Make ‘em Say “WOW”: How Marketers are Wowing Customers
Conference 2021

Dana E. Harrison, Editor

Michelle Sullivan, Student Assistant Editor

*Thank you to McKenzie Mullins and Taylor Parsons, graduate students at East Tennessee State University for their contribution in assisting with the Proceedings.

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Sample footnote:
November 2021

Dear Colleagues, Members, and Friends,

What a great conference we had this year! It was so wonderful to connect with you all again in person and in such a lovely atmosphere. The Hilton Lake Buena Vista in sunny Orlando provided us with an exceptional experience after the chaos of the last year. SMA is such a welcoming group of scholars and truly feels like a giant family reunion. Thanks to each of you for attending and bringing your friends. Again, this year the world is still in the grips of a pandemic, but being able to gather face-to-face was much needed. We grappled with the decision of moving back to in-person, while the conference was by all standards a success, it still proved to be quite stressful and difficult knowing that we would be letting some of our friends down.

The success of the conference could not have been executed without the support and encouragement of our executive committee and our board of governors including:

- Michael Levin, President
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- Mohan Menon, Director of Electronic Communications
- Holly Syrdal, Academic Placement Services
- Bob Barnwell, Director of Membership
- Dana Harrison, Proceedings Editor
- Pia Albinsson, Chair of the Board of Governors

Thank you to the people who served as track chairs, session chairs, and reviewers. Congratulations to the winners of each of the tracks and the competitions. We love seeing you all excel and learning about your research. This year we welcomed some new tracks, several new track chairs, and a lot of new reviewers. We also had several special relationships with three journals this year.


A special thank you to all of our student workers who are the face of the conference and the helping hands that help our members get to where they need to be. Without your time, energy, and support, we could not put on a conference. They all are soon to be on the job market, so keep your eyes open for their application packets! Each one of these scholars would be an excellent addition to ANY department! This year our student workers were:

- Shivam Agarwal, Student worker, FIU
- Kaan Canayza, Student worker, FIU
- Natalie Marquart, Student worker, WVU
- Kate Nicewicz, Student worker, KSU
- Jen Riley, Student worker, KSU
- Sphurti Sewak, Student worker, FIU

Many more people gave selfishly of their time and energy to developing a fantastic conference. Brian Rutherford, Kevin Shanahan, David Hardesty, and Jonathan Hasford planned, recruited, and organized the 33rd annual doctoral consortium. Taking advantage of a hybrid format, they recruited an amazing line up of speakers.
George Dietz and Joel Collier conducted the pre-conference workshop on modeling. These workshops remain well attended and support SMA members in their quest to continue our education and nurture our research pipeline.

For the fourth year, Chris Newman organized the Doctoral Dissertation Proposal Competition. This year we had a record number of submissions to this competition with well over 20 submissions. Congratulations to Youngtak Kim the winner and to Seoyoung Kim the runner-up of the 2021 Doctoral Dissertation Competition. Also, congratulations to Rumela Sengupta for winning the 2021 Sharon Beatty Services Doctoral Dissertation Proposal Award. The competition is a way for use to continue to pull in the best in brightest growing academics into our SMA family.

Thank you again to our JMTP 2021 Meritorious Service Award winner Bob McDonald who managed the Steven J. Shaw / Joe Hair Best Paper in Conference competition. Congratulations to Cindy Rippé, Brent Smith, and Suri Weisfeld-Spolter the winners of the 2021 Steven J. Shaw / Joe Hair Best Paper in Conference. This award is a way for us to continue to recognize our SMA members who are doing exceptional work. Thank you, Bob, for all that you’ve done over the years for SMA.

Also, thank you to the board of governors for providing strategic vision to put the Society on firmer financial footing in these turbulent times.

Thank you to our sponsors and exhibitors Auburn University, Sharon Beatty, Mississippi State University, University of Alabama, University of South Alabama, University of Kentucky, Pearson, StratX Simulations, Wessex, MBTN Academy, Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice, and Taylor & Francis for remaining as sponsors of SMA’s activities.

SMA provides and supports two journal outlets beyond the conferences. Thank you to Chris Hopkins who edits the Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice. A special thank you to Barbara Woolridge, The University of Texas at Tyler, the outgoing editor of SMA’s journal of Marketing Education Review and welcome to the incoming editor Seung Hwan (Mark) Lee, at Ryerson University. We look forward to our continued partnerships; you and your respective team ensure that scholars across the globe have an outlet for research that aids members of the academy and practitioners alike.

Finally, thank you to all the people who attended the conference. The sessions were very well attended, the best I’ve seen in my 8+ years of attending SMA. Your engagement in sessions, networking events, and receptions reinforce the observation that SMA’s conference is like family reunion that welcomes new and seasoned members alike.

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## SMA DISTINGUISHED FELLOWS

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### 2021 SMA CONFERENCE TRACK CHAIRS

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<td>Juliann Allen, Nicholls State University</td>
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RESEARCH TRACK REVIEWERS

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Haithem Zourrig  
Arwen Matos  
Jen Riley  
Prachi Gala  
Melanie Koskie
Dr. Lisa Scheer

Lisa Scheer is the Hibbs Distinguished Professor and marketing doctoral program coordinator at the University of Missouri and Professor of Strategic Business-to-Business Management at University of Graz (Austria). Dr. Scheer is the absolute perfect choice for the Society for Marketing Advances 2021 and Routledge/Taylor & Francis Publishing Distinguished Scholar. She is a very dedicated scholars in the marketing discipline with over 11,000 citations. Further, Professor Scheer has a strong commitment to mentoring and developing doctoral students and junior faculty. Given this combination she serves as a role model for all of us in the marketing discipline and we are honored to have Lisa Scheer as our 21st T&F/SMA Distinguished Scholar. Professor Scheer's research on marketing strategy and relationships is academically rigorous and managerially relevant, published in *Journal of Marketing Research*, *Journal of Marketing*, *Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, and others. Dr. Scheer is the 2021 Society for Marketing Advances Distinguished Scholar, an ISBM Fellow and has received the AMA’s Interorganizational SIG Lifetime Achievement Award, AMA's Louis Stern Research Award, and EMAC's Steenkamp Award for long-term research impact. She is an AE for JAMS and IJRM and on editorial boards for JMR, JM, *Journal of Retailing*, *AMS Review*, *Journal of International Marketing* and several other international journals. Dr. Scheer developed, organized, and chaired the inaugural Marketing Strategy Consortium, co-chaired the AMA/Sheth Doctoral Consortium and AMA Summer and Winter Conferences, and has been the ISBM PhD Camp Director. She has been a featured scholar or keynote speaker in Austria, Belgium, Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Turkey, the UK and the USA. She received her PhD from Northwestern University. Professor Scheer has so graciously accepted this award as Distinguished Scholar saying, “I never imagined being considered for such an award, much less actually receiving it. Thank you. I am supremely honored and look forward to participating in the upcoming SMA conference and doctoral consortium.” We look forward to welcoming her to SMA and to hearing about her research in the presentation on Friday, November 5th at 10 a.m.
Dr. Pia A. Albinsson (Ph.D. New Mexico State University), is the Beroth Professor of Marketing in the Walker College of Business at Appalachian State University where she also holds the Walker College of Business Dean's Club Professorship. She is Past President of Society of Marketing Advances and is currently the Chair of Board of Governors. She has also served as Secretary and Program Chair for SMA. She recently served as Co-program chair for Academy of Marketing Science (AMS) and have served as track chair numerous times for SMA, AMS, the American Marketing Association and several other conferences. She currently serves as Associate Editor for Journal of Global Scholars in Marketing Science and serves as Editorial Review Board members for Journal of Consumer Marketing among other journals. She is currently guest editing the 2022 Marketing Education Review's Special Issue on Teaching Innovations. Pia has won several best in track awards at SMA, Atlantic Marketing Association, and AMA and best in conference awards at Atlantic Marketing Association and AMA. She recently won the Excellence in Research award and a Dean's Club Research Prize in the Walker College of Business. She has published two books, The Rise of the Sharing Economy (2018) and Uber (2020), seven book chapters, thirty-one peer-reviewed articles, and over sixty conference-proceedings. Her work has been published in European Journal of Marketing, Journal of the Association for Consumer Research, Journal of Macromarketing, Journal of Public Policy and Marketing among others. She has been invited to speak on Collaborative Consumption at Brunel University (UK), Alliance University (India), Petronas Teknologi Universiti (Malaysia), Catholic University of Louvain (Belgium), and the University of Angers (France). Since 2017, she teaches at the University of Angers, France during the summer term. Prior to academia she worked with financial services, destination management, and retail management in Sweden, Greece, Malaysia, Portugal and the US.
RUSTY BROOKS DISTINGUISHED SERVICE AWARD

William (Bill) Kehoe
University of Virginia
AWARD WINNING PAPERS

**Doctoral Dissertation Proposal Competition – Runner Up**

*Going Digital to Conform & Perform: Learning Logics Underpinning Digital Advertising Spending*
Seoyoung Kim

**Doctoral Dissertation Proposal Competition – Winner**

*Do Sustainable New Products Contribute to Firm Value?*
Youngtak Kim

**Sharon Beatty Services Doctoral - Dissertation Proposal Award**

*The Effect of Anticipated Embarrassment on Preference for Using Chatbots*
Rumela Sengupta, University of Alabama, USA

**Best Paper in Consumer Behavior Track**

*No Guns Allowed: How Retail Gun Control Policies and Consumer Values Influence Retailer Evaluations*
Frank Cabano
Amin Attari
Elizabeth Minton

**Best Paper in Cross-Cultural, Global & Emerging Marketing**

*The Global Phenomenon of Lonely and Insecure Self-Gifters: Cross-cultural Insights from the United States and India*
Cindy Rippé
Brent Smith
Suri Weisfeld-Spolter

**Best Paper in Consumer Culture Theory & Macromarketing**

*In God We Trust? How Social Media Discourse Commodified Expertise and Disrupts Community During the Pandemic*
Ateeq Rauf

**Best Paper in Marketing Education**

*A SCARF-based Model of Students’ Contributions to Educational Service Recovery Marketing Ethics & Corporate Social Responsibility*
David Fleming
Laura Munoz
Ricky Ferguson
Matthew Aplin-Houtz

**Best Paper in Marketing Strategy & Entrepreneurship**

*Entrepreneurs are Influencers: Exploring Characteristics Through a Source Credibility Lens*
Victoria Crittenden
April Kemp

**Best Paper in Personal Selling & Sales Management**

*A Comparative Study between Pre and Mid-COVID Key Employee-Organizational Constructs*
Diane Edmondson
Lucy Matthews

**Best Paper in Products, Brand Management, & Pricing**

*Branding in Crisis: empirical analysis of CSR issues exacerbated by Covid-19*
Ania Izabela Rynarzewska
Eliza Hetrick
Best Paper in Promotions
Identity Discounts
Heath McCullough
Alex Zablah
Leah Smith
Daniel Flint

Best Paper in Public Policy, Non-Profit, & Healthcare Marketing
An Exploratory Study of Consumers Perceptions of Adopting Contact Tracing Mobile Applications
Danielle Hass
Ashley Hass
Siti Aqilah Jahari
Mathew Joseph

Best Paper in Research Methods & Analytics
Why Online Ratings are not Necessarily Consistent with Reviews: Preliminary Results from the Sentiment Analysis
Junhong Min
Matthew Monte
Jonathan Leinonen

Best Paper in Retailing, Logistics, & Supply Chain Management
Real Stores Have Curves: How Organic Shapes Attract and Influence Shoppers
Brian Spaid
Joseph Matthes

Best Paper in Inclusion, Diversity, Equity, & Access (IDEA) in Marketing
Brand Inclusivity: The New Sustainability?
Sphurti Sewak
Jayati Sinha

Best Paper in Social Media & Digital Marketing
Customer Engagement and Continued Usage Intention of Trading Apps
Sajani Thapa
Ashish Ghimire
Swati Panda

Best Paper in Tourism, Hospitality, Food, Music, & Sports Marketing
Perceiving Health Benefits Where Others See Hazards: Narcissism, Wine-Related Health Beliefs and Subsequent Consumption
Renaud Lunardo

Steven J. Shaw - Joe Hair Best Paper in Conference
The Global Phenomenon of Lonely and Insecure Self-Gifters: Cross-cultural Insights from the United States and India
Cindy Rippé
Brent Smith
Suri Weisfeld-Spolter
FROM THE EDITOR

The last couple years brought forth challenges but also opportunities for continuous growth. Many of us adopted new skills and hobbies. However, if you’re similar to me having an in-person conference this year was a welcome relief. I enjoyed seeing familiar faces and meeting new members away from computer screens.

The current proceedings focuses upon the timely topic of wowing the customer through research streams including advertising, consumer behavior, digital and social media, retailing, supply chain, marketing education and marketing analytics, among others.

Thank you to the participants of SMA 2021. The presenters, attendees, student volunteers, reviewers, executive members and the board of governors contributed to an exciting, in-person conference once again. As program chair, Dr. Rebecca VanMeter was charged with coordinating last minute changes when the hotel contacted her only weeks prior to the conference to move the conference location due to renovations. I wanted to especially thank Dr. VanMeter for her continued engagement and dedication to SMA.

Please join us from November 2nd – 5th in Charlotte, North Carolina for our 2022 SMA Conference!

Kind Regards,

Dana E. Harrison
SMA Proceedings Editor
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SESSION 4A: SOCIAL MEDIA & ITS RELATIONSHIPS WITH CONSUMER DECISIONS

CHAIR

Devin Lunt
Summary Brief

**Missing Out on Social Media: Exploring the Factors of JOMO**

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*While the number of daily social media users continues to climb worldwide, recent studies suggest that consumer trust in social media platforms is waning (Arnold, 2018) and that we are now existing in a "post-trust" era of social media (Pelletier et al., 2021). This lack of trust, among other factors, is leading some users to take breaks from certain social media platforms or to abandon social media altogether. This research explores this disconnection phenomenon through analyzing user tales of social media breaks or abandonment, including the causes and impacts of these breaks on relationships with family, friends, brands, and the social platforms.*

**Introduction**

Despite the recent backlash against social media, its use with consumers continues to climb at a steady rate (Statista, 2019). Case in point, Facebook, the most widely used social media site in the world, has over 2.5 billion monthly active users as of the third quarter of 2019, with 69% of the US adult population being active on the platform (Statista, 2019). While social media remains a juggernaut for marketing and advertising, consumers do not have the same universally positive feelings about social media benefits. Recent research suggests that we are now in the "post-trust" era of social media, where consumer skepticism and suspicion of social media, in general, are on the rise (Pelletier et al., 2021) In this post-trust era, social media has been plagued by scandals, such as accusations of censoring conservative news, acquiring and sharing data without consent, and allowing a data hack that resulted in exposing over 30 million users' data (Greiner et al., 2019). 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. As a result, many brands have come to rely on social media marketing.

**Background**

As the post-trust era of social media (Pelletier et al. 2021) acknowledges social media fatigue and the possible adverse effects of fatigue are relatively recent phenomena, literature in this domain remains sparse. Arnada and Baig (2018) conducted a qualitative study in Switzerland and the United States to understand why users disconnect from smartphone technology and social media. This research found that people find it hard to disconnect from smartphones because of their utilitarian use like communication, navigation, and transportation. Negative behavior cycles were uncovered, and researchers identified an internal struggle with habit and an external struggle with social expectations. Users mostly preferred short-term and voluntary disconnections, which were viewed as more likely to be successful. Users also expressed a feeling of guilt while checking the phone. These factors are further seen by Logan et al. (2018), who identify utilitarian usage as the primary driver of maintaining a social media presence, even though excessive use exposes users to negative psychological self-assessments.

**Key Findings**

To explore the factors that comprise JOMO relating to social media usage, we intend to follow an exploratory model of mixed-methods research (Harrison, 2012; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007), in which we first gather qualitative data to better isolate themes for follow-up quantitative analysis. To begin this process, an open-ended qualitative-based survey was constructed, which asked asking respondents to describe in detail a time that they had disconnected from social media for longer than 24 hours. Importantly, through a series of qualifying questions, we ensured that this was indeed a voluntary break from social media for the purposes of the respondent feeling the need to disconnect.

Responses were solicited from an undergraduate class of marketing students from a large Mid-Western university. Students were awarded extra credit for survey completion. A total of 154 usable responses were received from the survey. After the responses were compiled, the coding and analysis process was conducted. Three judges familiar with social media marketing literature coded and categorized responses. Inter-rater percentage agreement showed consistency in the coding process. Perreault and Leigh’s (1989) Index (Ir) was also calculated to validate the coding process further. Results and samples of the qualitative analysis will be presented during the presentation.
References


This study addresses the topic of consumer orbiting among the varying consumer-brand relationships that exist on social media. We examine consumers’ motivations and consequences for consumer orbiting using a survey in which the respondents were instructed to recall an experience in which they ended a relationship with a brand but still continue to follow its social media account.

Introduction

Ghosting, lurking, orbiting, and other relationship terms abound in today’s modern dating culture involving social media, often used to describe how two people fall in and out of love in a mostly digital world (Montemayor, 2021). While existing literature has examined consumer lurking in a social media brand community as a form of passive participation in contrast to active participation (e.g., posting) (e.g., Fernandes and Castro, 2020; Kefi and Maar, 2020), other types of modern consumer-brand relationships in the context of social media have not been widely explored. In particular, orbiting, a term taken from the dating context, illustrates the way someone consistently monitors a previous partner’s social media updates while distancing themselves from the relationship. Orbiting may also exist in a commercial context such as consumer-brand relationships on social media, such as when a consumer ends their relationship with a brand but continues to follow its social media account for various reasons. However, little is known about consumer orbiting as a type of consumer-brand relationship on social media.

To fill this gap, we investigate consumer orbiting in consumer-brand relationships on social media to identify (1) social media platforms on which and the brands with which consumer orbiting tend to occur, (2) the causes of consumer orbiting, (3) consumer motivations for orbiting and (4) underlying mechanisms, moderators, and outcomes of consumer orbiting. We conducted an empirical investigation that answers these aforementioned questions. In the section below, we review the existing works on consumers’ social media behaviors and then focus on consumer orbiting in consumer-brand relationships on social media.

Background

To engage consumers with their products and services, brands use a variety of social media platforms, such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and so forth. These platforms allow brands to create their own pages and offer consumers an opportunity to follow the brands, as well as like, share, and comment on their posts (Dimitriu and Guesalaga, 2017). In this paper, we focus on consumer orbiting, which we define as a behavior that reflects the departure from a relationship with a brand but in which a consumer still follows the social media account of the brand and occasionally reacts (e.g., liking) to the posts.

The concept of orbiting is mainly known in a dating context, where it refers to staying linked to someone’s social media without talking to them in person but liking, reacting to, and sharing their posts (Montemayor, 2021). Although no study has investigated the concept of consumer orbiting in marketing, a similar concept of consumer lurking has been extensively examined. Consumer lurking is non-public participation within a brand online community (Nonnecke et al., 2006) as a form of passive participation (Edelmann, 2013; Fernandes and Castro, 2020; Sankaram and Schober, 2015; Shang et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2014), compared to posting behavior (Fernandes and Castro, 2020; Kefi and Maar, 2020). Existing research has investigated lurking vs. posting social media behaviors (i.e., active vs. passive, participation vs. nonparticipation, posting vs. non-posting; Chen et al., 2019; Edelmann, 2013; Fernandes and Castro, 2020; Kefi and Maar, 2020; Nonnecke et al., 2006; Sankaram and Schober, 2015; Schlosser, 2005; Shang et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2021). However, orbiting is different from lurking in a dating context in that even if both behaviors involve continuous social media engagement, with lurking, the relationship between two people is not ended and continues on (Pancani et al., 2021), while with orbiting, one has ended a relationship with the other partner without explanation.
Other consumer behaviors on social media such as unfollowing have also been discussed. For instance, Wang et al. (2020) investigated the effect of firm’s posting on social media on the propensity of its followers to purchase its products and unfollow the firm. They mentioned that prior research identified three reasons that incite consumers to unfollow the firm, namely: interruption, privacy concerns, and violation of content expectation. However, little is known about consumer orbiting, its antecedents, consequences, and on which social media platform(s) it occurs.

Methodology
We conducted a survey with both student and non-student research subjects. The respondents were instructed to recall an experience in which they ended a relationship with a brand but still continue to follow its social media account. They first wrote down the name of the brand, selected the name of the social media platform on which they mainly follow the brand and the duration of following the brand’s social media account. Lastly, they were asked to describe why they decided to end their relationship with the brand and the problem that led to their decision to end the relationship in detail. Then, using the piped text feature on Qualtrics, the name of the brand reappeared in the subsequent question statements measuring the constructs of interest, including consumer motivations for orbiting (e.g., identification, information, entertainment, economic benefits, social benefit) and consumer outcomes of orbiting (e.g., brand affect, brand trust, brand loyalty). Content analysis was conducted for the qualitative responses of the causes of consumer orbiting. Moreover, structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed to examine the relationship between the consumer motivations and outcome variables of the orbiting as well as the mechanism variables and moderators.

Conclusion
By proposing consumer orbiting as a new type of consumer-brand relationship on social media, this study contributes to the literature by shedding light on an understudied yet important consumer behavior toward a brand on social media.

References


Building a Subscriber Base: Insights into Why People React to Reaction Videos on YouTube

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Summary Brief

Within the online world there is a growing need to bring more subscribers to a follower-base. It is not known why people subscribe to different channels one over another. Today, the world consumes an enormous amount of content on different digital platforms, especially on YouTube. One of these types of content are reaction videos to something that there’s a video on already. In this study, we observed people’s opinions and beliefs on reaction videos and analyzed why they hit the subscribe button.

Introduction

A growing phenomenon in the online world is the role of “influencers.” Influencers generate buzz, views, and likes through tweets, blogs, and the use of other social media (Freberg et al., 2011). These independent third parties serve an important role in the spread of information and content around the internet. On the flip side, influencers also have the ability to generate substantial amounts of money by developing a following of their content on the various platforms they choose to operate on. First coined by Theresa M. Senft in 2001, the term ‘micro-celebrity’ is often used to describe modern-day social media influencers, as their videos and web pages often reach millions of views worldwide (Khamis et al., 2016). Some of the most known influencers are able to make thousands, if not millions, of dollars for themselves through the content they create. While YouTubers have managed to create a multimillion-dollar career from these videos, the industry is still not well defined. As such, research into this area has increased rapidly as practitioners and academics alike seek to understand this growing phenomenon (Vrontis et al., 2021). Through a review of 68 articles, these authors yielded important summaries of this burgeoning field, while identifying one area that still lacks understanding: what types of influencers are effective in different situations and for differing purposes?

Background

Social media has seen a rise of user-generated content online and the growth of reaction videos has marked a strong presence on the YouTube platform. Recently these videos have attracted viewers worldwide with their unique and different formats for portraying content online (Oh, 2011). A quick search of reaction videos on YouTube [today] displays a multitude of videos that have reached millions of viewers around the world. More importantly, these reaction videos have created many opportunities for influencers to gain popularity online and build a career as a content creator. Generally speaking, reaction videos are user-generated videos that exhibit everyday people’s emotional responses to different recorded experiences (Palladino, 2016). Practitioners and academics have proposed that personal experience with the viewer (Anderson, 2011), authenticity of reactions (Warren-Crow, 2016; Ferrar et al., 2020), and emotional connections or mirroring of emotion (Parkinson, 1996; Bhatt, 2021) influence why people enjoy reaction videos. However, none of these studies has experimentally tested these explanations and tied them to important social media outcomes including “likes” and “subscribes.”

Key Findings

We ran OLS linear regressions of the six independent variables on the two outcome variables of interest. In the first model predicting “Like,” the model gave an R2 of .704. The variables that led to participants liking the video were “Relate” ($\beta$=.375, p <.001), “Funny” ($\beta$=.346, p <.001), and “SmileWith” ($\beta$=.250, p =.021). However, in the second model predicting subscribing to the channel (R2 = .628), only “Funny” ($\beta$=.280, p <.001) and “Ideal” ($\beta$=.483, p <.001) were significant. Interestingly, we ran a second regression on “Subscribe” that included “Like” as a seventh independent variable. Counter to expectations, “Like” was not a significant predictor of “Subscribe,” with “Funny” and “Ideal” still being the only two significant variables.

Based on our preliminary results, it appears that in this situation being relatable, funny, and really creating an interactive experience where the viewers feel they are feeling the emotion along with you are the best ways to encourage them to like your video. Interestingly, to get individuals to subscribe, being someone they want to be like or being funny/entertaining are the two best routes. Having someone like the video, in this case, was not necessary for getting them to indicate they would subscribe as well.
References


SECTION 4B: MARKETING TO VULNERABLE POPULATIONS

CHAIR

J. Mark Mayer
Summary Brief
Exploring Chronic Consumer Vulnerability Through Adverse Childhood Experiences

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While many services have been developed to the benefit of vulnerable populations, there seems to be a disconnect for a substantive portion of U.S. consumers. Identifying the cause of this disconnect may help those designing solutions to improve access to those in need by crafting more successful methods of distribution and awareness. The goal of this research proposal is to explore the effects of Adverse Childhood Experiences throughout the lives of vulnerable consumers and how they may interact with services that would benefit them. Ultimately, we wish to gain a better understanding of how members of a vulnerable population may navigate through a crisis situation, such as, the COVID-19 pandemic, when already faced with ACEs and vulnerabilities.

Introduction
The COVID-19 pandemic exacerbated the vulnerabilities of already stretched-thin populations; therefore, researchers within the medical community are advocating for the protection of these at-risk groups (Kuy et al., 2020). In times of global normalcy, vulnerable consumers are often tenuously holding things together. Thus, when an emergency or crisis occurs unexpectedly, the potential impact of disruption is magnified for those already struggling to maintain balance.

In exploring the topics above, this proposal hopes to address the following research questions. What are the implications of adverse childhood experiences on consumers’ abilities to address chronic vulnerability throughout their lives? How does chronic vulnerability influence consumers’ willingness to seek services to remedy their adverse situations? How does an unexpected critical situation influence the utilization of social services? We propose that adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) can lead to chronic vulnerability; ultimately impacting an individual’s adaptive capacities. Fortunately, vulnerable individuals may also develop resiliency to their overcome struggles, which is expected to simultaneously decrease chronic vulnerability and enhance adaptive capabilities. Additionally, we seek to examine how these characteristics may impact the use of social services and contribute to an individual’s well-being during a crisis event, such as the global pandemic. In doing so, this paper contributes to the literature by infusing the research conducted on ACEs in the psychological and medical fields, into the marketing domain to address this unique phenomenon within the public policy realm.

Background
The far-reaching consequences of ACEs has garnished the attention of many; yet, recent research has argued that academics have not clearly defined the construct (Karatekin & Hill, 2018). Therefore, we utilize an all-encompassing definition for ACEs, any childhood event that “[occurs] within a child's family or social environment that [causes] harm or distress, thereby disrupting the child's physical or psychological health or development” (Kalmakis & Chandler, 2014, p. 1495). In sum, the greater the number of ACEs someone has experienced, the worse off they will be in terms of their well-being (Chapman, Dube and Anada, 2007).

Untreated ACEs can have lifelong effects potentially leading consumers into a state of chronic vulnerability. Our conceptual definition of chronic vulnerability is, a continual and recurring inhibition of resources (Hill & Sharma, 2020; Baker et al., 2005). Consumers that are battling with the reality of their ACEs are more likely to experience toxic stress leading them into states of vulnerability (Ellis & Dietz, 2017). Although the argument for vulnerability being a temporary state has been explored, chronic vulnerability has largely been left unexplored and undefined. Previous research has summarized academic and applied contexts of consumer vulnerability; however, the authors did not reference any research on the implications of adverse childhood experiences (Hill & Sharma, 2020).

Crises are stressful to all involved, especially for someone who has endured even one ACE and is experiencing chronic vulnerability. It is that much more challenging for this demographic to navigate through and find positive solutions. To better understand how someone may handle this situation we reference adaptive capacity. Adaptive capacity refers to a party’s potential to overcome a given situation (Staber & Sydow, 2002). Consumers with lower socioeconomic status have a harder time processing stress which takes a huge toll on the consumer and their overall adaptive capacities, affecting their entire thought process (Moschis, 2007).
Regardless of an individual’s chronic vulnerability, resilience promotes the effective use of adaptive capabilities (Hone, 2017). Resilience refers to an individual’s skillset to adapt through challenging situations (Maddi, 2012). Those who best handle adversity are well equipped with resiliency skills. We suggest that a consumer who is characterized as experiencing ACEs and has developed little to no resilience in coping with their chronic vulnerability will have low adaptive capacities to adjust to situations that are immensely more stressful than their daily life.

Given consumers’ low adaptive capacities, they are more disadvantaged and, theoretically, less able to navigate a crisis-fueled world to utilize services. Consumers perceiving states of high vulnerability focus more on the present resulting them to ignore the benefits of navigating helpful services (Tanner & Su, 2019). Finally, if the cycle of ACEs, chronic vulnerability, low adaptive capacities, and underutilization of necessary services, (especially during a crisis event) continues consumers' lives are likely to be less than ideal. This would then decrease their overall well-being.

**Propositions**

**Proposition 1:** Experiencing a greater number of ACEs increases the likelihood of being in a state of chronic vulnerability in adulthood. **Proposition 2:** Chronic vulnerability mediates the relationship between ACEs and adaptive capacity in that it reduces the adaptive capacity for consumers with higher numbers of ACEs experienced. **Proposition 3:** Resilience reduces the effects of ACEs on chronic vulnerability and on adaptive capacity. **Proposition 4:** Consumers with low adaptive capacity are unable to adequately adjust to an environment that is shaped by a crisis event, this combination creates difficulty in utilizing vulnerability-addressing services which negatively impacts well-being.

**References**


Summary Brief
An Exploration of Differences in Efficacy of Vape Advertising Amongst Young Adults

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Vaping has become a worldwide phenomenon, and young consumers of these products are of concern to health professionals and public policymakers. Vape companies (e.g., JUUL) often use messaging touting their products as effective cigarette cessation devices. One obvious issue of great interest to these public health groups and e-cigarette/vape policymakers would be to understand what types of advertising work especially well with different consumer groups. In this article, we consider the efficacy of two advertising dynamics that appear often in current pro-vaping messaging—(1) the use of consumer testimonials, and (2) the type of message (e.g., informational vs. emotional) in the message—and how effectively they appeal to a college-aged young adult audience.

Introduction
Pre-COVID, vaping and the use of e-cigarettes showed a rapid increase in popularity among young adults. The National Institute on Drug Abuse released a study showing that 2 in every 5 students in 12th grade report using a vape in 2017 (National Institute on Drug Abuse, 2018). With young adults using these nicotine-filled products at an earlier age, officials and health professionals have become more concerned with the long term effects of vapes and e-cigarettes. The lack of advertising regulation for vape and e-cigarette companies is also a major concern.

Background
The first advertising element in vape advertising we explore is presence of a consumer testimonial. Testimonials have been identified as one of eight most common executional frameworks for consumer advertising (Clow and Baack 2018) and simply means that someone (a customer, celebrity, expert, etc.) is relaying information about an experience with the product in an attempt to persuade the message’s target. The JUUL website for the “Make the Switch” campaign features many testimonials from JUUL users and their journey of making the switch from cigarettes to using a JUUL (JUUL, 2020). Of the many different types of testimonials, consumer testimonials are often the most effective as they enhance audiences’ attitudes toward the endorsed product and can result in heightened perceived credibility (Wang 2005).

