dalen et al. 2010), help regulate body weight (Van de Veer et al. 2016), and improve working memory (Jha et al. 2010).

In a bank context, it is possible that encouraging mindfulness of one's surroundings can promote a wider breadth of attention, reducing the amount of a customer's selective attention on the task they have been focused on in the bank thus far. For example, a customer entering a bank to make a deposit most likely enters the bank, locates the deposit slips, fills one out, and walks over to hand it to the teller. If the teller were to encourage mindfulness, thereby encouraging the customer to mentally "take a break" from their focused attention on the deposit task, this may have an impact on how the customer perceives their surroundings, including the complimentary refreshments offered by the bank, regardless of whether they had consciously noticed them before. Not only would such a mindfulness intervention significantly reduce the incidence of inattentional blindness (due to the teller drawing direct attention to the refreshments), but it could also possibly increase customer satisfaction as well, as a customer who is encouraged to be mindful of their surroundings may be more content with what the bank is offering.

However, the effect of a mindfulness intervention on inattentional blindness and satisfaction may be stronger in the case of high perceptual load, as opposed to a low perceptual load case. Individuals with expended cognitive resources (high load) may benefit more from an opportunity to mentally "take a break" and become more aware of their surroundings, as opposed to individuals with abundant cognitive resources (low load) who may have already had plenty of opportunities to openly assess their surroundings. Therefore, a mindfulness intervention could have an effect on inattentional blindness and customer satisfaction, such that the incidence of inattentional blindness may be lower and customer satisfaction may be higher when an intervention is staged, as compared to when no intervention is staged. Furthermore, the effect of a mindfulness intervention on inattentional blindness and customer satisfaction may differ between varying levels of perceptual load, such that in a low load condition, an intervention may not have a differential effect. However, in a high load condition, a differential effect may exist.

Conclusion

Inattentional blindness is a common phenomenon with negative consequences, which is why countless psychology researchers have studied it. We reviewed task difficulty, color, and mindfulness as variables that may affect the incidence of inattentional blindness in a consumer context, but there are other variables such as personality factors (Kreitz et al. 2015) and working memory (Seegmiller et al. 2011; Bredemeier and Simons, 2012) that could be considered as well. In addition, we used an example of a banking context to illustrate the potential for inattentional blindness, but it could be present in other consumer scenarios as well, such as self-service checkout. Self-service technologies incorporate interfaces that allow consumers to perform tasks without direct involvement of a service employee (Meuter et al. 2000). The use of retail self-checkouts, for example, has grown significantly in recent years. According to recent data (eMarketer, 2019), nearly half of consumers have stated that they regularly use self-service checkouts. However, because of the nature of self-service checkouts (e.g., need to learn a new technology interface, having limited assistance from store employees), consumers' perceptual load may be high, and they may be more inattentionally-blind to impulse purchase items such as candies, gum, and magazines than ever before.

In summary, we encourage marketing researchers to study inattentional blindness within the consumer world and various factors that may affect its incidence. From a managerial perspective, resulting research could provide evidence to firms that some of their efforts to increase customer satisfaction and even sales are going unnoticed. This research could also deliver guidance to firms on how they can easily implement no- or low-cost changes within the consumption environment to reduce the onset of inattentional blindness.

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Full Paper

Information Format and the Use of Decision Aids in E-Commerce

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This paper investigates the efficacy of decision aids used to make decisions in online retailing. Decision aids are commonly used by the top online retailers in the United States. There is a gap between retail practices and the academic understanding of how consumers use decision aids and whether decision quality improves with their use. The results suggest that while decision-makers are using such tools, decision quality does not improve as much as extant literature would predict.

Introduction

Purchasing products online is becoming increasingly popular as evidenced by the steady increase of e-commerce sales over the past decade; currently representing 14.3% of the United States retail market (U.S. Census Bureau 2022). Consumers have more access to information (Court, Elzinga, Mulder, & Vetvik 2009) and an increasing level of connectivity (National Telecommunications and Information Administration 2021) while they shop. A cornerstone of consumers' user online experience is the use of retailer websites, which represent valuable tools for interacting with customers (Kuo, Chen, & Hsu 2012; Guo, Cao, Ding, Liu, & Zhang 2014; Gupta et al. 2009). Maintaining properly developed websites is, indeed, a key decision variable for online retailers, as a consumer's emotional response to the complexity and order of a website can also mediate their future actions regarding the website (Deng & Poole 2010). To influence repurchase and build consumers' trust, retailers strive to develop easy-to use websites with a clear specification of their product assortment and product descriptions (Posselt & Gerstner 2005; Gupta et al. 2009).

The amount of information available to consumers can be overwhelming (Häuble & Trifts 2000; Lurie 2004; Iyengar & Lepper 2000). This overabundance of information leads to choice-deferral (Iyengar & Lepper 2000) and a shopping cart abandonment rate of 77% on computers and 86% on mobile devices (Statista 2022). To combat customer attrition, retailers and third-party websites attempt to help consumers make choices using simple decision aids (Lurie & Wen 2014; Randall 2016). Consequently, retailers look for ways to discern what information the customer needs to move them to the next phase of their decision-making process (Spenner & Freeman 2012). One way is to offer recommendations based on past behavior or simple comparison tools that allow consumers to filter and sort products by product attributes, such as price range, manufacturer, etc. (Häuble & Trifts 2000). Simple decision aids can take the form of a comparison table of the features and benefits of several alternatives or interactive decision aids which allow for filtering and sorting of information (see Figure 1 and Appendix A-C for more examples; Lurie & Wen 2014; Lurie & Mason 2007). Interactive decision aids that allow consumers to sort on a single dimension are the most common. Of the top ten e-commerce retailers in the United States (Statista 2021), all except for one (Apple Inc.) use filtering and sorting tools and recommend similar items while over half provide either static or interactive comparison tables (See Table 1).

Research provides several examples of interactive tools consumers can use to "restructure representation of information" (Lurie & Mason 2007, p. 162; Cervalo et al. 2019; Hasford, Hardesty, & Kidwell 2019) and evaluates the impact of comparison decision aids on decision quality (Lurie & Wen 2014). Research has even evaluated how

multiple decision aids are used simultaneously (Virdi, Kalro, & Sharma 2020). Comparison decision aids, such as product tables that outlie different product attributes are used extensively in online retailing. Although research articles su_____dav, & Varadarajan 2009) and the consumer (De Bruyn, Liechty, H_____he role that comparison decisions aids play in the format that is tra_____l and results are conflicting (Jarpenvaa 1989; Lurie & Wen 2014; V:

Fi_____**Tools**

Interactive Comparison Tool:
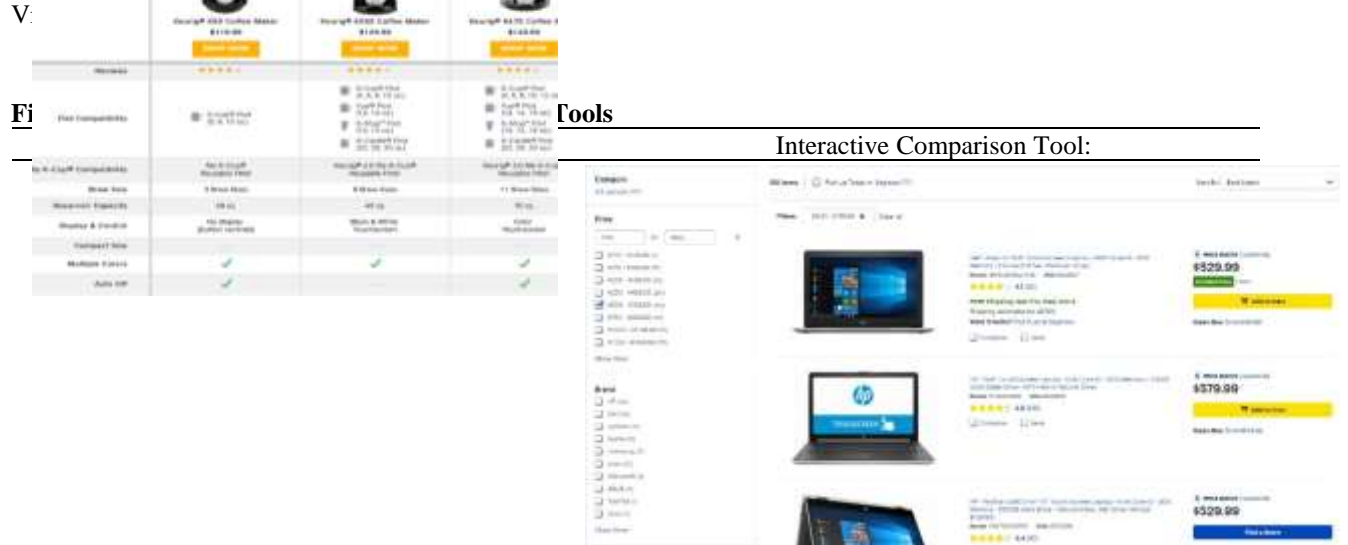
Source: Amazon, 2022 and Best Buy, 2022

Table 1. Use of Decision Aids in U.S. E-Commerce

Ranking	Company	Sorting & Filtering	Recommended Similar Items	Comparison Tools
1	Amazon.com, Inc.	Yes	Yes	Yes - interactive
2	Wal-Mart Stores, Inc.	Yes	Yes	No
3	eBay	Yes	Yes	No
4	Apple Inc.	No	No	Yes - static
5	The Home Depot, Inc.	Yes	Yes	Yes - interactive
6	Target Corporation	Yes	Yes	No
7	Best Buy Co., Inc.	Yes	Yes	Yes - interactive
8	Costco Wholesale Corporation	Yes	Yes	Yes - interactive
9	Kroger	Yes	Yes	No
10	Wayfair	Yes	Yes	Yes - static

Source: Statista, 2021

A number of managerially relevant research questions are left unanswered by the academic research. First, is an online retailer always better off by investing in providing comparison decision aids? Preliminary answers can be found by examining research into the general study of decision aids, which suggests that simple aids allow consumers to deal more efficiently with incoming information (Ariely 2000; Hoffman and Novak 1996; Lurie and Mason 2007; De Bruyn et al. 2008). This control over the quantity and quality of incoming information should allow consumers to make better decisions (Bellman et al. 2006; Van Bruggen, Smidts, and Wierenga 1998). However, some research (Lurie & Wen 2014; Diehl 2005) finds that consumers may make better decisions when use of a decision aid is limited. The first contribution of this paper is to resolve these conflicting results in the context of online comparison decision aids, and to determine under which conditions retailers should provide these aids.

Second, what types of interactivity should retailers provide to consumers? Studies have limited the investigation of interactivity to the product dimension. It is generally understood that individual consumers assign different weights to attributes and features than one another (Ajzen & Fishbein 1977; Park, Jun, & Macinnis 2000) and consider and ignore different bits of information when making a purchase decision (Bettman, Luce, & Payne 1998). However, no studies on interactive decision aids have investigated the effect of filtering and/or sorting by attribute (*i.e.* color, size, pattern) which is a functionality that some retailer sites (*e.g.* Amazon, Target) offer on their websites.

Finally, are there specific information formats that retailers should use? Options include written descriptions in blocks of text, text-based comparison tables, or graphical bar/line charts that allow consumers to easily visualize product and attribute differences (Kelton, Pennington, & Tuttle 2010). Drawing from findings on decision support systems (Kelton, Pennington, and Tuttle 2010) and accounting information (Kelton and Yang 2008; Dilla, Janvrin, and Raschke 2010; Cervavolo et al. 2019) systems, it would appear that graphical formats are superior to text-based information in decision aids (DeSanctis & Jarvenpaa 1989; Hard & Vanecek 1991; Schulz & Booth 1995; Stock & Watson 1984; Smerecnik et al. 2010). Studies on comparison decision aids offer examples and stimuli that include various information formats (Dilla, Janvrin, & Raschke 2010; Gupta, Yadav, & Varadarajan 2009) and a few studies have evaluated the impact of amount of interactivity a consumer has with a decision aid (Lurie & Wen 2014; Diehl 2005). However, studies on interactive decision aids in consumer behavior have been conducted using exclusively text-based information formats (Lurie & Wen 2014). No study has tested whether the effectiveness of those formats interacts with the varying levels of interactivity that retailers may include in the comparison decision aids they currently employ. Rather than discussion of all relevant literature up front this paper follows the following format: a discussion of relevant literature and hypothesis development on information format, difficulty, and processing in decision aids followed by a single study. Following a brief discussion of the results, we present further discussion, literature review, and hypothesis development and another study. This format is repeated for a third study and general discussion.

Information Format

Literature on decision support systems (Kelton, Pennington, & Tuttle 2010) and risk assessment (Song, Chan, & Wright 2017) divides information format presentation into two categories graphical (*i.e.* pictorial) and tabular (*i.e.* verbal; See Figure 2). The nature of the task will influence which type of information format provides a more efficient approach to solving the given problem (Hong, Thong, & Tam 2005; Kelton et al. 2010). Graphical formats outperform tables when the task requires comparing data and understanding relationships (Kelton, Pennington, & Tuttle 2010; Anderson and Reckers 1992). Tabular formats are better for simple tasks that "require precise estimates or specific data values" (Kelton et al. 2010, p. 84; Amer 1991; Benbasat & Dexter 1986; Hard & Vanecek 1991). For complex tasks with large amounts of data graphs are found to outperform tables (Kelton et al. 2010). Graphs also outperform tables when the task requires comparing data and understanding relationships (Kelton et al. 2010; Anderson and Reckers 1992). Consumer behavior literature has found that matching a shopping task to the appropriate information format leads to more efficient search and improved recall of product information (Hong, Thong, & Tam 2004). However, the research on the impact of information format in consumer behavior in this context has been limited to verbal formats (Hong et al. 2004; Lurie & Wen 2014; Hasford, Hardesty, Kidwell 2019).

Figure 2: Types of Information Format

	Tabular	Graphical – Column	Graphical - Line

	Brand 1	Brand 2	Brand 3
Feature 1	4.3	2.4	2
Feature 2	2.5	4.4	2
Feature 3	3.5	1.8	3
Feature 4	4.5	2.8	5

Information Processing of Decision Aids

Consumer choice research shows that consumers use a variety of strategies during the decision-making process (Payne, Bettman, & Johnson 1988; Bettman, Luce, & Payne 1998). Some strategies are more effortful and require all available information, while others use a simplified decision rule to allow consumers to process limited amounts of information while maintaining acceptable levels of accuracy. Decision strategies vary by whether they are compensatory or noncompensatory in how they weight the value of available information. In a compensatory strategy, high values on an attribute can compensate for low values on others. Thus, compensatory strategies require more cognitive effort and resolution of "explicit trade-offs among attributes" (Bettman et al. 1998, p. 190; Bettman, Johnson, & Payne 1998). A noncompensatory strategy does not allow for trade-offs between good and poor attributes

A weighted-additive (WADD) decision rule is the most effortful strategy and maximizes accuracy. This rule requires the sum of products for all product/attribute combinations based on predetermined attribute weights. The WADD strategy will always result in the "alternative with the highest expected value in the decision set" (Bettman, Johnson, Luce, and Payne 1993). For example, a consumer shopping for a car might assign weights to several different attributes and carefully consider each attribute for several different cars before making a choice. Consumers can also choose to use less effortful, noncompensatory decision strategies. In a lexicographic strategy, the "alternative with the best value on the most important attribute is selected" (Bettman, Luce, and Payne 1998, p. 190). For example, when shopping for a car, a consumer may value fuel mileage over all other attributes, including price. In this case, the alternative selected would be the car with the highest fuel mileage.
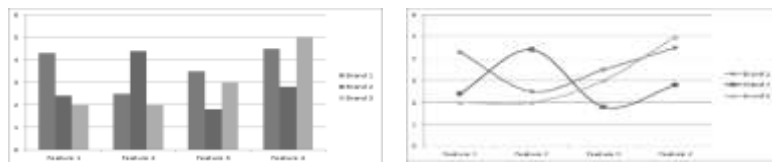
The Effect of Information Format on Information Processing of a Static Decision Aid

Consumers usually seek to minimize effort while making satisfactorily accurate decisions by adapting their decision strategies to the choice environment (Payne, Bettman, & Johnson 1993). Because consumers are cognitive misers, balancing accuracy and effort in daily purchasing decisions, they will use less effortful decision strategies when making decisions that are low in importance and/or risk (Bettman, Luce, & Payne 1998).The external problem representation of a choice task is defined as "the way in which a task is presented" (Kelton, Pennington, & Tuttle 2010, p. 83) and is synonymous with the term information presentation format. There are various ways in which information format can be manipulated. Much of the literature focuses on the differences between graphs and tables (see Kelton et al. 2010 for a review) and interactivity (Lurie & Mason 2007; Lurie & Wen 2014), but no study has investigated the two variables simultaneously.

Literature in other fields has extended some of the findings in the information processing literature to the domain of graphical displays. Jarvenpaa (1989) finds that information presentation format influences processing strategies selected by the decision maker. The nature of the task will also influence which type of information format

provides a more efficient approach to solving the given problem (Hong et al. 2005). Jarvenpaa (1989) finds that when the organization of information is incongruent with the task instructions given, decision-makers follow the processing strategy that aligns with the information format, rather than the instructions. Multiple studies on the role of external problem representation have demonstrated that the availability of information in graphs versus tables interacts with task complexity to impact speed and accuracy in decision making tasks. Studies show that a tabular format is better for simple tasks that "require precise estimates or specific data values" (Kelton, Pennington, & Tuttle 2010, p. 84; Amer 1991; Benbasat & Dexter 1986; Hard & Vanecek 1991). For more complex tasks, with large amounts of data, graphs are found to be better (Kelton et al. 2010; Davis 1989; Anderson & Reckers 1992; Stock & Watson 1984; Schulz & Booth 1995; Dickson, DeSanctis, & McBride 1986).

Graphs also outperform tables when the task requires comparing data and understanding relationships (Kelton et al. 2010; Anderson amd Reckers 1992). One existing explanation for the interaction between type of task and information format is offered by Vessy's Cognitive Fit Theory (1991) which suggests that the "efficiency and effectiveness of the problem solution depends on a fit between the problem representation and the problem-solving task" (Kelton et al. 2010, p. 81). When there is not a cognitive fit between the problem representation and the task, the problem solver must expend cognitive effort to mentally transform the problem representation or adapt their decision-making process. The increased cognitive effort results in increased time and/or decreased accuracy in task performance (Kelton et al. 2010; Vessey 1991). For example, Hong, Thong, and Tam (2004) find that efficiency of information search of online consumers improves when the external problem representation (matrix versus list) matches the online shopping task (searching versus browsing).

Studies on interactive decision aids in consumer behavior have been conducted using exclusively text-based information formats (Lurie & Wen 2014). Research also suggests that the organization of information makes some strategies easier to use than others (Jarvenpaa 1989; Bettman, Luce, & Payne 1998). It is possible that a graphical presentation of the products and their attributes will make negatively correlated attributes more obvious and make compensatory processing less effortful. A tabular format requires the processing of words and numbers in a piecemeal fashion, while images can be processed in a holistic fashion (Hart 1997; Paivio 1986; Townsend and Kahn 2014). Therefore, we expect graphical information formats to reduce the amount of effort when compared to a tabular format by making it easier to compare products visually. This does not necessarily mean, however, that decision accuracy will be improved by using a graphical information format, as opposed to a text-based format. Decision accuracy in tasks that require the precise estimates of a WADD strategy will be better served by a tabular format. However, decision-making requires tradeoffs between accuracy and effort. Therefore, we expect the tabular format to result in greater accuracy at the cost of greater effort. The visual formats will result in lesser accuracy, but will not take as long to process.

Jarvenpaa (1989) finds that when the organization of information is incongruent with the task instructions given, decision-makers follow the processing strategy that aligns with the information format, rather than the instructions. Vessy's Cognitive Fit Theory (1991) suggests that the "efficiency and effectiveness of the problem solution depends on a fit between the problem representation and the problem-solving task" (Kelton et al. 2010, p. 81). When there is not a cognitive fit between the problem representation and the task, the problem solver must expend cognitive effort to mentally transform the problem representation or adapt their decision- making process. This is at odds with desire of consumers to minimize their effort when making low-importance decisions.

H1: A decision aid with a tabular information format will result in superior accuracy than graphical (bar & line) versions of the decision aid.

Choice Difficulty and Ease of Processing

When desirable product attributes are negatively correlated (*e.g.* fuel mileage and affordability), it becomes more difficult to identify an optimal solution. In this case, different decision rules can lead to greater likelihood of making a mistake. Piecemeal processing strategies require higher levels of effort while holistic processing strategies require low levels of effort (Fercho, Peterson, & Baugh 2016). Because a tabular format requires piecemeal processing while images can be processed holistically, we expect graphical information formats to reduce the amount of effort when compared to a tabular format because visual comparison is easier. Making the decision

process simpler to process should allow consumers to more easily balance tradeoffs between accuracy and effort. Therefore, graphical formats should also result in fewer errors and less effort than tabular formats.

H2: A decision aid with a tabular information format will result in greater effort than graphical (bar & line) versions of the decision aid.

Study 1

The purpose of this study was to determine which type of static decision aid would be most efficient in a product comparison context in terms of accuracy and effort. Participants were randomly shown one of three information formats (Column, Line, Tabular) and asked to identify the optimal product on four different attributes, some of which were negatively correlated, and report task difficulty (3-item semantic differential scale, higher values reflect high ease of processing). All the information in the three information formats was identical (See Figure 2) The only difference in the manipulation was the information format.

An online survey of university students (n = 338) revealed no significant difference between the proportion of errors made with the column format (4.5%) as compared to the line format (8.0%). Errors are more likely in the tabular format (38.5%) than in the column (χ^2 (1, 229) = 29.40, p <.001) or line formats (χ^2 (1, 228) = 38.36, p <.001, See Table 2). These findings support H1. ANOVA reveals no significant difference in ease of processing of the three different formats (p > .05). H2 is not supported. While subjects rated all information formats as relatively easy to process (see Table 3), it seems that they were unaware that they were making more errors in the tabular formats (Table 2). This is likely because either effort was measured by self- report and respondents in the tabular condition 1) did not realize that they were taking shortcuts to reduce effort or 2) did not notice the negatively correlated attributes. This research will further assess decision making effort through use of interactive decision aids with negatively correlated attributes.

Table 2. Accuracy Rates by Condition

	Information Format			
	Column	Line	Tabular	Total
N	110	102	117	338
Made Error	5	9	45	59
Error Rate	4.5%	8.1%	38.5%	17.5%

Table 3. Ease of Processing for Information Formats

Format	N	Self-Report Mean (SE)
Column	110	6.17 (.131)
Line	111	5.96 (.138)
Tabular	117	5.85 (.135)
All	280	5.99 (.078)

Improving Decision Quality in Difficult Decisions

If using a noncompensatory decision rule (*i.e.* lexicographic) the decision-maker will be more likely to make a mistake and choose a suboptimal product because they are ignoring some of the available information. A WADD decision rule allows consumers to compensate for these negative correlations, but requires more effort. Simple decision aids help reduce this effort (Todd & Benbasat 2000), but do not always increase decision quality. A decision aid can help consumers make decisions, but when consumers are allowed unlimited access to the decision

tool, they tend to rely too heavily on its ability to improve decision quality. A sorting decision tool increases decision quality to a point, but increased use leads to more mistakes while the increased use of a filter tool seems to have no effect (Lurie and Wen 2014).

Consumers are less susceptible to these mistakes when choice conflict is low and provided unrestricted access to a sorting tool (Lurie and Wen 2014). Because important attributes are not in conflict with one another, it is easier to use a noncompensatory strategy based on only a few attributes, resulting in fewer errors. Distracting information will have little impact on low conflict decisions because the same alternative should look most appealing, regardless of which attribute is used to sort the decision set. Therefore, inclusion of a filtering tool neither adds nor removes any benefit to decision accuracy.

When choice conflict is high, consumers are more accurate in their decision making when they have access to both sorting and filtering tools (Lurie and Wen 2014). The removal of elements from a complex and conflicting decision space can help consumers identify and prioritize essential information. The Lurie and Wen (2014) study used a decision aid that allowed for sorting and filtering, but the setup of the decision aid only let consumers sort and filter the alternatives. The decision aid did not include the ability to sort or filter attributes. We want to see if we can replicate their findings the option to sort and filter both alternatives and attributes. We suspect that the removal of distracting information (*e.g.* unimportant attributes, dominated alternatives) will make it easier to process the remaining information, even when desirable attributes are negatively correlated.

Interactivity of Decision Aids

Some websites contain simple interactive decision aids that allow consumers to restructure information by changing how products and features are displayed (Lurie & Mason 2007). This functionality gives consumers more control over the amount of information available (Ariely 2000) and may create "a better match between the task and the decision environment" (Lurie & Mason 2014, p. 162). In a set of conceptual propositions, Lurie and Mason (2007) expect that this improved fit between task and information format will lead to improved decision-making outcomes.

Early research on the topic finds that simple decision aids reduce decision effort yet provide no positive impact on decision quality (Häuble & Trifts 2000; Todd & Benbasat 1992, 1999). In contrast, Lurie and Wen (2014) find that the amount of decision conflict moderates the effect of simple decision aids on choice quality. Decision conflict occurs when tradeoffs must be made among product attributes. Lurie and Wen (2014) find that when choice conflict is low, limited use of a sorting tool increases choice quality, while increases in choice conflict have the opposite effect. Other than sorting by a single attribute (*e.g.* price, relevance) or filtering by desired attribute (*e.g.* color, size, brand), most of the decision aid software available to e-commerce retailers is in the form of comparison tables. These tend to be text-based comparison tables (*i.e.* tabular) with an abundance of information (see Figure 1). While the use of online decision aids seems to be the norm in e-commerce, there has been little research on the effectiveness of these tools in a consumer context (Ariely 2000; Hoffman & Novak 1996; Lurie & Mason 2007; Lurie & Wen 2014).

Research has already demonstrated that consumers may be too trusting in their use of simple decision aids (Lurie & Wen 2014; Todd & Benbesat 1992). Simple decision aids do not seem to be enhancing decision quality in the way consumers seem to expect. In fact, Lurie and Wen (2014) find that the availability of a sorting tool in a decision aid only seems to help consumers when their use is limited and when decision conflict is low. However, this seems to be the case when the only decision aid available is used to sort products and features. When the ability to eliminate products is introduced, the negative effects of simple sorting tools are overcome (Lurie & Wen 2014). If we take the functionality of the simple decision aid a step further and allow consumers to filter out both products and attributes, we may see increasing accuracy of decisions made with simple decision aids. We suspect that the removal of distracting information (e.g. unimportant attributes, dominated alternatives) will make it easier to process the remaining information, even when

desirable attributes are negatively correlated. In addition to the availability of the tool, Lurie and Wen (2014) find diminishing returns on decision quality when simple sorting tool is used. In their research, no significant effect of increasing the use of a filtering tool was found.

H3a: The availability of an unrestricted filtering/sorting tool that allows for manipulation and hiding/revealing of both alternatives and attributes has a negative curvilinear (inverted U) relationship with decision quality.

H3b: Choice conflict moderates the effect of unrestricted use of a simple sorting tool, such that when choice conflict is low (high), increased use of the tool leads to an increase (decrease) in decision quality.

Study 2

Participants were 76 Amazon Mechanical Turk respondents who participated in a compensated ($2.00) study in which they completed a decision task and follow-up survey. Participants were asked to make decisions as if they were making a real purchase decision for an international software company. They would be purchasing a shipment of calculators from a selection of six vendors in ten different regions in which their company was located. Next, participants were provided with a list of attributes that they should consider when making their purchase decision. They were told that the company had provided them with importance ratings, and to use these ratings in their decisions. This approach is similar to the procedure used in Lurie and Wen (2014).