The next advertising element we explored was the use of emotional versus rational appeal. An emotional appeal in advertising can be defined as one that causes positive or negative feelings in order to create a positive emotional association with the brand or product (Albers-Miller & Stafford, 1999). On the flip side, rational advertising comes from the traditional information processing model that emphasizes the fact that a consumer is believed to make logical and rational decisions about products and services (Albers-Miller & Stafford, 1999). Both emotional and rational appeals are used for the advertising of e-cigarette products. Emotional appeals often focus on the target consumer’s battle to quit smoking traditional cigarettes, or how their battle has affected those around them. These messages put a large emphasis on the emotions of the consumer and how their e-cigarette products may be able to turn those negative emotions into positive ones. Rational appeals will focus more on the product benefits of e-cigarettes such as the possibility of using those products as an alternative to traditional cigarettes.

Finally, Piñeiro et al. (2016) found gender differences in type of e-cigarette used, flavors used, nicotine dosage, source of information about e-cigarettes, place of purchase, and use of e-cigarettes where smoking is prohibited so we included gender as a measured variable.

Key Findings
The design for this study was a 2 (message format: testimonial vs. non-testimonial) x 2 (message type: emotional vs. rational) with gender as a measured variable. We manipulated the presence of a user testimonial or lack thereof, and the other manipulated variable was the message type. For the emotional condition, we used affective, emotional markers in the headline and copy (e.g., happy, feel amazing, not happy) whereas in the rational condition those words represented cognitive, thinking-type themes (e.g., logical, understand, overthinking). We thus produced four versions of the advertisement—emotional/testimonial, emotional/non-testimonial, rational-testimonial, and rational-non-testimonial.
Overall, our findings suggest that there are indeed important differences in the efficacy of testimonial and non-testimonial vaping advertisements, which are themselves interacting with the type of message (rational vs. emotional) and the gender of the advertisement viewer. While males overall seem more receptive to vaping advertising, there are specific combinations that can largely erase that difference with females. This serves to illustrate the challenging job that anti-vaping efforts would have to do—these advertisements using these techniques seem at least moderately effective, and if a brand like JUUL simply committed to a large advertising spend and rotated the use of these techniques they could effectively communicate with a wide audience of younger consumers. So how can health advocates or public policy officials combat this? Cigarettes never had a “boogeyman” to say “we are healthier than this!” but they provide exactly that for vaping. While consumers might be looking at vaping for pleasure, to fit in with others, etc., that piece of logic—it’s better than cigarettes—allows a comparison that isn’t even relevant for many consumers, but seems effective. Is vaping actually better than smoking? The jury is out. However, this is not a medical treatment device—it’s a nicotine delivery system. We suggest that regulators and health officials seek to ban/eliminate this comparison completely from mainstream vape consumer communications.

References


SECTION 4C: GETTING DOWN TO THE NITTY GRITTY: RESEARCH METHODS & ANALYTICS

CHAIR

Deborah Goldring
Summary Brief

A Brand by Any Other Name: A Qualitative Framing Analysis of Corporate Rebranding Media Releases

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Media releases can inform or persuade consumers and the media on the value of new product offerings and can reinforce the current or re-positioned corporate image. However, despite their frequent use by marketing practitioners, media releases are seldom used as data in the marketing literature. Moreover, they have been given only marginal attention in marketing textbooks. This research proposes that media releases can serve as a relevant and rich source of information for strategic marketing analysis. Specifically, we analyze media releases in the context of corporate brand name changes.

Introduction

In any given year, thousands of companies change their corporate name for a variety of reasons, such as mergers, acquisitions, new leadership, new products lines, changes in brand architecture, or corporate image repositioning (Koch and Gyrd Jones, 2019; Miller, 2014; Muzellec and Lambkin, 2006). Our research seeks to answer questions about how organizations frame their rebranding announcements, what themes they use in their media releases, and what patterns are apparent in new brand names.

Research Approach

We use framing as the theoretical foundation to analyze media releases on corporate rebranding. Media releases frame rebranding messages in a positive light to assert the relevance of the announcement, to reach key stakeholders, to shape perceptions and competitive positions, and to present a structured discussion on the objectives of the branding change. As well, media releases enable organizations to frame reality on their own terms by selecting aspects they want to emphasize or downplay to tell a particular narrative (Entman, 1993). In this study, we analyze the media release as a source of primary data.

We analyzed media releases in three stages: (1) skimming, (2) reading, and (3) interpretation, a recursive process that includes both content analysis and thematic analysis (Bowen, 2009). Media releases were selected as the data source for this study because they are structured with formulaic narrative elements. This includes a headline to attract attention, a lead paragraph with the essential who, what, when, where, why information, and typically a quotation from an executive of the organization to provide further explanatory or persuasive information. A media release is pre-formulated to facilitate the job of the media who can be overwhelmed with receiving and reading dozens of media releases daily.

Our sample was extracted from three publicly available databases: PRNewswire, Business Wire and GlobeNewswire. The releases were all from the year 2019, deliberately selected prior to the coronavirus pandemic. The geographic range includes data from the United States and Canada. Keywords such as rebrand, rename, new company name, new brand identity, corporate name change, and brand refresh resulted in approximately 1500 media releases for initial consideration. They were skimmed for relevance which resulted in a dataset of 485 observations. Multiple deeper readings resulted in a final dataset of 454 observations as a result of duplications across databases and the elimination of announcements from subsidiary entities.

A coding scheme was developed based on the work of Koch and Gyrd Jones (2019) to analyze the media release content and categorize the drivers of corporate rebranding. Both authors independently evaluated the data and met to resolve minor discrepancies. Frequency counts provide a summary impression of the distribution of the drivers of corporate rebranding efforts while a thematic analysis identifies emerging themes in the data. Thematic analysis was extracted from three key elements of a media release: (1) the headline, (2) the lead paragraph, and (3) the supporting quote.

In addition to the content extracted from the narrative of the media release, the brand name prior to the announcement and new name were also collected for further analysis using a taxonomy of brand name meanings ranging from functional to abstract (Vanden Bergh, Adler and Oliver, 1988; Kohli and Suri 2000; and Muzellec, 2006).
Methodological Implications

This research has several methodological contributions that extend the use of media releases as data in the strategic marketing research domain. We use qualitative sources to “develop a rich and detailed understanding of certain theories, concepts, and constructs, such as why companies pursue their adopted strategies and how managers make decisions” (Crick, 2021 p. 393). We overcome the issue of small sample sizes and single-source data that are found in case studies and in-depth interviews, thus enabling the use of quantitative analysis based on the robust size of our dataset. Going forward, future research could explore corporate rebranding using content analysis software, such as NVivo, MaxQDa, or Atlas.ti, as well as examine corporate rebranding post-pandemic to see how those results compare to the ones uncovered here.

References


Summary Brief

Bibliometric Content Analysis: A Review, Tutorial, and Application to the Society of Marketing Advances Conference Abstracts

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The need for bibliometric content analysis as a method for generating summary content and insight for literature reviews is outlined. A tutorial on the process of carrying out content analysis is described. The tutorial will cover data extraction, text analysis, content clustering and topic analysis, and will include an example analysis of the SMA conference abstracts.

Introduction

Literature reviews are a common method of condensing and synthesizing past research into a single paper. A good literature review is comprehensive, helps researchers understand the major topics and issues within a field, summarizes concepts in a parsimonious and easily understood fashion, and provides a roadmap for future research in an area. A literature review should not be purely descriptive but should generate new insight into existing knowledge and potentially create new knowledge by synthesizing previous knowledge.

There is no single way to create a good literature review. Literature reviews can be created using a number of approaches, including qualitative analysis and reflection (e.g., Onwuegbuzie et al., 2011; Schryen, 2015), quantitative meta-analysis of statistical effects (Field & Gillett, 2010; Lipsey & Wilson, 2001), and bibliometric analysis of past literature (Ellegaard & Wallin, 2015).

Bibliometric Analysis

The focus of this paper is on bibliometric analysis and in particular on bibliometric content analysis using text mining. Bibliometric analysis involves analyzing patterns in the past literature, by examining paper titles, topics, keywords, textual content, and authorship and citation patterns. It has become an increasingly popular method of performing literature reviews. This is partially due to improved accessibility for this type of research due to comprehensive searchable databases of past literature, such as Scopus and Web of Science (Archambault et al. 2009), and improved data analytic tools for analyzing the results (Moral Muñoz, 2020) in areas such as textual analysis and social network analysis of citation networks. Bibliometric content analysis is a systematic method for generating reviews, in that data are gathered and papers are chosen based on a set of specific criteria, e.g., papers in specific journals, containing certain keywords, or with abstracts containing certain content, and the process of creating the review follows an “organized, transparent, and replicable process” (Littell et al., 2008).

Content analysis can be thought of as a systematic method for reducing, analyzing, summarizing, categorizing, and coding textual data to extract meaningful structure and insight from the text (e.g., Berelson, 1952; Krippendorff, 1980; Stemler, 2000). In the context of a bibliometric literature review, content analysis methods, including text mining and topic modelling, can be used to select and classify articles (Barczak, 2017). Applications of content analysis for bibliometric analysis in the business and marketing literature include analyses of adventure tourism (Cheng et al. 2018), marketing science topics (Barahona et al., 2018), research at the boundary of IS and marketing (France et al. 2021), marketing analytics research (Iacobucci et al. 2019), and a review of luxury brand marketing research (Aliyev et al., 2019).

The SMA Talk

Given the popularity of bibliometric content analysis and its usefulness for summarizing information and gaining insight from past research, there is a need for resources to help researchers understand and implement content analysis-based techniques. This paper and associated presentation aim to fill this need. The presentation will outline an overview and simple tutorial on creating bibliometric content analyses. It will outline the data gathering task, and the process of selecting, filtering, and organizing data. To help engage the audience of the Society for Marketing Advances (SMA) conference, an example bibliometric analysis will be carried out on the abstracts for the talks for the last several years of presentations at the SMA conferences. The abstract data will be used to analyze the popularity of the topics covered at the conference over time, the core topics covered, and the “boundaries” and interactions with other disciplines. Wilkie and Moore (2003) recorded the development of the academic infrastructure for the marketing discipline, consisting of societies,
journals, and conferences, and noted the increasing fragmentation of the discipline. An analysis of conference topics would improve understanding of where SMA fits within the marketing academic infrastructure.

References


Summary Brief
Explaining and Demonstrating Item Level Correction: Removing Detectable Common Methods Variance from Survey Data

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Item level correction is a data transformation approach to identify and remove detectable common methods variance from survey data. This practical guide provides a step-by-step process to evaluate, prepare, and transform a dataset by removing and replacing common methods variance with random variance. These activities should occur almost immediately after data cleaning and before any statistical analysis. In doing so, researchers can avoid many of the numerous real and perceived pitfalls of common methods variance in their analysis, results, and conclusions. Benefits of performing item level correction include the elimination of a comparative results approach, the ability to measure and correct for uneven CMV influences across individual survey items, and a more accurate reporting of CMV-reduced measures.

Introduction
More than 20 years of research was recently summarized to detail the threat of bias from common methods variance in otherwise rigorous statistical analysis (Baumgartner et al., 2021). During this time, a widespread and passionate debate among scholars resulted in many opinions and scholarly endeavors both for and against the notion of systematic bias resulting from common methods variance (Fuller et al., 2016; Lance et al., 2010; Spector, 2006). These perspectives include significant arguments in support of and opposed to the idea that common methods variance is a potential threat (Spector et al., 2019). Nevertheless, marketing scholars must collectively do a better job of addressing CMV in cross-sectional survey research (Baumgartner et al., 2021; Hulland et al., 2018).

The purpose of this presentation is to begin moving beyond the many valid viewpoints on both sides of the CMV debate. As such, the historical arguments are not a key topic within this research. Instead, this presentation proposes a way forward within the marketing discipline to preserve the integrity and future of cross-sectional research. For all of us who readily admit to the historical use of Harman’s single factor test as a post-hoc statistical justification for low levels of common methods bias, we humbly exclaim “mea culpa!” This presentation offers some thoughts about a method called item-level correction (ILC). Several top journals and authors widely support this method as a valid way to assess the presence of CMV (Baumgartner et al., 2021; Chin et al., 2013; Hulland et al., 2018; Teehsen et al., 2017). However, the step-by-step mechanics of performing this procedure are difficult to find and lack adequate coverage to enable widespread adoption by marketers within the scholarly community.

Background
Harman’s single factor test has generally been permitted as a defense perhaps due to a belief that CMV is not really that harmful (Lance et al., 2010). One of the major reasons CMV was not considered a major threat was because any inflationary biasing effect from CMV was thought to be counteracted downward due to a reduction in measurement reliability also due to CMV (Fuller et al., 2016; Lance et al., 2010). However, a series of mathematical proofs reveal the attenuation effect from CMV measurement unreliability occurs only in certain situations (Baumgartner et al., 2021; Spector et al., 2019). In summary, we can no longer rely on the Harman’s single factor test to evaluate or report CMV in cross-sectional, survey-based marketing research.

Without an easy and valid way to evaluate the presence of common methods bias leading to CMV, should we continue using cross-sectional survey research in marketing? Within certain disciplines and scholarly communities some express a regular bias against any single self-report study as almost certainly containing spurious and inflated higher correlations (Campbell, 1982; Organ & Ryan, 1995). One prominent and often cited remedy to avoid common methods variance is to “seek different sources for the independent variable (IV) and dependent variable (DV)” (Ostroff et al., 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2012). The suggestion of using separate source data is, however, not as straightforward today as it was yesterday. Three practical concerns arise with the potential required use of differently sourced data which are further discussed during the presentation.
Key Findings
ILC is a data transformation approach for researchers to evaluate, prepare, and transform a dataset by removing and replacing common methods variance with random variance. ILC is suggested as one of the leading ways to improve rigor in cross-sectional, survey-based marketing research (Baumgartner et al., 2021; Chin et al., 2013; Hulland et al., 2018; Teesken et al., 2017). Yet few publications devote any significant time explaining how to perform this method. This presentation offers a step-by-step guide. The benefits of performing item level correction include measuring and correcting for uneven CMV across each survey item, using multiple-method factors without negatively impacting sample size, and accurate reporting of construct reliability, validity, correlation, regression, and SEM results based on CMV-reduced measures.

References


SECTION 4E: CAN WE JUST TALK: DELIVERY IS THE KEY TO SUCCESSFUL SELLING

CHAIR

Louis Zmich & William Locander
Summary Brief

Storytelling as nested performance: Content and delivery factors impacting the efficacy of a salesperson delivered narrative-based rebuttal to expressed purchase hesitation

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Storytelling can be used throughout the personal selling process, including when a sales prospect expresses purchase hesitation. Using salesperson interviews as a starting point, we then examine certain attitudinal outcomes of a narrative-based rebuttal using a scenario approach involving experimental manipulation of story content on three factors: story protagonist (“big dog” versus “underdog”), story ending (happy versus sad), and story structure (simple versus complex). Results point to persuasive power of happy results over sad results, as well as “big dog” over “underdog” protagonists. In addition, perceived salesperson expertise and protagonist relatability also contribute to favorable attitudinal outcomes.

Storytelling in a Sales Context

Performance-based storytelling has been around as long as people have had rhetorical objectives to meet. Salespeople can employ an array of influence tactics as they interact with salespeople (Gilliam and Flaherty, 2015; McFarland and Dixon, 2019). In our study, we are specifically concerned with storytelling as a tactical approach for overcoming purchase hesitation (i.e., an objection), a unique storytelling and sales presentation context that has not seen full investigation. While we know that storytelling is less likely to generate a counterargument than other methods of communication, we do not know the efficacy of storytelling once counterargumentation has occurred. Story structure in its most basic form is three phased: beginning-middle-end, exposition-confrontation-resolution, or, in Poetics (Aristotle, trans. 2013), protasis-epitasis-catastrophe. This basic structure unfolds as the plotline of the story unfolds, and to understand the causal flow of the narrative, the receiver employs a story schema to best understand the story. Storytelling by the salesperson includes three factors: story protagonist (“big dog” versus “underdog”), story ending (happy versus sad), and story structure (simple versus complex).

Methodology

A realistic scenario was developed for this study. A salesperson is delivering a sales presentation for a product that handles customer communications for all businesses of all sizes (“MarkLinkTech”); the sales prospect could elect to purchase the product, though doing so would mean migrating away from an existing system for managing customer communications. The salesperson attempts a trial close, in which the sales prospect expresses satisfaction with current system and a lack of interest in MarkLinkTech. The salesperson then initiates a rebuttal. Each participant was presented one of eight unique treatments across the three factors (story protagonist, story ending, and story structure).

Constructs were measured using multi-item 1-to-7 scales on which higher numbers indicated stronger or more favorable results than lower numbers. A projection-based technique was used, where participants were instructed to provide measurements as if they were the sales prospect in the scenario. Concerning the story itself, we took measures of overall attitude (Petrescu, Mingione, Gironda, and Brotpies, 2019; good, likeable, pleasant; Cronbach alpha = .912) as well as believability (believable, credible, authentic; Petrescu, Mingione, Gironda, and Brotpies, 2019; Cronbach alpha = .9) and combined importance, helpfulness, usefulness, and informativeness (Onley, Holbrook, and Batra, 1991; Cronbach alpha = .936). Story believability as well as the utilitarian assessment loaded on a single factor (Cronbach alpha = .938). Concerning the story protagonist, we took measures of relatability (easy to relate to, easy to find similarities with, easy to identify with; Cronbach alpha = .923; measures newly developed) as well as trustworthiness (admirable, deserving of respect, trustworthy, a company to hold in high regard; Cronbach alpha = .916; Petrescu, Mingione, Gironda, and Brotpies, 2019). Additionally, we took a measure of overall attitude (likeable, favorable, appealing, pleasant; Cronbach alpha = .926; Krause and Rucker, 2020). For assessing the salesperson, product expertise was assessed using three items (very skilled with the MarkLinkTech system, to know the MarkLinkTech system very well, to be an expert on the MarkLinkTech system; Cronbach alpha = .928; original). Measures of affect for the salesperson were derived from Guenzi and Georges (2010) and others (friendly, easy to like, a fun person to be around, a very nice person; Cronbach alpha = .878).
Results

As the results show, outcome type is a critical factor for impacting attitudes toward both the story and the product. For both dependent variables, no significant interaction involving outcome type was observed; however, for both dependent variables, the outcome type main effect was positive. For attitude toward the story, the happy ending generated better results ($M = 5.59, SD = .94$) than the sad ending ($M = 4.74, SD = 1.51; t = 4.16, p < .001; partial eta squared = .075$). In a comparable sense, the happy ending was assessed as the superior version in terms of the utilitarian merit of the story ($M = 5.42, SD = 1.15$ versus $M = 4.8, SD = 1.54; t = 2.81, p < .01$). Similarly, for product attitude, the happy ending generated better results ($M = 5.65, SD = .87$) than the sad ending ($M = 4.95, SD = 1.55; t = 3.47, p < .001; partial eta squared = .039$).

Protagonist type is relevant to attitude toward the story but not the product, reflecting something of a pragmatic approach to this instance of attitude formation. In terms of attitude toward the story, protagonist type exerted a significant main effect ($F_{(1,142)} = 6.99, p < .01$; partial eta squared = .047) as well as a weak significant protagonist type x structure type interaction effect ($F_{(1,142)} = 3.58, p < .1$; partial eta squared = .025). Structure type made no other significant impact. For the protagonist type main effect, story attitudes were better for the big dog protagonist ($M = 5.4, SD = 1.23$) than for the underdog protagonist ($M = 4.94, SD = 1.37; t = 2.21, p < .05$). Results also point to important effects of both protagonist relatability and salesperson expertise on attitudes toward the story and product. Further pointing to a pragmatic approach to attitude formation, salesperson expertise appears more strongly associated than protagonist relatability.

References


Summary Brief
The Dark Side of Social Media Usage and Salesperson Influence Tactics

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Social media can be a powerful force when marketing to customers, but most scholarly research focuses on business-to-consumer markets. Understanding influence tactics during the initial stage of the buying process is critical, as today’s B2B buyers tend to rely on information sources other than sales representatives to gather information and determine their buying needs. The present study seeks to better understand the impact of communication quality and social media usage on salesperson influence tactics and performance during this initial stage of the buying process.

Background
A salesperson’s ability to influence buyers is fundamental to successful sales transactions (McFarland & Dixon, 2019). McFarland et al. (2006) highlight six salesperson influence tactics (SITs) that may be employed during the sales process: information exchange, recommendations, ingratiation, inspirational appeals, threats, and promises. These tactics are further categorized into three broad behavioral groups: rational (i.e., information exchange and recommendations), emotional (i.e., ingratiation and inspirational appeals), and coercive (i.e., threats and promises) (Hochstein et al., 2019). Previous research shows that several factors affect the type of influence tactics utilized by salespeople, including the relationship between sales managers and their salesforce (Flaherty et al., 2012). In the first stage of the buying process, we predict that communication between the manager and salesperson directly affects job performance, as effective communication allows salespeople to be informed of new developments. Additionally, open communication creates a stronger bond between sales managers and their salesforce, allowing for free flow of both personal and work-related information (Flaherty et al., 2012). Thus:

**H1:** Communication quality between sales managers and their salesforce is positively related to salesperson job performance.

The relationship between sales managers and their salesforce can have strong motivational and behavioral implications on performance (Flaherty et al., 2012). Leader-member exchange theory (LMX) explains how strong LMX relationships produce employees who openly share information to complete tasks (i.e., rational tactics) and decrease using threatening behavior (i.e., coercive tactics) to convey and justify ideas (i.e., emotional tactics). Thus:

**H2:** Communication quality between sales managers and their salesforce is positively related to the use of (a) rational and (b) emotional influence tactics and negatively related to the use of (c) coercive influence tactics.

Social media is defined as “applications that allow the creation and exchange of user-generated content” (Bill et al., 2020, p. 2). Further, in accordance with Agnihotri et al. (2016), the present study defines a salesperson’s social media usage as the “utilization and integration of social media technology to perform his or her job” (p. 173). In B2B sales environments, management should develop a social media strategy and train salespeople to effectively use these platforms. If utilized haphazardly, social media usage may increase “quick and superficial thoughts that can result in cognitive and moral triviality” (Baccarella et al., 2018, p. 432). Consequently, improper use of social media may negatively affect sales outcomes. Thus:

**H3:** Social media usage is negatively related to salesperson job performance.

During the initial stage of the sales process, we predict that salespeople utilize social media platforms to provide information to current and prospective buyers. Rational influence tactics focus on “altering cognitions or beliefs about the action or decision that the salesperson is attempting to impact” (McFarland & Dixon, 2019, p. 241). When salespeople communicate with customers on social media, they use rational messages to relay information and stay engaged with prospective buyers. The use of social media and other forms of eudemonic experiences are characterized by “meaningfulness and inspiration” (Rieger & Klimmt, 2019, p. 98). In keeping with the eudaimonic nature of social media, the present study expects that salesperson social media usage is positively related to their use of ingratiation and inspirational influence tactics. Conversely, coercive tactics involve pressuring the buyer to accept or comply with a particular behavior advocated by the salesperson and may trigger a fear of punishment or loss of potential rewards if the
buyer fails to act on the issue presented (McFarland et al., 2006). Buyers are not using social media to be threatened or be recipients of empty promises, they use social media to experience the best parts of businesses offerings (Rieger & Klimmt, 2019). Thus:

**H4:** Social media usage is positively related to the use of (a) rational and (b) emotional influence tactics and negatively related to the use of (c) coercive influence tactics.

Information exchange and recommendations are rational influence tactics that are generally well received by B2B buyers (Liu et al., 2018). Such tactics may facilitate rapport-building with buyers, create a greater sense of agreement, and may lead to greater overall performance (Frazier & Rody, 1991). Ingratiation and inspirational appeals are emotional tactics employed by salespeople to bond with buyers psychologically (McFarland et al., 2006). Enhanced credibility and strengthening of a psychological bond between buyers and sellers will likely enhance salesperson job performance. However, threats and promises, two forms of coercive influence tactics, are designed to pressure a buyer into deciding, are perceived as aggressive, and often lead to poor sales performance (Liu et al., 2018). Coercive behaviors are limited in their effectiveness when B2B buyers have multiple information sources to consult during the initial stage of the buying process (Frazier & Rody, 1991). Thus:

**H5:** Employing (a) rational and (b) emotional SITs are positively related to job performance, whereas employing (c) coercive SITs is negatively related to job performance.

**Methodology**

The sample for this study will be obtained using a professionally managed online panel, contracted through Qualtrics. The proposed sample will consist of U.S. B2B salespeople. All constructs will be measured using existing validated instruments on seven-point Likert-type scales (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). The anticipated findings shed light on the impact of social media for sales organizations attempting to engage customers in the initial stage of the buying process. The findings from this study should highlight that sales managers need to ensure that they communicate effectively with their salesforce, and properly implement and manage an appropriate social media usage strategy during the critical first stage of the buying process.

**References**


SESSION 4F: LET’S GET IT STARTED IN HERE: ADVANCES IN MARKETING EDUCATION ACTIVE LEARNING

CHAIR

Nese Nasif
Summary Brief

Discussion Board 2.0: Utilizing TikTok to Increase Student Engagement during Challenging Times

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Discussion boards are a common learning tool in online classes, but this approach can quickly become monotonous and demotivating from both the students’ and instructors’ perspectives. Due to COVID-19, instructors have explored the integration of social media methods to enhance online pedagogy. TikTok has recently gained popularity among young generations, offering an effortless way to create and consume interactive videos. However, given its recency, scant literature exists on utilizing social media tools as a channel response with online discussion boards. Therefore, this study examines how TikTok can be used as an alternative way for asynchronous discussion boards to promote active learning and enhance student engagement. A quasi-experimental design will be conducted, and independent t-tests will be performed. Overall, integrating TikTok into a discussion board assignment allows students to disseminate knowledge and increase learning while providing instructors with another tool to encourage student engagement and, in turn, academic performance.

Introduction

Discussion boards are typically hallmarks of online learning when used correctly. Advantages to asynchronous discussions include adding a social presence, allowing more thoughtful participation, and creating a collaborative environment (Ackerman & Gross, 2021). However, instructors often resort to default approaches with online discussions, such as providing a prompt in which students respond to and then respond to a couple of their ‘peers’ posts in response (Seethamraju, 2014). This cyclic pattern can become demotivating for students over time. One of the ways to foster student engagement is to emphasize deeper understanding, and new approaches to discussion boards aim to encourage more meaningful online student learning (Ackerman & Gross, 2021; Drehmer & Gala, 2021). Amid a global pandemic, social media methods have become essential for pedagogical purposes (Ricoy & Feliz, 2016; McCorkle & McCorkle, 2012). As such, TikTok could be a very engaging social media tool, particularly for students. Nevertheless, utilizing TikTok as a pedagogical tool, especially during a pandemic when classes have transitioned to remote learning, has yet to be considered. Therefore, we propose the following research questions: (1) How can social media platforms, such as TikTok, serve as a pedagogical tool for discussion boards during a pandemic? (2) Specifically, can faculty utilize social media platforms as a channel response to discussion boards and encourage student engagement in asynchronous online classes?

Background

During the spring semester of 2020, COVID-19 began spreading rapidly across the United States, forcing colleges and universities to transition online rapidly. With little warning, faculty were tasked with restructuring all classes to remote delivery initially designed for face-to-face instruction. In the wake of the pandemic, educators are collectively faced with uncertainty in the ever-changing learning environment. Nevertheless, findings from Rayburn et al. (2021) indicate that students’ ability to learn and master material must be anchored by a sense of shared responsibility (i.e., mutual accountability for academic success between students, faculty, and university (Cao et al., 2019)). Accordingly, finding new ways to foster learning and connectedness among the student body, faculty, and the university is paramount to student success. Combining social media tools in asynchronous courses to increase student engagement may be one path to success.

The advent of new technology, especially smart devices, mobile apps, and social media platforms, has seen rapid improvement in video and viral marketing through User-Generated Content (UGC). Higher educators have embraced various Web 2.0 technologies, especially social media, as a teaching and learning tool (Yaoyuneyong et al., 2013). Additionally, educational research in various fields has shown the benefits and the positive impact of using social media as a learning tool (e.g., Ricoy & Feliz, 2016; McCorkle & McCorkle, 2012). Educators could utilize TikTok as an active learning tool to foster creativity, excite students, stimulate student participation/engagement, enhance student motivation, and increase student understanding. As such, we propose that students who use social media apps in asynchronous online learning will be satisfied with their student learning.

Part of effective online instruction in higher education is having presence, especially within asynchronous courses, as student engagement is a continuous concern for instructors (Northey et al., 2015). Garrison (2017) argues that
even in troubling times, students need not only a teaching presence (e.g., design, facilitation) but also a social (e.g., engagement) and cognitive (e.g., reflection) presence as well. Previous studies have positively linked student participation in their learning to perceived engagement (e.g., Zhao & Kuh, 2004). As such, empowering students to be co-creators of the value can enhance their engagement in student learning (Fuchs et al., 2010). In the same token, providers (educators) must also offer operant resources (e.g., expertise, Web 2.0 tools) in this co-created learning experience. Therefore, we hypothesize that students who use social media apps in asynchronous online learning will feel engaged in their student learning.

Proposed Methodology

A quasi-experimental design will be conducted in the fall 2021 semester with two online sections of the Principles of Marketing course taught by the same instructor at a southeastern public university. This core course is a requirement for all business majors. One section (control group) will be provided with an overview of a discussion board assignment. The other section (experimental group) will receive the same instruction as the control group as well as the use of the TikTok app. Students in both sections will complete a survey at the conclusion of the assignment, asking for their level of satisfaction and engagement with the assignment and student learning. All measurements will use a 7-point Likert scale. Independent t-tests will be performed to determine any differences between the two sections regarding the outcomes. Academic performance outcomes will also be assessed using the students' exam scores for both sections.

References


Incorporating Kolb’s Experiential Learning Theory in Marketing Education

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Gaining real-world experience is vital in the classroom to assist students in understanding industry standards. This study aims to explore marketing students’ perceptions of how experiential learning activities change their perceptions of learning. The class training was divided into four areas of Kolb’s Experiential Learning Theory phases: 1) abstract conceptualization, 2) active experimentation, 3) concrete experience, and 4) reflective observation. Student learning will be assessed via reflection papers, qualitative interviews, and focus groups. The collaboration project assisted students in being better prepared for future career positions in their respective hotel and sport industries.

Introduction
The hotel industry and the sport industry intersect with familiar customers and fans constantly. When significant sporting events or tournaments occur, they normally attract large numbers of fans to their facility venue. NCAA college football has maintained a steady number of attendees over the years, ranging from 47 to 50 million a year from 2015 to 2019 (NCAA, 2019). NCAA March Madness has averaged almost approximately 20,000 fans per tournament game over the last five seasons (NCAA, 2021). For example, a college basketball conference tournament attracts typically eight to twelve teams plus their fans. These events attract out-of-town visitors due to the sporting event but require hospitality and tourism needs. Hodur et al. (2006) and Baade and Matheson (2001) state that the local economic impact of events depend strongly on the event’s ability to attract those from outside the area as local spending for regional events is likely to capture a substitution effect rather than fiscal gains to the area. Experiences influence the customer or fan's overall experience at both the sports venue and their hotel stay. Gaining real-world experience is vital in the classroom to assist students in understanding industry standards. In the literature, experiential learning method in hospitality and sport management field has been primarily implemented into a single class or one subject area (e.g., Askren & James, 2021). Hence, this study aims to explore marketing students’ perceptions of how experiential learning activities change their perceptions of learning. This university collaboration project entailed a Hospitality and Tourism class and Sport Facility and Event Management learning more about their industry counterpart interaction in the event planning process.

Brief Review of Literature
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). Furthermore, experiential learning activities challenge students to integrate classroom concepts, 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. 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). Kolb highlighted that concrete experience begins and guides successful learning. The concrete experience provides a basis for the next stage of reflective observations. Reflective observations offers students opportunities to objectively analyze the issue and review their experience. It is through reflection and observation that the experience is thoroughly evaluated from the student learning experience.