Following previous research (Bettman et al. 1993; Lurie and Wen 2014) attribute values were randomly generated using a uniform distribution to allow each product-attribute pair to have an equal chance of possessing any value along from 0 – 10. All participants received the same randomly generated attribute importance ratings. Each subject was shown 10 randomized decision tasks in full factorial design for three information formats (Column, Line, Tabular) and four interactivity types (None, Sorting, Filtering, Sorting/Filtering). Rather than manipulating choice conflict, the correlation of the two attributes with the highest weights was calculated after the fact for each decision task. The dependent measure of choice quality was "measured as the weighted additive utility (WADD) of the chosen alternative compared to the utility of the best and worst choices of each choice set" (Lurie and Wen 2014, p. 515) and scaled to values 0 - 1. The dependent measure of effort was measured as the amount of time spent making a decision (in seconds). This study also measured the following self-report variables as controls: frequency of product category purchase (6-point scale: never to more than once a year), confidence and satisfaction in decision-making during tasks (7-point scale: not at all to very much), age, gender, choice difficulty (Argo et al. 2010; 3-item, 7-point scale: strongly disagree to strongly agree), choice confusion (Diehl and Poynor 2010; 3-item, 7-point scale: not at all to very much), task and product involvement (Citation; 3-item, 7-point scale: not involved at all to very involved), level of comfort with using technology (Meuter et al. 2005; 4-item, 7-point scale: strongly disagree to strongly agree). The process tracing software collected the following control variables: network latency, whether the optimal product or feature was visible at the time of decision, and time spent in decision task.

Following the methodology of Lurie and Wen (2014), all models were estimated using the Generalized Estimating Equations approach (GEE; Diggle et al. 2002; Hauble and Trifts 2000). This method accounts for repeated measures of the multiple decision tasks and to control for interattribute correlation as a covariate. As expected, greater amounts of positive correlation between two important attributes increases decision accuracy ($b = .07$, $p < .001$).

When the filtering tool was available, in 66.15% of the decision tasks, participants used it at least once. When the tool is available, the filtering tool is used an average of 5.73 times per task. When sorting is also available, average

filter use drops to 2.44 times per task. When the sorting tool is available, participants used it at least once in 36.88% of the decision tasks. When the tool is available, sorting is used an average of 2.67 times per task. When filtering is also available, average filter use drops to 1.04 times per task. However, in spite of the use of these decision tools, there is no effect of interactivity type when assessed by condition (None, Sort, Filter, Sort/Filter). When we evaluate the number of times the interactivity tools are used, we find the following positive effects of both sorting and filtering. There is a marginally significant curvilinear effect of number of sorting actions on decision quality (b = .01, p = .09). However, this effect is a U-shape, rather than the predicted inverted-U relationship we had expected. There is a positive main effect of the number of filtering actions on decision quality (b = .01, p<.001) suggesting partial support for H3a. We find no interaction effect between interactivity condition and level of choice difficulty/conflict (p > .05). H3b is not supported.

To explore the impact of decision aids further, we investigated the effect of mere availability of each tool. The simple presence of a filtering tool has no effect (p> .05) while the presence of a sorting tool, compared to its absence resulted in a decrease in decision quality (b = -0.07, p <.05). In contrast to study 1, information format also had no effect on decision quality regardless of interactivity type or choice conflict (H1 not supported). Surprisingly, decision effort (amount of time spent making the decision) increased in the column chart condition when compared to the tabular format (b = 10.68, p = .05). H2 was not supported. Similar to past research (Lurie & Wen 2014), we find that the availability of interactivity tools leads to additional time spent making the decision. The availability of both types of tools (sorting/filtering) significantly increased the amount of time spent in the decision task (b = 25.97, p < .05). Filtering alone also led to longer decision-making times (b = 22.95, p = .05). Therefore, H3 is not supported.

Our findings suggest that the mere presence of a decision aid is not sufficient to improve decision quality. Decision-makers need to use the correct tool in the right way for it to be effective. The number of filtering actions seems to improve decision quality, and this effect is consistent across all levels of inter-attribute correlation. Surprisingly, we find no effect of information format on decision quality, regardless of decision aid functionality. This finding is at odds with an abundance of existing literature and our findings in Study 1. We do find that information displayed in a column chart requires more effortful processing than information displayed in a tabular format. For a search task, as opposed to a browsing task, perhaps the line and tabular formats are a better fit for the processing required (Kelton et al. 2010; Vessey 1991; Hong et al. 2004). Or perhaps, as suggested by Lurie and Wen (2014), by providing a decision aid leads consumers to rely on the tool too much or ignore relevant information that is not currently visible.

Limiting Consumer Interaction with Decision Aids

Research has already demonstrated that consumers may be too trusting in their use of simple decision aids (Lurie & Wen 2014; Todd & Benbesat 1992). Simple decision aids do not seem to be enhancing decision quality in the way consumers seem to expect. In fact, Lurie and Wen (2014) find that the availability of a sorting tool in a decision aid only seems to help consumers when their use is limited and when decision conflict is low. However, this seems to be the case when the only decision aid available is used to sort products and features. When the ability to eliminate products is introduced, the negative effects of simple sorting tools are overcome (Lurie & Wen 2014). If we take the functionality of the simple decision aid a step further and allow consumers to filter out both products and attributes, we may see increasing accuracy of decisions made with simple decision aids. We suspect that the removal of distracting information (e.g. unimportant attributes, dominated alternatives) will make it easier to process the remaining information, even when desirable attributes are negatively correlated.

In addition to the availability of the tool, Lurie and Wen (2014) find a negative inverted-u shaped effect of the number of times the simple sorting tool was used on decision quality. There was no significant effect of increasing the

use of an elimination tool. Therefore, we expect that decision quality will not be affected by the number of times the filter tool is used. Although research shows that the unrestricted and continued use of certain decision aids can improve choice outcomes, there is the possibility of consumer overreliance on decision aids. Increasing use of sorting tools past a certain point leads to decreasing decision quality (Lurie & Wen 2014). When consumers are limited in their use of the sorting tool, they are able to use the tool to their advantage (Lurie & Wen 2014).

Generally, the presence of a timer will limit the amount of time a consumer has to process the available information. If the time is not sufficient to evaluate enough information, decision-making quality will suffer (Payne, Bettman, & Luce 1996; Dhar & Nowlis 1999). If the amount of information shown can be limited in such a way to eliminate unimportant information or dominated alternatives, consumers should be able to make a decision before the time runs out. If consumers are attempting to be more efficient in their use of actions, they will attempt to use tools that will provide the most useful information. According to Lurie and Wen (2014), eliminating distracting information is more useful than continually sorting visible information. Therefore, if consumers want to get the proper information quickly, the best way is to eliminate unimportant attributes and then dominated alternatives.

When consumers are limited in their use of the sorting tool, they are better able to use the tool to their advantage (Lurie & Wen 2014). A popular way to limit consumer processing and to convince online shoppers to complete the checkout process is to introduce a countdown timer. These are available as free apps for eCommerce shopping carts (Shopify, 2022). Therefore, a practical way to implement Lurie and Wen's (2014) solution and to reduce the overreliance on simple decision aid tools may be to introduce a timer into the online shopping environment. This timer will force consumers to be judicious in their use of the decision tools, increasing overall accuracy. As the amount of time spent with the decision tool increases, the more likely the consumer will be to reach the threshold at which use of the decision aid becomes a detriment to decision accuracy. Reducing the amount of time spent using the decision tool will limit the number of actions that can be made, thus increasing the efficiency and accuracy of decision tool use.

H4a: As time becomes more limited, use of a sorting decision tool decreases.

H4b: As time becomes more limited, use of filtering tools increases.

H4c: As use of filtering tools increases, decision quality increases.

We conducted an experimental study to examine how the availability of different types of decision aids affect decision quality under varying levels of choice conflict. Study 3 also investigates the use of different information formats and types of interaction with the decision aid and their impact on decision quality.

Study 3

This study addresses the issue of overreliance on decision aids by introducing time pressure. Rather than manipulating the availability of sorting and filtering decision tools, all conditions had access to both types of interactivity. Time pressure was manipulated through the presence of a countdown timer at the top of each decision task. Participants were randomly assigned to a condition with 1) no timer, 2) a 15-second timer, 3) a 45-second timer, or 4) a 75-second timer. These durations were chosen based on the amount of time respondents took to make decisions in study 2. The average amount of time spent on a task in study 2 was 53.58 seconds (SD = 73.16, Min = 1.67, Max = 913.11). The 15-second timer was selected to ensure that participants only had enough time to filter out nonessential information and glance quickly at the graph or table prior to making a quick decision. The 45- and 75-second timers are intended to allow participants to take more time than they really need to make the decision, but to remind them that time is limited. The

number of alternatives was also increased from six to ten to increase the amount of information, and therefore, difficulty of the decision task. Otherwise, the stimuli and procedure for Study 3 are the same as Study 2.

Table 4. Results by Timer Condition

Timer Condition	Average Decision Quality	Average Time (s)[a]	Average Number of Sorting Actions	Average Number of Filtering Actions	Percentage of Tasks Sort was used at least once	Percentage of Tasks Filter was used at least once
15 Second	0.61[a,c]	19.56	0.14	2.27	7%	43%[a,b,c]
45 Second	0.73[b]	34.03	0.15	7.49	6%[a]	66%[b]
75 Second	0.74[c]	38.96	0.41	6.84	11%	66%[c]
No Timer	0.77[a,b]	54.63	0.64	9.91	15%[a]	71%[a]

[a,b,c]Significant difference at .05 level

Participants (200 Amazon Mechanical Turk respondents) took part in the study. The reward structure was changed to grant bonus payments to Mechanical Turk workers for exceptional performance ($1.50 base, $1.00 bonus). The manipulation of the timer condition was successful. Each of the timer conditions resulted in a differing amount of time spent in the decision task (See Table 4). As expected from the literature, increasing time pressure had a main effect on decision quality. Compared to the condition with no timer, the 15-second and 45-second conditions resulted in decreased decision quality ($b_{15} = -.07$, $p < .05$; $b_{45} = -.06$, $p < .05$) The 75-second timer condition had no effect when compared to the condition with no timer ($b75 = 0$, $p > .05$). These findings replicate what has been found in extant literature.

The distribution of the dependent measure shows that very few individuals used the sorting option, violating assumptions of normality required for the GEE analysis. The sorting option was only used in 9.67% of the 2,016 tasks. Of the 200 participants, over half did not use the sorting tool at all (56.5%) even though it was available. A GEE analysis of only those participants who used the sorting tool reveals no effect of timer condition on the number or sort actions by timer condition ($p > .05$). To determine whether there was a difference in how likely an individual was to use the sorting tool, the GEE analysis was modified to use a binomial distribution. In this case, we find that the sorting tool was less likely to be used in the 45-second timer condition than in the no timer condition (Model 1: $b = -1.23$, $p < .001$), partially supporting H4a. There were no other differences by timer ($p > .05$) and we find no differences in amount of usage.

Overall, filtering was used in 63.77% of the 2016 tasks. Rather than the expected increase in likelihood of filtering use in time-restricted situation, we find that the filtering tool is less likely to be used in the 15-second condition than any of the other conditions ($b_{none} = 1.30$, $p < .001$, $b_{45} = 1.13$, $p < .01$, $b_{75} = 0.95$, $p < .001$). A GEE analysis of those who used the filter tool at least once reveals that greater time restrictions result in significantly reduced use of the filtering tool when compared to the no timer condition ($b_{15} = -8.22$, $p < .001$; $b_{45} = -3.24$, $p < .05$; $b_{75} = -3.43$, $p < .05$). H3b is not supported. However, when the filtering tool was used, it had a positive impact on decision quality ($b = .002$, $p < .01$), supporting H3c. Whether or not the optimal feature was visible when the final decision was made also had a significant impact on decision quality ($b = .09$, $p < .001$). H3d is not supported.

General Discussion

Our findings suggest that when consumers use simple decision tools in an optimal way, they can improve their decision outcomes. However, consumers do not naturally know how to use decision tools effectively (Lurie & Wen 2014; Diehl 2005). This may be explained by the unconscious thought principle (Dijksterhuis & Nordgren 2006). Recent research on information presentation has found decision quality is improved by a period of conscious thought about the decision (Hasford, Hardesty, and Kidwell 2019). In study 1, we find that graphical formats result in better choices than text-based formats. However, consumers do not realize how much effort they would need to spend on their decision making in order to process the relevant information contained in the decision tool. In study 2, we confirm that consumers are better at making easy decisions, and that using a decision tool does not make them bad decision-makers. We also find that consumers do use filtering and sorting tools when they are available, but the effects on decision quality are inconsistent and there is no interaction effect of choice difficulty. In study 3, we find that limiting the use of decision

tools helped somewhat, but decision quality still suffers, especially if the optimal choice or an important attribute has been hidden.

This research extends the findings of information systems and risk assessment to the context of consumer behavior and e-retailing. While both graphical and tabular formats were rated easy to process, participants were able to identify the superior brand on each feature with greater accuracy when the information was in a graphical format. Because the graphical formats work better when tasks require comparisons of data and relationships, we see fewer errors when consumers are balancing accuracy and effort goals. However, individuals are not aware of the increasing levels of difficulty they experience when the information format is not a good match for the task. In fact, even when the decision tool is in an ideal format and there is an interactive tool to help the decision-maker make an optimal decision, the begin using the tool to hide important information and display unimportant information. It is possible that even when a decision tool is available, consumers are still attempting to process all of the information that is available rather than sorting through important and unimportant information (Kemmelmeier 2004).

While Townsend and Kahn (2014) find that consumers prefer visual depictions of products over verbal descriptions, there has not been any research up to this point on advantages of using graphical displays of product attributes and benefits. Our findings provide mixed results but indicate that decision aids and ideal information format *should* help consumers make better decisions, but this does not seem to be the case. More research is required before academia can begin making recommendations for retailers or third parties to begin formatting the information in a way that consumers can more easily process. Academic researchers partnering with retailers to evaluate the effectiveness of different choices may lead to less choice deferral and shopping cart abandonment stemming from choice overload or confusion.

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Appendix A: Sorting and Filtering, Simple Interactive Decision Aid, Amazon.com

Appendix B: Sorting and Filtering, List of Similar Recommended Items, Amazon.com

Appendix C: Static Decision Aid, Comparison Table, Amazon.com

	Hamilton Beach Single Serve Coffee Brewer and Full Pot Coffee Maker, 2-Way	Hamilton Beach FlexBrew Coffee Maker, Single Serve & Full Coffee Pot	Hamilton Beach FlexBrew Single-Serve Coffee Maker for K-Cups and Ground Coffee	Hamilton Beach 12-Cup Coffee Maker, Programmable Coffee Dispensing Machine
Single serve & cafafe flexibility	✓	✓		
Compatible with K-Cup packs		✓	✓	
Includes 12 Cup Coffee Carafe	✓	✓		
No Carafe Multi-Cup Dispensing				✓
Brew Strength Options	2	2	1	4

Summary Brief
A Quasi-Experimental Examination of Online Review Platform Policies and Their Impact on Product Performance Outcomes

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Using a regression discontinuity-in-time design, this research examines the effects of policy implementation in an online review platform. Specifically, this research examines the effects of the removal of "review bombs" on user engagement. Analyses suggest that the removal of "fake" reviews in review bombs designated by the platform, counterintuitively, immediately reduces user engagement. The decline in user engagement is theoretically linked to a drop in user trust, as shown through additional analyses. However, after the initial negative shock, user engagement follows a positive trend to return to higher levels than before the policy change. This research provides key implications for online review management in e-commerce platforms.

Introduction

Fake or misleading reviews are a prominent phenomenon in e-commerce and can have an immense impact on consumer outcomes. For example, fake reviews can increase visibility for a product or service, benefiting the firm or be extremely negative and diminish the reputation of a firm (Lappas, Sabnis, and Valknas 2016). Fake reviews may be posted to mislead consumers, generate interest in a brand, or attack others (Wu et al. 2020). They may be posted by competing firms, bots, or individual customers who are unhappy with the firm (Anderson and Simester 2014). However, the identification of management of fake reviews is still being debated across practitioners and academics.

Thus, the focus of this paper is to examine how fake review management policies for an online review platform impacts performance outcomes. Specifically, we examine the effects of a key policy change on an e-commerce platform to combat fake reviews. The platform enacted a policy where they used a proprietary method to identify and hide large groups of misleading or fake reviews from the overall ratings and minimize consumer access to these reviews. However, as these reviews are hidden from consumers, negative externalities may arise. Thus, our key research questions are the following: How does content moderation impact product performance? How does the removal of fake reviews impact product performance? Do users trust platforms to moderate content?

Content Moderation Policy

In March of 2019, a video game e-commerce platform, Steam, enacted in a significant policy change to their online review platform. They addressed the issue of "review bombs". Reviews bombs are defined as a large number of off-topic reviews during a short period of time that are meant to lower the overall rating of the game. Steam suggested that review bombs do not represent true customer sentiment towards the game and wanted to ensure that customers get the accurate and fair feedback about games through their online reviews. Thus, Steam enacted a policy where they used a proprietary method to identify and remove review bombs in the default online review setting and exclude them from the overall ratings games on their platform.

In our theory, we argue that the policy change to eliminate review bombs from the visual eye of the consumer actually has a negative impact on performance outcomes. Conventional wisdom would suggest that content deemed as "inaccurate" (e.g. review bombs) would provide consumers more accurate information and lead to an increase in performance. However, by implementing the policy, consumers lose trust in the platform to be able to voice their true opinions about different products. This loss of trust leads to an immediate decline in user engagement on the platform.

Data and Results

Our dataset consists of more than 15 million online reviews from 720 different games listed on the Steam platform over a 36-month period. After aggregating the reviews at the app and month level, this represents a sample size of more than 25,000 product-month observations. Our data consists of the text and rating of each online review, reviewer characteristics and the number of monthly users of each game on Steam. We analyze the text of each review to construct sentiment and subjectivity scores using natural language processing techniques in Python. Specifically, we utilize the Vader, TextBlob, and NRC packages.

First, we tested the theory of the loss of trust by examining social media sentiment towards the Steam platform before and after the policy change. We utilize Infegy Atlas to obtain the consumer sentiment reflected by different emotions. Specifically, we examine how trust electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) about Steam changes when the policy takes place. We use interrupted time series (ITS) to test the difference between eWOM posts before and after the policy change. Compared to other eWOM emotions towards Steam, there is an immediate drop in trust once the policy change is enacted, suggesting that the policy leads to a drop in trust.

To test the key effects of the policy change on user outcomes and be able to infer causality, we utilize a regression discontinuity-in-time model (RDiT). Our focal analysis regresses covariates, time, and treatment on the natural log of users in month i. Game fixed effects and clustered-robust standard errors are used. We also run additional robustness checks by using alternative bandwidths (Hausman and Rapson 2018). Robustness checks include models with bandwidths of 6 months, 9 months, and 15 months. The 15-month bandwidth also included the beginning of the Covid-19 pandemic, in which video game usage generally increased. The results of our regressions reveal that the policy change to remove review bombs from the ratings of games on Steam had a negative overall effect on the average number of users per game. Specifically, the policy change resulted in a .158 percent decrease in the average number of users per game as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: RDiT Results With 12-month Bandwidth

LN(Users)	Coef.	St.Err.	t-value	p-value	[95% Conf	Interval]	Sig
Policy	-0.158	0.014	-11.36	0.000	-0.185	-0.131	***
Policy*Time	0.015	0.002	6.15	0.000	0.010	0.020	***
Time	-0.021	0.003	-7.41	0.000	-0.026	-0.015	***
LN(Cum. Reviews)	0.970	0.166	5.83	0.000	0.643	1.296	***
LN(Word_count)	0.010	0.007	1.47	0.142	-0.003	0.024	
Review_Valence	0.050	0.018	2.71	0.007	0.014	0.086	***
Review_Subjectivity	-0.022	0.056	-0.39	0.694	-0.132	0.088	
Constant	-2.896	1.372	-2.11	0.035	-5.591	-0.202	**
R-squared	0.123			N		16927.000	
F-test	52.274			Prob > F		0.000	
Akaike crit. (AIC)	13074.564			Bayesian crit. (BIC)		13151.930	
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1							

Discussion

This research uses a quasi-experimental method to show the causal effects of online review management policies. Specifically, this research suggests to managers that they need to be cognizant of how consumer perceive their platform before removing any content. Broad policy change announcements can have adverse effects on user performance outcomes, causing some users to omit using the platform, even when there are long-term positive effects.

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Summary Brief

Exploring the different motivations for binge-watching across different generational cohorts.

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Quantitative research examining binge-watching behavior is scant. This research extends existing studies by examining the generational cohort differences in binge-watching motivations. Using descriptive research design and survey, findings show that there are significant differences in being motivated to binge-watch for escapism, social connection, and education, but not for emotional excitement between baby boomers and Millennials.

Introduction

There is no doubt that technology has transformed many services, e.g., accounting, health care, education, and entertainment. This transformation has changed the way consumers engage with entertainment services. From carefully browsing movies to watch in the theatre, paying a ticket worth almost a monthly subscription nowadays, and waiting for a weekly episode on TV, consumers now can access unlimited entertainment with one remote control click. There has also been an enormous growth in streaming platforms subscribers, e.g., Netflix, Hulu, Youtube, Prime, Disney plus, etc. As part of this lucrative new source of revenue for these companies and as a way to maintain a competitive edge, streaming services have now started producing their own content. In order to keep consumers "hooked," streaming platforms are now featuring "binge-worthy" series. Some cellular companies have made streaming free for specific platforms, making binge-watching even easier and cheaper (Statt, 2015).

Binge-watching is a relatively new behavior that has arisen in the last decade. While there has not been a consistent definition (Azab 2020), the basic definition of binge-watching is watching more than two episodes in succession in one setting (Schweidel & Moe, 2016). Scholarly research has not kept pace with the phenomenon, with a more dominant stream coming from newspaper articles and magazines (e.g., Wagner 2016). At the same time, binge-watching has received attention from a different wide array of disciplines, e.g., psychology, technology, and addictive behavior. Less attention has been devoted from services marketing scholars to understanding, segmenting, targeting, and maximizing streaming services engagement. Hence it is the objective of this research and, as a result of this research gap (Ostrom et al. 2015), to focus on understanding binge-watching behavior in comparison to normal watching behavior, its motivations, and personal differences among different generations.

Literature Review

Generational cohort theory postulates that individuals born in a specific period of time are exposed to the same socio-economic, cultural, political, and environmental factors in their socialization process and hence exhibit similar psychological characteristics that are distinct from others (Howe & Strauss 1991). Generational cohort differences have been found in many areas in general and consumer behavior in specific. For instance, differences have been found in status consumption (Eastman & Liu, 2012), motivation (Schewe & Meredith, 2004), and shopping orientation (Brosdahl & Carpenter, 2011). In this research, we propose that binge-watching motivation differs between generations. Based on the uses gratification theory (Katz & Blumer 1974) and other literature, we examine the following four motivations: 1- escapism, 2- social connection, 3- education, and 4-emotional excitement and test whether these motivations differ by generational cohorts. There have been few qualitative attempts to understand consumer motivations among consumers, but this is the first study that brings a quantitative descriptive study to contrast motivations among different generational cohort groups.

Research Importance

The importance of this study lies in 1) understanding the underlying psychological processes that drive this new entertainment consumption behavior, 2) the fact that generational cohort represents an essential segmentation basis through which streaming platforms companies can better target and reach their subscribers, 3) as of 2021 online media subscriptions all the world have skyrocketed with Netflix toping it at 221 million subscribers in 2021 and prime more than 200 million (Maglio 2022) creating a streaming war.

Methodology

The study design is descriptive research and uses a survey with established scales on M-Turk (Flayelle et al., 2019). We are in the primary stages of data collection. We also believe that we bring a unique and more valid method of measuring binge-watching behavior by asking respondents to indicate the proportion of their binge-watching behavior relative to regular episodes and movie watching as opposed to solely asking the number of episodes or an absolute number of minutes. Preliminary findings show a significant difference *significant differences in being motivated to binge-watch for escapism, social connection, and education, but not for emotional excitement between baby boomers and Millennials*

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SESSION 19E: SHOW ME THE DATA

CHAIR:

Di Wu

Full Paper
How Quality Control Checks Can Help Overcome the Pitfalls of Collecting Primary Data Via an Online Platform

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A sample of 1,452 adult respondents in the United States was drawn using a highly-respected commercial Internet-based service provider. The 85-question survey addressed issues related to anti-consumption behavior among consumers. The instrument included four quality control checks in an effort to identify inattentive respondents and cleanse the resultant data set. These quality control (QC) checks were a uniform identifier (where one specific response should result), an instructional manipulation check. a ReCAPTCHA question, and a time check. A total of 514 (35.4%) respondents failed at least one of the QC checks with nine failing all four. Comparisons of inattentive respondents to those who passed all four QC checks consistently identified statistically significant differences on each of the metrics used to determine the potential impact of inattentive respondents. These results indicate that inattentiveness does not "random noise" as some authors have stated; rather the inattentive respondents "create both random and systematic measurement error which impacts estimates of the reliability and validity" of the metrics used to assess various consumer phenomena.

Key Words: research, surveys, online, inattentive, bias, quality control checks, random noise

Introduction

Researchers who attempt to gain insight about a target population have one essential natural resource. That resource is a potential respondent's willingness to provide the researcher with answers to their questions and that those answers be an honest representation of the respondent's true feelings or behavior. While consumer surveys have been around for many years, the way by which researchers have reached out to potential respondents has continued to change.

The collection of primary data via a survey of the target population has evolved over the years. When Percival White wrote his initial treatise, *Market Analysis*, in 1921, there were few options available to the researcher. Data were typically collected using some form of personal, face-to-face interaction. The interviewer may have asked the respondent the pertinent questions and recorded the answers, or the surveys might have been printed and distributed to members of the target population in a door-to-door setting or some form of intercept sampling. Daniel Starch initiated this type of intercept sampling in the late 1920's by stopping people on the street and asking them to respond to a few questions related to magazine advertising (Vasquez 2011). Mail surveys also came into vogue around the turn of the 20th century (Scott 1961) even though the first known mail survey was undertaken in 1834 by the Statistical Society of London (Pollfish 2021). Despite efforts to increase a receiver's willingness to respond, mail surveys have long struggled to attain a reasonable response rate and a reasonable representation of the target population from those who choose to return the completed questionnaire. Thus, there has always been a concern regarding nonresponse error (Armstrong and Overton 1977). Telephone surveys grew in importance as Americans adopted the then state-of-the-art telecommunications tool and as WATS lines that facilitated inexpensive long-distance calling became more commonplace (Vasquez 2011). But phone surveys were fraught with potential problems that negatively impacted the quality of the data collected by the researcher as well. Many American consumers did not own a phone for many years after their introduction to the consumer market, so surveys conducted over the phone in the 1930s and 40s tended to be comprised of a nonrepresentative sample of consumers (Groves 2011). As phones became more commonplace as part of the prototypical American household, prospective respondents grew less willing to participate; they were reluctant to divulge personal information to someone they could not see, or they were otherwise concerned about selling-under-the-guise (SUGGING) of marketing research (Evans and Mathur 2018). Contact became more difficult as prospective respondents refused to even answer their phone until they screened the callers' opening comments on their answering machine. Call screening became more

problematic for researchers with the broad adoption of Caller ID. Then the growth of mobile phones led to a widespread abandonment of land lines making it even more difficult to reach the targeted respondent. We then saw the introduction of email surveys. Many recipients discarded the unopened email as it was deemed to be spam; this action by the prospective respondent further exacerbated the task of attaining a representative sample. Then, around 1994, came Internet-based tools for the collection of primary data (Hooley, Marriott and Wellens 2012). So, it has been stated that data collection for consumer research has evolved from face-to-face personal interviews to online techniques (Twin 2021).

Many of the early online surveys were based on self-selection. A consumer drilling into a particular Website such as the ones operated by ESPN, *Cosmopolitan Magazine*, or CNN News are often given the opportunity to respond to a question or a more comprehensive set of questions by making one or two simple clicks with their mouse. The resultant samples could be huge; there are examples of samples exceeding 100,000 respondents (Suh 2010). Yet the data collected via this approach were of dubious quality, thereby providing little actionable information to decision makers. As the collection of primary data has evolved from personal, face-to-face surveys to Internet-based surveys, researchers have continued to seek ways by which the quality of the data could be improved. These improvements have made data collection via the Internet more commonplace and hopefully more accurate.

Online research companies that maintain consumer panels have surged to the forefront. Some, such as Amazon's MTurk, provide fundamental capabilities for reaching the target market. Others such as Qualtrics allow researchers to develop their own survey and distribute them to in-house distribution lists while compiling the responses. But, perhaps the most meaningful approach to this form of data collection is by firms such as Survey Monkey and Dynata (ResearchNow); firms of this ilk provide project managers who oversee the process from survey development to sample designation, to data collection, to data compilation. The researcher can specify targeted outcomes such as 51 percent female and 11 percent Black/African American. So, the task of acquiring a representative sample, particularly from a demographic or geographic perspective has been made easier for the researcher. But the overarching concern still remains. How much can the researcher trust the integrity of the collected data? Are there other concerns for which the researcher needs to be aware while concurrently engaging in techniques designed to improve the quality, thus the accuracy, of the data? The current project addresses these two questions by examining a large data set data that was collected using a commercial service provider and by utilizing various quality control checks to determine if inattentive respondents can be identified. If so, what is their impact on the integrity of the data?