Methods
At the first undergraduate class meeting, all students were informed that the course included an experiential learning component working collaboratively with their peer class. The project was coordinated during both classes’ scheduled face-to-face class meeting times. Participants included 16 hospitality and tourism major students and 30 sport management students. All students were respective majors in their area and junior or senior class standing. The class
training was divided into the four areas of Kolb’s ELT phases. First, in the abstract conceptualization, the primary course instructor taught their class about the concept of hospitality and tourism or sport management of collaboration, project overview, and fundamental concepts. Topics included the role of each area and the interactions provided for the customers or fans. Second, in the active experimentation phase, the instructor from the secondary discipline area introduced new ideas from the different field. For example, the hospitality and tourism instructor informed the sport management class on the role of the hotel and tourism industry to fans attending a sporting event. This discussion included information about the stakeholders for the events. Third, in the concrete experience, the students participated in a field trip experience about the new ideas. For example, the sport management students visited a local hotel. They toured the facility with a presentation by the general manager on the preparation involved with dealing with sporting events and large groups of customers on designated dates. The students received real-world experience on the processes involved, including upselling in both industries. Fourth, in the reflective observations, there was a post-visit class analysis of situations. This included a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analysis.

Project assessment included three total areas: reflection papers, qualitative interviews, and focus groups. While there were two classes total of approximately 46 students, after completing all four training sessions, all students from both classes submitted a reflection paper detailing their evaluation of the coordination between the hotel and sport industry. This written paper included notations from the students on pre-project, during the project, and post-project summaries. Second, students were requested to volunteer for qualitative interviews on the training process. A total of ten students (five from each major) were individually interviewed to record their answers to the collaboration project. Third, a focus group of four students (two from each major) was conducted to drill down for specific feedback on the project. Interview and focus group questions include participants’ understanding before the training session, personal and work experiences in the industry, SWOT analysis reflections, and overall satisfaction and feedback towards experiential learning experiences. Using constant comparative analysis, both instructors analyze all of this data for emerging themes.

Discussion
The integration of Kolb’s ELT can have broad pedagogical implications. Experiential learning pedagogy was designed to develop a relevant and purposeful experience for students to understand the total customer better and fan simultaneous experience from both industries. Additionally, the collaboration project assisted students in being better prepared for future career positions in their respective hotel and sport industries.

References


Summary Brief

Teaching Ethics in Marketing: Beyond Just That One Textbook Chapter

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It is important that business courses do not treat ethical decision making as discrete from other decisions that advance profitable objectives. This research investigates how ethical decision making can be integrated comprehensively into a non-ethics focused marketing course in order to convey to students that consideration of ethics should be implicit in all facets of marketing planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Introduction

Undergraduate business courses frequently combine ethical issues related to the course’s focal topic into one ethics themed class, usually coordinating with the ethics themed chapter in the textbook being used for the course. However, this can imply to learners that ethical considerations in business are subordinate to technical or profit-based decisions (Pizzolatto and Bevill 1996). In practice, depending on the priorities of the organization, ethical decision making should not be an afterthought to other concerns. Certainly, from a macro perspective, ethical decision making facilitates consumers’ quality of life, environmental sustenance, and economic equity. This is increasingly true as supply chains and other marketing channels have become ever more globalized, including that an increasing number of organizations have annual revenues that rival many countries, a phenomena enabled by the industrial revolution (Wallach 2021).

Despite the clear importance of ethical business to the quality of consumer lives and environmental sustainability, there continues to be no shortage of instances of unethical behaviors by major brands. Since the turn of the current century alone, we have learned of the deceptive accounting practices of Enron, the Volkswagen emissions scandal, reckless borrowing by Lehman Brothers, an irreparable oil spill by BP, widespread sexual harassment at Uber, “batterygate” at Apple, perceived violations of user privacy at Facebook, racist advertising by Pepsi and its brand subsidiaries, and numerous pricing and regulatory scandals at major pharmaceutical companies, just to name a few scandals that garnered major attention in global media. The unethical decisions that led to these scandals did not just result in lost profits (or even the collapse of the brand entirely), but rather, they had profound implications for consumers’ financial well-being, trust in business, and the health of the natural environment.

It is not just at the top managerial level that we have seen unethical decision making. The ‘trickle down’ of harmful corporate values to the frontline employees of businesses has been on glaring display ever since consumers have realized that a smartphone recording and a social media account can be an effective way to obtain justice from brands that have perceptibly harmed them. In recent years, we have learned of airline employees using violence against passengers to carry out company seating policies, private security placing handcuffs on a five-year-old child, coffee baristas calling the police on two black men for using the store’s restroom without making a purchase first, and countless number of racist outbursts from people who were subsequently identified and the behavior reported en masse by the general social media user population to their employers. As concerning as the unethical actions carried out by the employees in these incidences are their responses. In some manner, the implicated employees seem to imply that they did not have agency in their decisions. In other words, they were necessarily following organizational protocol. That the human employees of these organizations were evidently unable to conceive courses of action that might find an agreeable middle ground in the conflict between business policy and a human customers, is problematic. That these employees viewed their roles as mechanically and uncritically carrying out policy without questioning its alignment with their values as human beings is a failing of ethics in the culture of these businesses. Business education, generally, is also likely complicit in its inadequacy in instilling in future business practitioners that ethical decision making is as important as those decisions that advance profitable objectives.

The current, ongoing research has the general objective of exploring whether ethical decision making can be integrated holistically into a non-ethics focused marketing course, and in a way that learning of the other disciplinary content is not diminished. As with the development of all topical content, the particular applications of ethics would be adapted to the focal subject of the course. However, there may be certain high impact practices that can be considered as general approaches to facilitate ethics integration into all courses. This research examines closely one of these, case based teaching, in an undergraduate integrated marketing communications course.
Data Collection and Method

Integrated marketing communications (IMC) courses introduce the various forms and tools of marketing promotion. At the mid-size, regional, public university in the midwest United States where data was collected, this course is offered as an elective open to business majors. A main objective of the course is to develop student understanding of the integrated nature of promotion within marketing planning. In the textbook, ethical decision making is discussed in a chapter that is discrete from the other major topics. In order to present a more integrated approach to ethical decision making, in hopes that it would become an internalized approach to IMC strategy for students, this research introduced case-based learning to apply the course’s concepts. Each case had unstructured ethical considerations within the other strategic objectives.

Cases are narratives that indicate further analysis by students. Students analyzing a case use the information provided in them in order to make supported evaluations and/or recommendations. The components of teaching with a case are threefold: the content of the case itself, the discussion of the issues in the case, and a final report of evaluations and/or recommendations. These align with activities in the practice of business in terms of following a method of “diagnose, decide, and act” (Garvin 2003). Cases differ from discrete classroom examples, because cases offer participation from the learners in constructing understanding and context of the issues being studied. Cases may provide information in qualitative or quantitative forms, including possibly irrelevant information, and they invite students to perceive this information within the conceptual frameworks of the course discipline. Often, students are also challenged to consider missing information and underlying assumptions present in their analyses.

In the current research, three cases were applied as ‘end cap’ activities at three intervals throughout the semester. The instructional method for these included one synchronous classroom session and five additional days of student managed work. Other components of the experimental process included scaffolding of the analytical process through a practice case, pre-assignment of discussion teams, and expectations of individual reading and note taking prior to the synchronous classroom session. This was conducted using the same cases for three semester iterations. The written components of the final exams of students for these three semesters were then compared with those of the three prior semesters in order to assess for ethical decision making within them.

At the time of submission to the 2021 Society for Marketing Advances annual meeting, qualitative analysis using open, axial, and selective coding (e.g., Strauss and Corbin 1998) is still ongoing. Some initial findings for the three treatment semesters include: (1) more than half of the writings contained recommendations that aligned with social justice, which was a notable increase; (2) increased logical analysis of ethical issues; (3) increased identification of support examples to justify ethical claims; (4) all writings, at a minimum, acknowledged the existence of ethical considerations; and (5) more students in the treatment semesters had writings that contained significant social justice considerations.

Potential Implications

Given the introductory discussion to this research, the importance to society generally of future business professionals and leaders internalizing ethical decision making is clear. The ultimate goal is to produce business practitioners who prioritize their affinity with fellow humans and the natural environment that sustains them over their programmed subservience to uncompromising company policies. We want to see less examples in the future of corporations or their employees succumbing to their own inflexible corporate cultures.

Certainly, there is more than just one ingredient to realizing this dream. Case based analysis of ethical and other conceptual content is one. However, the processes of these instructional activities are critical sources of their success. Beyond just content, instructors must carefully plan how to instill soft skills (e.g., DeLong and Elbeck 2018) in students that empower them to carry out the ethical values that they internalize in their courses. While the current research did not investigate these formally, the instructor of the courses did note that for the first time, course evaluations reported students perceiving themselves as becoming more competent and confident in discussing “difficult issues,” as well as appreciation of being given “the opportunity” or “permission” to articulate disagreement with their classmates. Future research may investigate the soft skills that contribute to the internalization of ethical decision making, including how case based learning as a high impact practice that contributes to soft skills in the context of ethical decision making.

References available upon request.
Summary Brief
Methods for Creating Interactive Synchronous Online Courses

Elliott Manzon, Ph.D., University of Cincinnati

Synchronous online courses taught through tools such as Zoom and Microsoft teams are becoming an increasingly common component of many marketing programs. These courses offer students greater flexibility while still providing the opportunity for interaction and real-time feedback. However, many professors struggle with identifying ways to bring the same interaction from in-person courses to synchronous online courses. In this presentation, we share methods which can be implemented to increase interaction in synchronous online courses.

Teaching Students How to Use the Software Features
For many students, your online course might be their first time using Zoom, Cisco WebEx, or Microsoft Teams. Furthermore, many students who have used the platforms before have little experience using some of the interactive features.

Prior to the first day of Class – Email students a guide on how to use the video platform. In the presentation, we provide a copy of the guide which includes basic etiquette for video conferencing, directions for using a virtual background, and tips to improve connectivity.

First day of Class – The first day of class begins with a live, interactive demonstration of key features of the software. This activity sets the tone for the rest of the semester by practicing the tools through an interactive lesson which teaches students different modes of communication and interaction using the software.

Interactive Breakout Rooms
Breakout rooms allow students to work in small groups within a synchronous course meeting. The breakout rooms are an essential feature to interactive classes as the smaller environment provides each student with increased time to interact and share their viewpoints. This presentation will demonstrate some of the interactive activities enabled through breakout rooms.

Live Documents – Live documents such as Google Docs allow for multiple editors to simultaneously edit a document. This allows a team working in a breakout room to collaborate in real-time on a worksheet. This format allows all team members to take a role in their team’s submissions for in-class assignments.

Pairing Groups – Separate breakout rooms can be paired together to allow teams to interact with each other. This technique is valuable for groups to present their work to another team to obtain feedback in a smaller, less formal setting. These low stakes presentations work well early in the semester while teams are still developing concepts. Teams gain valuable feedback, get practice giving feedback and increase their comfort with giving presentations online.

Case Studies - Case studies work well with breakout rooms to provide for interactive classes and engaging discussions. A case can first be presented to the entire class. Students are then sent to breakout rooms to analyze the case and answer questions about the case. The breakout rooms allow for the professor to individually meet with each group while they are working on the case to provide feedback and pose new questions. Case studies can also be presented in a jigsaw classroom format where each team is responsible for generating separate pieces of content which are then combined together.

Conclusion
Online synchronous classes can be interactive like live classes. We present the tools and methods that can be implemented to facilitate engaging, interactive online courses.
SESION 4G: CONSUMERS’ POSITIVE & NEGATIVE RELATIONSHIPS WITH BRANDS

CHAIR

Jose L. Saavedra Torres
The Role of Perceived Quality and Temporal Self Incongruence on Customer-Brand Disidentification

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Ashok Bhattarai – Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, USA
Monika Rawal – Else School of Management, USA
Jose Saavedra – Northern Kentucky University, USA

Previous research in customer-brand relationship has found out that brand disidentification is one reason for consumer turning against brands however, the antecedents of brand disidentification were not clear. This research argues that temporal self-incongruence (early, middle, and later stages) and positive/negative emotions with the brand causes brand disidentification. It also tests the role of perceived quality as a moderator between those relationships.

INTRODUCTION

Current research on the consumer-brand relationship emphasizes the role of brand disidentification as a reason for consumers turning against brands (Anaza et al. 2021; Ruppel and Einwiller 2020). Individuals see themselves through the image of the brand characteristics and when individuals receive negative symbolic meanings attributed to the brand (Lee, Motion, and Conroy 2009), they experience incongruence and thus are less likely to maintain a relationship with the brand (Haji 2018). In such situations, consumers tend to divert their negative brand emotions by cognitively separating from the brand's identity, which is called consumer-brand disidentification (CBD), which is defined as "a customer’s self-perceived cognitive dissociation from a brand based on incongruent values and identity evaluations of oneself relative to the brand’s self." (Anaza et al. 2021, p. 118).

Research has shown that negative and positive emotions can impact consumers’ identification or disidentification with the brand (Ruppel and Einwiller 2021). However, another important factor that can impact consumers’ response toward a brand is self-incongruence. Self-incongruence indicates the absence of fit between one’s self and the brand’s personality (Aaker 1999). Self-incongruence can lead to the reduction of consumers’ reactions (attitudinal, affective, and behavioral) to the brand (Grohmann 2009). It has been shown that self-incongruence can lead to negative brand associations like brand hate (Islam et al. 2019) and negative brand personality (Haji 2014). Based on the foregoing argument, it can be gathered that congruency between the self and the brand, and emotions can influence consumer behavior, like CBD. Therefore, the current research attempts to answer the impact of consumers self-incongruence, their negative and positive emotions on brand disidentification and how it impacts consumer behavior in the future.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Balance Theory

The arguments in this study are grounded in the tenets of the balance theory of attitude change (Heider 1958). According to the theory, individuals are moved to preserve balance in their association with another individual/object and such, strive for “a harmonious state, one in which the entities comprising the situation and the feelings about them fit together” (Heider 1958, 180). The theory argues that individuals prefer balanced (i.e., constant, articulate) cognitions (such as viewpoints, attitudes, opinions) over imbalanced (i.e., unpredictable, illogical) cognitions (Heider 1958). In balance theory, individual cognitions (i.e. beliefs, attitudes, ideas) towards another individual/object/entity are either positive or negative. The positive or negative nature of the cognitions is determined by either sentimental relations (e.g., like vs. dislike, approve vs. disapprove) or unit relations (e.g., similar vs. dissimilar, familiar vs. unfamiliar) that an individual has towards the other individual/object/entity.

Customer Brand Disidentification

Customer Brand disidentification (CBD) is recognized as a cognitive disconnection process of a person from a brand, which previously was identified (constructed) in consonance with their belief or attitude, but now due to some dissonance or conflict, the individual no longer associates himself or herself to the brand. Conceptually, CBD differs from Customer Brand Identification (CBI). CBI is more about the cognitive overlaps of the perceiver with a brand (Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar, and Sen 2012), whereas CBD deals more with consumers’ detachment with a brand (Elsbach and Bhattacharya 2001). Past studies show that CBD originates from the adverse brand related cognitions like brand disrepute (Wolter et al. 2016), negative human emotions (Becker and Tausch 2014). These negative brand-related experiences help individuals rationalize their decision of additional separating themselves from relating with the brand (Anaza et al. 2021; Kreiner and Ashforth 2004).
METHODOLOGY
A sample of 300 individuals was contacted through M-Turk. Only participants from the United States were recruited and three screening questions were asked at the beginning of the survey to prevent responders without qualification and decrease the chance of response errors. An online questionnaire initiated with (1) three screening questions, then (2) participants reading an abstract of research and the consent informant. Afterward, (3) participants were asked to “Please think of any brand that you once purchased and utilized, but do not currently use because it no longer represents who you are today”. To answer this question, the participant must write the brand name in the survey. This brand was subsequently used in all the questions asked to the participants about (4) self-incongruence, (5) CBD, (6) positive emotions, (7) negative emotions, (8) brand patronage reduction, and (9) perceived quality. The data analysis was carried out using CB-SEM and moderation test in MACRO Process using SPSS 23. The findings suggested that temporal self-incongruence (early and later stages) associated with perceived quality has a direct effect on CBD.

References


SESSION 4H: TENSION IN THE MARKETPLACE: MARKETING ETHICS & CSR

CHAIR

Cara Peters
Summary Brief

An Exploratory Investigation of Consumer Tensions within a Sustainable Lifestyle Community

Jane Thomas, Winthrop University
Stephanie Lawson, Winthrop University
Cara Peters, Winthrop University

Consumers are increasingly examining the products they purchase, how these products are manufactured, and the impact of these products on their lives, the environment, and society. While the literature has explored green consumption from both the consumer and firm perspective, researchers have called for further investigation of the opportunities to better understand the ‘green gap’ that exists between consumers’ attitudes and consumption behaviors, as over 75% of American consumers are concerned about the environment but green products account for only 4% of market share (Gleim and Lawson 2014).

Research Purpose

The sustainable consumption movement has been measured and examined by studies on environmental consciousness (Barr, Glig, and Shaw 2011), green marketing (Pena 2012), sustainable consumption (Branbury, Stinerock, and Subrahmanyan 2012), and voluntary simplicity (Huneke 2005). Despite previous studies on these topics, there appears to be limited research using a comprehensive approach exploring the nature of green living from an authentic consumer perspective. The purpose of this study is to explore the tradeoffs and interrelated tensions that consumers face when pursuing a green lifestyle, as understanding these tensions sheds light on the “green gap” that exists between attitudes and purchase behaviors.

Method

The first 100 topical areas within City-Data.com’s discussion forum “green living” were selected for analysis. Each of the 100 topical areas contained between 17 and 581 posts; the final data set contained 2,398 individual posts. Content analysis was selected for analysis as it provides a scientific process for examining communication and is appropriate for analyzing discussion forum posts (Im and Chee 2013).

Findings

A summary of the lifestyle themes that emerged from the data and frequency of occurrence are in Table 1.

Table 1: Lifestyle Themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme &amp; Example Quote</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| **Energy Consumption and Usage** (nuclear, solar, biofuel, natural gas)  
“You can make your own ethanol at home and the equipment normally takes less space than a garden shed. Simple set-ups only cost a couple hundred dollars.” | 581/24.2 |
| **Conscientious Consumer Behavior** (environmental sins, recycling, biking, light bulbs, cars, housing)  
“I’ve seen ladies in the grocery store “helping the environment” by using reusable cloth bags instead of plastic. Then they drive home in a $50,000 SUV that burns 10MPG. Ethanol takes more energy to produce it than you can get from it.” | 1059/44.2 |
| **Food Production** (farming, urban gardening) and consumption (health, GMO, organic)  
“Many people don’t know that Organic does NOT mean ‘chemical free.’ It simply means SYNTHETIC chemical-free. Some of those natural chemicals used in organic farming are nasty!” | 526/21.9 |
| **Legal Issues** (environmental laws, political)  
“This is politics, pure n simple. They don’t like the competition of free market consumers getting a choice.” | 106/4.4 |
Voluntary Simplicity (downsizing, decluttering, consuming less)

“Why do I have 50 books that I’ll probably never read again? Why do I have several dozen plates, bowls, and cups when I only use a handful every day?”

The data also showed that consumers sensed opposing forces (i.e., tensions among people, profit, and planet) as they enacted their green lifestyle (see Table 2).

**Table 2: People, Profit, and Planet Tensions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tension &amp; Example Quote</th>
<th>Theme</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People vs Planet (Benefit from nuclear power/Drawback is disease)</td>
<td>Energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Everyone in the last three generations of my family have had cancer, on both sides of my family. Why no one suspects something like Three Mile Island or the fact that we live so close or downwind to, not one but two, nuclear reactors as a possible cause, is beyond me.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit vs People (Benefit from eating healthy/Drawback is financial cost)</td>
<td>Food</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“NPR reports that although organic fruits and vegetables, grown without synthetic pesticides or fertilizer, comprise a $29 billion industry that is still growing, a new analysis of 200 peer-reviewed studies that examined differences between organic and conventional food finds scant evidence of health benefits from organic foods.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planet vs Profit (Benefit of riding bicycles/Drawback is unaffordable)</td>
<td>Conscien-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“The last bicycle I bought was about 13-14 years ago. Paid $89 for it at Target. Went to a bike store last week to buy a 26x2 tube. The tube cost $6.00 but as I was waiting, I walked around the store looking at the bikes. I couldn’t believe what I was seeing on the price tags. $400-$500-$600 for a run of the mill bicycle. I now know why I don’t see kids riding bikes bigger than their old 20”” bikes.”</td>
<td>ntious</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Perform-</td>
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**Conclusion**

Research on issues related to green marketing is vast, complex, and spans several decades. Owing to the multi-layered issues and consumer behavior that surround the topic of green marketing that continues to evolve, there is more to learn about consumer behavior and green marketing. This study provides a holistic view of green living and unpacks tensions consumers face between people, profit, and planet when enacting this lifestyle.

**References**


Summary Brief
Craving Communion: A Benefit or a Burden?

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An employee who enjoys working in communion with others is typically regarded as a benefit to an organization. But what happens when an employee’s motivation to strive for communion goes too far? Results of a time-lagged study of 107 service industry professionals indicate communion striving motivation hinders an employee’s sense of psychological empowerment on the job and leads to an increased likelihood of participating in unethical behavior which benefits the employee’s organization. Further, empowerment was found to partially mediate the relationship between communion striving motivation and unethical pro-organizational behavior. Through the lens of psychological ownership theory, in this study we explore the dark side of striving for communion. Theoretical and managerial implications are proposed based on the findings to advance current knowledge of communion striving motivations, with particular emphasis on their impact on unethical pro-organizational behavior.
Summary Brief

Fast fashion and Ethics: How do ethical fast-fashion brand extensions influence consumers’ perception and satisfaction?

Caroline Le Bon, Washington College, USA

Fashion refers to a hedonic consumption, and questions pertaining to the ‘made in’ of the clothes or if they are fairly traded may not always be of interest to fashion consumers. But nowadays an increasing number of consumers are concerned about societal and environmental issues, forcing manufacturers and designers to slowly incorporate more ethical practices in their business (Neumann et al., 2021). There is an emerging literature on the development of new practices fashion brands adopt to cope with more environmental conscious and concerned consumers. However, the literature has not yet considered if consumers specifically look for ethical practices and products when they want to purchase the latest fashion trend at low price using fast fashion retailers. This research helps to improve our understanding of why consumers are satisfied with fast fashion brand extensions and fast fashion brands globally.

Introduction

Fashion refers to a multidimensional concept emphasizing novelty, desire, fun, variety, and hedonism (Grimstad & Storm-Mathisen, 2005; O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013; Eastman et al., 2018). Hence, people usually don’t buy fashion items for their functionality but more for their meaning, symbol and means to express themselves. They opt for fashionable items because it helps them feel good, up to date. For a long time, the story behind the chosen clothes was not of any concern. Moreover, ethics did not appear to be the main business objective for many fashion brands. Trying to match ethical practices with constantly changing items does not seem an easy task for companies. Today, they are faced with such a challenge. Hence, consumers are more concerned with the impact their fashion consumption may have on the planet and they expect more ethical values from their favorite brands. If some fashion brands already offer ethical practices in their production and distribution, do the fast fashion brands follow the same trend?

Background

Fast fashion brands have a specific business model featuring globalized supply chains, short product life cycle, very efficient distribution. This model allows a fashion idea to become a fashion product in less than 3 weeks and the creation of multiple collections compared to other fashion brands with only Summer – Winter collections.

The development of fast fashion brands such as H&M, Zara, Foreover21 has changed the way people purchase and dispose of clothing. This new side of fashion industry produces and sells faster and cheaper large quantities of items and invokes sometimes the “democratization” of fashion to allow more consumers to access to the latest styles at a low price (Bick et al., 2018). The main goal is to be the first to have their deliveries, the first to offer the latest fashionable trend at a reasonable price even if this relates to questionable practices.

Hence, the abundance of fashion products arouses the interests of fashion consumers but also has an important impact on the environment, the labor force, and the animal welfare. Working up to 120 hours per week is not uncommon in the fashion industry in some of the least developed countries. These workers encounter hazardous work conditions such as old equipment, heat, non-hygienic environment, chemical and pollutant uses, construction, and safety issues. They live on minimum legal wage that is quite different from minimum living wage that refers to an amount high enough to provide for them and their families their basic needs (food, housing, education). Child labor can be added to the list of non-ethical practices of the fashion industry. The International Labor Organization (ILO) tries to eliminate this practice but the minimum age for working is often not respected (www.ilo.org). Moreover, the fashion industry is sadly recognized as responsible for many pollutants and pesticides spread into air, soil and water that result in major environment contamination (www.cleanclothes.org). The use of endangered species and animal is still popular today in fashion collection even though some designers contend that people can still be fashionable without harming any animal.

The fashion industry faces major social, economic, and environmental issues that many consumers used to ignore or try not to think about. But today, those same consumers want to feel good embracing their own ethical values (Zhang et al., 2021). Ethics in fashion becomes a crucial and increasing concern for both consumers and managers. Indeed, fashion is facing a new challenge which consists of creating constantly fashionable and affordable designs yet while integrating societal and environmental concerns in their production and distribution. Some leading fast fashion brands start to develop
more sustainable production and distribution. They introduced ethical brand extensions such as H&M Conscious, Zara Join Life following the development of more ethical processes.

There is an emerging literature on the development of new practices fashion brands adopt to cope with more environmental conscious and concerned consumers. However, this literature has not yet considered if consumers specifically look for ethical practices and products when they want to purchase the latest fashion trend at low price using fast fashion retailers. Do they visit these stores to find recycling items, green fashionable items? What is the consumer’ perception of ethical fast fashion brand extensions? Are fast fashion consumers satisfied with the new and more sustainable brands they get in these stores?

Through a qualitative inquiry with fast fashion consumers, this research addresses the questions of how ethical fast fashion brand extensions influence fast fashion consumers’ perception and satisfaction. Do they believe in these brands promises and are they satisfied with the new ethical fast fashion collections? The main purpose of this research is to develop a theoretical framework that captures the relationship between ethics and consumers satisfaction for ethical fast fashion brands, and fast fashion brands in general.

Key Findings
We develop three propositions based on: the positive impact ethical fast fashion brands have on consumers’ perception towards fast fashion, the relationship between consumers’ personal values and consumers’ perception towards ethical fast fashion brands, and finally the positive impact of these brands on consumers’ fast fashion brand satisfaction overall. This research helps to improve our understanding of why consumers are satisfied with fast fashion brand extensions and fast fashion brands globally, and offers several academic and managerial contributions emphasizing the crucial influence of ethics in an industry that faces important changes.

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Summary Brief

Do Actions Really Speak Louder than Words?

Bragging’s Negative Effect on Consumers’ Choice of Prosocial Companies

Eric Narcum, University of Memphis, USA
Subhash Jha, University of Memphis, USA

Although cause-related marketing campaigns can have positive benefits on society, consumers sometimes respond negatively to them. Oftentimes, this is the case when something causes consumers to believe the company has selfish motives behind its cause-related marketing campaign. This research demonstrates that, when a company bragged about its own prosocial behavior in its cause-related marketing campaign, fewer participants choose to purchase from that company because they assume the company had selfish motives behind its prosocial behavior. These findings provide marketing managers insights into how to advertise their company’s prosocial behaviors more effectively.

Introduction

Cause-related marketing (CRM) is an important part of many companies’ marketing strategy. However, a challenging aspect of CRM is managing consumer perceptions of the company’s motives. When consumers perceive a company’s prosocial behavior to be motivated by self-interests, it negatively impacts a number of consumer behaviors, including choice (Barone, Miyazaki, & Taylor, 2000). Since perceived motives impacts these important outcomes, companies engaging in CRM activities should make every effort to avoid the appearance of being motivated by self-interest and should carefully consider how they promote their prosocial behavior. One possible way companies can prevent consumers from perceiving them to have selfish motives is by avoiding bragging when promoting CRM activities. Research in human behavior has shown that when a person brags about his own prosocial behavior, he “implies that he was less intrinsically motivated to help” and receives less credit for his actions (Berman, Levine, Barasch, and Small, 2015, p. 98). In our research, we demonstrate that when a company brags about its own prosocial behavior, the company implies that it is less intrinsically motivated to help, which leads to fewer customers choosing that company. To test our hypotheses, we propose four studies. This research is important because it is the first, to our knowledge, to examine how corporate bragging in CRM advertisements impacts consumer perceptions and behaviors, and it provides guidance to managers on how to effectively advertise prosocial behavior.

Background

Research has shown that human beings face a dilemma when deciding whether or not to promote their own prosocial behaviors. While promoting one’s prosocial behaviors sometimes leads to attributions of generosity, other times it signals a selfish motivation (i.e., a desire for credit) (Berman, Levine, Barasch, and Small, 2015). Therefore, when one promotes his or her prosocial behaviors, he or she risks appearing self-interested by attempting to draw attention to generous acts. On the flip-side, not promoting one’s prosocial behaviors decreases the chances of receiving social benefits, such as being perceived as a generous person. Although choosing not to promote one’s own prosocial behaviors will also decrease the chances that others will question one’s motives, fewer people will perceive the person as being generous because they are unlikely to know of their generous behavior. Therefore, when a person is deciding whether or not to promote his or her own prosocial behaviors, he or she must decide if obtaining credit for the act is worth risking the possibility of being perceived as self-interested and only concerned with obtaining credit.

Like human beings, firms also face a dilemma when promoting their prosocial behaviors. Even for the most altruistic firms, one of the goals of any CRM campaign is to improve the reputation of the firm. As previously mentioned, CRM campaigns, when properly executed, benefit the cause, the consumer, and the firm. However, in order for these parties to benefit in these ways, the CRM campaign must be promoted, which the firm typically does through some form of advertisement. Unfortunately for the firm, promoting its own prosocial behaviors can lead to negative evaluations of the firm’s motives if they advertise their behaviors in a way that is perceived as bragging. As previously mentioned, research in human behavior shows that bragging negatively impacts other’s perceptions of and reactions to braggarts (Wosinska, Dabul, Whetstone-Dion, and Cialdini, 1996; Berman, Barasch, and Small, 2015; Siem and Stürmer, 2018; Tan, Yan, and Pedraza-Martinez, 2020). In short, people respond less favorably to braggarts (Wosinska, Dabul, Whetstone-Dion, and Cialdini, 1996); braggarts are perceived as less likable (Tan, Yan, and Pedraza-Martinez, 2020); and people perceive braggarts prosocial behaviors to be motivated by egoistic rather than altruistic motives (Barasch, and...
Small, 2015; Siem and Stürmer, 2018). Because people oftentimes judge individuals and companies in similar ways, we predict that consumers will attribute selfish motives to companies that brag in their CRM advertisements. We make this prediction because numerous studies have shown the negative impact that perceived selfish motives has on consumers’ perceptions of and behaviors towards companies engaged in prosocial behavior (Barone, Miyazaki, and Taylor, 2000; Rifon, Choi, Trible, and Li, 2004).

Key Findings

We found that bragging has a significant impact on study participants’ choice. Our results reveal that significantly fewer participants chose the prosocial company in the moderate bragging condition (81%) versus the no ad condition (93%) ($\chi^2_1 = 4.15, p = 0.042$); significantly fewer chose the prosocial company in the strong bragging condition (61%) versus the no ad condition (93%) ($\chi^2_1 = 18.08, p < 0.001$); and significantly fewer chose the prosocial company in the strong bragging condition (61%) versus the moderate bragging condition (81%) ($\chi^2_1 = 5.16, p = 0.023$).