Literature Review

Inattentive respondents on online surveys have alternatively been characterized as *random noise* that has little or no real impact on the quality of the data (Greszki, Meyer, and Schoen, 2015) to the assertion that "respondent inattentiveness systematically biases survey responses" (Paas and Morren 2018, p. 13) and that respondent "inattentiveness induces both random and systematic measurement error, which impacts estimates of the reliability and validity of multi-item scales" Silber, Danner, and Rammstedt 2018, p. 153). So, which characterization is correct? Unfortunately, the extant literature does not answer that question.

General Concerns

A common criticism of online surveys concerns the composition of the resultant sample; it has been stated that a sample drawn using an Internet-based platform CANNOT be a generalizable microcosm of the target population (Akbulut 2015). While this assertion is most assuredly true for self-selection samples, providers that maintain diverse panels can generally ameliorate this concern by controlling the distribution of invitations to participate. Despite this control, it continues to be argued that online "surveys are suffering from lack of participation, quality issues and poor outcomes" (Neto 2020). It has been stated that online surveys, though effective for questionnaires that feature objective questions that employ rating scales or multiple-choice questions, are ineffective when a primary task involves the more subjective, qualitative questions such as those in an open-ended format. But that issue addresses procedural problems rather than bias-related issues; however, it has the potential to systematically reduce the quality of these open-ended responses (Tella 2015).

Another significant concern regarding online surveys is that the providers who maintain consumer panels generally provide some form of compensation to panel members who are invited to participate and complete a survey. These service providers often bill the researcher on the basis of the number of *completes*, that is to say a survey that has every question relevant to the respondent answered. Does this compensation create the desire on the

part of the respondent to answer all of the questions without paying attention to the task at hand? If so, then it is inevitable that these inattentive respondents are likely compromising the integrity of data. Besides the issue of compensation for respondents, there are myriad other reasons for concern regarding the quality of the data drawn using an Internet-based platform. Some respondents embellish reality as the survey provides a mechanism by which they can stroke their own ego; embellishments of this ilk are commonly referred to as *cyberfaking* Grieve and Elliott 2013).

Besides cyberfaking, there are additional concerns of which the researcher must be aware. The *speeder* does not take the requisite time to read the questions and the corresponding instructions, nor do they make a concerted effort to provide honest, objective answers (Berinsky, et al., 2014). They may respond in a careless manner (Buchanan and Scofield, 2018; Huang, et al., 2012), or in a random manner with no thought as to the extent to which their responses actually relate to their true feelings or behavior (Meade and Craig, 2012). Another example of a significant problem is the finding that speeding through an online survey tends to increase the occurrence of straightlining – for example, *straightliners* may respond to all questions with the same answer (e.g., "slightly agree") (Zhang and Conrad, 2013).

A comparatively new concern revolves around the use of *bots* to respond to an entire questionnaire, including open-ended questions. In such cases, the targeted respondent does not attempt to answer any of the questions presented during the process. Compensation for the respondents has further exacerbated this problem. If the researcher is unable to identify those surveys where bots have supplied the answers, then the integrity of the acquired data is likely to be compromised (Howell, 2020). In this regard, it has been stated these "malicious programs (e.g., botnets, automated form-fillers, and survey bots) generating purely invalid data in order to earn money represent new and important economic and scientific threats to the completion of online questionnaires" (Dupuis, Meier, and Cuneo, 2018, p. 2228).

Random Noise
The authors of a recent study argue that while inattentive respondents create *random noise*, the resulting error is of little consequence (Greszki, Meyer, and Schoen, 2015). More recently, a study compared data collected using an online platform to data drawn using a traditional (snail) mail format. Other than the delivery mode, the two questionnaires were identical. Contrary to the conclusions articulated in some studies, the conclusion drawn by Loomis and Patterson (2018) was that the data gathered via the two formats were compatible. This conclusion coincided with those from a study done when online surveys began to gain broad acceptance within the realm of marketing research when the authors characterized the two approaches as producing *convergent* results (Deutskens, de Ruyter, and Wetzels, 2006b). Earlier, those same authors concluded that the two approaches produced comparable data thereby providing an acceptable level of generalizability, even from a cross-cultural perspective (Deutskens, de Ruyter, and Wetzels, 2006a). Further support for the premise that the information gathered on an online survey is comparable to what the researcher would attain with a traditional pencil-and-paper survey is provided by (Davidov and Depner, 2011, p. 375) who concluded that the surveys produced "essentially invariant" results. A final, more recent, study that could be seen as characterizing any disparity between the results of an online survey and the comparable pencil-and-paper survey as random noise was provided by Ladini (2021). His study, which incorporated instructional manipulation checks, led to the conclusion that "the answers' quality of 'attentive' respondents assigned to different IMCs (instructional manipulation checks) do not substantially vary" (Ladini, 2021, p. 233). Thus, one can see that there is meaningful support for the premise that the potential sources for error on an online survey simply create *random noise* which does not significantly impact the quality of the data.

Systematic Bias
Conversely, Paas and Morren (2018, p. 13) state unequivocally that "respondent inattentiveness systematically biases survey responses," a conclusion that is supported by Silber, Danner, and Rammstedt (2018, p. 153) who concluded that "inattentiveness induces both random and systematic measurement error, which impacts estimates of the reliability and validity of multi-item scales." In a study that compared respondents using a traditional printed survey to those answering the same questions in an online format, the researchers found that online "respondents were significantly more likely to fail validity checks by contradicting their own answers or simply completing the survey too quickly" (Aruguete, et al, 2019, p. 441). Another act of inattentiveness is that of *satisficing*; when a respondent simply selects the easiest answer to a question, it is presumed to systematically impact the accuracy of the resultant data in a negative way (Maronick 2009). A common precursor to satisficing is the respondent's failure to fully read the question or the instructions. The dilemma for the researcher is the fact that

this inattentiveness creates a situation whereby "the noise created by participants who fail to read instructions decreases the reliability of the data and increases the expense associated with running studies as the number of participants necessary to achieve a reliable result is artificially increased" (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, and Davidenko, 2009, p. 873). In light of this deficiency Nichols and Edlund (2020, p 625) addressed the impact that inattentive respondents have had on researchers for years, not just since the advent of online survey. While asserting the idea that new technology has created more concerns on the part of the researcher, the authors proclaimed that "careless respondents have wreaked havoc on research for decades, the prevalence and implications of these participants has likely increased due to many new methodological techniques currently in use." In other words, there are systematic biases in survey research that cannot be eliminated, irrespective of the approach used for collecting the primary data, and the increased reliance on online surveys has likely further exacerbated that problem.

A Brief Overview of the Extant Literature

Online surveys are not new to the research arena. Since their inception as a tool used to gather primary data from consumers almost 30 years ago, it is safe to say that online surveys have become a common tool in the researcher's toolbox. But this tool is far from perfect. As with all other modes used to collect primary data, Internet-based surveys have both advantages and disadvantages, not the least of which is the concern that the quality of the collected data is of dubious quality. And the reality is that the quality of the data can be compromised in myriad ways. The literature delineates several concerns in this regard; among them are random noise, bots, cyberfakers, straightliners, satisficers, and speeders. While it is important to recognize the reasons for the inaccuracies within the resulting data set, it is more important that the researcher understands how to address it. To do so, new research is called for. Such is the focus of the current study. Specifically, it addresses how quality control checks can help in the task of identifying inattentive respondents while concurrently delineating how these inattentive respondents can compromise the integrity of the collected data

Research Objectives

The key objective from a pragmatic perspective is to determine whether inattentive respondents on Internet-based surveys generate random noise or systematic bias. To make this determination, there are two primary research objectives. First is the determination of how effective a variety of quality control measures are in the task of identifying inattentive respondents. The second objective is the determination of whether or not any documented differences between the attentive and the inattentive respondents are statistically significant.

Methodology

A survey was developed for a study on anti-consumption attitudes held and the frequency in which adult consumers in the United States engage in boycotts as a form of anti-consumption behavior. The pilot survey was developed, then pretested among students at two universities in different geographic regions of the United States. Based on their input, the survey was revised and delivered to a highly-respected Internet-based marketing research company. The survey was then beta-tested for the purpose of identifying any potential problems that might inhibit a respondent's progress through the instrument.

The final survey comprised 85 questions. The very first question was a quality control check. Referred to as a *uniform identifier*, the question had only one answer (out of seven) that was plausible based on the respondent's IP address. This QC check was followed by eight commonly used demographic questions and 24 questions that examined attitudes and behavior regarding 12 reasons for engaging in anti-consumption activities. Question 34 was the second QC check, an *instructional manipulation check (IMC)* where respondents were told that the "question" was designed to assure that they were paying attention; it then directed them to respond with a specific answer (Frequently) on the six-point scale. The scale on the IMC was identical to that of the question that immediately preceded it. Questions 35-47 were four multi-item psychographic scales. Question 48 was the third QC check, a *ReCAPTCHA question,* which was based on common knowledge that the respondent should easily recognize; in this case it was that Los Angeles is a city and not a country. Questions 49-85 comprised several multi-item psychographic scales and completed the survey. The final quality control check was a *time check*. Anyone who completed the survey in less than five minutes was deemed to have failed the check. As such, there were a total of four quality control checks designed to identify inattentive respondents. Each QC check was unique in that the four checks were designed using four distinct formats.

Three of the 13 psychographic scales used in the anti-consumption study were used to assess the differences across the groups of attentive and inattentive respondents. The scales used were *consumer ethics, optimism, and political inclination (liberal/conservative)*; each scale comprised four items. The metrics used for the defined groups were the mean score and the standard deviation for each scale. Significant differences were identified by comparing the means of the appropriate scale using t-tests. For the standard deviations, Levine's test for equal variances was used; this metric uses an F-test to assess the difference in the calculated variances for the two groups that are under scrutiny at any given time. For the t-tests and F-tests, a probability of .05 was used as the benchmark for rejecting the null hypotheses that the two parameters of the population that were subjected to empirical scrutiny – the mean and the variance (thus the standard deviation) – being compared were equal.

Results

Invitations were sent to select members of the research provider's consumer panel with each respondent who completed the 85-question survey provided with a specified compensation in the form of points that can be redeemed for goods and services. The data set was generated automatically as each survey was completed. Respondent demographics for the completed surveys were monitored in an effort to tailor subsequent invitations to participate to groups that were underrepresented. The impact of this procedure was that more invitations needed to be sent to younger prospects as well as those with lower levels of education. The final result was a sample with a demographic profile that closely resembled the United States population based on 2020 census parameters.

A total of 1,452 surveys were completed in five days – with zero item nonresponse. However, 514 respondents failed at least one of the quality control checks with nine having failed all four. Thus, the net usable sample for the broader study that represents the overarching focus of this study (anti-consumption) that included only those respondents who successfully completed all four quality control checks was 938. But for the current study, because the focus is on the identification and impact of inattentive respondents, the entire sample of 1,452 respondents is relevant.

For the initial QC check, respondents failed when they indicated that they were in one of the five countries (or Other) listed rather than the United States. Invitations were only sent to prospects who were identified in their panel demographic profile to be residents of the United States. Anyone not in the United States when they clicked to accept the invitation to participate, even US residents on an overseas vacation, would have been identified via their IP address as being outside of the United States. These individuals would have received a message indicating that their location made them ineligible to participate in the survey. In light of this expected outcome, this uncommon form of quality control check has been characterized as a *uniform identifier*. A total of 30 respondents, or 2.07 percent of the sample, failed this QC check even though it was the very first question for which they were asked to respond. The second QC check was a commonly-used *instructional manipulation check*. For this question, the 34th on the survey, the respondent was told it was an attention check and instructed to respond by checking the box for "frequently" on the six-point scale. Despite this instruction, 352 respondents, or 24.24 percent, answered it incorrectly thereby indicating that they were not paying proper attention to the task for which they were being compensated to complete. The penultimate QC check was a *ReCAPTCHA question*. Respondents were asked to identify the answer that signified a city rather than a country. It was presumed that respondents would know that Los Angeles is a city whereas Germany, Canada, the United States, South Africa, and China were all countries. Yet, a total of 305, or 21.01 percent, of the respondents failed to correctly answer the question. Interestingly, the most common incorrect response was the United States with 261 respondents (17.98%) indicating that the United States is a city. The final QC check was a *time check* which was based upon the time required to complete the 85-question survey. The research team and the project manager estimated that it would take approximately eight minutes to complete. But given the ability of some individuals to read at a faster rate, the benchmark used to identify *speeders* who failed to take the requisite time was set at five minutes. While recognizing that this benchmark may have eliminated a small number of attentive respondents while concurrently retaining some inattentive ones, this metric seemed reasonable in the eyes of the research team. The result was that 168 of the completed surveys, or 11.57 percent, were completed two quickly, thus these respondents were considered to have failed the QC time check. The results discussed in the preceding paragraph are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Failure Rate for the Four Quality Control Checks (n=1,452)

QC Check Format	# Failing	% Failing	Question Number
Uniform Identifier	30	2.07	1
Instructional Manipulation Check	352	24.24	34
ReCAPTCHA Question	305	21.01	48
Time Check	168	11.57	N/A

Of note is the fact that the failure to successfully complete any single QC check was associated with the likelihood of failing one or more of the other three checks. For example, of the 514 respondents who failed at least one QC check, 258 respondents failed at least one additional QC check. Failing two checks were 184 respondents; 65 failed three checks; and nine failed all four checks. Furthermore, of the 168 respondents who failed the time check, fully 81.55 percent (137) of them failed at least one additional quality control check. These results are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Quality Control Check Failure Rate

Number of QC Checks Failed	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Respondents
0	938	64.60
1	256	17.63
2	184	12.67
3	65	4.48
All 4	9	0.62
N/A	1,452	100.00

The preceding results document the reality that online surveys will undoubtedly include a significant number of inattentive respondents. In the current study, inattentive respondents comprised 35.4 percent of the aggregate sample. That reality creates a concern that their responses may have had a debilitating impact on the accuracy of the statistics gleaned from the entire set of respondents. This concern leads to the next step in this project. Are the metrics for the study adversely influenced by the inattentive respondents? In other words, are the results associated with the inattentive respondents significantly different from those of the attentive respondents? If so, how do the inattentive respondents impact the metrics being measured by the researcher? To answer this question, the focus now shifts to the results associated with the two groups for the metrics germane to the primary study: the mean and standard deviation of the four-item scale measuring consumer ethics, the mean and standard deviation of the four-item scale measuring optimism, and the mean and standard deviation for the scale measuring political inclination. .

This assessment begins with a detailed examination of the mean scores for the three four-item scales for the three defined groups: the aggregate sample of 1,452 respondents, the 514 respondents comprising individuals who failed one or more of the four quality control checks, and the clean sample of 938 respondents. It is anticipated that the nonattentive respondents will pull the aggregate mean away from the mean for the group of clean respondents who passed all four QC checks. For all three scales, statistically significant differences were documented when comparing the groups using t-tests. In each of the nine comparisons, the difference was significant.

For the consumer ethics scale, the mean for the aggregate sample of 1,452 respondents was 9.30. But how has this value been impacted by the segment of 514 inattentive respondents? With a mean of 14.55; the group of inattentive respondents obviously biased the metric in an upward direction. This reality is brought to the forefront when we look at the mean for the 938 respondents comprising the clean segment; that metric was 6.41. Next, the focus shifts to the optimism scale. While the differences were not as pronounced, they were all still significant at the .00 level. The mean for the aggregate sample was 14.70. This metric was skewed towards the higher side of the scale by virtue of the mean of 17.17 for the nonattentive respondents. The mean score for the 938 clean respondents was 13.34. Similar results were in evidence for the political scale which was developed in an effort to identify an individual's political inclination – another variable which was thought to be related to anti-consumption attitudes and behavior. In fact, the results are almost identical to those associated with the optimism scale. For the aggregate sample, the mean was 14.74. whereas the mean for the inattentive respondents was 16.65. When these means are compared to the mean score of 13.69 for the clean group, it becomes evident that the mean for the aggregate sample

is skewed in the direction of the inattentive group. So, in all three cases, the metric of interest was significantly skewed because of inattentive respondents. The t-tests for each of the comparisons were significant at a level of .01 or lower. These results are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Comparisons of Group Means

Scale	Aggregate $\bar{x}$	$\bar{x}$ for 514 Inattentives	$\bar{x}$ for 938 Attentives
Consumer Ethics	9.30	14.55	6.41
Optimism	14.70	17.17	13.34
Political Inclination (R/L)	14.74	16.65	13.69

Next, attention shifts to the standard deviations for the three groups of respondents for each of the three multi-item scales. The expectations for the research team were that the inattentive respondents would produce a pattern of responses that creates more heterogeneity within the answer set. The findings support the premise that inattentive respondents do create more disparity among the responses, thereby contributing to higher standard deviations. For all three scales, the highest value for the standard deviation for the three groups was associated with the inattentive respondents. The lowest standard deviation, thus the least scattered dispersion, was associated with the clean group. This reality created a situation whereby the overall standard deviation that was calculated for the aggregate sample was negatively impacted – as in a higher value. As with the comparisons of the group means, the test statistic (F in this case) for assessing equal population parameters was significant at a level at .05 or lower. However, the difference between the 938 attentive respondents and the 514 inattentive ones was significant at a level of .000 (F=20.45). The specific values associated with this step of the analysis are delineated in Table 4.

Table 4: Comparisons of Group Standard Deviations

Scale	Aggregate s	s for 514 Inattentives	s for 938 Attentives
Consumer Ethics	6.48	6.88	3.96
Optimism	4.95	5.03	4.35
Political Inclination (R/L)	6.39	5.72	6.51

Discussion/Implications

Each type of quality control check used in this survey proved to be effective in the task of identifying inattentive respondents. The results indicated that this cleansing of the data is important as the measures used to evaluate the issues under scrutiny differed substantially when comparing the attentive respondents to the nonattentive ones. The implication is that the impact of inattentive respondents is not inconsequential. Thus, failure to identify the inattentive respondents and remove them from the final data set does, in fact, create systematic error that potentially distorts the accuracy of the data.

Placing a quality control question at the very beginning of the survey provided two important pieces of information. It does identify a small subset of inattentive respondents early in the process. By identifying them early, they can be dropped prior to proceeding to question 2. By dropping them early, this action can reduce the costs for the researcher as there will be no compensation paid to these individuals. The second important finding is that 27 of the 30 respondents (90%) who failed the uniform identifier at the very beginning of the survey failed at least one of the other three quality control checks. So, there appears to be little risk associated with the dropping of potential respondents after a single question. But it is likewise important to note that even some of those who were paying attention to question 1 lost their focus as they progressed through the survey.

By chance, some inattentive respondents will inadvertently provide a correct answer to a quality control question, so the researcher is advised to used multiple questions designed to identify them. This caveat is especially true for lengthy surveys. The use of time checks can be instrumental in the task of identifying which sets of responses should be deleted from the data set, but there are two concerns of which the research must be aware. If the benchmark is set too high in terms of the time allowed, then the researcher runs the risk of excluding attentive respondents who are simply faster than most. But if set too low, the risk of including more inattentive respondents is increased. The question for the researcher is that of which situation is worse from the perspective of the quality of the data; is it worse to drop some attentive respondents or to include some inattentive ones? Perhaps the answer to that question depends upon the consequences of making a less than optimal decision based on statistics that are

skewed because of the inattentive respondents. A pretest of the instrument can assist in the task of determining the amount of time it takes to successfully complete the survey, thus providing insight regarding the cut point for the time check. If using multiple quality control checks that require an overt effort on the respondents' part, then the time check might not be sufficient itself to deem a respondent to be inattentive and drop them from the data set, rather the researcher might choose to drop them only if they failed one or more of the QC checks. In this project, 137 (or 81.55%) of the 168 respondents who failed the time check failed at least one other quality control check.

Conclusions

When collecting primary data using an online protocol, it is likely that inattentive respondents will compromise the integrity of the data. Their careless input is not random noise; rather it is a systematic error that has the potential to dramatically impact the quality of the data, thus the ability of the research users to make sound decisions based upon their interpretation of the data. As a consequence of these two realities, it is essential that the questionnaire being used for online surveys incorporate quality control checks that can be used to cleanse the data set. This process will result in better data which results in more accurate results which will lead to better strategic decisions by the practitioners who rely on the results.

There are different forms of quality control checks that the researcher can employ. The current study used four different tools. First was a *uniform identifier* followed an *instructional manipulation check*. The third tool was a *ReCAPTCHA question*. Finally, a *time check* was used to identify speeders. All four were effective in the task of identifying inattentive respondents. Another form of quality control check that was not used in the current study is the use of *identical or fundamentally similar questions* at multiple points in the survey; if the respondent's answers to those questions do not match (exact or acceptably close), then that respondent is dropped from the data set. Regardless of which tools are used by the researcher, not only does the exclusion of the inattentive respondents improve the integrity of the data, thus the associated estimates of the population parameters, but if the researcher is using an outside service provider that is paid on the basis of completed surveys (completes), then it should provide a basis for avoiding the liability for payment for the inattentive respondents. (For example, by dropping the 518 inattentive respondents for the survey on anti-consumption, the research team's bill for data collection was reduced by $2,331.)

While the techniques discussed in this paper can be used without much trepidation on the part of the researchers, more research is suggested. Is one tool better than the others? How do inattentive respondents tend to answer? Does the location of specific quality control questions matter? Does it matter where the qualifying answer is within the answer set; should it be situated early, middle, or late in the question/instruction? Should the designated answer for successfully passing a QC check be placed away from the anticipated metric that the sample will provide? Should it be placed at an extreme location in the answer set – first or last? Knowing the answers to questions such as these will have a positive impact on the results derived from an online survey. So, while this research has provided some important insight into issues germane to online surveys, it has not answered all the questions.

The reality is that inattentive respondents do not generate random noise; rather they create a systematic bias that adversely impacts the quality of the data. Quality control checks such as those used in this study are effective tools in the task of identifying inattentive respondents thereby reducing the impact of the systematic bias that they interject within the data set and helping the user of the research data make better decisions.

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Summary Brief
Predicting and Forecasting Avocado Sales using Google Trends

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Sales prediction or forecasting remains difficult even with advancement in technology and data analytics. This study focuses on employing Google Trends search data in traditional time series models for the purpose of predicting Hass avocado sales in different regions of the United States. The results suggest that the use of Google Trends search data can generate better sales predictions than the models without Google Trends search data. Employing categorized Google Trends search data can improve predictive results even more. This study provides the critical insights and examples to business practitioners who wish to build models for better sales prediction and forecasting.

Keywords
Google Trends, Predictive Analytics, Forecasting, Geodemographics, Data Visualization

Introduction

Traditionally, in sales prediction and forecasting, practitioners often use a historical time-series of industry data. However, there may be limitations in practice, such as delays in financial reporting and insufficient data (lack of detail, pending future revisions, etc.) due to unexpected situations (e.g., the COVID pandemic) (Levy, H.B., 2020). Advancement in technology such as social media channels, mobile devices, cloud technology, AI and Web 3.0 allows people to participate in businesses virtually and leave footprints, namely digital records. These digital records, such as Google search data, can provide critical insights and information that are complimentary to historical time-series of industry data. For instance, Google search data may include information such as customer interests and their intention towards sales transactions in a near real-time fashion (Jansen, et al, 2011). Google search data is normally categorized using predefined categories (Choi, H., & Varian, H., 2012). Categorized search data may captures more specific consumer interests as well as their business intentions,

Therefore, a thorough study of categorized search data, rather than a generic study, may be more helpful to understand the market details and characteristics (Dinis, G, 2019). Using categorized search data may provide more effective quality prediction and forecasting as such data captures more specific consumer interest that represents different business intentions, such as some consumers may be interested in product prices, some in product functions and others in product types.

This study plans to accomplish a few goals: 1) how Google search data can be useful to Hass avocado consumption and how effective are these prediction models; 2) whether time-series models can better forecast sales; 3) whether categorized Google search data can better predict or forecast sales than aggregated Google search data in the predictive models.

Background

This research study starts from the models using geodemographics and Google search data. Geodemographics considers both demographics and geographic information, typically covering factors, such as like locations, ages, gender, and income level, highly relevant to sales forecasting (Wedel & Kannan, 2016). Reseachers and practitioners showed successful applications of geodemographics in monitoring trade areas, opening new locations, arranging grocery retailing, and building brand loyalty (Baviera-Puig, Buitrago-Vera, & Escriba-Perez, 2016; Prasad & Aryasri 2011; Dawes, 2014; Kamath, Pai, & Prabhu, 2019). With advancement in data analytics and technology, researchers can access more data to analyze complex business problems. For instance, consumers can use

digital platforms to exchange ideas, search for new information, and obtain knowledge freely any time from anywhere. These activities will produce a large volume of data that can be converted to search index data. The search index data may represent consumer interests or intentions in transactions. Popular search engines include Google, Bing, Baidu, Ask.com and others (Urman, 2021).

Google Trends data has proved to be useful in forecasting or predicting many business activities, such as the prediction of the house foreclosures in the U.S region, the prediction of cinema admissions in the U.K., and theh prediction of tourism arrivals (Webb, 2009; Hand, & Judge, 2012; Bangwayo-Skeete, & Skeete, 2015). Google Trends data can be aggregated by region and period and can also be presented as time-series data to show interest shifts and opinion changes in the internet community. Categorized search data can be used to further improve sales prediction outcomes as categorized search data may capture consumer interests and purchase intentions more specifically (Wu & Brynjolfsson, 2015, Woo & Owen, 2019). According to the USDA 2018 report, the U.S. has the highest consumption of Avocados in the world (USDA, 2018). U.S also imports 80% of avocado annually. Previous research studies in avocados focus on the elasticity, the effects of promotion programs on the avocado sales and what geodemographic factors affect the avocado consumption (Ambrozek, Saitone, & Sexton, 2018; Ambrozek, Saitone, & Sexton, 2019).

Key Findings
The results in this study are exciting and provide an example of how to employ historical time-series of industry data, geodemographic data and search data together to predict sales and consumption. Categorized search models with two-period lags outperform all the other models as the R squared value increase from .764 to .785. This result suggests that two-period lags has more explanation power as consumers may take time to go from interests to purchase. It also suggests that categorizes search data does capture more consumer behavior details.

Assessment of predictive models is important in practice. The results show that measured by mean absolute error (MAE), both aggregated search data model and categorized search data model outperform the baseline model without Google search data by 6.4% and 8.6%, respectively, for conventional Hass avocados. However, the predictive models fail to predict and explain organic Hass avocado markets well. It is possible that the organic Hass avocado market are still very small, 2% of the entire market and that the market is volatile due to limited supply. Nonetheless, Google search data shows a great success in this study by improving the prediction results and providing additional model explanation power.

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Summary Brief

Are Avocado Sales Sensitive to Trump's Tweets on Trade Policies with Mexico?: a Difference-in-Differences (DID) Analysis

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This project is designed to help avocado stakeholders understand the impacts of relevant natural disasters and Trump's Tweets, such as criticizing NAFTA, renegotiating NAFTA, raising tariffs, suspending tariffs, and signing trade deals with Mexico on avocado sales. The study employs Difference-in-Differences (DID) estimation with the Hass avocado sales dataset, demographics data, and Google Trends data. The results suggest that the treatment effects of all of the Trump's Tweets about the trade policies between Mexico and the US. and the wildfires in Ventura, CA are statistically significant.

The study extends the signaling theory to the Twitter context by examining policy uncertainties like Trump's Tweets and other relevant treatments like wildfires in Ventura, Ca and their effects on avocado sales. Specifically, according to the signaling theory, in the avocado industry, different stakeholders may interpret policy treatments (Trump's Tweets) at different levels of analysis and these interpretations may affect how they make critical decisions.

We identified ten different treatments that are relevant to the context of this study. These events were further incorporated into the regression models as DiD parameters. The DiD estimations reveal that these Tweets that are related to the trade policies between Mexico and the US. have directional impacts on avocado sales. Using Trump's Tweets as an example, from Oct 2016 to Sep 2018, his rhetoric was all about blaming or attacking Mexico for its unfair trade treatment that led to trade deficit between the US. and Mexico. For example, "NAFTA was the worst trade deal ever ...", "NAFTA has been a bad deal for USA...". These Tweets could be classified under the forensic genre.