We also found that participants’ perceptions of the company’s motives for donating mediated the relationship between bragging and choice. To test the mediation effect of perceived motives, we used the PROCESS Model 4 (Hayes, 2017). The independent variable was bragging, and since we had three conditions, we coded our conditions three different ways, creating three sets of paths (path a1: 0 = no ad, 1 = moderate bragging ad; path a2: 0 = no ad, 1 = strong bragging ad; and path a3: 0 = moderate bragging ad, 1 = strong bragging ad). Analysis of indirect effects for path a2 reveals that perceived motives mediated the relationship between bragging and choice (Effect = -1.72, SE = 0.61, C.I.95% = -3.2 to -0.81). Motives also mediated the relationship between bragging and choice for path a3 (Effect = -1.37, SE = 0.55, C.I.95% = -2.71 to -0.52). For path a1, however, perceived motives did not mediate the relationship between bragging and choice (Effect = -0.35, SE = 0.32, C.I.95% = -1.07 to 0.19). These results are consistent with H1 and H2.

References


SESSION 5A PANEL: STUDENT ENGAGEMENT IN ASYNCHRONOUS ONLINE LEARNING

PANELISTS

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SESSION 5B: COVID DID WHAT? MARKETING FOR THE GREATER GOOD

CHAIR

Pia Albinsson
Summary Brief

An Exploratory Study of Consumers Perceptions of Adopting Contact Tracing Mobile Applications

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Pre-pandemic, consumers were increasingly becoming concerned about their privacy when it comes to how companies use their data. This was specifically important for those who use location-based data. With the introduction of contact tracing applications and potential vaccine passports, this has amplified the concerns consumers have. Thus, it is important for marketers, practitioners, and public policymakers to understand consumers’ perceptions of adopting such technology. As such, we seek to fill this gap with an exploratory study that uses survey data to investigate this adoption. We find political affiliation to be a predictor in whether consumers will adopt such technology. We conclude by discussing important policy implications.

Introduction

The pandemic has drastically changed the way consumers interact with brands and other entities through mobile applications. Pre-pandemic, consumers were increasingly becoming concerned with their privacy and how companies use their data (Goswami, 2020). However, COVID-19 brings an interesting context for the adoption of mobile applications that are location based. Specifically, countries around the globe are employing mobile applications that use location services for contact tracing as effective strategies for mitigating the spread of COVID-19 (e.g. New Zealand, Malaysia, etc.; Rahman 2021) or for the adoption of vaccine passports (Porterfield, 2021). As this new use of technology is introduced, it is important for marketers, practitioners, and policymakers to understand consumers’ perceptions of adopting this type of technology.

Previous research has found that consumers have mixed feelings about their privacy when it comes to consumption if the benefit outweighs the cost (Dienlin & Metzger, 2016). However, little research has addressed consumers’ perceptions of location based mobile applications. Specifically in the United States, a deep political divide is found to play a role in the adoption of COVID-19 protocol (Mordecai & Connaughton, 2020). As such, we conduct an exploratory study that investigates our research question: How does political affiliation affect consumers’ perception of adopting mobile data apps in relation to covid-19 response? We do this by conducting a survey that reveals insights into consumers’ intentions to adopt a contact tracing application. We find that political affiliation can provide insights into those consumers who might be more willing to adopt this technology. Interestingly, privacy concerns in this exploratory study were revealed not to be significantly different based on political affiliation. In the following paper, we first discuss the literature of privacy and mobile applications. We then discuss our methodology and results. We finish with our conclusion and stakeholder implications.

Method and Results

To explore our research question: How does political affiliation affect consumers perception of adopting mobile data apps in relation to covid-19 response, we conducted a survey at a University in the Southwest United States. In total, 266 responses were collected. Respondents were first introduced to a mobile contact tracing application that citizens in Malaysia use when performing daily tasks like running errands or going to the mall. Respondents were not only described how the application worked but were shown visuals of the application (see Table 1).

Respondents were then asked about their intention to adopt such an app if the United States implemented such an app with 5 items adopted from Sharma et al. (2020) on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree; items: I intend to install contact-tracing apps on my mobile phone in the future; I predict that I would install contact-tracing apps on my mobile phone in the future; I plan to install contact-tracing apps on my mobile phone in the near future; I will always try to install contact-tracing apps on my mobile phone; I will recommend to others to install contact-tracing apps on my mobile phone; α = .97).

Respondents were also asked 6 items about their concerns about their privacy adapted from Mosteller and Poddar (2017) also on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree, I am concerned that the government agency (i.e. the CDC) that is managing the contact tracing app....may keep my private information in a non-secure manner,
may not take measures to prevent unauthorized access to my information, may divulge my information to unauthorized parties without my consent, may use my information for other purposes without notifying me or getting my authorization, may sell my information to others without notifying me or getting my authorization, may use my information for other purposes, e.g., analyzing my daily activities to derive information about me, \( \alpha = .91 \).

An ANOVA was conducted to investigate the difference of political affiliation on contact tracing adoption intention was and found to be significant \((M_{dem} = 3.63, M_{rep} = 2.26, M_{indep} = 2.91, M_{other} = 2.23, F(4, 261) = 11.60, p < .001)\). Post hoc tests revealed contrasts that were significantly different between those who identified as democrat versus republican \((t = 6.29, p < .001)\) and democrat versus independent \((t = 3.71, p < .01)\). Additionally, an ANOVA provided evidence that political affiliation was only marginally significant on consumers concern for privacy \((M_{dem} = 4.76, M_{rep} = 5.28, M_{indep} = 5.01, M_{other} = 5.35, F(4, 261) = 2.21, p = .068)\).

**Conclusion**

We find that the political affiliation of a consumer can influence the adoption intention of a mobile app, using location-based services or QR-codes, for contact tracing in the context of the spread of Covid-19. Interestingly political affiliation was not as strong as an indicator on consumers concerns for privacy. Our exploratory research contributes to the marketing literature by extending our knowledge of who might adopt a location based mobile app in times of crisis. These insights are important because they reveal potential policy implications and information for digital marketers.

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Summary Brief

Music as Connectivity: Young Consumers’ Virtual Live Music Event Experiences during Covid-19

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Music, which is often used as entertainment and atmospherics in various servicescapes, enhances consumer wellbeing. With the advent of the Covid-19 pandemic, consumers’ experiences of live music events changed for the unforeseeable future. This article seeks to understand the ways in which young consumers engage with virtual live music events (VLMEs) during Covid-19. Thematic data analysis of seventeen in-depth interview transcripts resulted in three preliminary emergent themes: Music rituals – I ‘Gotta’ keep dancing, Music as Mood Enhancer, and Shared Music as Connectivity.

Introduction

During Covid-19, consumers’ engagement in digital virtual consumption (DVC) increased significantly as many worked from home while having limited access to the typical entertainment options (e.g., movie theaters, concerts, museums, and art galleries). While live music performances are the primary offering at concerts, shows, and music festivals, they are often offered in conjunction with other consumption experiences at local pubs, restaurants, wine tastings, and craft festivals. However, increasingly, many consumers engage with music through DVC via online streaming services such as Spotify, Apple Music, and iHeart Radio. As such, these shared platforms for music consumption have lessened the physical ownership of music (Sinclair & Tinson 2017). Music provides “routines, assumptions, and occasions that constitute “social life” (DeNora 2000: xi). Having rituals and routines help consumers establish meaning in themselves and their social surroundings (Roy & Dowd 2010). What happens to consumers’ music consumption when their physical and social surroundings are removed?

Literature Review

It is important to understand that music provides a resource for self-construction (Giesler 2008). As it can have a positive influence on consumers’ wellbeing, engaging with virtual live music events (VLME) may assist consumers in their identity work during a health crisis. Research suggests that though virtual consumption is different from material goods, DVC can 1) stimulate consumer desire for tangible and virtual goods, 2) assist in achieving desires and daydreams through enactments and play, 3) actualize the impossible or fantasies such as attending a live concert of an artist, and 4) and allow for experimentation of new roles in the marketplace (Denegri-Knott & Molesworth 2010). In terms of psychological ownership, consumers tend to use streaming platforms “to organise their music collections, manage and protect their identity and establish a sense of control in their everyday routine” (Sinclair & Tinson 2017, p. 2). Consumers project their identities through ownership of items but also through consumption including streaming services. This exploratory study is guided by the literature on a post-ownership world, psychological ownership and music as a means for wellbeing.

Method

In-depth interviews with seventeen young U.S. consumers, eleven females and six males were conducted via video conferencing software. The convenience sample consisted of young consumers between 19-24 years of age. Interviews lasted between 35-62 minutes and were transcribed verbatim. Iterative readings and thematic analysis were utilized for data analysis. The preliminary emergent themes of Music rituals – I “Gotta” keep dancing”, Music as mood enhancer, and Shared music as connectivity are discussed below.

Findings

Data analysis indicates that music is an important part of young consumers’ lives, and they routinely utilized music streaming services during Covid-19. Oftentimes, with their smartphones as constant companions, they continue their music consumption as they leave their homes, plug it in their car and keep listening throughout the day. The theme Music Rituals - I ‘gotta’ keep dancing reveals how the sudden isolation hampered many young consumers’ regular activities. In response, some, utilized music to move, get things done, and sometimes even dance in the middle of the night. The enactment and play (Denegri-Knott & Molesworth 2010) that informants experienced during their music streaming allow for them to escape the stress and anxiety created by the pandemic. Some shared that although they sometimes felt silly dancing alone, they also felt normal for a short while. Extant research posits that VLME that are heavily dance focused such as raves are “fundamentally about physical engagement” when the aggregate crowd of dancers are removed, the “essence” is lost (Vandenberg, et al. 2021, S149). While Belk (2013) question whether consumers can
become attached to immaterial possessions, it is clear that despite music streaming being dematerialized and non-material, consumers display strong attachment to music and utilize their favorite music rituals to enhance the self. For example, in the theme Music as Mood Enhancer, informants shared that narratives of music help them “bring up the mood and lift your spirit.” In addition, by choosing the VLME, consumers customize their investment of the self. In essence when consumers post, tag, or comment on specific VLME’s, they co-construct the self (Belk 2013). By selecting specific VLME’s and enacting an ideal self of the past, present, or future (Albinsson, et al. 2017), consumers can reaffirm oneself within a specific fan group or brand community. The last theme Shared Music as Connectivity discuss how music streaming services and VLMEs function as a sense of shared place online (Belk 2014). While some informants shared of their frequent concert going experience pre-Covid-19, only a few had attended VLME. Informants’ experiences of seeing a favorite artist or band through VLME is a way of ‘actualize’ the sometimes impossible (e.g., travel during Covid-19, having time and money to travel, or attend a regular concert) (Denegri-Knott & Molesworth 2010).

Discussion and Conclusion

This article sought to gain a deeper understanding in the way young consumers interacted with virtual live music experiences during Covid-19. Although preliminary, the emergent themes presented above showcase how music helps consumers engage in their everyday music rituals even during isolation brought forth by a pandemic. Limitations to this study is the lack of generalizability due to the qualitative aspect of the study.

References
SESSION 5C: CONSUMER CHOICE & SUSTAINABILITY IN A GLOBAL WORLD

CHAIR

Mario Gonzalez-Fuentes
Summary Brief

Global and national identities as drivers of young consumers’ choices for foreign vs. domestic stories: A cross-country analysis.

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The current study considers the following research question: How do young adults’ global and national identities combine to explain their consumption choices of foreign vs. domestic stories? This is the first of a series of studies in which we aim at exploring of how globalization’s standardizing and resistant forces are influencing the type of stories to which young adults choose to be exposed.

Motivation

One of the key psychological effects of globalization is the one triggered in the consumer’s self-concept or identity (Arnett, 2002). Ethnic or national identity refers to a consumer’s degree of attachment with a particular ethnic group or nationality (Phinney, 1992). Global identity, on the other hand, indicates a consumer’s degree of identification with the global culture and community, thereby transcending geographical borders (Gao, Zhang, & Mittal, 2017). Two positions dominate the debate concerning the effect of globalization on consumer culture. One argues for a standardizing influence while the other position maintains it has prompted resistant forces (Laroche, 2017). Empirical evidence exists suggesting both forces are shaping consumers’ cultural identities by blending the cultural contexts to which consumers are exposed (Gonzalez-Fuentes, 2019; Peñaloza, 1994). Thus, adaptation to globalization is not unidirectional. New cultural identities can be acquired with no detriment to existing ones.

Young adulthood is a pivotal life-cycle stage in the definition and development of our self-concept (Côté & Levine, 2016). Mass media holds a powerful influence during this stage (Holbrook & Schindler, 1994). In particular, the literature suggests that young adulthood is when consumers develop enduring preferences for aesthetic appeals, which are critical in many cultural and experiential products, such as music, movies, television, and other forms of entertainment. We argue that, fundamentally, what is being consumed via these forms of entertainment is stories.

As a form of communication, stories have been used since ancient times to inform, inspire, teach, and pass on common lessons across generations (Gonzalez-Fuentes, Robertson & Davis, 2021). Stories are more than the form in which they are presented to the audience, be it a book, a movie, or even a song or a news report; they are universal ideas with the potential to transform the cultural landscape (Wolf, 1999). According to the late Barbara B. Stern, stories “are a cultural staple since they are universally engaged by all communities in the world” (Grayson, 1997, page 68). But stories are also cultural artifacts reflecting the context in which they are created and told (McAdams, 2013). As such, stories echo idiosyncratic understandings of life and society prevalent in the cultural contexts they are conceived and shared. Ultimately, culture provides the preferred narrative forms and arcs out of which people make meaning of their lives and experiences and come to terms with society (McAdams, 2008).

Thus, studying mass media consumption preferences at a time in which consumers’ cultural identities are crucially being defined translates into an exploration of how globalization’s standardizing and resistant forces are influencing the type of stories young adults choose to be exposed to. We aim at doing this in a series of studies of which this is the first. More particularly, the current study considers the following research question: How do young adults’ global and national identities combine to explain their consumption choices of foreign vs. domestic stories?

To examine this question, we designed an online survey to collect data among undergraduate college students in China, Japan, Mexico, Spain, and the United States. The choice of countries responds to differences in the spectrum of collectivistic-individualistic values as well as the distinct degrees of ethnic homogeneity in these cultures. The survey includes two scales derived from prior research and one adapted to fit the behavioral outcome under study, as well as demographic questions. For global identity we used Cleveland and Laroche’s (2007) acculturation to the global consumer culture (AGCC) scale (43 items). Cleveland et al. (2015) ethnic identity scale (EID) was used to measure national identity, (35 items). For our behavioral outcome, consumption choices of foreign vs. domestic stories, we adapted Parts & Vida’s (2011) foreign (vs. local) product purchasing behavior (FPPB) scale. Originally used for furniture, clothes, and alcohol
products, our adapted scale gauges participants’ choices of foreign (vs. domestic) stories using news outlets, movies, television shows, music, and books, as our product categories (10 items).

All items in the AGCC and EID scales are measured on a 7-point scale (1= “strongly disagree,” to 7= “strongly agree”). For our outcome variable, our adapted scale uses a 7-point scale (1= “I consume only domestic products in this product category,” to 7= “I consume only foreign products in this product category”). The survey was translated to Chinese, Japanese, and Spanish by an experienced native translator in each language using back-translation to adjust for consistency and language idiosyncrasies.

A total of 500 responses were collected for the samples in China and Japan combined, with slightly more responses originating from Japanese undergraduate students. Data collection for Mexico, Spain, and the United States is currently underway and will be completed by September. Our goal is to present preliminary results during the SMA annual conference in November and benefit from other attendees’ feedback.

References


Summary Brief
FASHION AND SUSTAINABILITY¹
Towards a Richer Understanding of Sustainable Consumption

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Indulgence with fashion has been indispensable in modern societies, as it is a crucial device for self-image and identity construction (Ertekin and Atik, 2020). With advanced technology and globalization of production, the fashion industry has skewed towards fast fashion, making the latest trends available to mass consumers at affordable prices. Scholars have raised concerns pointing to the challenges associated with climate change, diminishing natural resources, overusage of chemicals, increasing textile waste and pollution, water shortage, and the work conditions in the factories and sweatshops (e.g., Beard, 2008; Fletcher, 2008).

In China, there are approximately 26 million tons of textile waste generated each year from production, and another 10 tons of waste due to consumption (Ütebay Çelik, and Çay, 2020). Along with growing sustainability concerns worldwide, marketing research has been concerned about the environmental impact of textile production and consumption in China. For instance, research shows that in a collective culture, social norms can determine factors regarding buying sustainable goods. One recent study particularly emphasizes "face" in relation to sustainable consumption. Here, "face" is defined as an individual's public image. It reflects the individual's place in the social network and is considered an essential value in Confucian culture (Wei and Jung, 2017). Additional research also uncovers that U.S. consumers believe the brand is the primary criterion to evaluate sustainable goods, while Chinese consumers put more emphasis on functional value (Jung, Oh, and Kim, 2021).

Yet, research on sustainability among Chinese consumers is not well understood (Lee, Ha-Brookshire, and Chow, 2018). It remains unclear what primary factors encourage and/or prevent consumers from engaging in sustainable consumption. To this end, the goal of this study is to examine the determinants that influence sustainable behavior. To do so, we take a grounded theory approach. Qualitative interviews are conducted and analyzed. We then discuss the challenges and opportunities that marketing researchers and practitioners may encounter.

A total of 25 individuals between the ages of 24 and 35 participated in the study in 2020 in Shanghai, China. All are Chinese nationals. We used our professional network to identify individuals who reside in Shanghai who have interests in fashion. We did not adopt the snowball sampling method to find our informants due to the fear of reaching very similar participants. As a result, our informants have diverse backgrounds regarding their place of origin, occupations, and gender.

The study uncovers three primary themes: knowledge and learning, attitude and behavior, and sustainability credibility. It contributes to the literature by providing a rich analysis of consumers' views of sustainable consumption by providing why and how consumers engage or do not engage in sustainable behavior. For instance, we found lacking knowledge is a primary reason to hinder sustainable consumption.

In essence, knowledge is an essential construct in understanding consumer behavior (Brucks, 1985) and is considered a driver for consumers to engage in domain-specific behavior. For instance, Wansink, Westgren, and Cheney (2005) found consumers with attribute-related and consequence-related knowledge were much more likely to consume soy than those who do not possess this knowledge. In this study, we found that consumers lack specific knowledge of sustainability. Similar to "functional food" (diet supplements) research (e.g., Sääksjärvi, Holmlund, and Tanskanen, 2009), a low degree of familiarity poses a distinct market challenge. This finding also indicates that persuading consumers to engage in eco-friendly actions is to present information regarding desired and undesired behavior and their consequences (McKenzie-Mohr, 2000). Consumers must have knowledge of the norm, be aware of, and understand, the prompt or feedback, and comprehend information related to self-values, self-benefit, etc.

¹ I would like to thank MSC, https://www.msc-world.cn/ for providing the data for this research.
Our study also reveals the factors that contribute to the gap of intent and purchase of fashion items. Style and function are two primary reasons for engaging in sustainable behavior. To this end, our study contributes to sustainable fashion literature by extending the focus on style orientation to the functional value of clothing. Additionally, we find that consumers seek alternative ways to engage in sustainable behavior (e.g., buying durable clothing, buying used products, favor retailers that use less packaging material).

We also uncover the various entities that may contribute to sustainable consumption, such as consumers, designers, factories, retailers, third logistic parties, recycling organizations, mass/social media, and the regulative system. This finding broadens the sustainable fashion system proposed by Ertekin and Atik (2020), which emphasizes logistics and recycling. Our results show that consumers' role is to reduce usage, and designers may focus on durability. Factories are responsible for selecting recyclable material and engaging in ethical production. Third-party logistic companies and retailers shall use less packaging material and provide more fuel-efficient shipping methods. Recycling/sustainable organizations need to promote awareness and educate consumers. That said, mass media can be a conduit to promote awareness and facilitate learning.

Finally, the finding indicates that the regulative system in sustainable fashion is lacking. That said, it may be necessary for policymakers to design and reinforce regulations such as transparent eco-labeling. As research indicated in the past, the cooperation of governments, public policymakers, and trade organizations is also critical for the fashion system to be sustainable (Boström and Micheletti, 2016; Gupta et al., 2019).

References


SESSION 5D: BRANDING AS A TOOL TO IMPROVE BUSINESS PERFORMANCE

CHAIR

Monika Rawal
Summary Brief

The Role of Brand Transparency and Brand Awareness in Personalization of Ads

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Several companies are investing in personalization of ads. However, research has shown that consumers find these ads both useful and privacy-invasive. Hence, the current research examines the relationship between personalization of ads and consumers’ privacy concerns leading to attitude towards the ad. This research also investigates the roles of brand transparency and brand awareness as moderators.

Introduction

Online behavioral advertising is a kind of advertising which tracks individual online behavior to deliver advertising tailored to his or her interests (Boerman et al., 2017). Furthermore, through the access of consumer data on specific wants, needs and preferences, companies can efficiently and accurately tailor promotional messages and direct these toward individual consumers (Yu & Cude, 2009; Tucker, 2014), which is a marketing practice called personalization of advertisement (Boerman et al., 2017). According to Forbes (2020), 89% of digital businesses and 79% of retailers are investing in personalization. Even though such huge investments being made in personalization of ads, research conducted by Yu and Cude (2009) found that participants find behavioral advertising both useful and privacy-invasive. According to Turow et al. (2009), if given a choice, 68% of Americans “definitely would not” and 19% “probably would not” allow advertisers to track them online even if their online activities would remain anonymous. McDonald and Cranor (2009) found that only 20% of their respondents prefer targeted ads to random ads, and 64% find the idea of targeted ads invasive. These findings set the tone for the current study which will examine the affect personalized ads on privacy concerns and attitude towards such ads.

Past research has shown that awareness of companies’ data collection practices among consumers as well as awareness of whether their information is used for other purposes beyond the original transaction have shown to be the primary influences on the degree of privacy concerns consumers possess (Sheehan & Hoy, 2000; Gurung & Raja, 2016). A study reported that 86% of Americans say transparency from businesses is more important than ever before (Sprout, 2018). Such findings give a sense that brand transparency may even have an impact on the level of privacy concerns developed due to personalization of ads. Yoo and Jeong (2014) defined brand transparency as consumers’ perceived levels of a brand’s strategic communication effort to make information available — whether positive or negative in nature — for the purpose of enhancing their understanding and making a brand accountable for marketing practices. The current discussion also indicates that improving transparency will provide less privacy concerns with consumers and vice versa (Rao, Schaub, & Sadeh, 2015).

It is also observed that there is a steady shift of attitudes among consumers towards a more accepting outlook on companies’ collection and use of their personal data (Ridley-Siegert, 2015) and this is happening because there is increased brand awareness and how why personal consumer data is collected by companies. Thus, the current research will study the moderating role of brand awareness on the relationship between privacy concerns and attitude towards advertisements.

Literature Review

One of the supporting theories of this research is rational choice theory. The rational choice theory, also known as choice theory or rational action theory, is a theory for understanding and often modelling social and economic as well as individual behavior (Ogu, 2013). Elster (1989) captures the essence of rational choice theory by stating: “when faced with several courses of action, people usually do what they believe is likely to have the best overall outcome”. In online behavior context, as per this theory, users engage in a privacy calculus and weigh the negative consequences (such as information disclosure) against perceived benefits (such as receiving personalized information) to find the best possible outcome that fits their self-interest (Dinev & Hart: 2006). Ultimately, individual’s behavior is determined by the privacy trade-off outcomes. Rational choice theory helps to pinpoint why people, groups and society as a whole move toward certain choices, based on specific costs and rewards. The same applies to the online behavior contexts as well. When a personalized ad is shown to the consumers, their privacy concern enhances due to them perceiving the company to have encroached in their personal space (Aguirre et al., 2016).
Another theory that supports this research is the social contract theory. When applied to information privacy, social contract theory suggests that a firm’s collection of personally identifiable data is perceived to be fair only when the consumer is granted control over the information and the consumer is informed about the firm’s intended use of the information (Agarwal, Malhotra, & Kim, 2004). When people trust an online business to handle their personal information safely, and thus perceive the social contract as more reliable (i.e., have more confidence in the implied contract), they are more likely to share their personal data with online businesses (Fogel & Nehmad, 2009). However, when people are concerned and perceive the social contract as less reliable, they might decide to safeguard their privacy by adapting their behavior, for instance, by not sharing their personal data with online businesses (Kruikemeier, Boerman, & Bol, 2020).

H1: Personalization of ads relates positively with privacy concerns. H2: Privacy concerns relates negatively with attitude toward the ad. H3: Brand transparency moderates the relationship between personalization of ads and privacy concerns, such that with high (low) brand transparency, personalization of the ads leads to low (high) privacy concerns. H4: Brand awareness moderates the relationship between privacy concerns and the attitude toward the ad, such that high (low) brand awareness, privacy concerns lead to high (low) attitude toward the ad.

**Proposed Methodology**

A 2 (Personalization of Ad: Yes vs. No) X 2 (Transparency of Algorithm: High vs. Low) X 2 (Brand Awareness: High vs. Low) experimental design will be used to conduct this study. Privacy concerns will be measured using scale items from Tan et al. (2012) and attitude toward ad will be measured using scale items from Muehling and McCann (1993).

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Summary Brief
You Don't Belong: Exploring Luxury Branding Strategy

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Luxury branding strategies create impressions of exclusivity which is transmitted into the brand’s products and retail spaces. Exclusivity is a necessary component to create consumer desire despite limitations of accessibility, time, effort, and pricing. A new population of aspirational shoppers, known as Chandlers, highly value exclusive brands as they increase perceptions of social status. This study will examine the impact of loud vs. discrete luxury branding on perceptions of brand status and browsing intentions, and the moderating impact of the Chandler effect.

Introduction
Luxury branding strategies often aim to create a sense of exclusivity to maintain brand prestige and allure (Radon, 2012). The desire to obtain exclusive products makes luxury brands especially appealing to aspirational shoppers (Ochakovskaya, 2017). Some luxury brands cater to aspirational shoppers to increase profitability at the risk of devaluing the brand, while others create barriers. This suggests two strategies in dealing with aspirational shoppers – inclusion or exclusion. Previous research described two types of luxury brands, loud and discrete (Kauppinen-Räisänen et al., 2018). Loud luxury brands use prominent branding and would be expected to use an inclusion strategy with aspirational shoppers, while discrete luxury brands use inconspicuous branding and would be expected to use an exclusion strategy. This study focuses on the retail environment specifically, where it would be expected that discrete luxury brands are using retail design to reduce browsing intentions in aspirational shoppers.

Background
Luxury branded products are considered non-essential and used to express consumers’ personalities and social rank (Lipovetsky and Roux, 2003). High prestige luxury items can now be made available to the masses at more reasonable prices (Seo & Buchanan-Oliver, 2015). Although this may increase profits in the short term, a market shift occurs when luxury brands are no longer exclusive or rare (Kapferer & Laurent, 2016). Therefore, luxury brands must find a careful balance between accessibility and exclusivity to remain profitable and relevant in the market. To ensure that luxury brands are perceived as exclusive, they must design their store atmospherics to build up store image and prestige (Kim et al., 2016). Although this can sometimes result in consumers feeling uncomfortable, unworthy, or unwanted, these perceived feelings dignify the "sanctity" of the retail space (Lunardo & Mouangue, 2019). These differences between loud and discrete luxury brands carry over to the retail environments, where branding appears much more prominently in the store design of loud luxury brands.

An aspirational consumer is anyone who aspires to purchase a product or service but cannot for some reason (Gupta & Srivastav, 2015). Recently, a specific type of aspirational shopper has been identified in the literature - Chandlers. These individuals save up to purchase luxury goods and experiences to elevate their social standing (Ochakovskaya, 2017). They tend to be younger and are working toward their desired professional status/rank (Wintermeier, 2021), with increasing numbers (Ko et al., 2016). It is valuable to understand how aspirational shoppers perceive loud and discrete luxury brands, and whether they feel comfortable shopping in their retail spaces.

Hypotheses Development
Targeting Chandlers, luxury brands may lower perceptions of prestige, which is the very characteristic that attracts these shoppers. Therefore, marketers can either actively try to exclude aspirational shoppers from their stores or find a way to include them without eroding their brand exclusivity. The exclusion approach can be appealing because luxury companies put themselves at risk when they expand too far into the general market, while brands that choose a more inclusionary approach tend to strive for profitability as this customer segment is steadily growing (Ko et al., 2016). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: Consumers will have significantly higher (lower) perceptions of brand status for discrete (loud) luxury brands.
H2: Consumers will have significantly higher (lower) intentions to browse for Loud (Discrete) luxury brands.
H3: These relationships are significantly higher for Chandlers (vs. Traditional luxury shoppers)
Proposed Methods

A between-subjects experimental design will be used to test the hypotheses. A Qualtrics panel survey will be administered to a random sample group who will be exposed to images representing either a loud or discrete luxury brand, and then asked to answer questions regarding perceptions of exclusivity and intentions to browse (using established scales). In addition, items used to classify aspirational shoppers and collect subject demographic profile will be included. An expert panel will help determine the appropriate images to best represent loud and discrete luxury brands. For this study, the focus will be on Chandler aspirational shoppers, as defined by Ochakovskaya (2017). These are young, upwardly mobile aspirational shoppers who are not yet at the final purchase stage primarily due to inadequate discretionary income.

Conclusion

Based on the literature, it is expected that loud luxury brands will employ an inclusionary strategy with aspirational shoppers – thus leading to lower expectations of exclusivity and higher intentions to browse. This study will extend the literature by considering the impact of loud vs. discrete branding strategies on Chandlers’ perceptions of exclusivity and browsing intentions.

References


SESSION 5E PANEL: MAKING THE LEAP FROM FACULTY TO ADMINISTRATION

CHAIR

Terence Holmes, Murray State University, USA
Stephen Koernig, DePaul University, USA
SESSION 5F: ADVENTURESOMENESS LAND: TECHNOLOGY, TOURISM, TECHNOLOGY

CHAIR

Brad Carlson
Summary Brief
The Role of Venturesomeness in Destination Consumer-Based Brand Equity

Oliver Cruz-Milan, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi, USA

This research examines a tourism destination consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) model by evaluating the role of Plog’s venturesomeness, a psychographic construct drawn from the travel and tourism literature for this specific context. The findings provide general support to the influence of destination CBBE dimensions on tourists’ return intention with the significant moderation effects of Plog’s venturesomeness. The influence of venturesomeness on the destination return intention is corroborated through its influence on tourist satisfaction. However, the study results suggest that the use of standardized, generic scales to measure overall CBBE may be problematic to capture the influence of venturesomeness.

Introduction
According to Keller’s (1993) seminal article in the Journal of Marketing, consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) represents an important firm asset that can positively influence consumer’s decision-making process, attitudes, and preference for a brand (Solomon, 2015). Research on CBBE can be found in the marketing literature studying diverse product categories, including tourism destinations.

Tourism destinations are complex offerings that differ from other branded products in their high level of complexity, with multiple enterprises marketing simultaneously to consumers, and lack of branding control under a single firm (Pike, 2012; Ritchie and Crouch, 2011). Thus, from a theoretical and practical standpoint, it is critical to extend the examination on the applicability of CBBE to tourism destinations in relation to the extant theory in the tourism and hospitality literature. One of the most well-known, seminal models in the tourism and hospitality fields is the theoretical framework developed by Plog (1974). According to Plog’s theory, venturesomeness is defined as a two-dimensional psychographic concept (allocentrism-psychocentrism) that predicts travel-related preferences, based on personality traits and other characteristics of people.

Therefore, this study proposes to integrate Plog’s venturesomeness in a broader CBBE model, using a coastal tourism destination as a research context. The purpose is to assess the theoretical relevance and nomological validity of CBBE dimensions in relation to a context-specific theoretical framework drawn from the tourism literature.

Background
Keller (2013) laid out a model with different dimensions to illustrate ascending building blocks that enable the creation of CBBE. One of such dimensions is constituted by the perceived image (e.g., beliefs about the features and characteristics of a brand), which in turn support consumers’ evaluative responses manifested in judgements and evaluations (e.g., satisfaction). These judgements then generate brand resonance at the highest level, which is reflected in customer-brand relationships (e.g., loyalty, attachment).