According to the signaling theory, Trump's Tweets covering the topics mentioned above all have negative impact on avocado sales. In particular, Trump's 1st Tweet on renegotiate NAFTA on Oct 19, 2016 had the most negative impact on avocado sales in the US. Interestingly, the DiD impacts declined sequentially over time. Surprisingly, even after Trump posted the Tweets that the US. and Mexico reached trade deals on Sep 30, 2018 and signed the NAFTA replacement deal on Nov 30th, 2018, respectively, avocado sales still kept dropping. The results provide critical insights and knowledge of avocados markets to policymakers, producers, distributors, retailers, and consumers on how different types of treatments or non-random events may affect agriculture product sales.

Summary Brief

Putting People First: Female CEOs and Relational CSR

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Abstract

In the following research, the authors investigate the differential impact of a female CEO on corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives and introduce two new measures of CSR: relational and rational. Using self-construal theory as the foundation for their research, the authors investigate this phenomenon in a large-scale study using 19,969 firm-year observations from 1993 to 2013. Further, they look at the boundary conditions surrounding this impact using different components of CEO power. Their findings indicate that female CEOs are more likely to have higher levels of relational CSR strengths as well as high rational CSR strengths and are also less likely to get involved in controversies. Further, female CEOs who are board chair and who have longer tenure strengthen that relationship, while those with a higher pay gap tend to lessen the effects.

Keywords: Female CEO, Corporate Social Responsibility, CEO Power, Rational CSR, Relational CSR, CEO Duality, CEO Pay Gap, CEO tenure

SESSION 19G: HUMAN TRAFFICKING INTERVENTION NEEDS MARKETING RESEARCH

CHAIR:

Vernon Murray

PANELISTS:

Vernon Murray, Marist College, USA

Breanne Mertz, Samford University, USA

Alec Slepchuk, University of Massachusetts, USA

Irem Yoruk, California State University, USA

SESSION 19F: IDEA SYMPOSIUM SESSION 2

CHAIR:

Ania Izabela

Diane Edmondson

Summary Brief

Fact or Fiction: An Examination of Gender Bias on Perception of Sales Manager Competency, Effectiveness, and Likeability

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Over the last several years, many firms have demonstrated a renewed interest in creating a more diverse, equal, and inclusive workforce through reflection and revision of current policies and practices. While these firms are making strides, changes to policies do little to change the implicit biases of individuals within the organization, let alone society at large. Given that women make up almost 50% of the U.S. workforce, one could argue that gender bias is no longer a pronounced issue. However, this study reaffirms that gender bias does differently affect perceptions of managerial competency and effectiveness, with female sales supervisors perceived less favorably than male sales supervisors even when engaging in the exact same behaviors. Interestingly, this study also finds evidence of ageism bias against older supervisors.

Introduction

With the recent focus on diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) in business, the concept of "implicit bias" is quickly gaining attention across industries. While the existence of gender stereotypes is acknowledged, we often don't recognize our own individual implicit biases resulting from long-term exposure to said stereotypes. Implicit bias refers to the unconscious influence stereotypes have on our judgements and evaluations of others. As a society, we would like to think that we have moved beyond gender bias in business and instead evaluate managers on relevant criteria such actual abilities, skills, and professionalism. However, 65% of women feel that women are discriminated in the workforce; in contrast more than half (51%) of men state little or no such bias exist against women (PewResearch, 2015). And while women make up almost half of the workforce in the U.S, they still encounter significant inequities in career advancement (to management positions) and pay (GAO, 2022). Among sales managers for instance, only 31.3% are women who earn between 71% to 89% of what their male counterparts earn (Zippa.com, 2022; GAO, 2022).

The communal behaviors attributed to women are often offered as reasoning for the persistence of gender inequality in the business world. Using this logic, a simple solution to decrease this disparity would be for women to modify their behavior to emulate that of their male counterparts. However, there is evidence to suggest that when women violate stereotypical norms by engaging in male-oriented behaviors, they are evaluated negatively compared to men engaging in the same behaviors. For instance, one study showed that female debaters are criticized on ballots for being "aggressive" at twice the rate than male debaters. (Lynn and Kawolics, 2018). And yet another study concluded that "when acting authoritatively, women leaders are disliked much more than men" (Cooper, 2013). This article also notes that women are "often penalized when they behave in ways that violate gender stereotypes" (Cooper, 2013).

Background

This research investigates the influence of gender on evaluation of managerial competency, effectiveness, and likeability. It hypothesizes that reaction and evaluation will differ for male and female sales managers even when engaging in identical behaviors. Further, age is predicted to moderate these relationships with younger supervisors evaluated less favorably. Qualtrics was used to recruit qualified respondents consisting of US adults 18 to 85 years of age. The study uses a scenario-based experiment that centers around a sales manager terminating an employee for excessive absences. The gender and age of the supervisor are manipulated. Study participants (n=879) were presented with one of four variations of the scenario (Female Supervisor, 30 years old; Female Supervisor, 55 years old; Male Supervisor 30 years old; Male Supervisor 55 years old).

Key Findings

Using independent-samples T test when examining only the gender of the supervisor, initial data analysis indicates the Female Supervisor is statistically more assertive (mean=5.52, p=0.085), aggressive (mean=4.57, p=0.008), and tougher (mean=5.37, p<0.001) when dealing with the employee than the Male Supervisor (mean=5.32, 4.25, 4.99 respectively). Furthermore, the Female Supervisor was also deemed to be more unsympathetic (mean=4.12, p=0.079) toward the employee than the Male Supervisor (mean=3.88). Additionally, the Male Supervisor (mean=2.51, p=0.025) was evaluated as more effective than the Female Supervisor (mean=2.75). Interestingly, no statistical difference was identified in regards to likeability (Female Supervisor mean=4.47, Male Supervisor mean=4.61, p=0.295) or professionalism (Female Supervisor mean=5.04, Male Supervisor mean=5.09, p=0.687) based exclusively on gender.

Next, gender in combination with age of the supervisors was analyzed using one-way Anova. Contrary to prediction, older supervisors, both male (m=5.03) and female (mean=5.02) were regarded as less effective leaders than their younger counterparts (male mean=5.40, female mean=5.40; all significant at p<.050). Furthermore, a significant difference (p<0.10) was found regarding professionalism, with younger supervisors (female 30 mean=5.15; male 30 mean=5.20) considered more professional in their handling of the situation compared to older male (mean=4.82) and older female (4.84) supervisors. Interestingly, older female supervisors were viewed least favorably in terms of competence, productivity, and effectiveness. First, older female supervisors (mean=2.85) were considered less competent than the younger male (mean=2.42, p<0.05) and younger female (mean=2.40, p<0.05) supervisors. They were also judged to be less productive than younger male supervisors (mean=2.43, p=0.010). Additionally, older female supervisors (mean=2.93) were regarded as the least effective of all categories (female 30 mean=2.57, p=0.034; male 30 mean=2.37, p=0.001; male 55 mean=2.64, p<0.100).

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Summary Brief
The Effect of Perceived Brand Gender on Consumer Intentions After a Gender Equality Initiative

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Brands are increasing incorporating social issues in their marketing efforts. Specifically, many brands such as Michelob and Proctor & Gamble are incorporating marketing that promotes gender equality initiatives. However, research examining the effectiveness of these initiatives is limited. In the current work, we examine how perceived brand gender influences consumers' intentions after a gender equality initiative has been announced.

Introduction

Given that a growing number of companies are using their platforms to address these types of social issues, there is a critical need to better understand how these efforts impact consumer perceptions and responses (Smith, James, and Griffiths 2021). Although there is considerable research studying cause-related marketing (e Silva et al. 2019; Nelson et al. 2017; Roy et al. 2003; Westberg 2004), little is known about how the gendering of brands may influence CRM efforts. As gender equality initiatives are a controversial topic (Sterbenk, Champlin, Windels and Shelton 2021), qualities of the brand such as the perceived gender may impact consumers' perceptions and behaviors after an initiative has been announced.

Background

Cause-related marketing (CRM), the broader terminology under which the practice of aligning with a social issue falls under, has been the subject of much prior research. Westberg (2004) suggests that consumers respond more favorably to CRM initiatives compared to sponsorship and sales promotion, and that there is some support that CRM initiatives help in increasing consumer attitudes toward a brand. Other prior research suggests that organizations benefit in both consumer perception and purchase intention from CRM (Roy et al. 2003) and that there are differences in responses to CRM initiatives among different demographic segments (i.e., males and females; Nelson et al. 2017). Furthermore, consumer's identification with a CRM campaign can increase purchase intention related to a brand and that a brand's fit with a specific cause has a significant relationship with purchase intention (e Silva et al. 2019). Overall, prior literature presents the theme that consumer perceptions and purchase intention following a CRM campaign have a positive correlation and that consumers will respond more favorably to those brand initiatives that they personally support. However, are there brands or initiatives for which these results may differ?

One way in which brands may differ, thus affecting consumer responses to gender equality initiatives, is in the perceived gender of the brand. Many brands in today's market are perceived as "gendered," meaning there is a decided masculinity or femininity to products in the eyes of consumers. The idea of gendered brands, and how these brand perceptions come about, has gained traction in recent years. Hosey, Foster, Cao, and Yaoyuneyong (2019) suggest that many marketing efforts have yet to take into consideration a brand's perceived gender when formulating a marketing campaign and communications. Ulrich, Tissier-Desbordes, and Dubois (2011) suggest that brand categorization is based in large part on the perceived gender of a brand, and that there are six dimensions to brand gender: gender of main brand user, gendered attributes and benefits of the products, gendered attributes of the logo, gender of the brand/gender of the brand name, gendered brand personality, and gendered attributes of communication.

Consumers care if a cause a brand supports is in line with the brand's overall perception. For example, social justice issues fit with a brand increases consumers' identifications with and subsequent loyalty toward brands. Therefore, we suggest that consumers will give preference to brands that are perceived to be feminine (rather than masculine) after a gender equality initiative. Further, we suggest that the positive outcomes for brands perceived as feminine occurs due to increased fit between the brand and the initiative.

Key Findings

As brands increase their CRM for social issues such as gender equity, it is important to understand the implications of these initiatives. The current research provides insights into this stream of research by exploring how

brand gendering can impact consumer responses to said initiatives. Across three studies, we show the consumers are more favorable toward feminine brands after a gender equity initiative (as opposed to a masculine brand). This effect is attributed to enhanced fit between the brand gender and the initiative. Together, these findings provide several theoretical and managerial implications.

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Summary Brief
Disabled Social Media Influencers and Perceptions of Product Luxury

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This research introduces disabled social media influencers into the academic literature while examining such influencers' impact on the perceptions of products they promote. Drawing on the results of six studies conducted with a total of 777 participants recruited in three countries, this research shows that consumers consider products promoted by disabled (vs. nondisabled) influencers to be more luxurious. Perceived influencer uniqueness drives this effect, which is stronger for consumers with high belief in psychological contagion. Substituting a disabled influencer's promotional post with a brand-generated post featuring a disabled model does not render the same effect, highlighting a unique role influencers with disabilities may play in marketing. To examine this unique role in a managerially relevant context, this research concludes with a demonstration of the disabled influencers' positive impact on consumers' willingness to pay.

Introduction

With the advent of social media, many disabled individuals now have an online presence on various social media platforms, and some of these disabled social media users have even become influencers (Cassidy, 2021). Given the lack of existing research on influencer marketing in general (Taylor, 2020) and disabled influencer marketing more specifically, this research aims to constitute a first step in this direction by examining consumer perceptions of products promoted by disabled influencers.

Theoretical Background

Being disabled (vs. nondisabled) means being unique and special; in fact, disabled individuals are sometimes referred to as *people with special needs* (Gernsbacher et al., 2016), a term highlighting the extraordinariness of disabled individuals. As such, consumers should perceive disabled social media influencers as more unique than nondisabled influencers. In consumers' minds, uniqueness is often associated with luxury (Amaldoss & Jain, 2005). Furthermore, many consumers believe in the notion of psychological contagion, that is, the transfer of an individual's "essence" to the product he or she has used (Klucarova, 2022; Marchak & Hall, 2017; Rozin et al., 1989). In the present context, this could mean that disabled influencers' perceived uniqueness could rub off on the products promoted by these influencers, resulting in consumers' perception that these products are more luxurious as opposed to the products promoted by nondisabled influencers.

Findings

Six studies provided evidence for the positive effect of disabled influencers on the perceptions of product luxury. Perceived influencer uniqueness was established as a mediator of this effect and several alternative explanations were ruled out. I also explored a number of boundary conditions and examined a managerially relevant outcome, having demonstrated that consumers are willing to pay a premium for products promoted by disabled (vs. nondisabled) influencers.

Taken together, this research demonstrates an important role that disabled social media influencers may play in marketing. The findings contribute to the academic literature on influencer marketing, disability in marketing, and luxury marketing, and have significant managerial implications.

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Summary Brief

Influence of Other Customers' Race on Customers' Perception of Health Services

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This study examines racial diversity in health services from a Similarity Attraction perspective. A literature review summarizes known findings on the effects of Other Customers on Customer experiences in a healthcare service setting. Via two experimental studies, we find that Customer-Other Customer race match (Black and Black vs. White and White) does not reduce Perceived Anxiety. Interestingly Other Customer Race (Black vs. White) drives Perceived Anxiety and Expectations of Service Quality. Furthermore, Race Match (Black and Black vs. White and White) reduces Expected Satisfaction with the service in cases of high Service Failure.

Introduction

Recent events such as the murder of George Floyd in 2020 and the killing of Asian Americans in Atlanta in 2021 have raised awareness of and caused a reassessment of these issues in many institutions. These issues also served as a catalyst for research in various fields aimed at understanding and addressing associated problems. For example, in the health service industry, researchers note the lack of diversity in several areas, including the health profession workforce, especially for medical doctors (*e.g.,* Standford, 2020), in health service institutes' diversity policies and policy implementation (Lee *et al*., 2021), and incompetence of healthcare professionals, which may result in ethnic or racial minorities and migrant patients receiving poorer quality service (Seeleman *et al.*, 2015). Additionally, Ziegler and colleagues (2022) voice a call to "Improve Diversity Sensitivity in Healthcare" in Europe due to an increasingly diverse European population. Consequently, marketing researchers have called for more research to increase the understanding of context-dependent racial effects (Davidson, 2009; Grier *et al*., 2020). Furthermore, researchers point out the need to investigate the racial effects that other customers have on customers in health care settings (Abboud *et al.,* 2020; Gupta & Verma, 2021). Therefore, this study aims to examine the effect other customers' race, whether Black *vs.* White, has on customers in a health care setting.

Diversity in Health Care Environments and Expected Service Quality: The Similarity Attraction Perspective

It is well established in the literature that the mere presence of other customers has an influence on the customer service experience (Grove & Fisk, 1997, Martin, 1996). In many service settings, other customers' behaviors (*e.g*., Gursoy *et al.,* 2017), physical (observable) characteristics (*e.g*., Lui & Mattila 2015; Joe & Choi 2019), and emotions (*e.g*., Okan & Elmadag 2020) have been shown to influence customer choice and experiences. As one of the most accessible types of information, physical appearance has been studied extensively in various service settings in relation to its influence on customers.

Bitner (1992) found that consumers experience emotional, cognitive, and physiological responses to service environments, which impacts their evaluation of the experience and their purchase behavior. Researchers found that evaluations of service environments influenced Expected Service Quality in multiple service settings (*e.g.,* Lin & Liang, 2011; Prayag *et al.,* 2020). In addition to the service environment itself, service providers and other customers

influence customer responses in a service environment (Karaosmanoglu *et al.,* 2011). For example, Lin and Liang (2011) found a relationship between employees' emotional states and customers' emotional responses. Patricio *et al.* (2011) note there is a need to consider other customers when designing multi-level service designs since they influence the co-creative nature of customer experience. Butori and Bruyn (2013) and Jiang and colleagues (2013) discovered that other customers could cause discomfort for some people, and the source of that discomfort can sometimes be race. In fact, customers use race when evaluating service providers (*e.g.*, Brewster *et al.,* 2014), and other customers' race is used as a contextual cue when evaluating services and the service environment (Baker *et al.*, 2002).

Healthcare scholars have investigated the impact of diversity on staff performance and health outcomes (Gomez & Bernet, 2019). Based on the Similarity-Attraction framework, when there is a similarity between customers and other customers in a service setting, the feeling of discomfort should be reduced, Perceived Anxiety should lessen, and Expected Service Quality should be higher.

H1: Customer Race (Black *vs.* White) will moderate the indirect effect of Other Customer Race (Black *vs.* White) on Expected Service Quality through Perceived Anxiety.

While limited, some studies focused on the impact of similarity between customers and other customers on Service Failure in service settings such as restaurants, tourism, and retail. For example, Baker *et al.* (2008) found that when a Black customer experiences a Service Failure, the failure will be evaluated more severely when no other Black customers are present. Meyer and Baker (2010) found that Black customers' anger and service recovery expectations were lower when there were other Black customers present. Perceived cultural compatibility influenced satisfaction with the service. Therefore, we posit:

H2: The indirect effect of Service Failure on Revisit Intention through Expected Satisfaction will be moderated by Other Customer-Customer Race match (Black *vs.* White) (*vs.* mismatch).

Methods and Findings

H1 and H2 are tested through 2 experimental studies in a health care environment. The first study will test the moderation of customer race (Black *vs.* White) on the indirect effect of other customer race (Black *vs.* White) and Perceived Anxiety on Expected Service Quality. The second study tests the moderation of Other Customer-Customer Race match (Black vs. White) on the indirect effect of Service Failure severity (High *vs.* Low) and Expected Satisfaction on Revisit Intention. Data for both studies were collected from US consumers through Prodege, an actively managed database.

Results for Study I show that the interaction of Other Customer Race and Customer Race was not significant, and the moderated mediation was not supported (Index of Moderated Mediation: β=-.03, BSE=.06, LLCI/ULCI = -.15/.08). Yet our results indicated a significant direct effect of Other Customer Race on Perceived Anxiety (β=.53; t = 4.79; $p < .000$); and an indirect effect on Expected Service Quality (β=-.10; BSE=.0451, Bootstrapped CI: -.20, -.02). There was no interaction between the Customer and Other Customer Race. Therefore, H1 was not supported. Study II findings show both Expected Satisfaction with the service and Revisit Intentions are significantly lower when there is High Service Failure compared to Low Service Failure indicating the direct effect of Service Failure. Moreover, our results show a significant interaction between Service Failure and Customer-Other Customer Race Match (β=-.71, SE=.27, t=-2.60, $p<$ .01). That is, when there are higher levels of Service Failure, customers expect significantly less

Satisfaction when the other customers in the waiting room are the same race than when they are other race. Since this interaction is not in the expected direction, H2 was not supported.

Discussion

Our results show that Other Customers' Race influenced customers' Expected Service Quality. Furthermore, this relationship can be explained by Customers' Perceived Anxiety. Results revealed that Black Customers were more anxious when they were in the presence of White Customers and, in turn, Perceived Anxiety negatively influenced Expected Service Quality. Supporting previous research, we found that Service Failure negatively influenced Expected Satisfaction and Revisit Intention. For lower levels of Service Failure, Race Match between Customers and Other Customers produced higher levels of Expected Satisfaction. Contrary to our expectations, when there was a Race Match, higher levels of Service Failure caused lower levels of Expected Satisfaction with the service compared to when there was a Race Mismatch. When there are higher levels of service failure, customers expect to be significantly less satisfied when the other customers in the waiting room are of the same race.

References Available Upon Request

Summary Brief
Product availability, buying behavior and marketing action: insights from the BoP marketplace

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Marketing scholars are increasingly called upon to pay attention to Bottom of the Pyramid (BoP) markets in emerging economies like India and study the impact of consumption on overall wellbeing of low-income consumers. There is a need for empirical research to account for the contextual and socio-cultural variations and for explaining consumer behaviors across heterogeneous BoP communities. In addition, BoP ventures have also been called exploitative for offering non-essential goods and services to a vulnerable consumer-group and using marketing actions and messages to fuel desires, thus generating profits at the cost of the poor. We explore this contradiction in an Indian BoP market using a mixed-methods approach to provide a nuanced understanding of different types of goods accessible in this market, their purchase behaviour and consumption, and the factors influencing decision making. We find that non-essential product consumptions represent a common and problematic feature characterising the Indian BoP marketplace.

Background

In extant literature, there is a clear gap regarding the impact of marketing actions on BoP consumption behavior, and existing studies either provide anecdotal evidence (Prahalad, 2002) or are conceptual in nature (Davidson, 2009; Karnani, 2007). Further, a few empirical studies that exist have adopted exploratory and qualitative approaches to examine how marketing affects consumption behavior (Jaiswal and Gupta 2015). There is scant quantitative research on what products are offered at the BoP, what products are consumed, the factors driving this consumption, and the impact of marketing activities and consumption on the lives of the BoP (Dembek et al., 2020). The present study is thus an attempt to examine consumer behavior in a BoP sample through fieldwork from India. We empirically study consumer behavior of the BoP population and examine how it is shaped by marketing actions and messages through field-level data collection. We use both quantitative as well as qualitative approaches to study consumption and its impact on the poor. In the same study, we examine the supply-side aspects related to access and product availability and the demand-side aspects related to the buying behavior.

Method and Data

Following a month-long period of observations and sample selection, we constructed a roster of all the products available (216 products) at the retail store, followed by data collection on store-level purchases of the 21-household sample for 5 days and for 99 individuals. This roster was dissected along several dimensions and was used for constructing household level store-based consumption profile along with data on store-level purchases collected later. For the available food products, a Nutrient Profile was constructed using label information and data from the Indian Food Composition Tables (National Institute of Nutrition, 2011) for calorie, carbohydrate, protein, fiber, and fat content. We also recorded what was purchased from the store, by which member of the household, belonging to which household, and at what time of the day. This was compiled with product roster to generate a dataset showing consumption from the store for every household. In addition, we conducted five in-depth interviews using a snowball sampling approach, followed by two FGDs with randomly selected members from different households- male and female adults to understand their experiences as consumers. We also conducted ten judgment-based spot interviews at the point of purchase to understand why a certain product was being purchased, who initiated the purchase, what was its use or expected benefit.

Findings and contributions

Our results show that out of the available choices before consumers, the majority were nonessentials. Further, out of total purchases made, consumers were purchasing more nonessentials than essentials. We also found that higher budget spending may not necessarily mean more consumption of essentials. It might be owing to higher costs of essentials as compared to non-essentials. Also, exposure to advertisements using celebrity appeals, availability of lower entry prices and small pack sizes, point of purchase displays, and strong distribution and easy availability were found to influence buying behavior, product recall, and preference for brands and promoted the consumption of non-essentials. Within non-essentials,

sizeable spending on tobacco, beedi, cigarettes, and pan masala has been described as a big strain on the limited means available before these households, and these being unwholesome goods, is a social and health welfare challenge. Also, energy-rich diets containing a higher amount of sugar or salt, low on dietary fiber and carbohydrates were consumed, along with high-calorie consumption and alcohol and tobacco use, which are primary reasons for the increasing prevalence of disorders like heart diseases, under and over nourishment, hypertension, and diabetes (NIN, 2011). On the supply side, non-essentials were, on an average, cheaper than essential commodities, had lower entry prices, and were heavily promoted, all of which have implications for consumer welfare, especially for vulnerable consumer groups like the BoP who have limited market interactions, low levels of literacy and higher sociopsychological pressures within impoverished social networks (Chakravarti, 2006).).

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Summary Brief

The Stigma of Disabilities: Frontline Employees and Service Types

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As hiring people with disabilities becomes more prevalent across industries, scholars have only recently begun to study consumers' perceptions of frontline employees (FLEs) with disabilities and their potential to stigmatize FLEs with disabilities. Recent studies only considered the effects of an employee's physical disability on interactions with a customer. As such, this research connects social identity theory, contextual cues, and Stone and Colella's model of treatment to better understand how other disabilities, such as intellectual, may influence consumers' perceptions and behaviors during service interactions. Furthermore, attribution and justice theory are considered when examining service failures. A mixed methodology approach will be used, consisting of in-depth online interviews and experimental studies to understand what may affect these interactions and perceptions. Overall, this research seeks to uncover effective strategies for firms to mitigate negative perceptions of FLEs with disabilities, particularly when a service failure occurs.

of employment of PwD in the U.S. and the scant research on FLEs with disabilities, the current research seeks to bet

Introduction

The chance of interacting with a frontline employee (FLE) with a disability grows each year as businesses seek to improve their public image and promote inclusivity in the workforce. Approximately 61 million, one out of four people in the United States, live with a disability (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2020). According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 19.1% of people with disabilities (PwDs) from 60,000 households were employed in 2021. This number increased from 17.9% in 2020 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021). Moreover, PwDs are more likely than people without disabilities to work in jobs in service occupations, transportation, and production (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2022).

With the rise ter understand how consumers think and feel about their interactions with an employee with a disability, particularly with an intellectual disability such as autism spectrum disorder. Most of the available research regarding disabilities in services only focuses on accommodations for consumers with disabilities, benefits for hiring employees with disabilities, or employers' attitudes toward employees with disabilities (e.g., Kalargyrou et al., 2018; 2020; Lindsay et al., 2018; Madera et al., 2020; Rosenbaum, 2017). Thus, this research seeks to answer the following question: (1) *What are consumers' perceptions of frontline employees with disabilities?*

Background

People with physical and intellectual disabilities undergo stigmatization from their unaffected counterparts. A stigma is "the public's attitude towards a person who possesses an attribute that fails to meet societal expectations and is consequently perceived as 'deeply discredited within a particular social interaction'" (Goffman, 1963, p. 3). Stigma towards an individual can lead to a barrier to one's employment, even with the Americans with Disabilities Act (Stuart, 2004). While the Americans with Disabilities Act protects PwDs from explicit employment discrimination, past research shows many businesses comply with the law to avoid lawsuits rather than seeking to employ and believing the employment of people with disabilities can be a positive act for a business (Stuart, 2004). Although several theories exist to explain how stigmatization affects interactions between people with and without a disability, this research attempts to draw on multiple theories to explain consumers' perceptions of FLEs with disabilities.

First, social identity theory acts as a blueprint to understand how individuals align themselves with groups like themselves and tend to dislike individuals outside of these groups. In the context of this research, applying social identity theory refers to customers with no disability grouping an employee with a disability as different and potentially affecting their interactions. Second, contextual cues consider the physical characteristics of a business that can influence how someone judges a service, such as the physical state of an employee (Baker, 2008). Lastly, Stone and Colella's model of treatment examines how an employee's ability to perform a task may affect how thecustomer feels about their competence and the quality of their service. This relationship may be further impacted by the type of service as well, such as a restaurant or dental office.

While explicating the process and stigmatizations by employees with disabilities, it is equally important to understand how a service encounter may affect customer perceptions, especially during a service failure. How firms respond to a service failure is critical to ensuring customer satisfaction and re-patronage intentions (Blodgett et al., 1997). Theories of attribution and justice explain who (i.e., the employee with a disability or the firm) is at fault for the service failure and how a company should meaningfully compensate consumers. Attribution theory refers to how customers use the information to understand the context of a service failure. Specifically, this research will focus on the locus, a category of attribution theory referring to who is to blame for the service failure and how that may affect customer satisfaction (Folkes, 1984). In this context, the customer would blame either an employee with a disability for not being able to provide a service or the firm for putting someone with a disability in a position that made the service failure happen. Moreover, justice theory argues how a firm should compensate a customer during a service recovery (Tax et al., 1998). Through attribution and justice theory, this research attempts to understand how much customer satisfaction and future re-patronage intentions may be affected by understanding who is to blame for the service failure and the firm's effort to recover the service.

Proposed Methodology

A mix-method approach will be performed in fall 2022. The first study will be qualitative, interviewing consumers of healthcare and restaurant services to understand the common perceptions of PwD. The interviews will be conducted online via Zoom, and NVivo will be used to analyze the participants' responses using a grounded theory approach. The second study will consist of an experimental design. This experiment examines the impact of the type of service and service failure on consumers' perceptions of that employee. Interdisciplinary collaboration with the visual and performing arts school will act and record the scenarios in addition to written scenarios. This experiment will utilize an online consumer panel with Prolific, and the results will be analyzed using IBM SPSS.

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