In tourism destination settings, such factors can be operationalized as the attributes (to convey the features and characteristics of the destination) perceived by visitors, and also as the level of satisfaction after tourists experienced the destination in the past. Satisfaction leads to the formation of CBBE as an overall outcome, which can serve as a predictor of intentions to return in the future as an indicator of attitudinal loyalty. Therefore, based on the premises of Keller’s (2013) model and previous research findings, it is hypothesized that the perceived image of natural environment and services/amenities of destinations will have positive effect on satisfaction, which in turn will have a positive impact on CBBE and revisit intentions, while CBBE will positively influence revisit intentions.

Further, according to Kerlinger and Lee (2000), proposing and testing theoretical frameworks requires assessing their relationship with other constructs, measures, or variables that are not part of the model, but that are conceptually relevant to the phenomenon or context under study. Thus, in line with guidelines in marketing theory development (Bagozzi, 1984; Hunt, 2010) to assess the nomological validity of the tourism destination CBBE model, this study employs venturesomeness, a psychographic construct introduced by Plog (1974) as a reference construct to examine the way in which it articulates with CBBE dimensions to predict revisit intentions. In this regard, it is hypothesized that venturesomeness will have an impact on tourists’ intention to return (depending on whether the destination setting is allocentric or psychocentric), while moderating the predictive effects of destination image, satisfaction, and CBBE.
Key Findings

By analyzing a sample of consumers who had previously visited a mid-sized tourism destination in the coast of Texas, research findings provide general support to the impact of destination consumer-based brand equity dimensions on tourists’ return intention with significant moderation effects of Plog’s venturesomeness. However, it was found that the explanatory effect of tourists’ satisfaction on their intention to return is greater than the effect of consumer-based brand equity measured as generic, unidimensional construct. The proposed model yields over 60% of the variance explained on the dependent variable. The incorporation of psychographic traits tailored to study tourism behavior was helpful to assess the nomological validity of consumer-based brand equity in the particular context of tourism destinations.

References


Special Session
A Typology of the #DisTwitter Community

Will Henderson, Clemson University, USA

The #DisTwitter Community provides a digital space where users can discuss theme park concepts and events. Users are able to find a connection with others through the common bond of Disney Parks. Posts in the community provide different levels of perceived usefulness of both the individual posting and the users in the community. The Users with Influence (high number of followers / low #DisTwitter engagement) provide usefulness of celebrity endorsements of park concepts. The Gurus (high number of followers / high #DisTwitter engagement) disseminate information, along with providing expert commentary around park history and park events. Once Upon a Timers (low number of followers / low #DisTwitter engagement) ask questions as infrequent visitors, while the #DisTwitter Family (low amount of followers / high #DisTwitter engagement) offers a community for park visitors. Overall, each segment in the typology provides a unique level of influence and usefulness to those that follow each account.

#DisTwitter Community
The communal bond of Disney Parks discussion between Twitter users creates a cultural connection and deep engagement (Bentley et al., 2021), supporting the Yalcin (2020) social media marketing model of consumers exchanging useful park information with one another. The #DisTwitter community includes global conversations discussing the parks and included concepts. With the yearly increase of park visitors (Smith, 2020), individuals will find the perceived usefulness of commentary (Davis, 1986) in the community resulting in a high volume of likes and comments, referred to as deep engagement. Deep engagement founded in common interest and geographic cultural connections between users and followers (Bently et al., 2021) serves as perceived usefulness and a positive attitude toward using Twitter (Davis, 1986) for potential park visitors seeking out information.

Technology Acceptance Model
The application of the technology acceptance model (TAM) provides a framework of behavioral intention of the ease of use and usefulness of #DisTwitter. As the model is applied, the users exposed to the useful content determine the behavioral intentions of engagement, leading to the actual system use of the Twitter community platform (Venkatesh & Davis, 1996)

Typology
The typology (Table 1) will utilize the measurement of social media engagement from #DisTwitter users (x-axis) and the volume of followers (y-axis). Engagement is defined as interaction mentioning any Disney Park properties. Interaction includes content about products, experiences, attractions, or general informational posts mentioning the company. Followers are classified as the quantitative measure of social media followers.

Table 1: Typology of #DisTwitter
Users with Influence (High Number of Followers & Low #DisTwitter Engagement)

Users with influence are categorized by their high social media following, due to their celebrity or influencer status. Though they may have high engagement because of their popularity, there is little engagement from the #DisTwitter Community. This segment includes high influential users (e.g. The Rock) that may discuss their Disney Trip through tweets.

The Gurus (High Number of Followers & High #DisTwitter Engagement)

The Gurus influence a large following through their position or title in the community. These users are primarily micro-bloggers or Imagineers. For example, retired Imagineer of 42 years (Ferguson, 2020), Tom K. Morris (@TomKMorris), shares park commentary with his 12.9k followers. Micro-blog WDW News Today (@WDWNT) provides news articles around construction updates and events at the parks to their 202.9k followers. The Gurus' lived experience and professional opinions offer useful knowledge for community members in the TAM Model.

Once Upon a Timers (Low Number of Followers & Low #DisTwitter Engagement)

This segment is classified as users who may speak about their Disney Trip, but do not regularly post about Disney Parks. While there is low engagement, the public nature of the platform provides useful information that can be searched on Twitter.

The #DisTwitter Family (Low Number of Followers & High #DisTwitter Engagement)

The most common audience segment is the #DisTwitter Family that includes cast members (e.g., @countrybearsam) and fandom accounts (e.g., @rankingthemouse). In some cases, accounts have created an alias (e.g., @SuperWeenieHtJr) to interact with others in the community (Lanier & Fowler, 2013). The perceived usefulness in this segment could provide a community of make-believe characters (Lantz, 2019; Lanier & Fowler, 2013) or formed friendships with other Disney fans, based on cultural bonds (Bently et al., 2021).

Application

Through the typology, Disney Parks could utilize new marketing tactics toward certain quadrants. By understanding user influence and the perceived usefulness of each segment, researchers could predict social media exposure of park announcements and other topical interests in the community. Each quadrant has a different influence and usefulness sought from users. For example, a new ride feature statement could be found useful in one segment as compared to another. Upon releasing a recent park announcement or cultural event, the typology could provide a detailed analysis of the audience members discussing various topics. While The Gurus may not discuss events like Black Lives Matter, The #DisTwitter Family provides commentary through a unique perspective, such as the lack of African American representation at a theme park convention (e.g. ParksCon21). The understanding of topical issues in each segment could direct social initiatives from the Walt Disney Company.

References


SESSION 5G: DIVERSITY STRATEGIES, PERCEPTIONS, & AUDIENCES IN MARKETING

CHAIR

Ania Izabela Rynarzewska
Summary Brief

Discrimination among Immigrant Customers During the Service Experiences and Customer Well-being

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Gallayanee Yaoyuneyong, University of Southern Mississippi, USA
Mehmet Okan, Artvin Coruh University, Turkey

The US has more immigrants than any other country in the world. Based on Department of Homeland Security Statistics, as of 2019, almost 45 million people living in the US were born in another country (Batalova et al., 2021). Globally, immigration trends increased (2.8% in 2000 and 3.5% in 2019) (UN News, 2019). With this increasing number of immigrants worldwide, the servicescapes where both locals and immigrants are served are changing. Research suggests the probability of being discriminated against in a service setting is approximately 1%-5% (Siegelman, 1998). This inevitable aspect of everyday life for immigrant customers in the US influences the effectiveness of the service delivery and the attitudes of immigrant customers towards the services. When public services are considered, this becomes especially important since everyone pays the budget allocated to these services. It is, therefore, more than ever essential to understand the immigrant customers’ perceptions in service settings.

Introduction

In this research, we aim to investigate the effects of the feelings of immigrant customers emerging from their interactions with local customers in service settings. Adopting the immigrant customer perspective will shed light on the dynamics of the current service environments and provide actionable strategies to service managers to create a better service environment for all customers. From a customer well-being perspective, these interactions, when positive, contribute to social connectedness and thus reinforce the sense of belonging and happiness (Uysal et al., 2016). When consumers have negative interactions in the service environments, not only their attitudes towards the service will be negatively influenced, but also their well-being will suffer. We propose that immigrant customers' perceptions of discrimination and xenophobia will lead to negative emotions in the service environment and lead to worsened outcomes for both the immigrant customer and the service provider. From the service provider's perspective, it is vital to understand if the emotional responses created by the interactions have an enduring effect on the customer's attitude towards the service provider.

The Immigrant Customer Perspective: Perceptions of Discrimination, Emotions, and Customer Well-being

According to Putnam (2007), due to immigration, modern societies will be more ethnically diverse. However, as diversity increases, xenophobia also increases (Yakushko 2009). There is extant evidence that immigrant customers have felt uneasy, threatened, or even scared in many service settings. Defined as the fear and hatred of foreigners (Bordeau 2009, p. 4), xenophobia is connected to a sense of threat. When a consumer experiences a discriminatory act in the presence of xenophobia, the emotional responses created will be much stronger due to the perceptions of insecurity (Kruger and Osman 2010). Previous research has repeatedly shown that perceptions of discrimination are negatively associated with well-being (i.e., Clark et al., 1999; Klonoff et al., 2000). According to Clark et al. (1999), stressors such as anger can amplify psychological responses and lead to adverse outcomes. Thus, we propose that perceptions of discrimination lead to negative emotions, leading to adverse effects such as negative attitudes towards the service provider, lower patronage intentions, and lower customer well-being. Moreover, Schmitt and colleagues (2003) suggest that outcomes of perceived discrimination depend on pervasiveness. Based on the social identity perspective, pervasive discrimination communicates a devaluation of one's social identity. Thus, in cases where the likelihood of discriminatory acts is high, the effects of emotional responses would be longer-lasting and posing a more substantial impact on the outcomes.

Proposed Study

To better understand the above research model, a cross-sectional quantitative study built on Critical Incident Technique (CIT) will be conducted. Critical incidents have been used to study various service-related issues in the literature (e.g., Gremler 2004, Keaveney 1995, Chung-Herrera et al., 2010, etc.). The pretest for the study will be conducted among Turkish immigrants over the summer of 2021. Data for the study will be collected in three different countries, and the survey will be in various languages to account for cultural differences. As a cultural difference, research has shown collectivism to be related to greater perceived difficulty in communicating with strangers (Gudykunst et al., 1987) and more intimate social relationships (Wheeler et al., 1989). Additionally, another cultural difference concept, uncertainty avoidance, may have a bearing on the results of our research. As defined by Hofstede Insights (2021), uncertainty avoidance refers to the degree to which tradition and hierarchy are relied on to prevent
discomfort about ambiguity, change, or the future. This factor may change the way immigrants feel about their new surrounding environment and culture and about how locals treat them. Therefore, it is essential to compare the US with countries that are higher in collectivism and uncertainty avoidance.

The first part of data collection will be in the US. The US is one of the lowest countries in collectivism and is low on uncertainty avoidance. The US also has the highest immigrant population in the world. The survey will be in English, Spanish (As of 2019, 24% of all immigrants in the US come from Mexico), and Tradition Chinese Characters, since Cantonese people are the second-largest group of immigrants in the US comes from China. To account for differences in collectivism and uncertainty avoidance, the second country we plan to collect data from is Germany. Germany is moderate in collectivism and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede Insights 2021) and has the highest immigrant population in the EU. In Germany, there are two major immigrant populations one is Turkish, and the other is Syrian. Thus, the surveys will be in Turkish and in Arabic. Finally, Turkey is the third country data will be collected from. Turkey is high on collectivism and uncertainty avoidance, compared to both Germany and the US, and has the highest number of refugees – 3.6 million UN Refugee Agency and the survey there will be in Arabic. Respondents will be asked to describe a situation in detail where they came across a discriminatory act by local customers in a service setting. The questions about the critical incident are followed by perceptions of discrimination, perceived xenophobia, perceived diversity of the location, likelihood of occurrence of such an event again, emotions (anger, discomfort, stress, anxiety, fear, and sadness), attitudes towards the service provider, repatronage intentions and well-being. Moreover, to control for command of the local language, physical similarity with the locals, and length of residence in the country, additional questions will be asked before demographics (gender, age, marital status, family size, income level, etc.).

Conclusion
Research has found out that perceiving other cultures, whether it be through hearing an accent (Tombs and Rao Hill 2014) or seeing others (Chung-Herrera et al., 2010), triggers categorization and creates a biasing effect on people's perception of others (Tajfel 1978). Additionally, Weiss and Cropanzo's (1996) Affective Events Theory suggests that affect-driven responses happen almost immediately after the event occurs, which explains the reactions of local customers to immigrant other customers. However, these responses create stress and other negative outcomes for the immigrant customer which influences the service encounter.

Selected References


Summary Brief

Brand Inclusivity: The New Sustainability?

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A handful of brands have taken steps towards portraying inclusivity in their advertisements. Indeed, forward-thinking brands such as Tommy Hilfiger have started designing inclusivity-focused products for consumers with disabilities, with ads featuring disabled models. Target has featured a bright smiling boy with Down’s syndrome in their kid’s clothes section. Likewise, fashion magazines such as Vogue and Harper’s Bazaar, amongst others, recently featured disabled models on their cover on a wheelchair or with artificial limbs and have won worldwide accolades for the same. Further, brands like L’Oréal Paris have chosen to make Aimee Mullins, a fashion model with both her legs amputated, as their brand ambassador. There are different aspects of an inclusive brand portrayal: one that embodies all body types, disabilities, sexual orientations, and races; however, our research focuses on one area, in particular, inclusive brand portrayal with disabled models.

Introduction

Marketers have been recognized as active agents of change by creating depictions that promote inclusivity and engagement, which is enlightening for some and healing for others (Demangeot et al., 2019). This approach has not been utilized to its full potential (Kipnis et al., 2021) and can potentially result in overall societal well-being (Demangeot et al., 2019; Kipnis et al., 2021). Indeed, marketplace diversity and inclusion have been recognized as an essential topic for scholarly research which aids “public and societal interests” (Ozanne et al., 2017). It has been recognized that much has to be done to make vulnerable consumers feel more included in retail environments (Edwards, Rosenbaum, Brosdahl, & Hughes, 2018). This research explores how marketers’ portrayal of an inclusive brand can work to their advantage. Specifically, we are exploring a previously unexplored domain of the positive consequences of brands using disabled models.

Although brand inclusivity has attracted some attention, much is still unknown. The current research addresses this gap by exploring when using disabled brand models would lead to higher brand evaluation and what marketing variables would moderate the effect. Thus, this research will contribute to consumer diversity and inclusion research streams. The findings will help brands to be more open to including diverse models that do not exactly fit “the ideal” and fighting the prevailing prejudice towards disabled people in the society. Representing them in their advertisements and online brand communications can be an effective way of fighting the stigma surrounding this issue. 22 million adults in the USA constitute the working age disabled population (Crowl, 2019) and inclusive advertising can be a solution to counter negative responses by allowing potential consumers to view the brand in a more relatable context. Further, inclusive ads are considered more progressive and are found to be 25% more effective (Bump, 2020).

Background

“Ableism” is defined as the unconscious belief that the “able-bodied” is ideal (Baker & Kaufman-Scarborough, 2001). Global media is responsible for normalizing this able-bodied ideal (Dias de Faria & Moreira Casotti, 2019). Although being overweight is also perceived as a disability (Harju & Huovinen, 2015), we rely on the conventional definition of disability that states “a physical or mental condition that can potentially limit a person’s movement, senses or activities.” Previous research has also recognized the role marketers can play to ensure the disabled consumers feel accepted by getting informed about the rights of the disabled themselves, providing training to frontline employees, and having effective communication strategies in different forms (Baker & Kaufman-Scarborough, 2001).

Able-bodied marketers do not fully comprehend the challenges faced by the disabled and many of such situations may be more complex for them to understand (Kaufman-Scarborough, 2001). Disabled consumers have reported facing discriminatory behavior (Walsh, 2009), exclusion (Beudaert, Gorge, & Herbert, 2017), and engage in behaviors that signal their normalcy in the marketplace (Dubost, 2018; Mirabito et al., 2016; Newheiser & Barreto, 2014). We posit that when brands use disabled models, they might effectively reduce this communication barrier.

Key Findings:

We find that ads including a disabled model do lead to increased attitude towards the brand and the ad and the effect is driven by perceived inclusivity. Our future studies will explore other favorable brand outcomes such as consumer engagement on social, purchase likelihood, etc. and boundary conditions for these proposed main effects.
References


Summary Brief

Toward an Understanding of the Diversity Ecosystem and Its Effects on Internal Marketing

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What makes for a successful diversity campaign? When corporate and governmental leaders set diversity goals, they often rely on their internal marketing teams to operationalize them. Internal Marketing’s attempts to influence diversity outcomes and employee satisfaction may differ due to the effects of the organization’s Diversity Ecosystem. The Diversity Ecosystem is a novel construct that involves an employee’s interpretation of organizational openness, justice, need for diversity, etc. The components of a Diversity Ecosystem are explored and explained with linkages to existing academic research. The Diversity Ecosystems potential effects on Internal Marketing’s efforts to operationalize diversity goals are discussed. An organization’s Diversity Ecosystem may have a moderating effect on the relationship between stated corporate goals of diversity and internal marketing efforts. The novel conceptualization of the Diversity Ecosystem may help explain why some diversity efforts succeed and others fail, and some have moderate success. Several tested scales (questions) are combined and a method of testing the diversity ecosystem is proposed.

Introduction

Corporate and governmental leaders often profess diversity goals in public settings, and then they rely on internal marketing efforts to operationalize these goals. Why these stated goals may generate positive publicity, this research asks, what organizational characteristics help or hinder internal marketing efforts? The concept of a Diversity Ecosystem will be introduced and illuminated in this research. A Diversity Ecosystem is a novel academic construct that combines the perceptions of an employee’s view of an organization’s openness, justice, need for diversity, psychological safety and voice. (Susskind et al 1998; Colquitt 2001; Butner et al 2012; Edmondson 1999; Maynes and Podsakoff 2014) Organizational justice has four dimensions, including procedural, distributive, interpersonal and informational. (Colquitt 2001) A key objective of this research is to probe the contours of this new construct of a Diversity Ecosystem: What are its elements? To what extent does a Diversity Ecosystem moderate the relationship between stated Corporate Commitments to Diversity and Internal Marketing’s efforts toward Diversity?

Beyond the illumination of a Diversity Ecosystem, this research will study to what extent a Diversity Ecosystem affects internal marketing efforts to operationalize diversity goals.

Overall Research Model
Diversity Ecosystem’s Moderating Effect on Relationship between Corporate Commitment and Internal Marketing

Diversity Ecosystem:

The concept of a Diversity Ecosystem is a novel and unique construct to the academic literature and the primary contributions of this research. The concept builds on the ecosystem concept of sales discussed in 2018 by Hartmann, Wieland and Vargo. That article took the duality framework of a sales relationship and transformed it into an enmeshed, ecosystem concept which seemed closer to the reality of the modern sales process. Using the foundation of Vargo and Lusch’s (2004, 2016) Service-Dominant Logic perspective, Hartmann, Wieland and Vargo reframe the sales process as one that its complex and interwoven in an ecosystem, “a framework that points to discursive and dialogical interactions among broad sets of actors.” (2018: 2)

The ecosystem is built upon narrative structures, as in the story’s organizations tell about themselves and how they evolve over time. “[c]ommon narrative infrastructures can craft coherence among social actors and mobilize support for particular practices (Araujo and Easton 2012). That is, only combined narrative infrastructures can lead to the shaping of institutional arrangements.” (2018:10) The Sales Ecosystem approach moves beyond the two-person traditional sales approach by appreciating the nested, overlapping institutional arrangements inherent in the sales environment (by acknowledging the ecosystem that always existed). The ecosystem describes the “nested and overlapping institutional arrangements, as well as institutional frictions that can be found among and within many groups of actors” such as organizations, professional networks, companies and families. It understands and accommodates this broad set of actors, as well as the various and layered communication between them. The ecosystem accounts for the alignment of institutional arrangement of actors and exchange and value co-creation between dynamic sets and subsets of actors, as well as the fact that the actors are receiving and applying knowledge in order to form mutually beneficial relationships. Yet due to the nested, overlapping approach of the institutions involved, there is a limit to the ability of the selling actors to change the thinking and actions of the buying actors. (2018:12) The dyadic perspective common in other sales literature is not replaced by the ecosystem approach, but rather different dyads are recognized and enmeshed in a complex, coherent structure of an ecosystem that allows seemingly disparate relationships to coexist for mutual benefit. (2018:12)

In the same manner as Hartmann, Wieland and Vargo move from the dyadic perspective of sales to the enmeshed, complex, co-creation of the sales ecosystem, so may a Diversity Ecosystem have a moderating effect on the strength of Diversity Goals through the process of Internal Marketing. The main research question here is the effect of the Diversity Ecosystem on the process of moving from stated Diversity Goals through Internal Marketing and Job Involvement to the outcome variables of Diversity Outcomes and Employee Satisfaction (as a stand-in for productivity). The goal of this
research is to begin understanding the Diversity Ecosystem and its effects on Diversity Outcomes through Internal Marketing.

Organizational change exists in a complex, multi-layered, inter-connected world. Corporate commitments to diversity spring from this fertile ground. They are conceived in this ecosystem, and the commitments must flourish or flounder in this ecosystem. And yet, the academic literature did not have a concept of the diversity ecosystem -- what it would take to make these commitments have a higher chance at succeeding, versus what it would take to discourage these commitments. Often, the chance of success of diversity efforts remains shrouded in mystery to well-intentioned corporate leaders, as well as purchasing managers.

When crafting the concept of the Diversity Ecosystem, the researcher began by conducting qualitative interviews with several diversity officers and procurement officers in local governments, corporations and non-profits. Combined with a thorough review of the literature, the research worked with the dissertation committee to move forward on the development of this new construct. The researcher then combined several existing scales, including Openness, Organizational Justice (Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice, Interpersonal Justice and Informational Justice), Need for Diversity, and Voice. Each of these scales was adapted on the dimension of how an individual within the organization perceives the organization, and each of them was adapted to be measured on a 11-point Likert scale. The construct scale design was monitored by members of the dissertation research committee, and it was formulated over several weeks and rounds of edits. A pilot sample was gathered at the end of the September, and preliminary results were promising. The researcher plans to gather full data later this month.

Colquitt (2001) discusses the different foundations of the concept of organizational justice, and he validates a four-factor model of measuring it that builds on and expands upon previous academic research. He tested the construct validity of the measure in two intentionally different contexts: a university setting and a field setting of employees in an automotive parts manufacturing facility. He discusses approaching the concept of fairness as an indirect measure, and asking questions from a procedural, distributive, interpersonal and informational standpoint of the respondents.

The concept of Procedural Justice was first explored and tested in legal settings, where both the courtroom process and the verdict were studied. Later, researchers applied it to nonlegal settings and based on tests for consistency, bias suppression, accuracy of information, correctability, representation and ethicality. Using this, procedural justice was later applied as a group-value, rather than an individual interest. Distributive justice refers to the “allocation of an outcome being consistent with the goals” (2001:389). It tests the extent to which an individual feels his or her outcome is related to his or her contribution. Interactional justice captures the connection an individual feels with his or her supervisor or other leaders in the organization, and it is measured on justification, truthfulness, respect and propriety, with each of these four measures on a continuum between explanations and sensitivity. (2001:390) Because the explanations and sensitivity metrics of Interactional Justice have been shown to have independent effects, Colquitt tests a fourth factor in informational justice, how the explanations are given to employees by the managers or organizations and how this is perceived.

This scale, which has been tested and validated in both Colquitt’s 2001 studies and the intervening decades, was a particularly clear way of asking survey participants about their perceptions of organizational justice. The four factors in Colquitt’s cosmos allow for a clearer way to approach organizational justice than had previously been explained. These four factors of procedural, distributive, interactional and informational are distinct from each other under Colquitt’s system, while their high correlation had caused a blurring prior to his tests. The concept of organizational justice helps shed light on an employee’s perception of the organizational process of diversity changes proposed by management. It was a main artery to the heart of the diversity ecosystem concept.

References


Summary Brief

Pro equality behaviors in marketing, anti-racism matters, the effects of empathy

Ania Izabela Rynarzewska, Mercer University, USA

This paper focuses specifically on providing evidence that anti-racism marketing should be incorporated into organizations. It is done by first reviewing the literature on the pitfalls and success of brands who supported racial equality, highlighting the importance of shared values in building strong relational ties with consumers to finally providing empirical evidence from data collected specifically for this purpose mid-2020, Covid-19 pandemic and after the death of George Floyd.

Introduction

In 1950s school segregation and bus boycott sparked by Rosa Parks took place, in 1960s brought Civil Rights Act, Dr. King’s “I have a Dream” speech, the Voting Rights Act and widespread sympathy for civil rights movement when images from Birmingham, Alabama circulated showing police using fire hoses and dogs on black demonstrators. Some of the key events in history banning racism happened 50-70 years ago and beyond. One would think that racism in year 2020/2021 would be an archaic term that children learn in history classes as something of the past to never repeat again. Unfortunately, year 2020 showed to those oblivious to the world that racism is very much alive.

Background

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is doing the right thing for the people, environment and society at large. It is part of the value statement thus a commitment to doing the right thing and communicating its effort (Bhattacharya & Sen 2004). It is leading by example and “lifestyle” on its own.

Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and Self-Categorization Theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) are frequently cited when attempting to explain the process behind one’s self categorization either on individual and group levels. Individuals have multiple identities which then tend to guide their behavior (Reed, 2002). Identity driven behaviors tend to comply one’s attitudes and values (Sparks & Shepherd, 1992).

Buycot is often viewed as a type of political consumerism in such a way that many consumers use the market to express their political beliefs. It is often used as means of support to behaviors of an organization. It can be defined as ‘consumer choice of producers and products based on political or ethical considerations, or both’ (Stolle et al., 2005).

Based on literature review, it was expected that consumer’s empathy will positively affect interest in racial justice topics since the start covid-19 pandemic. The interest in topics is derived from involvement or, otherwise considered, a degree of personal relevance. This consumer involved interest will then positively affect perceptions of racially based CSR. When businesses are perceived to be in support of social justice, particularly focusing on racial equality, consumers will perceive the business brand as a having brand personality similar to them. Finally, brand personality will affect consumer boycotting behavior. A mediated relationship between brand personality and boycotting behavior by racially based CSR, was also expected.

Key Findings

Using structural equation modeling (SEM), it was found that all but one research hypotheses were supported: there was a positive impact on involved interest in racial justice since the start of covid-19 (β=0.977, p <0.01), interest in racial justice issues positively affects consumer perceptions of brand’s corporate social responsibility with respect to race based equality (β=0.588, p <0.01). That perception of race and equality based social justice CSR in turn positively affects brand personality (β= 0.799, p <0.01). However, CSR did not directly statistically affect boycotting but brand personality did (β= 0.655, p <0.01). Finally, while there was not a direct effect of CSR on boycotting behaviors, there was a fully mediated path between CSR and boycotting behaviors via brand personality.

References


SESSION 5H: CONSUMER BEHAVIOR, BRANDS & BRANDING

CHAIR

John Story
Summary Brief

Consumers’ Self-Esteem and Purchase Intention: The Mediating Role of Brand Jealousy and Brand Loyalty

Poompak Kusawat, Thammasat University, Thailand
Surat Teerakapibal, Thammasat University, Thailand

Conventional marketing research have paid great attention to various positive emotions that customers may develop towards brands, including brand trust, brand commitment, brand love, etc. Recently, brand jealousy was introduced as another consumer–brand relationship construct. However, there is still little knowledge about what generates brand jealousy and what its behavioral consequences might be. This research aims to fill this gap by empirically investigating antecedents and consequences of brand jealousy.

Research background

To study antecedents and consequences of brand jealousy, the authors utilize online survey data to examine the impact of self-esteem on brand jealousy and how it consequently influences consumer outcomes. The concept of brand jealousy was first conceptualized by Sarkar and Sreejesh (2014) based on romantic jealousy as “a complex of thoughts and feelings that follow threats to self-esteem generated by a romantically loved and esteemed brand in the mind of a romantic brand lover who does not possess the brand currently due to some constraint, after seeing another person (rival) using the same brand.” In other words, since it is possible for customers to fall in love with a brand or product (Batra et al., 2012), they can become jealous when they see other customers purchasing a brand that they like and they do not possess at the moment because of some constraint. Additionally, extant literature has documented that brand jealousy significantly affects various consumption behaviors (İlter et al., 2016; Sarkar & Sreejesh, 2014; Sreejesh, 2015). Therefore, an examination of brand jealousy has its merits and provides practical insight for brand managers.

Using online questionnaires. The authors examine how self-esteem impacts brand jealousy. While the results show that the overall effects of self-esteem on brand jealousy is negative, there is variation among different individuals. Additionally, the findings show that brand jealousy further elicits positive consumer outcomes.

Conclusion

This research contributes to the literature on brand marketing by empirically examining antecedents and consequences of brand jealousy. While current literature on brand mainly investigates brand concepts that represent only positive human emotions, this study focuses on the negative human emotion such as brand jealousy. The findings suggest that marketers must be able to create brand jealousy in the minds of potential customers to induce desired consumer responds. Results also suggest that individuals with low self-esteem tend to be more brand jealous, and this effect varies among individuals. Therefore, brand marketers must target the appropriate customers to maximize marketing outcomes.

References


SESSION 5I PANEL: BEST PRACTICES IN TEACHING MARKETING ANALYTICS

PANELISTS

Michael McGuirk, Babson College, USA
Haya Ajjan, Elon University, USA
Dana Harrison, East Tennessee State University, USA
Panel Session
Marketing Analytics

Michael McGuirk, Babson College, USA
Haya Ajjan, Elon University, USA
Dana E. Harrison, East Tennessee State University, USA

The use of analytics in marketing continues to be an important topic of conversation in academia and practice. Universities and companies are scrambling to embed analytics into the curriculum, determine critical emerging skills and self-train on new techniques and tools to prepare current students, as well as the existing workforce. There are a vast number of emerging techniques and tools, but where should academia begin?

The objective of this panel session is to introduce and demonstrate three analytics tools, Brandwatch, DataRobot and Tableau, to illustrate the use independently or as a complementary suite of platforms to support different analytic needs and business applications. PANELISTS will also discuss a cross-section of analytic platforms, each with different strengths, functions, and value propositions. The panel will illustrate how these toolsets can be used in designing and implementing analytics into the marketing curriculum, strategies for advancing research, followed by audience Q&A.
SESSION 6A: INCLUSION & INCLUSIVITY IN MARKETING & EDUCATION

CHAIR

Ania Ryzarzewska
Digital Divide and Its Impact on Minority Students: A Preliminary Investigation

Danielle Hass, St. Mary’s University San Antonio, USA
Mathew Joseph, St. Mary’s University San Antonio, USA

With the innovation and integration of technology within society, post-secondary education has rapidly adapted, offering fully online, asynchronous, or synchronous classes. This has allowed students to obtain their education through digital learning. Benefits such as reduced costs, flexibility, and greater accessibility have driven the shift to fully online classes. However, advocates for online learning have not considered inequalities among minority students who do not have the required access to technology, face social isolation, have a lack of support and structure, and face greater technical difficulties and disadvantages. The COVID-19 pandemic has exacerbated the divide by forcing students into an online environment. This divide and the effect COVID-19 has had on low-income and under-prepared students have been understudied. Thus, we seek to fill this gap with an exploratory, quantitative study that provides insight into the impact COVID-19 and the shift to online learning had on minority students.

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has forced universities to restrict in-person learning and shift to online courses, either synchronously or asynchronously, for both student and professor safety. If universities held in-person classes, they were limited by guidance from agencies to adhere to physical distancing guidelines such as a minimal audience that had to sit at least six feet apart and/or the requirement of facemasks. The remainder of the class used virtual video software to attend off-campus. Overall, the COVID-19 pandemic changed how students could attend and engage in class and forced some students to shift to an online format. Though the invention and application of online classes have brought benefits to both students and professors, it has also brought difficulties. Prior to the pandemic, minority students faced obstacles such as accessibility to technology (Xu & Jaggars, 2011), confusion and frustration due to a digital divide (Cruz, 2020), widening achievement gaps (Johnson & Mejia, 2014), and a lack of support and social connection (Zavarella, 2008). As such, with COVID-19 creating a forced online learning environment, those students who were already struggling with an existing digital divide have faced additional deterrents. Previous research has found that achievement gaps and the digital divide are widening and thus worsening despite the rapid increase of technology in classrooms, as well as the aggressive advocacy for more online classes (Cruz, 2020). However, most of this research has taken place before the COVID-19 pandemic crisis, when online classes were voluntary and in-person classes were still the dominant mode of delivery. The transition to online learning that minority students faced because of a crisis of this magnitude has been understudied and therefore warrants a call for research to understand how COVID-19 has impacted minority students’ educational experiences.

Proposed Methodology

We employ a quantitative method using an exploratory survey at a University in the Southwest United States to investigate our research questions: (1) to what extent do accessibility and technology hinder minority performance in online classes and (2) what are minority student’s perceptions of the transition to fully online classes during the COVID-19 pandemic?

In the exploratory survey, participants were first asked about their demographic information such as their age, grade level, major, gender, and racial background. They were then asked about their preferences and experiences of online classes before the COVID-19 pandemic. Then the survey shifted to their perceptions and experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic, including the transition to online learning, their opinions, accessibility to technology, technical difficulties, connection with peers, miscommunication issues, support, and performance. Participants finished the survey with questions regarding any changes in their grade point averages and performance.

Potential Contributions & Conclusion

Online learning is a viable option for universities to deliver course material in a post-COVID world. Additionally, online learning can be a helpful tool in other crises such as natural disasters, terrorist attacks, or epidemics that can occur in the future where learning can be affected. However, the obstacles minority students face in these situations can influence student performance, outcomes, and perceptions of online learning. Our exploratory study will provide insights into the extent of COVID-19’s impact and the widening gaps experienced by minority students. Although this
exploratory study is a first step in understanding diverse learners in an online environment, we contribute to the marketing
literature by extending our knowledge of how our students’ educational experience can be impacted by the crisis.

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dissertation, May 2020; Denton, Texas.


Evidence from introductory college-level math and English courses. Educational Evaluation and

Florida community college. University of South Florida.
Inclusivity in Business Schools: Understanding the Student Experience

Adam Hepworth, Ohio University, USA
Mick Andzulis, Ohio University, USA

Businesses and educational institutions alike have mobilized to promote diversity and inclusion in their organizations. This research seeks to understand how students experience inclusivity within the college of business. Through in-depth interviews and a survey, we find that demographic differences, namely gender, account for differences in how students feel included in business schools.

Establishing an inclusive environment for employees has become a primary aim for many organizations. Fostering a commitment to inclusivity in organizations is not only ethically responsible, but it also accrues performance benefits. However, creating inclusive organizational culture presents challenges, especially when inclusivity may mean different things to different people (Bae et al., 2016). This research aims to understand students’ experiences with inclusion in the college of business. Specifically, the objectives of this research are 1) to gauge undergraduate students’ sentiments regarding the level of inclusivity in the College of Business and 2) to find opportunities to enhance students’ perceptions of inclusiveness in the college.

Theoretical Development

Social identity theory proposes that individuals identify and categorize themselves as belonging to various groups (Tajfel & Turner 1979). It is through interactions within these groups that individuals develop a sense of belongingness and feel included (Akaah 1992; Tajfel 1978). Though organizations allocate resources to create more inclusive environments, research suggests that individuals’ differences, particularly gender, may account for differences in how individuals experience inclusion (Bae et al., 2016), which likely shapes their perceptions of inclusion. Given that gender differences play a role in shaping perceptions of how individuals feel included in organizations, perceptions of what constitutes inclusion may vary by gender as well. It is this proposition that we explore within the context of undergraduates in the college of business.

In-Depth Interviews

Nineteen undergraduate business students were recruited to learn about their experiences in the college of business. The primary purpose of the in-depth interviews was to gain an understanding of business school students’ experiences with inclusion in the business college. As such, students detailed their inclusive social experiences in the college of business, specifically citing sources of inclusion and other forms of support. Importantly, student organizations in the college and support from peers in the classroom were found to be important sources of inclusion for students.

Survey and Results

Using insights that emerged from the in-depth interviews, we surveyed 255 undergraduates about their student experiences with inclusion in the college of business. The survey design centered around themes learned in the interviews in which participants discussed how they felt included in their experiences. Statistical difference tests were run to test the difference between gender perceptions of inclusive experience in the college.

Results from the survey show that female students (M=4.49) indicated that inclusivity is more important to their college of business experience (INCLU_IMPORT) than male students (M=4.24, p<.01). Also, female students responded that they felt they had a voice (M=3.76, p<.01) and felt welcomed (M=4.35, p=.01) in the college of business more than their male counterparts. Lastly, female business students (M=4.34) felt more supported by their professors than male business students (M=4.07, p=.02).

Conclusion

The aims of the research were to gauge undergraduate business students’ feelings about inclusivity in the college and to find opportunities to improve their perceptions. Results from the survey indicate that although students across gender seemingly scored their inclusive experiences positively, female business students were more likely to feel like they had a voice, feel welcomed, and feel supported by their professors than male business students. These findings provide evidence that individual—namely, demographic—differences may indeed play a role in shaping students’
perceptions about their inclusive experiences (Bae et al., 2016). Future research should further explore the intersection of individual characteristics (i.e., race, sexual orientation, etc.) and perceptions of inclusion in students’ educational experience.

References


SESSION 6B: CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY & FIRM PERFORMANCE

CHAIR

Della Garner
Summary Brief

All News Travels Fast: Understanding the Role of News Sentiment Linking Corp. Social Performance (CSP) to Financial Outcomes

Della Garner, University of Memphis, USA
George Deitz, University of Memphis, USA
Jeff Thieme, University of Memphis, USA

Introduction

Corporate social performance (CSP) has emerged in recent years as an extension of CSR as a way to quantify the results of a firm’s actual results as opposed to the general notion of businesses’ accountability or responsibility to society. CSP is an umbrella to many firm activities and includes dimensions of both corporate social responsibility (CSR) as well as corporate social irresponsibility (CSI). Debate regarding the business and normative imperatives of CSP remain a topic of considered interest amongst business leaders and researchers. The growing volume of anecdotal evidence seems to favor the “doing well by doing good” position, but the current body of empirical research linking firm corporate social performance (CSP) to financial performance remains decidedly mixed (cf. Margolis et al. 2007; Zhao and Murrell 2016). Recent work in the area has sought to iron-out wrinkles in what is presumed to be a more nuanced CSP-financial performance relationship (Luo 2013; Mishra and Modi 2016; Kang et al. 2016; Lenz et al. 2017).

The present research examines the central role of news media in channeling the effects of CSP onto firm performance. The study addresses the following research questions:

1) How does CSP influence the sentiment of subsequent media coverage of the firm?
2) Does news sentiment mediate the effects of CSP on financial performance?
3) What are the contingent factors amplifying (mitigating) this relationship?

The study makes several notable contributions. First, the paper adds to a growing literature stream examining the role of the news media in shaping public perceptions of firm actions, thereby influencing performance outcomes (Xiong and Bharadwaj 2013; Chan 2003). Our results suggest that the tone of media coverage may be biased positively or negatively depending on the firm’s prior social performance. That is, CSR (positively) and CSI (negatively) influenced subsequent tone of news media sentiment. Secondly, the study contributes to the literature in examining the role of advertising investment as an alternative source of firm information, one that mitigates the effects of the news media upon financial performance. Further, the use of advertising spend can be used for not only advertising communications but also to create media partnerships that act as media alliances which can buffer firms from disparaging news coverage (Gurn & Butler 2012; Larcinese et al. 2011).

We develop a conceptual model guided by instrumental stakeholder theory where the firm is viewed as a nexus of implicit or explicit contracts with a wide array of stakeholders – groups or individuals that can affect or are affected by the achievement of the firm (Freeman 1984). We posit that the news media represents a particularly influential stakeholder group. Due to the opaqueness of the inner workings of a firm to most outsiders, media coverage is often the main legitimate source for reducing information asymmetries about a firm’s actions (Deephouse 2000). Economic theory suggests that to increase readership and derive stronger profits, the news media selects firms and events for coverage that they believe their audiences will consider interesting (Core et al. 2008). Furthermore, as media coverage of firm activities influence stakeholder (customers, investors, employees) perceptions, it can lead to differences in firm performance.

A 24-hour news cycle landscape has led to increased reporting of firms’ CSP (including both CSR and CSI events). Further, consumers seek brands that ‘take a stand,’ often on polarizing news and cultural issues. This increased news focus provides consumers with additional reasons to support or boycott a firm. Therefore, news sentiment about a firm’s CSP should have implications for a firm’s financial performance.

H1: News media sentiment mediates the relationship between CSP and financial performance.
Advertising communicates a firm’s value proposition and is associated with firm performance. Ad likeability highly correlates to brand preference, and the attitude towards the ad is a significant moderator in forming brand attitudes (Aaker et al. 1996; Biel 1990). Advertising that reinforces a firm’s positive CSR message should strengthen the effect of news sentiment. The advertising intensity of a firm can also leverage positive CSR PR for greater amplification.

**H2:** Advertising intensity will positively moderate the relationship between news sentiment and financial performance, such that the relationship will be strengthened as firm advertising intensity increases.

A firm’s slack resources provide an organization with greater capacity to absorb environmental variation or buffer its technical core from environmental influences (Thompson 1967). Previous literature suggests that a firm involved in CSR signals excess cash and resources available to the firm (Chin et al. 2013). A firm that has more slack resources should be able to commit greater resources to leveraging positive news sentiment into future cash flows; similarly, a firm with greater slack resources should be able to commit greater resources to mitigating negative news coverage.

**H3:** Firm slack resources will moderate the relationship between news sentiment and financial outcomes, such that the relationship will be strengthened for firms with greater slack resources.

**Method**

We test our theorized model using the dynamic panel data modeling approach using longitudinal data drawn from a variety of sources. Tobin’s Q was computed in accordance with Chung and Pruitt (1994) using data from Compustat. News media sentiment scores were derived for each firm-year observation from Ravenpack Analytics, based on the average sentiment scores for all articles in a calendar year that featured the firm (i.e., company listed within first paragraph) and corresponded to at least one event type identified within their AI-based taxonomy. In accordance with earlier work (Luo and Bhattacharya 2009), CSP was computed using data from the MSCI-KLD database using the net difference between firm strengths and concerns. Advertising intensity (advertising expense/total assets) and firm slack resources (operating-assets-net-cash-flow/sales) were drawn from Compustat. To account for other extraneous effects, several additional control variables were added to the regression, including firm size (natural log of firm employee count), profitability (ROA), and extensiveness of media coverage (natural log of total number of annual news articles). Finally, we included year and industry (2-digit SIC) dummies to calibrate for yearly and industry-specific macroeconomic fluctuations not otherwise captured by our model (Campbell et al. 2008). All independent variables were lagged one year.

**Results**

Table 1 presents the results of our news sentiment regression. Controlling for the extensiveness of firm coverage and firm characteristics, CSP was positively associated with subsequent media coverage ($\beta = 0.0004$, $p < .001$). Table 2 (Model 1) presents results of the financial performance regression. We see that news media sentiment is positively related to financial performance ($\beta = 2.83$, $p < .05$). As the direct effect of CSP on financial performance ($c'$ path) is not significant, it is suggestive of full mediation. This is in alignment with H1.
Table 1.  
Regression of News Media Sentiment on CSP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSP</td>
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<td>&lt; 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount News Coverage</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firm Size</td>
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<td>&lt; 0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROA</td>
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<td>&lt; 0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firm Slack Resources</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=6,413

Model 2 in Table 2 presents the results of our moderation analysis. The interaction effect between net annual news sentiment and advertising intensity is significant and positive (-1.01, p < .05), supporting H2. However, no support was found in the data in support of the proposed interaction effect between media sentiment and slack resources, thus we reject H3. This model accounts for 24.6% of the variance.

Table 2.  
Effects of News Media Sentiment, Advertising Intensity and Firm Slack Resources on Firm Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1 – Main Effects</th>
<th>Model 2 – Interactions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Est.</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>News Sentiment</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSP</td>
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<td>n.s.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slack Resources</td>
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<td>&lt; 0.01</td>
</tr>
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<td>Adv. Intensity</td>
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<td>&lt; 0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News Sent.*Adv. Intensity</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News Sent.*Slack Res.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controls</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Amount of News Coverage</td>
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<td>n.s.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Firm Size</td>
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<td>&lt; 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROA</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>&lt; 0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=2,185 observations, 659 groups, Wald. Chi with 68 df=318.94, χ²=0.00

Discussion

As information intermediaries, news media outlets dictate not only what news events are covered (and not covered), but also how these same events are portrayed. Media narratives may also be subject to socio-psychological influences on journalists and editorial staff (Bushee and Miller 2012; Chatterjee and Hambrick 2011). Firms are tasked with allocating funds to strategic areas to create competitive advantages, but this study suggests that certain strategic activities (advertising intensity) have greater-reaching effects in not only promoting a positive firm image but also mitigating negative news stories, all of which affect an end-consumer. Further investigation into additional marketing measures as well as impression management measures serve as a next step in the research agenda.

References available upon request
Summary Brief

Words Matter: A Closer Look at Earnings Calls & Financial Performance

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George D. Deitz, The University of Memphis, USA

This study employs computer aided text analytics (CATA) to probe the relationship between language used in quarterly earnings call statements and financial performance. The preliminary results indicate that promotion-focused and authentic language are associated with superior Tobin’s Q while temporal language negatively impacts Tobin’s Q.

Introduction

Research centered in Impression Management (IM) literature describes tactics top management may use to impact perceptions of stakeholders (Bolino et al., 2008). Furthermore, existing research has addressed how personality characteristics of top management impact financial decisions (Chin et al., 2013; Kashmiri & Mahajan, 2017). However, little research has considered how language prepared in advance by executives impacts a company’s financial performance. Although not required, corporate earnings calls are usually conducted and serve as a means for organizations to disseminate important information to the public. Investors use earnings calls and corresponding financial statements to make buy or sell decisions. Thus, it is imperative that organizations consider the impact of earnings call rhetoric on financial performance.

Conceptual Development

Earnings calls allow for reductions in information asymmetry between firms and their investors by providing key signals regarding earnings expectations (Matsumoto et al., 2011). Since earnings calls contain both scripted and extemporaneous speech, they provide top management a unique opportunity to communicate to and influence the decisions of investors how they see fit (Graffin et al., 2011; Matsumoto et al., 2011). Word choice can greatly impact the perception of content (Pennebaker & King, 1999) which, in turn, can impact the evaluation of messages and influence decisions (Berry et al., 1997; Parkinson, 1981). Therefore, this research focuses on word attributes (i.e., content) including three key constructs—regulatory focus, authenticity, and temporal concreteness.

First, TMT regulatory focus, specifically a CEO’s, is found to impact the decisions of organizations—prevention-focused individuals are sensitive to losses and focus on stability while promotion-focused individuals are sensitive to gains and focus on growth. Promotion-focused CEOs are associated with a higher number of acquisitions and higher value acquisitions (Gamache et al., 2015). Thus, the authors propose (H1) Promotion-focused language will be positively associated with financial performance.

Second, organizational messages should be genuine, authentic, and align with brand values (Deibert, 2017). Authentic language is reflective of how real, personal, and humble the speaker seems (Newman et al., 2003). Previous research has found that threatening information is often associated with less authentic words (Barrett et al., 2002). Authenticity is associated with positive shareholder outcomes, merger performance, and productivity (Cording et al., 2014). Thus, the authors suggest (H2) Authentic language will be positively associated with financial performance.

Finally, temporal concreteness refers to language that is concrete, practical, and focused within a specific time frame (Hart & Carroll, 2013). Previous research has addressed CEO temporal awareness and its impact on where a CEO directs their attention (Shipp & Jansen, 2011). CEO tenures have decreased by about half (Le Breton–Miller & Miller, 2006) thus increasing the temporal urgency felt by top management. This urgency is associated with decisions that provide quick results rather than a focus on long-term outcomes (James, 1999). Therefore, we predict (H3) Language associated with temporal concreteness will be negatively associated with financial performance.
**Data Collection**

The sampling frame used in this research is a corpus of earnings call transcripts from the top 250 of Fortune’s 500 list. There are 137 firms included in the preliminary data with multiple observations for individual firms from 2018 and 2019. Only the prepared statements are analyzed for the purpose of this research. The financial performance measure used in the preliminary study is Tobin’s Q. Tobin’s Q is the “ratio of market value of a firm to the replacement costs of its assets” (Chung & Pruitt, 1994, p. 70) and represents the expected future cash flows of a company after considering risk (Morgan & Rego, 2009). Because it is adjusted for risk and can be easily compared across industries, it is a preferred measure (Chakravarthy, 1986; Morgan & Rego, 2009). Data for Tobin’s Q was obtained from COMPUSTAT.

**Results**

The relationships suggested were tested using GLS multiple regression in STATA. The model tested the main effects of regulatory focus, authenticity, and temporal concreteness. The results indicate that promotion-oriented and authentic language are positively related to Tobin’s Q ($b=.005, p<0.05$ and $b=.008, p<0.05$, respectively) and temporal concreteness is negatively related to Tobin’s Q ($b=-.006, p<0.05$). The model explains 45% of the variance ($R^2=.45$). These findings provide preliminary evidence that prepared statements of earnings calls provide signals to investors about constructs key to organizational outcomes and provide support for future research in this area.

**References**


SESSION 6C: MARKETING TREATMENTS FOR PUBLIC HEALTH & SOCIAL ISSUES

CHAIR

Kristina Harrison
Summary Brief

Health Message Framing and Effectiveness: Is Conservatism a Determinant?

Berna Basar, Angelo State University, USA
A. Banu Elmadag, University of Southern Mississippi, USA

The effectiveness of health messages can depend on the framing of the messages and the characteristics of the people exposed to the message. The current study examines the interactive effect of conservatism, emotional vs. rational message framing, and self vs. other-focused framing on health message effectiveness. Results show that there was no significant difference between any of the conditions of the message effectiveness for conservatives. However, for non-conservatives, rational messages were perceived more effective than emotional messages when self vs. other-focused message framing was constant across messages. More specifically, the rational other-focused condition was significantly higher in message effectiveness than the emotional other-focused condition, and rational self-focused condition was significantly higher in message effectiveness than the emotional self-focused condition. On the other hand, when self vs. other-focused message framing was not constant across messages, rational messages were more effective than emotional messages, only when the rational message was other-focused vs. self-focused.

Introduction

Throughout history, pandemics, including cholera, the Black Death, the Spanish flu, and now, Covid-19 have threatened millions of lives worldwide. Public officials have historically worked to prevent the spread of diseases by giving public messages such as wearing masks, social distancing, or self-quarantining (Ott et al., 2007), especially when vaccination is not possible due to various reasons such as unavailability or allergies. Similarly, during the COVID-19 pandemic, health experts have believed that any measures to prevent the transmission of the disease and avoid these worst-case scenarios are of great importance, and individual behavior is crucial to control the spread (Anderson et al., 2020). In line with this, recent models and evidence from successful lockdowns during the Spanish Influenza (1918-1919) show that behavioral changes can reduce the spread of COVID-19 if most people comply (Ott et al., 2007; Alwan et al., 2020).

Background

A Gallup survey conducted in the summer of 2020 shows that the majority of Republicans say that they wear the mask infrequently (sometimes (18%), rarely (9%) or never (27%)) whereas 61 % of Democrats always (33% very often) wear a mask outside their home (Brenan, 2020). For over two hundred years, the conservative vs. non-conservative dimension has been the primary method of classifying political, ideological values. Previous research shows that there may be consistent differences in the way conservatives and non-conservatives think and perceive. These underlying differences may nudge individuals toward one end of the political spectrum or the other (Everett, 2013).

Prior research on message framing, which involves presenting an issue in different ways to alter preferences or choices (Levin, Schneider, and Gaeth 1998), shows that different groups of people will be more or less persuaded by different messages (Feinberg and Willer 2012). As a result, how effective a message frame may depend on the characteristics of the people exposed to the message, including their ideological views (Feinberg and Willer, 2012). Given the imperative weight of political ideologies and message framing on message effectiveness, the current study examines the interactive effect of conservatism, emotional vs. rational message framing, and self vs. other-focused framing on health message effectiveness and behavioral outcomes.

Current Study

The main objective of this study was to examine the interactive effect of rational vs. emotional message framing, self vs. other-focused message framing, and conservatism on perceived message effectiveness which is expected to predict behavioral outcomes. The study had a 4(emotional-self framed vs. emotional-other framed vs. rational-self framed vs. rational-other framed) factor design. Each participant was randomly assigned to one of these four conditions portrayed in a news article.

Three hundred eighteen participants (55.03% male, M_age=38.77) were recruited through the Amazon MTurk platform and were subject to attention check. There were 288 participants for subsequent analysis. PROCESS model 1 (Hayes 2013) was used to test the three-way interaction effect on perceived message effectiveness. Results show that for conservatives, there was no significant difference between any of the four conditions of the message effectiveness (all p's>.1). However, for non-conservatives, rational messages are perceived more effective than emotional messages when self
vs. other-focused message framing is constant across messages. More specifically, rational other-focused condition was significantly higher in message effectiveness than the emotional other-focused condition (β = .68, t = 2.16, p < .05), and rational self-focused condition was significantly higher in message effectiveness than the emotional self-focused condition (β = .59, t = 2.20, p < .05) (Figure 1). On the other hand, when self vs. other-focused message framing was not constant across messages, rational messages were more effective than emotional messages, only when the rational message was other-focused vs. self-focused (β = .59, t = 2.20, p < .01) (Figure 2).

![Figure 1: Nonconservatives – Constant Framing](image1)

![Figure 2: Nonconservatives – Non-Constant Framing](image2)

Process Model 7 (Hayes 2013) was used to test the conditional process analysis. As in the previous analysis, the four-level message framing variable (emotional-self framed vs. emotional-other framed vs. rational-self framed vs. rational-other framed) was entered as the independent variable, and conservatism was entered as the moderator variable. However, this time perceived message effectiveness was entered as the mediator variable, and the behavioral outcome was entered as the dependent variable. First, there was a marginally significant interaction between the 4-item brand responsibility item and conservatism on message effectiveness (F (3, 276) = 2.51, p = .06). Second, the mediation through message effectiveness on the behavioral outcome variable was significant for non-conservatives (β = -.42, 95% CI: [-.78, -.02]), but it was not statistically significant for conservatives (β = -.04, 95% CI: [-.45, .56]). Finally, the moderated mediation index was significant (β = -.42, 95% CI: [-.78, -.02]).

References


Summary Brief

The Effects of Food Insecurity on Food Selection Healthfulness

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Through two studies, this research examines food choices made by both food insecure and food secure individuals. We aim to shed light on differences and similarities across these types of consumers while also gaining insight into their decision-making process. Study 1 results indicated that the healthfulness of the food choices that food insecure people made was different based on varying degrees of their food insecurity (i.e., temporary vs. chronic hunger). Study 2 (in-progress) aims to uncover the reasons why this may be, while also seeking to determine if and how these choices are significantly different from those made by food secure consumers.

Introduction

Hunger is a universal problem, and approximately 10% of households in the US were classified as food insecure (experiencing hunger or serious concerns about hunger) in 2019 with close to 50 million Americans struggling to feed themselves and their families (Coleman-Jenson 2020). The global pandemic further exacerbated this public health concern (Laborde and Martin 2020). The growing number of consumers experiencing food insecurity has fueled growth in this important literature stream.

Chilton (2013) examined hunger through the lenses of problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping, and avoidance-coping strategies (Lazarus and Folkman 1984). Hill and Stephens (1997) studied impoverished consumer behavior through examining generational poverty cycles, exchange restrictions, consequences of restrictions, and emotional and behavioral coping strategies. Many believe that hunger and poverty are symptoms of some other underlying issue(s) and when policymakers and marketers understand why consumers are vulnerable, better interventions can be created (Baker, Gentry, and Rittenberg 2005). Additionally, poverty can negatively affect decision making (Sheehy-Skeffington and Rea 2017). Thus, in order to comprehend an individual’s hunger management a deeper understanding of the antecedents and consequences of different levels of hunger are needed. This research aims to explore these areas and shed light on food choices of consumers at varying levels of food insecurity. We will then actively compare the choices that food insecure individuals make to those of food secure individuals to determine if in-fact, they are different. Finally, we aim to uncover underlying mediators of this relationship between food insecurity and healthfulness of food choices in order to recommend meaningful interventions for marketers and policymakers.

Study 1

Study 1 consisted of in-depth interviews with food bank beneficiaries who were at the time experiencing various levels of food insecurity. Participants were asked to share their insight and experiences in exchange for a monetary compensation. The in-depth interviews were conducted at the food bank after participants had food selections, so as not to bias their food selection choices. During the interviews, a series of questions were asked and food selections were recorded. The interviews were recorded and transcribed and then entered into the Nvivo 12 software for qualitative coding analysis (see for example Yoo, Thelen, and Harrison 2021). The data was coded following the Gioia method of searching for themes and related subthemes iteratively (Gioia, Coreley, and Hamilton 2012).

First and second order codes emerged from the data analysis and later coding methods linked the two together. The self-categorization of degree of food insecurity (first order code) linked to their ability to cope with their hunger problem (second order code) which was associated with their selection of foods of varying degrees of healthfulness. For example, those who self-identified as chronically hungry selected more calorie-dense, fatty foods. Conversely, those who self-identified as temporarily hungry were more likely to choose fresh fruits and vegetable options.

Study 2

Study 2 is a quasi-experiment where self-reported food insecure and food secure shoppers have been recruited to shop in an online grocery store that was created for research purposes. At the conclusion of their shopping task, shoppers will then respond to a short-questionnaire based on their shopping experience, experience with food insecurity, and demographic questions. Receipts will be coded for their healthfulness using several standards from various streams of research including the Institute of Medicine’s (IOM) Healthy Stars. Additionally, in-line with prior research, we will count the number of fresh fruits and vegetables shoppers have purchased to create their fresh produce score. While simplistic,
the fresh produce counts have historically been a way to assess overall basket healthfulness (see for example, Gulliford, Mahabir, and Rocke 2003). However, that method fails to consider any processed foods, which can also be healthy. Accordingly, we will also score the receipts using IOM’s Healthy Stars which scores each food product based on certain health criteria (i.e., salt content, sugar content, and fat content). In this way, we use triangulation methods to holistically rate their basket healthfulness. The findings from this study will seek to explicate further the findings from Study 1 as well as expound on potential intervention methods that marketers and public policy makers can institute in order to give food insecure consumers both access to healthy foods and encouragement of healthy food consumption.

References

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SESSION 6D: WIDE WORLD OF SPORTS: AUTHENTICITY, SPONSORSHIP, & EVENT STRATEGIES

CHAIR

Sophie Unson
Sport sponsorship is one of the most important revenue-generating tools for professional sport teams. One reason companies sponsor local professional sport teams is because they seek a deeper connection between their brands and that team’s fans. Sponsoring sport teams provides a deeper connection to the team’s regional consumer-base than does league or national sponsorships. Recent research indicates that there is a discrepancy in how well sport fans can identify the official sponsor within certain exclusive categories. For example, a study conducted by Wakefield (2020) found that fans who are less involved in the NFL are more able to recall the league’s official sponsors in several categories. The author questions whether national brands should invest in league sponsorships or instead focus on individual team markets. This begs the question of how well local fans can identify their team’s official sponsors.

The purpose of this study was to examine brand recognition of official professional sport team sponsors, and to explore some of the nuances of the recognition rates. This is motivated by several factors. First, we focused on the Cincinnati Bengals, a team with a mediocre historical win record, and one that is considered a “small market” team. Second, the Bengals do not share many official sponsors with the NFL. This means fans might be able to discern between the team’s sponsors in a way that is not considered a trickle-down effect from the NFL’s umbrella. Third, previous research (e.g., Gwinner & Swanson, 2003) has found that higher levels of sport team involvement should produce better sponsor recognition. But what about comparing local fans vs. local non-fans? Comparing recognition rates of these two groups addresses how brand equity of the local sports team carries over into their local community even for consumers who are not psychologically engaged with the sport team. Along these lines, would purchase interest for official partners be higher for both fans and non-fans alike? Further, do male fans have higher recognition than females, as some research suggests (Kinney et al., 2008; Wakefield, 2020)? Finally, our data was collected in April 2020 and April 2021, allowing us to examine any potential impact the COVID shutdown may have had on local sponsor recognition.

Method

This study was conducted using Qualtrics survey software and snowball sampling from individuals in the Greater Cincinnati area in April 2020 and April 2021 (n = 819, 51% male, M_age = 33.4). The survey asked participants to identify, from a set of options, the official sponsor across ten categories where there was only one correct answer.

Results

Of the 819 respondents, 65% (n = 539) indicated they are a fan of the Cincinnati Bengals. Compared to non-fans (n = 288), Bengals fans had a higher recognition of the team’s official sponsors across most exclusivity categories. Some of these were beer, automotive, healthcare, banking, and tablet. Furthermore, compared to non-fans, fans indicated a higher likelihood that they would purchase a product from an official team sponsor over other similar brands (M_fans = 3.35 vs M_nonfans = 3.04, p < .001). These findings replicate purchase intentions indicated in previous studies (e.g., Madrigal, 2000).

Results also indicate that males are better able to recognize teams sponsors than females across the categories of chili, automotive, tablet, and non-alcoholic beverages. Comparing purchase interest, males also indicated they would be more willing to support team sponsors compared to females (M_male = 3.43 vs. M_female = 3.25, p < .01).

In terms of year over year results between 2020 and 2021, our results show very little difference in sponsor recognition (Tables not included), meaning that, the COVID shutdown did not seem to impact Bengals’ sponsor recognition very much. The only exclusive category with a sharp decline in recognition was ‘pizza’. However, the pizza category was one of the only categories that was shared with an official NFL sponsorship agreement prior to the 2019 season, and therefore the drop in recognition (41% to 31%) could be due to the absence of a national activation campaign on the part of Papa John’s (who remains the team’s official sponsor but is no longer a league sponsor).
Compared to data recently reported by Wakefield (2020) on how well sport fans can recall NFL league sponsors, the Bengals’ sponsorship recognition rates are quite promising. For example, Wakefield found that overall brand recall for official sponsors ranges only between 27% and 34%. As a direct comparison, 29% of all respondents who watch a high volume of NFL games could recall the official bank (USAA), whereas 58% of Bengals fans accurately identified the official banking partner of the team. Similarly, 31% of the most involved NFL fans could identify Microsoft as the official tablet/tech partner, compared to 56% of Bengals fans. While Wakefield (2020) found that those who don’t dedicate any time to watching NFL games could more accurately identify league sponsors, our data suggest that segmenting fans versus non-fans should still result in more positive sponsor outcomes.

References


Summary Brief
Communicating Quality or Authenticity: The Optimal Strategy for Businesses Post Pandemic

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Whether it is dining at an ethnic food restaurant (Lu and Fine, 1995) or experiencing a fantasy outdoor event in a natural setting (Belk and Costa, 1998), consumers desire an authentic experience as they seek natural, untouched settings, free from the reach of the outside, marketed culture. This desire for authentic products and experiences has been amplified due to the covid-19 pandemic as consumers search for products that remind them of the pre-pandemic world. Although product claims of authenticity -- oftentimes false -- engulf consumers, they still seek authenticity in personal possessions (Grayson and Shulman, 2000), brands (Holt, 2002) and retail settings (Wallendorf et al., 1998); moreover, consumers demand authenticity from brand marketers (Beverland, 2005, Gilmore and Pine, 2007). In today’s marketing setting, a central theme is this tension between the authentic and inauthentic (Brown, 2001). Consumers look for food that is made from an original recipe, relies on traditional cooking methods, or incorporates key ingredients local to certain parts of the world to fulfill their need for authenticity as they seek authenticity in restaurants (Lu and Fine, 1995). Due to these claims, consumers must constantly evaluate marketing messages in their quest for a truly authentic good, service, or experience.

However, consumers are also on a quest for quality products in their consumption experiences, especially in their food consumption. Quality plays an important role in the food decision process (Calvo-Porral and Lévy-Mangin, 2017) for both individual products and food retailers. For some consumers, quality is the default attribute they utilize for judgement and decision making (Dawar and Parker, 1994). Consumers derive food quality perceptions from a variety of intrinsic and extrinsic cues such as product brand, appearance, and labeling (Van Rijswijk and Frewer, 2008, Nelson, 1970, Krystalis and Chryssóhoidis, 2005). Food quality is viewed in terms of safety, taste, product goodness, organic status, and freshness (Krystalis and Chryssóhoidis, 2005, Van Rijswijk and Frewer, 2008). Perceptions of product quality have the ability to impact a variety of key consumer outcomes whether or not consumers actually possess the expertise to make quality assessments (Giacalone, Fosgaard, Steen and Münchow, 2016). When consumers lack the experience, expertise or ability to make assessments of quality they rely on quality signals (Dawar and Parker, 1994, Rao and Monroe, 1988) which may include factors such as price, brand names, product features, reputation, and warranties (Dawar and Parker, 1994). When consumers lack knowledge of the product, can a story-telling technique focusing on a brand’s authenticity be a successful strategy? Does the lack of product knowledge interfere with a brand communicating their authenticity? Though consumers seek both authenticity and quality in their food products, not all products may be able to deliver on both attributes. With some consumers facing a limited budget, they wish to spend their money on products of higher quality so the products either last longer or function better. This leads us to the following research questions: When a product is not high in both authenticity and quality, one must ask which attribute is more important in the post pandemic world? Do consumers prefer a high-quality product which lacks authenticity or a highly authentic product which is low in quality? Does a low quality product present an opportunity to engage in an authentic story-telling strategy?

Study 1 investigates if authenticity may be a substitute for product quality. Participants read two product descriptions: a chocolate bar which is high in authenticity and low in quality or a chocolate bar which is low in authenticity and high in quality. As we are interested in whether authenticity can act as a substitute for product quality, there is no need to investigate the high authenticity, high quality (ideal) and the low authenticity, low quality (worst) scenarios. A 3 out of 5 stars quality rating was utilized for the low-quality description while a 4.5 out 5 stars quality was utilized for the high-quality description. Sixty eight participants participated in a pre-test which demonstrated that the 4.5 star quality rating was perceived as significantly higher in quality than the 3 star rating (5.62 vs. 3.79 on a 7 point scale), t(1, 67) = 12.70. Of the 69 participants, 33 chose the high authentic/low-quality (HALQ) chocolate bar while 36 participants chose the low authentic/high-quality chocolate bar (LAHQ). A chi-square goodness of fit test was performed to determine whether the two chocolates were equally preferred. Results show that there was an equal distribution of preferences, $X^2 = (1, N = 69) = 0.13, p > 0.70$, thus not a significant difference in choice was found.

Study 2 also investigates authenticity as a substitute for product quality while also investigating consumers’ attitudes towards the brand and product evaluations. An Italian restaurant, a high product knowledge, was utilized in the product descriptions. Results show that there was an equal distribution of preferences (51 vs 48), $X^2 = (1, N = 99) = 0.09, p > 0.75$, thus not a significant difference in choice.

Figure 1
An analysis was conducted to investigate participants’ evaluations of the restaurant they chose. Results can be seen in Figure 1. Participants who chose the high authentic/low-quality (HALQ) restaurant evaluated their choice as more authentic than those who chose the low authentic/high-quality (LAHQ) restaurant, $M(\text{HALQ}) = 6.39$ vs $M(\text{LAHQ}) = 3.94$. A one-way ANOVA was conducted on quality. Results revealed no significant difference for quality, $F(1, 96) = 1.04, p > 0.25$. The attitudes measure consisted of three items, for me, this restaurant is: (1=Unfavorable; 7=Favorable), (1=Negative; 7=Positive), and (1=Bad; 7=Good), $\alpha = 0.96$. A one-way ANOVA was conducted on attitudes. Results revealed a significant effect for attitudes, $F(1, 96) = 7.22, p < 0.01$.

The purpose of Study 3 is to investigate if product knowledge a requirement for the story-telling effect of authenticity. A similar design to Study 2 was utilized, however with a Vietnamese restaurant. Results show that there was an equal distribution of preferences (73 vs 65), $X^2 = (1, N = 138) = 0.46, p = 0.50$, thus not a significant difference in choice. Analysis of product evaluations, similar to Study 2, was conducted. Results are in Figure 2. Results suggest that previous product knowledge is not a necessary condition for the substation effect of authenticity story-telling.

Across three studies, authenticity demonstrated its ability to overcome a quality deficiency. In each study, consumers were almost equally divided on choosing the HALQ food option versus the LAHQ food option. Previously, it was believed that quality was the major driver in food choice. These results suggest that authenticity must also be considered to be a major driver in food choice. Consumers appear to be evenly split on their preference for either a highly-authentic food item or a high-quality food item. Results suggest that while preference may be similar for both items, the highly-authentic food receives significantly higher attitude scores than the high-quality items for both familiar and unfamiliar food categories. Two additional studies are currently investigating consumers’ preference for quality versus authenticity.
authenticity in a non-food related context. Study 4 (data collection in progress) utilizes clothing industry and identifies possible mediating factors driving these effects. Study 5 utilizes the entertainment industry as the stimuli and investigates past purchases as a moderating factor.

References


Summary Brief

Examining Consumer Perceptions and Attitude towards Event Industry Strategies during Global Pandemic – A Mixed Method Approach

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COVID-19 has impacted the way in which everyone experiences events, both on the business side and consumer side and has allowed opportunity for new processes to emerge. The current diffusion of innovation theory is based in the marketing industry and explains the spread of an innovation in five basic categories. Existing research for the events industry is limited and non-exhaustive of innovative strategies. In this study, we use a multi-method approach to analyze business practices creates as a result of the global pandemic and consumer perceptions of those innovations. This is an on-going study that will be developed into a scale-development study after data collection and analysis is complete.

Introduction and Brief Literature Review

The outbreak of COVID-19 has put a multi-billion-dollar industry at economic high-risk. According to Forbes (2020), international tourism alone was predicted to decline by $910 billion to $1.2 trillion and the pandemic put 100 to 120 million jobs at risk for those who work in the tourism sector. The tourism industry went from being one of the most profitable industries to one of the most negatively impacted industries. To maintain hope for a future after COVID-19, event industry businesses have been forced to find innovative solutions to keep their customer base alive. The virtual option provides customers with a small piece of normality in the sense that they are still able to enjoy an aspect of events. However, virtual events will never provide the same experience as face-to-face gatherings. So, what else has the event industry done to combat COVID-19 restrictions?

With this question in mind, the purpose of this study is in two folds: 1) explore business’s strategies in the event industry to combat the negative impacts of the global pandemic; and 2) examine how customers perceive and react to these innovations. Businesses have had to completely change the way they conduct their operations on levels of management from the way top managers handle their meetings to the way frontline workers interact with the customers (Heinonen & Strandvik, 2020). On the consumer side, customers’ opinions on travel have also changed and a majority have been turned off from the idea of going anywhere other than a monthly trip to the grocery store, therefore impacting the businesses within the industry even further (Gossling, Scott, & Hall, 2021).

Innovativeness has been defined by Rogers and Shoemaker as “the degree to which an individual is relatively earlier in adopting an innovation than other members of his system” (Midgley, 1978, p. 230). The Diffusion of Innovation Theory was first conceptualized by Rogers in the 1960’s. The theory has been developed over time and is used to conceptualize the way individuals adopt new information from both a behavioral and social point-of-view. Innovation diffusion begins with the new information being passed through a social system from one potential adopter to another potential adopter (Agarwal, 1998). These individuals form opinions on the characteristics that make up these new innovations and from those opinions, they decide whether they are going to adopt the innovation or not.

The Diffusion of Innovation Theory is a borrowed concept from the marketing industry. The principles have been explored, developed, and expanded in many industries. One popular sector that innovation diffusion occurs in is peer-to-peer accommodation and services. Recently, companies such as Airbnb and Uber have experienced success through innovative services. Both applications are examples of the diffusion of innovation theory regarding social acceptance. Like Airbnb and Uber, mobile banking uses online applications, but the application of the theory is more focused on the compatibility of the service with user requirements, lifestyle, and beliefs (Jabri, 2012). Further supporting the social aspect of the theory, research on diabetes care says that the diffusion of innovation theory emphasizes the implementation of social marketing and networking to communicate across various channels to quickly spread an innovation (Lien, 2016). This is especially important for healthcare marketing because the more widespread an innovation is utilized the more accurate the information is for the patient. This ensures consistent feedback for patients from various healthcare professionals. Although the diffusion of innovation theory was created in the marketing sector, its general concept can be applied to any service industry that experiences innovation.
Method
To best answer our research questions, this study is explored in a multi-method design using both qualitative and quantitative research processes. This approach is most beneficial to our findings because it allows for deep exploration of research gaps within the industry and for analyzation of a business perspective and consumer perspective on the same innovation (Creswell, 1999).

First, a qualitative study was completed by interviewing business professionals in the event industry. A series of questions were asked including requests to describe the timeline of events as COVID-19 regulations developed, innovations put in place by the interviewee’s business, how those innovations performed, what their business observed from other businesses, how their customers reacted to their innovations, and what they would expect for the future of the event industry. Then, the quantitative portion will consist of a survey to be distributed to event goers local to the businesses interviewed in the qualitative study. The survey questions will inquire the participants’ opinions on certain event industry innovations and their perceptions on events during the peak of COVID-19. The data collected from the surveys will be analyzed in SPSS using multivariate data analysis. This study will be a great asset to the academia and practice by exploring consumers’ perceptions and attitudes toward innovations in the event industry in a holistic way.

Potential Contributions
This study will contribute to the hospitality and tourism industry by serving as a reference for business strategies after a global disaster. It will aid businesses in becoming adaptable for future changes and increasing customer loyalty. On a theoretical basis, results will contribute to existing theory by expanding upon persuasive characteristics of innovation diffusion and having the possibility of creating a new theory using a scale that can be applied specifically to the event industry.

References
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Journal of International Marketing – Kelly Hewett, University of Tennessee
European Journal of Marketing – Greg W. Marshall, Rollins College
SESSION 6G: CONTEMPORARY TOPICS IN CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

CHAIR

Jie Fowler
Summary Brief
Where did this purchase come from? The effect of purchase type on preference for country-of-origin label.

Julia Di Natale, Bryant University
Ganga S. Urumutta Hewage, Bryant University

Country of origin (COO) is an important topic that has gained much attention during the past decades. Our research investigates the role of purchase type (experiential vs. material) on COO decisions. We tested our hypothesis by framing a product as an experiential and material purchase and asking participants to indicate their preference towards a strong COO product. We find that for material purchases, consumers tend to have a higher preference for strong COO compared to experiential purchases. Our findings not only contribute to literature on experiential and material purchases and country of origin, but also help international marketers design effective advertising strategies.
Summary Brief

Variables and their Influence Upon the Fear of Missing Out (FoMO) in Younger Consumers

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Jie G. Fowler, Valdosta State University, USA

This study expands the exploration of a relatively new consumer behavior concept, called the fear of missing out (FoMO). Several variables were analyzed in terms of their influence upon FoMO: social media usage, self-image, social identity, smartphone usage, innovativeness, and gender. Results are important for advancing FoMO theory as well as assisting practitioners in directing their promotional efforts.

Introduction

A developing concept in consumer behavior is the fear of missing out (FoMO). It was introduced in academia by Herman (2000) who offered it as an explanation for the success of limited-edition brands. FoMO was later introduced by the news media (Fake, 2011; Morford, 2010). However, the concept has been present throughout history in any communication form that increases a consumer’s knowledge about his or her friends, family, or even strangers. These communication forms include newspapers, letters, annual holiday newsletters, and emails (Wortham, 2011). However, more recently its influence has been expanded via the context of social media marketing. FoMO is the feeling of being "left behind" when someone sees that peers own or experience something that seems rewarding that he or she is not owning or experiencing. According to Zhang, Jimenez, and Cicala (2020), the construct has two components, particularly when following a self-concept approach: the private self and/or the public self or a personal and/or a social dimension. It is characterized as an uneasy feeling, a feeling of anxiety. So, consumers can fear missing out experiences that other people enjoy (social FoMO) and can also fear missing out experiences they had wished for themselves (personal FoMO).

Background

Many variables may activate FoMO. FoMO may be activated by threats to the self-image or self-concept (Zhang, Jimenez, & Cicala, 2020). Consumers tend to purchase goods and services that are consistent with, or enhance, their self-concept. Furthermore, higher social media engagement may activate FoMO (Alt, 2015), although the construct has been found in non-online contexts as well, including smartphone overuse (Elhai, Levine, Dvorak, & Hall, 2016). Feelings of anxiety may also impact upon fear of missing out (Gray, 1971). Those consumers who are considered innovators (early users) in the product adoption process may also significantly impact upon FoMO (Manning, Bearden, & Madden, 1995). Finally, higher degrees of social identity in consumers may also influence FoMO (Reed, 2002).

Key Findings

According to the analysis, the independent variables have a relationship to personal FoMO, i.e., FoMO_\text{personal} (F = 9.746, p < 0.001). As hypothesized, social media usage has a positive influence on FoMO_\text{personal} (\beta = 0.208, t = 2.713, p < 0.05). Moreover, individuals with greater self-image negatively associated with FoMO_\text{personal} (\beta = -0.39, t = -5.852, p < 0.05). In addition, the analysis shows smartphone usage has a positive impact on FoMO_\text{personal} (\beta = 0.174, t = 2.493, p < 0.05). Yet, neither innovativeness nor social identity are associated with FoMO_\text{personal} (\beta = -0.115, t = -1.562, p > 0.05; \beta = -0.118, t = -1.679, p > 0.05).

Furthermore, the results show that self-concept is the only variable that has a negative impact on FoMO_\text{social} (\beta = -0.482, t = -7.503, p < 0.05). Also, there were no gender differences in relation to FoMO (t\text{personal} = -0.72, p > 0.05; t\text{social} = 0.475, p > 0.05).

The study extends the current view of FoMO by differentiating the personal and social aspects of FoMO. The findings show that social media engagement and smartphone usage have a positive influence on the personal dimension of FoMO, whereas self-image has a negative influence. The findings regarding social media and smartphone usage are consistent with previous research that FoMO is related to the overuse of technology (e.g., Elhai et al., 2016). In other words, for those who are afraid of missing out, social media and smartphones provide means to connect with others. As Przybylske et al. (2013) posit, social media can be “thought of as reducing the 'cost of admission' for being socially engaged” (p. 1841). Yet, it was found that the use of technology, such as social media engagement and smartphone usage, does not have an impact on the social dimension of FoMO, which indicates that technological advancement may have a more significant effect on personal FoMO than social FoMO.
To concur with earlier research, the analysis shows that individuals with greater self-concept tend to exhibit less personal FoMO or social FoMO. Individuals with the confident “self” are less likely to be fearful. The results also reveal that innovativeness and social identity are not related to either personal FoMO or social FoMO. Finally, there was a non-significant difference between gender and FoMO, contrary to the previous studies that males focus more on expanding social connections and exhibit more FoMO than females (e.g., Przybylski et al., 2013; Qutishat, 2020). This finding may reflect the gender roles among Generation Z. Generally speaking, Gen Z favors gender role flexibility and is less in favor of the patriarchy (Lampert, 2021).

References


SESSION 6H: PROSOCIAL CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

CHAIR

James Blair
When Consumers Decrease Ethical Behavior: Resource Scarcity and Ethical Behavior

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We identify a novel relationship between scarcity and ethical behavior. When resource scarcity is made salient, consumers engage in less ethical behavior. Furthermore, the effect of resource scarcity on ethical behavior is stronger for consumers with high (vs. low) levels of the inclusion of others in the self (IOS).

Background
The messages of scarcity are pervasive in society. Consumers often encounter the images of empty shelves or the pages of out-of-stock items on retailer’s websites in a pandemic. Faced with resource scarcity, consumers exhibit various responses including narrowed attention, focusing on oneself and less attention to the needs of others (Shah et al. 2012). Previous research further suggests that people with fewer resources engage in suboptimal behavior, such as excessive lottery purchases (Haisley et al. 2008). Broadly speaking, these patterns of suboptimal behavior may pertain to ethical issues.

The present research investigates how scarcity affects consumers’ ethical intentions. Scarcity is defined as “sensing or observing a discrepancy between one’s current level of resources and a higher, more desirable reference point” (Cannon et al. 2019). Scarcity creates its own mindset, changing how people look at problems and make decisions (Shah et al. 2012). Individuals who experience resource scarcity increase their focus on the “here and now” and pay less attention to the future consequences of their decisions. When resources are perceived as scarce, consumers gravitate toward a more self-centered mindset, focused on the present scarcity issue (Mullainathan and Shafir 2013). There is also evidence that consumers may disengage from other-focused or prosocial behaviors and engage in self-focused or antisocial behaviors (Levontin et al. 2015). When it comes to ethical behavior, Low and Davenport (2007) posit that ethical individuals express concern in one of the following areas: human welfare, animal welfare, and environmental welfare, and these areas have the prerequisite of other-focused mindsets. Together, we predict that consumers who are faced with resource scarcity will decrease ethical intentions. Formally:

H1: When resource scarcity is made salient, consumers engage in less ethical behavior.

For our main prediction, we identify interconnectedness with others as one boundary condition. Specifically, we focus on “the inclusion of others in the self” (IOS), which refers to the interconnectedness between oneself and others (Aron et al. 1992). IOS indicates overlapping of selves where characteristics, attributes, and thoughts of the other are viewed to be part of oneself (Aron et al. 1992). This overlap may lead to a confusion of self with others (Mashek et al. 2007). Thus, people with high (vs. low) levels of IOS may assume that other people would think and behave as they do. Put differently, consumers who engage in less ethical behavior may reinforce such behavior when their IOS levels are high (vs. low). Formally:

H2: The effect of resource scarcity on ethical behavior is stronger for consumers with high (vs. low) levels of IOS.

Key Findings
We recruited 123 MTurkers (52.8% female; M_{age} = 41.88, SD = 13.74). The study had a two-group between-subjects design (scarcity vs. control). We first manipulated scarcity with an episodic recall task adapted from Fischhoff et al. (2003). Participants were then asked to indicate their ethical consumption tendency at that present moment, adapted from Paek and Nelson (2009), on a 7-point scale (e.g., “I would avoid buying products or services from companies that discriminate against minorities”) and the items were averaged to form a combined measure ($\alpha = .904$).

As predicted, participants in the scarcity condition reported significantly lower ethical consumption intentions ($M = 5.01; SD = 1.18$), relative to the control condition ($M = 5.47; SD = .95; F(1, 122) = 5.66; p = .02; Cohen’s d = .42$). The pattern of results remained significant when we controlled for childhood socioeconomic status (SES) and current SES.
For the second experiment, we recruited 89 MTurkers (60% female; $M_{age} = 44.70$, $SD = 12.83$). The study had a two-group between-subjects design (scarcity vs. control). To manipulate the experimental conditions, we used the same writing tasks as in Experiment 1. We used scales from Welsh and Ordóñez (2014) and Gino et al. (2010) to form a composite dependent measure of ethical behavior ($\alpha = .88$). Finally, participants completed the IOS measure (Aron et al., 1992) and the 20-item PANAS measure (Watson et al. 1988), all on 7-point scales ($\alpha_{positive} = .87$, $\alpha_{negative} = .93$).

There was a significant main effect of scarcity on ethical behavior, relative to the control condition ($M_{scarcity} = 2.07$, $M_{control} = 2.71$; $F(1, 88) = 6.77$; $p = .01$), replicating Experiment 1. To test our moderation model, we used Hayes Model 1. There was a significant two-way interaction between scarcity and IOS ($b = -.14$, 95% CI [-.2718 to -.0071], $t = -2.10, p = .04$). Participants in the scarcity condition reported significantly less ethical intentions when their IOS levels were high ($b = -.53$, 95% CI [-.8548 to -.2133], $t = -3.31, p < .01$), supporting our hypothesis. The pattern of results remained significant when we controlled for the PANAS scores.

**Conclusion**

Our research introduces resource scarcity as a novel antecedent of ethical consumption and behavioral intentions. Further, we show that such ethical intentions are strongly associated with how individuals view the self in relation to others. We plan to examine the link between types of relationships and ethicality, as well as possible underlying processes for the effect observed in our studies.

**References**


Summary Brief

Should Universities Let Stakeholders “Act Like They Own the Place?” The Roles of Psychological Ownership and Sense of Community on Attitudes Influencing Monetary Donations to Charitable Organizations and Economic Expenditures

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Higher education is facing uncertain times in today's marketplace and universities desire consistent revenue streams. One way to achieve this is through monetary donations of alumni, friends of the university, and other key stakeholders. This study finds individuals with lower levels of psychological ownership and lower levels of sense of community spend more money in the surrounding area of the university. Additionally, this research finds the relationship between psychological ownership and attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations is mediated by sense of community.

Introduction

Policymakers and higher education institutions are looking for additional revenue streams to stimulate their local economies, offset budget costs, and grow their endowments (Delaney & Kearney, 2016). Understanding how students impact local economies through their economic expenditures and attitudes towards higher education institutions would be valuable to these stakeholders in a tumultuous environment that is surrounded in uncertainty and significant competition in the marketplace (Musselin, 2018). We explore the roles of psychological ownership and sense of community in student economic expenditures and forming attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations. A mediation model is proposed where sense of community mediates the relationship of psychological ownership and attitudes influencing monetary donations towards charitable organizations.

Background

Psychological ownership has been utilized as a tool to influence consumer perceptions of entities, objects, and ideas they do not possess (Peck et al., 2021). This consists of an individual developing possessing feelings for a target object, entity, or idea (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). Economic expenditures are common in economic impact studies to measure the impact of events stimulating the local economy and can be measured through surveying of individuals attending the event (Tyrrell & Johnston, 2001). Policymakers and government officials often rely on economic impact analyses to determine the feasibility as well as success or failure of local events on meeting goals of their municipality (McHone & Rungeling, 2000). The economic impact of these events is measured by expenditures made by consumers both directly and indirectly related to the event (Murphy & Carmichael, 1991). Universities often attempt to foster a sense of community on their college campus due to the positive consequences for students attending classes and the university as a whole (Cheng, 2004). Sense of community is considered to be a collective experience (Peterson, Speer, McMillan, 2008) and has also been referred to as psychological sense of community (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). In the context of public green spaces, Chung and Leonard (2018) found sense of community to have a positive relationship on attitude towards helping others in the community. Our study looks to extend those findings in a new context, higher education. Additionally, they examined one factor attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations (Webb, Green, & Brashear, 2000). Our model includes both factors comprising the construct, 1. attitude toward helping others and 2. attitude toward charitable organizations. This extends our insights into consumer behavior further by examining the role psychological ownership and sense of community play on both volunteering and monetary donations to these organizations.

Key Findings

Psychological ownership has a significant main effect on economic expenditures. Individuals with lower levels of psychological ownership had significantly higher economic expenditures in the surrounding area ($m = 990.99, SE = 77.9$) than individuals with higher levels of psychological ownership ($m = 695.74, SE = 68.6$) ($F (1, 219) = 8.09, p = .01$). Sense of community has a marginally main effect on economic expenditures. Individuals with lower levels of sense of community had a marginally significant higher economic expenditures in the surrounding area ($m = 939.11, SE = 77.9$).
80.0) than individuals with higher levels of sense of community \((m = 740.71, SE = 68.4) (F (1, 219) = 8.09, p = .06)\). Psychological ownership has a significant main effect on sense of community. Individuals with higher levels of psychological ownership had significantly higher levels of sense of community \((m = 5.01, SE = .10)\) than individuals with lower levels of psychological ownership \((m = 4.07, SE = .11)\) \((F (1, 219) = 38.78, p < .01)\). Psychological ownership has a main effect on attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable donations. Individuals with higher levels of psychological ownership had significantly higher levels of attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations \((m = 5.79, SE = .07)\) than individuals with lower levels of psychological ownership \((m = 5.38, SE = .08)\) \((F (1, 219) = 14.90, p < .01)\). Sense of community has a main effect on attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations. Individuals with higher levels of sense of community had significantly higher levels of attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations \((m = 5.80, SE = .07)\) than individuals with lower levels of sense of community \((m = 5.36, SE = .08)\) \((F (1, 219) = 16.76, p < .01)\).

A mediation analysis was conducted on psychological ownership, sense of community, and attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations. Psychological ownership had a positive significant effect on sense of community \((\beta = .62, t = 10.38, p < .01)\). Sense of community had a positive significant effect on attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations \((\beta = .11, t = 2.18, p = .03)\). The total effect of psychological ownership on attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations is positive and significant \((\beta = .23, t = 4.91, p < .01)\). The direct effect of psychological ownership on attitudes influencing monetary donations to charitable organizations is positive and significant \((\beta = .16, t = 2.80, p = .01)\). Therefore, partial mediation is found.

**References**


SESSION 6I: EXPORT, RISK, & BARRIERS TO ENTRY IN FOREIGN MARKETS

CHAIR

Helena Allman
Summary Brief

Emerging versus Developed Markets’ Consumer Evaluations of Native versus Foreign Language Use in Products and Services – the Story of Eastern Europe

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Most of the past language and marketing type of studies explore the effects of language usage in marketing either in the context of branding of one product, one product category, or group of products or group of categories, in the context of advertising messages, and in the context of either physical products or intangible services evaluated by fairly homogeneous group of consumers with regard to their cultural background or national origin. The simultaneous interactions among these important variables with regard to their effects on consumer perceptions are unknown. It is the purpose of this study to enhance our knowledge of how native versus non-native or foreign languages are perceived by consumers from developing versus developed countries (heterogeneous group of consumers from culturally different backgrounds) and how these evaluations differ when evaluating physical products versus intangible services. Further, our focus is on language claims posted on the actual products or used in the actual services as opposed to examining the language use in advertisements of products or services. We focus on two countries from Eastern Europe (Slovakia and Turkey) as representatives of the emerging markets.

Introduction

Language (e.g., native versus non-native or foreign language) plays an important role in brand and product marketing efforts. The choice of language that marketers place in the advertisements or on the physical products influences important consumer behavior metrics, such as buying intentions and product evaluations (Nederstigt & Hilberink-Schulpen, 2018). Indeed, past research has shown that structural aspects of a language critically affect one of the most basic aspects of consumer behavior, such as categorization of products (Zhang, Schmitt & Haley, 2003). Branding literature shows that brand names in a foreign language lead to different brand perceptions (Hong, Pecotich & Shultz, 2002). For example, when researching the effect of foreign language on brand perceptions, past studies show that incongruence between the language and country of origin leads to higher hedonic perceptions of services already characterized as hedonic. On the other hand, utilitarian services’ brand names are perceived as more suitable and preferred instances for use of foreign language (Salciuviene, Ghauri, Streder & De Mattos, 2010). Other studies show that emerging market brands are especially suitable for using the foreign language to attract local consumers (Melnyk, Klein & Völckner, 2012). Hence, foreign languages have been identified in literature as implicit country of origin cues (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2016) with the associated mechanisms behind the country of origin effects. The literature acknowledges the importance of differentiation of the approaches behind marketing of a physical product versus service (Cutler & Javalgi, 1993), yet it is sparse with regard to our understanding on how these two approaches differ with regard to the language use.

Background

Overall, most of the past language and marketing type of studies explore the effects of language usage in branding of one product, product category, or group of products or categories, (Melnyk et al., 2012; Salciuviene et al., 2010), in the context of advertising messages (Nederstigt & Hilberink-Schulpen, 2018) and in the context of either physical products or intangible services evaluated by fairly homogeneous group of consumers with regard to their cultural background or national origin. It is the purpose of this study to enhance our knowledge of how native versus non-native or foreign languages are perceived by consumers from developing versus developed countries (heterogeneous group of consumers from culturally different backgrounds) and how these evaluations differ when evaluating physical products versus intangible services. Further, our focus is on language claims posted on the actual products or services as opposed to examining the language use in advertisements of products or services. In addition to the cultural heterogeneity of consumers (from developed versus from emerging markets), we also aim to explore other product-level variables that can affect the relationship between language used on the product, type of the product (tangible versus intangible/service) and the consumer product/service evaluation metrics; such as the effect of country of origin associated with the brand or product; while controlling for important consumer-level variables.

In this research we focus on physical products in the clothing category and on intangible services in the travel and tourism industry. Since clothing and tourism are two of the global industries with consumers from multiple markets, these industries were selected for the present study. We study the interactive effects of English versus Slovak/Turkish
languages used on the apparel products or on the images depicting travel and tourism services and the consumer’s national origin (developed market: United States versus developing market: Slovakia and Turkey) on the intentions to buy and on other product/service evaluation metrics. Furthermore, we explore the interactions among language, consumer’s national origin, and product’s / service’s country of origin in their effect on product / service evaluations metrics. We use survey based experiment as our primary method, showing pictures and descriptions of hypothetical products (with native vs. non-native language slogans on the images of tangible products from fashion industry / images depicting intangible services from travel and tourism industry) to the survey respondents, then ask the respondents series of established product / service image evaluation questions, followed by demographics and control items in the questionnaire. We are in the conceptual stage of the study and currently designing the data collection instruments.

Key Takeaways
In summary, the purpose of this study is to examine the language preference (native versus non-native or foreign) among emerging versus developed market consumers and to explore the conditions under which this preference might be weaker or stronger. Specifically, our research examines the effects of tangibility of the product (physical product versus service) and other variables such as country of origin of the product / service on the relationship between language used in the slogans placed on the products or the services and the subsequent product/service evaluations. This research aims to conduct data collection and analysis from the following countries: United States of America, Slovakia and Turkey.

References


SESSION 7A: IMPACT OF MARTECH ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOR & MARKETING STRATEGIES

CHAIR

Parker Woodroof
Summary Brief
The effect of artificial intelligence firm acquisitions on firm value

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Many artificial intelligence (AI) companies are acquired each year, especially promising startups that are obtained by big tech in a race to expand their AI capabilities. Although prior studies suggest that consumer reactions to AI are mixed and complex, understanding the financial impact of AI remains limited. To address this gap, the authors employ an event study to examine the effects of AI firm acquisition announcements on shareholder value. Using the TNW (The New Web) database, this study examines stock market reactions to 204 AI firm acquisition announcements by 48 publicly traded U.S. companies from 2008 to 2021. The results reveal that abnormal returns to such announcements are positive (.31%) and significant (p<.05) on the day of the announcement. The cumulative effect of a (-1, +1) window around the announcement is also positive (.67%) and significant (p<.01).

Introduction
Artificial intelligence (AI) has been a lucrative and emerging market for major companies due to its capability to improve products, get tasks done faster, and benefit the customer service experience. So naturally, AI capabilities have turned into an arms race for the Big 5 tech giants – Facebook, Amazon, Microsoft, Google, and Apple – as they continue to catch top technology talent, and dangle millions of dollars in front of some of the best tech startups. It is important to point out that prominent products and services came out of AI acquisitions, such as Apple’s Siri, or Google’s contributions through DeepMind. The Big 5 collectively undertook 59 acquisitions in the AI tech space between 2016 and 2019, and according to Index.co, there have been 441 AI acquisitions between 2008 and 2021. The acquisition spree by these big tech giants eliminated potential rivals and concentrated brainpower in this critical field. Further, they not only acquired AI companies, but they also recruited AI talents aggressively. In fact, big tech posted more than 14,000 job vacancies in the AI field in 2020 alone. But what is AI? Artificial intelligence “refers to programs, algorithms, systems and machines that demonstrate intelligence” (Shankar 2018, p. vi), is “manifested by machines that exhibit aspects of human intelligence” (Huang and Rust 2018, p. 155), and involves machines mimicking “intelligent human behavior” (Syam and Sharma 2018, p. 136). It also relies on several key technologies, such as machine learning, natural language processing, rule-based expert systems, neural networks, deep learning, physical robots, and robotic process automation (Davenport 2018). Another way to describe AI depends not on its underlying technology but rather its marketing and business applications, such as automating business processes, gaining insights from data, or engaging customers (Davenport and Ronanki 2018). We think this description of AI is what will guide our perspective moving forward because it is all about marketing.

Background
The reason that we are investigating AI from a marketing perspective is that we believe that the marketing discipline should take a lead role in addressing these questions, because it arguably has the most to gain from AI. In an analysis of more than 400 AI use cases, across 19 industries and 9 business functions, McKinsey & Co. indicate that the greatest potential value of AI pertains to domains related to marketing and sales (Chui et al. 2018). The impact of AI on marketing is highest in industries such as consumer packaged goods, retail, banking, and travel. These industries inherently involve frequent contact with large numbers of customers and produce vast amounts of customer transaction data and customer attribute data.

Moreover, there has been a significant surge of AI activity in the real world, and that activity has been mirrored by a growing body of academic research. Although AI has been shown to reduce expenses for firms, customers are not sold on utilizing AI as a substitute for real people, which means that it is worthy of a cost-benefit analysis moving forward (Davenport et al. 2020). Despite AI’s growing prevalence in industry and a growing interest in lab experiments and surveys, there is limited evidence of AI’s effects on more objective measures of financial performance. Without research that incorporates the effects of AI initiatives on financial performance, knowledge of the potency of these strategic initiatives is going to remain limited. Our study is the first to employ an
event study design to investigate how firm shareholder value is impacted by news that an AI company has been acquired by a publicly traded U.S. firm. Since AI investments involve the diversion of scarce firm resources from more traditional areas related to the firm’s value proposition, we feel that examining investor reactions to AI firm acquisitions will contribute to a more well-rounded understanding of the effects that AI has. Our study addresses this gap in the literature, and it also responds to calls for greater accountability and transparency of marketing expenditures (Luo and Bhattacharya 2006; Stewart and Gugel 2016).

**Key Findings**

Utilizing a sample of 204 AI firm acquisition announcements from 48 publicly traded U.S. firms, we found that, on average, there is a significant and positive effect on firm value. Specifically, the results reveal that abnormal returns to such announcements are positive (.31%) and significant (p<.05) on the day of the announcement. The cumulative effect of a (-1, +1) window around the announcement is also positive (.67%) and significant (p<.01).

**References**


Summary Brief

Memory of Virtual Reality brand experiences: what consumers remember and why

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Brands today are increasingly investing in virtual reality (VR). While extant research has explored the impact of VR experiences on consumer attitudes and behaviors, none to date has investigated how these experiences impact brand memories. In two studies (qualitative interviews and an online survey), this paper investigates consumer memories formed in VR brand experiences. It explores recalled senses, emotions, and cognitions, and VR-formed episodic and semantic memories of the brand. It further relates these memories to the past and future real-world brand interactions, contributing to the literature on brand experiences, consumer memories, and VR in marketing. In doing so, it studies complex brand experiences in a realistic marketplace setting, advancing marketers’ understanding of the multi-faceted consumer memories. The ensuing brand benefits of these experiences are also put forth, as part of consumers’ technology-infused journeys, thus providing managerial insight on the value of VR for brands.

Introduction

In the times of technological transformation, brand experiences increasingly take new forms. In particular, virtual reality (VR) is one such technology that has potential to change how marketers connect with consumers. Research suggests that memories formed around brand experiences impact consumer decision-making in the near and far future (Warlop et al., 2005). Though, less is understood about virtual brand experiences related to consumer memories. Particularly, delivering brand interactions through VR might influence the resulting memory (Herz & Rahe, 2020). While past research made initial efforts to understand how consumers process information in VR (e.g. Orth et al., 2018), the scholarship in VR brand experiences is rather limited (see Cowan & Ketron, 2019). The goal of the present research is twofold. First, we investigate the impact of VR forms of brand experiences on consumer memories. In doing so, we draw parallels and contrasts between VR and traditional brand interactions. Second, we study complex brand experiences and consumers’ recollections, therefore contributing to the research on consumer memory in a realistic marketplace setting. Current research comprises (1) an exploratory qualitative data collection via interviews (N=15, European consumers), and (2) a descriptive quantitative data collection via online questionnaire (N=101, Prolific PANELISTS).

Background

Past experiences with brands are important because consumer memory and decisions are closely related. The selection of a specific brand strongly relies on the memories of prior interactions (Bettman, 1979; Schacter et al., 2015). Moreover, consumers tend to process information differently depending on the channel or environment (e.g. indirect communications versus an in-store experience). VR brand experiences can be classified as direct brand experiences facilitated via a computer-simulated environment. Resulting consumer memories are unique, but insufficiently studied. While some research suggests that VR experiences are better remembered than those in the real world, other research offers contrary evidence. Therefore,

RQ1: How do VR brand experiences engage consumers’ senses, emotions, and cognitions? How are these senses, emotions, and cognitions recalled by the consumers partaking in VR brand experiences?

The second distinction relates to the potential ability of the VR brand experiences to impact consumer memories about their past real-world experiences. Therefore,

RQ2. How do consumers relate their memories formed by the VR brand experience to prior brand experience memories?

The differential effect of the VR versus real-world experiences on consumer memory can be investigated from the perspective of different memory types. Classic literature distinguishes between episodic and semantic memory (Tulving, 1972). Both types of memories are important but will be prioritized under different marketing objectives. Consider episodic future thinking, which involves the construction of possible future scenarios (Schacter et al., 2015). Consumers base their prediction of future brand interactions on episodic memories of their prior brand experience (Bettman, 1979; Schacter et al., 2015). Hence,
**RQ3:** To which extent are the (a) episodic and (b) semantic memories of the brand formed by the VR experience, and retained?

**RQ4:** How do consumers relate their (a) episodic and (b) semantic memories formed by the VR brand experience to future thinking about the brand?

**Key Findings**

Branded VR produces an experience that is higher on cognitive, affective, and sensory dimensions than a ‘normal’ experience, and there is no quick memory decay regarding these experience dimensions. Continuous cognitive comparison of virtuality and reality is salient.

Supporting the notion of competing mental resources (Mayer and Moreno, 2003), prior brand experience impacts how the VR experience information is recorded in memory. While the amount of detail in episodic memories is lower for those who had prior brand experience, brand attitude (sometimes viewed as a proxy measure for semantic memory) for these consumers is higher. Those new to the brand record more episodic information during the experience, which hinders semantic memory formation. Consumers actively seek familiar brand details based on pre-existing brand experiences. In some cases, tapping into prior brand knowledge leads to inaccurate recall of the VR experience. This is aligned with the reconstructive view of memory (Bartlett, 1932; Hall, 2002), and illustrates human memory’s imprecision.

VR experience richness puts episodic and semantic memory at odds. Specifically, some consumers form strong semantic memories, but weak episodic memories, while others experience the opposite. This is likely due to the limited capacity of human information-processing, or the amount of time lapsing from the brand VR experience. Quantitative data suggests that semantic memories “solidify” as more time passes, resulting in more detailed semantic memories for those who had their experience more than 3 months ago.

Cognitive, affective, and sensory VR experience components, as well as semantic memories, relate to anticipated future brand experiences. Mental imagery vividness might contribute to the process of linking VR experience with the anticipated future brand experience. VR experiences are sometimes received with skepticism due to consumers’ general attitude towards marketer-produced content (Braun-Latour & Zaltman, 2006). When this is the case, consumers manage their expectations of future interactions by downplaying the positive VR experience.

This research has its limitations due to its exploratory nature. Experimental designs might enable further investigations, especially to better understand recall inaccuracies. While this study provides initial insight into the impact of prior brand memories on the VR experience memory, the influence in the opposite direction was not investigated.

**References**


Recent advances in digital technologies such as artificial intelligence, the internet of things (IoT), social media apps, and smart sensors, have disrupted B2B and B2C models. Though the notion of digital disruption continues to grow in significance for firms hoping to improve their competitive position in the marketplace, only a handful of studies have discussed the concept within the domains of marketing and information systems (IS). The purpose of this study is to fill that void by ascertaining the factors in digital disruption and its consequences from a managerial viewpoint.

The study builds on disruptive innovation theory. The theory has been widely used in diverse disciplines. However, it has not been used as much in the marketing and information systems literature. The reason could be the theory’s emphasis on non-technology factors and the trivial consideration paid to the facilitating role of technology and organizations in response to digital disruption. Therefore, in this study we attempt to ascertain the roles of technology and organization in businesses’ responses to digital disruption.

This study uses survey data from U.S. managers. Of 1,000 managers, 272 provided responses eligible to be used in the analysis. Eight hypothesized relationships are tested in this study. The results indicate that convergence of intelligence, convergence of technology, support from C-level executives, organizational cultures of innovation, and managerial skills are predictors of digital disruption. The results also show that digital disruption improves both customer experience and firms’ digital disruptive performance.
Summary Brief

Brands and chatbots: An overview using machine learning

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As artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning techniques have evolved to improve Natural Language Processing, human language understanding has enabled human-machine communication tools to be increasingly deployed by brands. Conversational agents or chatbots are among the most widely positioned in recent years of technological evolution, with unprecedented social skills. They have become a cornerstone for supporting brands’ interactions with consumers in both digital and physical spaces. Due to the chatbots’ massive scientific boom and the relevance, they are gaining for brand management, its practitioners and scholars wake a growing interest in understanding the epistemological map on which this topic is embedded.

To discover the main cross-cutting issues, the current and emerging research topics pragmatically. This study proposes using Machine Learning techniques in the scientific production body of this fruitful branch of marketing. Our instruments are twofold; first, we applied Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) to identify eight thematic groups. Second, Dynamic Topic Models (DTM) reveals that the current research streams are oriented to technological advancement. In addition, research on chatbots and brand management is also emerging in two possible directions.

Research Proposal

Loureiro et al. (2020) state that AI has been one of the most developing topics in Marketing and the digital environment during the recent period. Nevertheless, (Varsha et al. 2021) complement that the stakeholders and consumers will take advantage of recent technologies to improve communication with brands, chatbots, and intelligent assistants, ruling how products/services will be consumed in an agile way. Marketers expect that over 90% of interactions with banking service users will be carried out through chatbots by 2022, avoiding the need to go through human operators in order to handle customer requirements. Meanwhile, nowadays, the most widely deployed practical fields of conversational assistants are advice, customer engagement management, customer support, internal support, investments, purchases, recommendations, finally, complaints and requests (Bavaresco et al. 2020; Rust and Huang 2021).

Given the prominence and relevance that virtual assistants acquire for marketing, it is evident that a recent increase in the number of studies on this topic in various areas of management was observed (Bavaresco et al. 2020; Calvaresi et al. 2021; Trivedi 2019). In light of the aforementioned, research topics are varied and fragmented. To consolidate some of the most relevant elements of virtual assistants’ impacts on management, researchers have proposed reviews from the perspective of artificial intelligence (Davenport et al. 2020), business (Bavaresco et al. 2020), or even tourism (Calvaresi et al. 2021). However, there is no compiling work on how chatbots have contributed to brand management elucidating the gap. This proposal aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the contribution of chatbots in brand management.

Hence, this study will unpack the cross-cutting themes, current directions and emerging trends in this area since the earliest publications found, namely from 1985 onwards. Because scientific outcomes on brand management and its relationship with conversational agents are broad and complex, applying new methodologies allows categorizing and finding patterns of its scientific structure. So in a way that it is possible to organize the epistemological structure to guide researchers and practitioners on the current state of the literature. Therefore, this study implements machine learning algorithms LDA and DTM for the modeling of topics. These techniques have been used in other studies demonstrating their ability to organize information in large and complex texts (Song and Kim 2013). In addition, they have allowed establishing streams of marketing research, as discussed by Cho et al. (2017).

Method

Blei et al. (2003) developed LDA to reveal the emerging themes in the integrity of the texts found, avoiding the bias or lack of information of traditional bibliometrics given the simple analysis of abstracts or keywords. So that the preprocessing of essential information of the texts is required, then the studies are obtained from the databases, initially compiled in .PDF files. The whole corpus is transformed into text and lowercase format, preserving only the text with readable characters by the system. Subsequently, stop-words, and punctuations were removed to retain nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs at the end; thanks to that, lemmatization is possible (Alghamdi and Alfalqi 2015). To obtain the number
of suitable topics, and the effectiveness of the proposed model for LDA, the coherence test was performed comparing the effectiveness of deriving from 5 up to 21 topics (Röder et al. 2015).

For both LDA and DTM development, we conducted topic modeling using the Python programming language. Finally, the emerging research themes analysis proposed by Cahlik (2000) attains research trends. We obtained 2,087 documents from the Scopus and Web of Science (WoS) databases to find pertinent literature. After eliminating duplicates, notes or undefined documents, Figure 1 outlines the steps involved in obtaining papers, search equation, text transformation, data cleaning and data processing.

Figure 1: Research design of the study.

About thematic coherence measurement, we relied on C\textsubscript{T} test following Syed and Spruit (2017). As such, we carried out 5 to 21 themes analyses, resulting in eight themes as the ideal value. Indeed, the improvement of the hyper-parameters allowed us to achieve a thematic coherence of 0.39 ideal for the size of the texts and thematic diversity (Röder et al. 2015). The visualization of thematic distribution and diversity is represented by a Multidimensional Scale (MDS), Figure 2 portrays that the obtained theme construction is ideal without overlap.

Figure 2: Intertopic Distance Map

Table 1 describes the eight topics discovered by LDA. For each cluster, the top ten terms are kept, which allowed inferring cluster designations.

Table 1: Top 10 words from 8 topics about chatbots & brands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic 1</th>
<th>Topic 2</th>
<th>Topic 3</th>
<th>Topic 4</th>
<th>Topic 5</th>
<th>Topic 6</th>
<th>Topic 7</th>
<th>Topic 8</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Design &amp; User experience</td>
<td>Intelligent Agents &amp; Internet</td>
<td>Consumer Decision</td>
<td>Consumer &amp; Technology Source</td>
<td>Agents &amp; e-Commerce</td>
<td>Social Media, Marketing &amp; Technology</td>
<td>Consumer &amp; Advertising</td>
<td>Social Media &amp; Consumer Experience</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use Game</td>
<td>Use User</td>
<td>Agent System</td>
<td>System Use</td>
<td>Agent Market</td>
<td>Social Customer</td>
<td>Brand Advertising</td>
<td>Use User</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
By using the strategy map the topics could be represented by period and 4 main periods were identified. The size of the topics is due to the number of co-occurring key terms. In the first period (1985-2006), user experience, e-commerce, HCI and its relationship with marketing are the research drivers. In the second period (2007-2010), HCI remains a central subject. User experience continues to be a cross-cutting theme. In the third period (2011-2016), e-commerce regains relevance, supported by user experience. Social networks (Facebook) emerge as a research topic. Social networks are considered a driving theme for the fourth or current period, linked to advertising (2017-2021). AI and its several applications (i.e., machine learning) and chatbots are cross-cutting themes for brand management. Emerging issues such as privacy, trust, and social bots are emerging. User Experience is transforming into aspects such as anthropomorphism (niche theme).

Research about the effects of chatbots on brands has evolved over the years. It starts with approaches concerned with the anthropomorphic characteristics of avatars present on e-commerce websites (Bickmore and Cassell 2005). Nowadays, research offers a perspective related to communicative and interactive capabilities. As results, topic analysis was performed revealing eight major topics throughout history, two current mainstream topics, namely social networks and interaction technologies (IoT, VR and AR); as well as two emerging research topics (privacy/credibility and social robots) (Blut et al. 2021; Rapp et al. 2021; Sudhakar 2021). In this sense, firstly the advantage of combining technologies has opened up several possibilities for interaction between brands and customers, and this integration is referred to in literature as Augmented Reality Interactive Technology (ARIT) (Moriuchi et al. 2020). Authors established that anthropomorphism or agent companionship, self-representation and intimacy in virtual environments can enhance brand love. This anthropomorphism can be a new way of representing the brand, through characters playing the role of brand representatives and virtual assistant at the same time. Secondly, using chatbots in social networks affects brand love, moderated with the perceived risk of using agents, in the banking sector (Trivedi 2019). Brand relationship is a reciprocal feature on which both brands and chatbots can be affected, (Cheng and Jiang 2021) as well as satisfaction occurs in luxury brands.

Conclusion

We conducted this study on the integrality of texts collected from the most recognized databases. However, further studies can be carried out to understand the intellectual structure, productivity, knowledge networks, and so on around chatbots and brand management. Techniques such as bibliometrics, systematic reviews or meta-analysis can offer new research perspectives.

Data regulation and trust in technologies with social capabilities are challenges that practitioner and academic are beginning to focus on. Technology and brand credibility will affect the Return of Investment of organizations and impact the increasingly broad and complex consumer journey. Research perspectives align with the research priorities proposed by leading marketing institutes, contributing to specific insights on conversational agent technology. New technological paradigms can foster a novel understanding of social relationships, offering insights on marketing management practices and future paths in the scholarship of consumer behavior, which is only possible in interaction with the technology, regulatory and privacy issues for the brands' future.

Acknowledgements

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SESSION 7B: DIGITAL MARKETING CAPABILITIES & EXPLORING CONSUMER DEVIATIONS

CHAIR

Jihane Samo
Summary Brief

Examining Moderating Effects of Industry Dynamism and R&D Intensity on the Linkages between Digital Marketing Capability and Customer Data Breach

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A rich stream of research has focused on the benefits of digital capability 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 capability by highlighting the potential risk of getting breached due to higher digital presence. For the present study, we focus on the marketing perspective of digital capability and operationalize the digital marketing capability (DMC) as “a capability that leverages digital technologies, such as social media, internet of things (IoT), digital channels, to enable business improvements and enhance customer experience.” Specifically, we propose a positive linkage between DMC and the likelihood of customer data breach. We also suggest that these linkages would be negatively moderated by the industry dynamism and positively moderated by the R&D intensity. The results found support for all the proposed hypotheses. The paper concludes with managerial implications and future research directions.

Introduction

Digital capability highlights the impact of IT on organizational structure, routines, information flow, and organizational capabilities to accommodate and adapt to IT. In this sense, digital capability emphasizes more the technological root of IT and the alignment between IT and businesses (Li et al. 2021). For the present study, we focus on the marketing perspective of digital capability and operationalize the digital marketing capability (DMC) as “a capability that leverages digital technologies, such as social media, internet of things (IoT), digital channels, to enable business improvements and enhance customer experience.” The companies now a days are using wide range of social media platforms to market their products and services and build their brand (Gartner, 2020) and to survive the competition (Carcary, Doherty and Conway, 2016).

On one hand, the businesses are progressing on the digital front by innovative technologies. Contrarily, there are increased challenges to these technologies that are coming into play. Data breaches have gained attention with the increasing use of digital files and companies and users’ large reliance on digital data. The number of data breached in businesses have increased from 25 in 2005 to 571 in 2018, with a total records exposed amounting to 415,233,143. Not only this, but the consumers’ also Personally Identifiable Information (PII) exposed records have increased 126% from 2017 (Gartner, 2020). It is estimated that a business will fall victim to a ransomware attack every 11 seconds by 2021 (Morgan, 2019). There are variety of industries and types of businesses that are impacted by these breaches, making it to be “the new normal”. For instance, Facebook allowed hackers to access “tokens” for 50 million customers. Google+ was breached twice thereby impacting 53 million users. Marriott International, the highest number of records exposed have been reported impacting 383 million people worldwide. The 2017 Equifax data breach left 144.5 million users digitally vulnerable to identity theft and future hacks (Novak and Vilceanu, 2019).

A high DMC leads to more digitization of the firm and makes the firm vulnerable to cybercrime from many entry points relative to low DMC firms which are less exposed to cybercrime with lower technology use. On the other hand, high DMC also implies that the firm is technologically more advanced and is better equipped to protect themselves against cybercrime, compared to low DMC firms using old technology which is more vulnerable to attacks. Hence, as businesses grow in the digital world and increase their social media presence, controlling the security becomes a key challenge. Against this backdrop, the present study emphasizes on the dark side of digital marketing capability.

We organize the article as follows: we begin with the discussion of theoretical lenses related to digital
strategy and offer hypotheses. Then we explain the development of database for the study. Following this, we provide the analysis and present the results. Finally, we discuss the implications and suggest future research directions.

**Conceptual Framework**

The Resource-Based View of the firm (RBV) and the consequential Resource-Based Theory (RBT) contends that resources that differ in terms of value, rarity, imitability, and sustainability create competitive advantage (Penrose 1959; Wernerfelt 1984; Barney 1991). The RBV has a significant influence in the stream of marketing strategy by articulating the drivers of competitive advantage (e.g., Bharadwaj et al. 1993; Hunt and Morgan 1995; Capron and Hulland 1999). The dynamic capabilities (DC) perspective contributes to explain how firms build and sustain competitive advantage (Helfat and Raubitschek, 2018; Schilke et al., 2018; Teece, 2007). DC extends the resource-based view of the firm (RBV) and focuses on the ability for firms to purposefully alter their resource base to increase their degree of fitness with their environment and ensure their survival (Schilke et al., 2018). Further, Barney et al. (2001) contend that the ability of applying these digital capabilities sooner itself is a capability. Thus, in our context, we posit that DMC can be a capability for a firm if it undergoes the process sooner than later. This implies, the higher the firm is on a continuum of DMC, the more likely that it can embrace the implications of such digital capability. Notwithstanding these positive outcomes, the literature also reflects on the potential issues associated with the pervasive use of digital technologies, primarily in the domain of security and privacy. The opportunity theory of crime (Hannon 2002) suggests that in case of crimes resulting in data breach, vulnerabilities in information systems, software, and firmware provide the opportunity that potential data thieves are looking for. We argue that the digital capabilities of the firm measured through the DMC can raise a potential threat of data breach by disclosing the relevant information to the outside world. Because companies share tremendous amount of data on social media, it provides hackers with the information that greatly assists them in breaching organizations. Thus, we propose the following:

H1: Digital marketing capability has a positive impact on the likelihood of a firm experiencing a customer data breach.

The competitive environment in which the firm operates plays a crucial role in shaping its strategies (Mintzberg 1980). One of the important dimensions of the competitive environment is industry dynamism which is measured as a deviation of industry sales from a trend line (Melville et al. 2007). In highly dynamic environments, the managers need to accelerate the process of strategic decision making, thereby relying more on innovation and exploration as opposed to structured decision making. On the contrary, in less dynamic environments, the need for information to support prompt responses may not be evident. In other words, we might expect that the firms operating in a highly dynamic environment can benefit from the IT investments, by creating business contexts for the firms that allows them to use IT in a more productive way. Thus, we argue that in highly dynamic environment, the impact of DMC on the likelihood of a breach will be mitigated and hence we propose the following:

H2: The impact of digital marketing capability on the likelihood of customer data breach is negatively moderated by industry dynamism, such that the effect is weaker for firms in more dynamic industries.

Densham (2015) documented that in order to manage the impact of a data breach, it is important for the firms to take effective measures by adding more layers of security to their strategic channels. Moreover, the positive association between data breaches and R&D suggests that growth can underscore the effectiveness of a firm’s internal control system. Hence, a firm with a high R&D intensity may outstrip its internal data security system, thereby requiring more time, personnel, and processes to keep up-to-date its internal data security systems (Doyle, Ge, and McVay (2007). Thus, we propose the following:

H3: The impact of digital marketing capability on the likelihood of customer data breach is positively moderated by R&D intensity, such that the effect is stronger for firms with relatively greater R&D investment.

**Methodology**

Digital marketing capability (DMC) is measured through the Digital IQ index reported in Gartner’s report quantifying the digital IQs of the retail business organizations. The sample consists of 3512 unique brands in retailing for digital IQ of the firm, categorized into 33 different business categories. The main dependent variable for the study is the likelihood of a customer data breach. The data for data breaches was obtained from Privacy Rights Clearing House (PRC) and Ravenpack. We dummy coded the data breach as a binary variable (0=no breach and 1= breach). The data for R&D intensity and industry dynamism was taken from Compustat. Given our focus on the DMC, we
study extended the existing literature on the digital capability and the digital business strategy by highlighting the dark side of digital capability and its potential impact on the brand value and firm profitability. A rich stream of research has focused on the benefits of digital capability 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 capability by highlighting the potential risk of getting breached due to higher digital presence.

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. The preliminary analysis suggests that linking digital strategy to the financial performance and examining it from the perspective of potential risk of data breach underscores the importance of digital investment. However, the idea of linking digital strategy to the business domain is in its early stage of development. Some firms have embarked on social media as part of their marketing operations, but without necessarily linking them back to their core IT infrastructure, 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 need to continuously monitor their digital capability and make appropriate adjustments in light of emerging opportunities and threats. 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. Overall, we hope to provide actionable findings to the firms and set a foundation for continued investigation of digital business strategy and its impact on them.

References
Available upon request
SESSION 7C: DISTINGUISHED TEACHING COMPETITION

CHAIR

Barbara Woolridge
Teaching from the Heart
Cindy B. Rippé, University of North Georgia, USA

Introduction
My dream as a teacher is to help my students achieve their dreams. The essence of my teaching evolved from the influence of a professor who saw potential in a beat-down young woman stuck in the remnants of a hard, early life. Yes, this extraordinary professor made a positive difference in my life when I was a college student and inspired me to become an educator. I knew I did not just want to teach from a textbook, and I went out into the business world searching for experience with a baited hook, ready to find success. Success astounded me with an abundance of awards and money from a sales career that nurtured my people skills, expanded my influence, and unearthed a passion for helping others. This passion provided the experience I desired, and when I started my family, I left my sales career and began my teaching career from the heart.

Evidence of the Impact of My Teaching
I still remember my first class. I was pregnant and so sad when the class was over. I fell in love with my students and teaching. That was almost twenty years ago. Today as I reflect on my career, I recognize that my devotion to teaching innovations, real-world experiences, and giving back to the community are my cornerstones. My energy in these ambitions stems from a conversion experience at the age of 27, where I reconciled the scars of my past with the peace of my Lord by devoting my life to serve Jesus Christ.

This mindset brought servant leadership to my teaching, where I give back and serve others. I started a Sales Club and have taken students to sales competitions. This training and teaching outside of the classroom have led to numerous students starting sales careers. My servant mindset can also be seen in the over $30,000 I have raised for charities, scholarships, students, or even hurricane victims. It is also reflected in the many real-world projects my students have engaged in, such as selling to raise money for Wounded Warriors or students in need. We have helped businesses, run canned food drives/sculpture contests, and helped the military with recruiting events. These projects have informed my research and led to curricular changes.

Based on teaching evaluation averages, my teaching techniques are well-received. My mean score for instruction and instructor across 12 classes is 4.7 out of 5. A qualitative analysis of the student comments revealed nine themes. The themes with representative comments are provided below:

1. **Care for Students**: “Dr. Rippe deeply cares about the success of her students, and it shows. She gives out her personal cell phone number to her students and is always available to meet for office hours.”
2. **Real-world Application**: “Dr. Rippe’s greatest strength is giving assignments that are real-world examples, and doing everything in her power to make every student succeed. Without a doubt the most impactful instructor I have had in my 5-year college career. If it wasn’t for her, me and a lot of other sales students would not be where we are today. I have companies hitting me up left and right, and all credit goes to Dr. Rippe. Professor of the year!”
3. **Student Engagement**: “She was good at making everyone engaged and I felt like everyone in the class was pretty close compared to other classes I have had.”
4. **Preparations for the Students’ Future**: “She cares for her students. She teaches long term and thinks about our future rather than just testing us on things so we get a grade. I have a job after graduation because of Dr. Rippe and how much she cares about her students.”
5. **Organization**: “Her level of organization and the assignments that she gave us every week really helped me learn the material. The in-class demonstrations were also very helpful.”
6. **Motivation of Students**: “High expectations (pushes students to try harder).”
7. **Success during COVID**: “Only thing outside of her control was Covid-19. But, she adjusted the course, and got us in virtual career fairs and competitions. Once again making sure every student has a chance to succeed.”
8. **Learning Resources**: “Very positive, Provides helpful instructional videos to guide students along the way, Encouraging, Open for questions, and always willing to help where she can.”
9. **Responsiveness**: “The professor was accessible at any time of the day. She will respond to my questions fast.”
All of these categories combine to show my student-centered teaching approach. Students find my classes and assignment mix to be real-world oriented, interesting, beneficial, and an overall positive experience. Many have cited me as their favorite professor and their reason to pursue professional selling.

**Contributions to Curriculum**

I practice pedagogies in the classroom, where I learn from my students how to better teach them by implementing new ideas such as those described in my papers on pandemic pedagogy, selling-to-teach, and engaging Generation Z. I believe in testing classroom teaching to ensure it is working. Many of the practices in my classes can be found in my pedagogical research with contributions to the curriculum evident from nine pedagogy papers published since 2015. Sharing best teaching practices helps all educators—I facilitate this sharing by serving as a co-guest editor for the top two marketing pedagogical journals, *Journal of Marketing Education* and *Marketing Education Review*. I competed in six teaching innovation competitions. I won two of them and was a finalist in the other four.

**Contributions to Academy-wide Pedagogy**

During my sales career, I learned about sales and people, but I really learned how to be a good teacher because good salespeople teach and good teachers sell. I remember when I taught my first class, I stood in front of the students, not knowing what to do. With no training on how to teach, I took the lesson’s learning outcome and began to sell it to my students. This selling-to-teach became a central part of my teaching philosophy. When teaching, I utilize sales skills, which help students envision how the subject material contributes to their personal growth and professional success. In every class, I am the sales representative, and my students are the customers. I walk them through the sales process to gain agreement and commitment on the knowledge and skills reviewed. This customer orientation supports retention and enables me to capture and maintain attention throughout the course. My teaching style communicates a willingness to help by encompassing authenticity, approachability, and availability. While on the pathway of learning, students are also on a journey of self-development. I gain knowledge of students’ personal and diverse life experiences and guide them in drawing connections between their learning and personal interests.

The knowledge I gained through this approach impacts academy-wide curriculum with a paper that provides empirical evidence supporting selling-to-teach. My paper, titled, *Selling-to-Teach: A Didactical Look at the Natural Integration between Teaching and Selling* (https://journals.sagepub.com/eprint/Z2EX2D989ZPMKQW7IZFB/full) suggests that educators can use the steps of the selling process in the classroom to better engage with students, motivate them, and increase their learning and satisfaction with the course. The contribution to the academy is revealed in the suggestion that selling is a pedagogy that can be used across disciplines. Additionally, I contributed to academy-wide pedagogy by publishing (with my esteemed coauthors) one of the first marketing pedagogy papers on how to teach during the pandemic titled, *Pandemic Pedagogy for the New Normal: Fostering Perceived Control during COVID-19* (https://journals.sagepub.com/eprint/QBCSQ8HC1Y6VQMQGKKU/full). This paper birthed out of concern for students informs academy-wide pedagogy on how to teach during a pandemic. It provides empirical evidence that educators can bolster students’ perceived control while helping them manage their loneliness and isolation brought on by the pandemic. Another work that impacted the academy provided a framework with how to teach sales online at a time when most sales educators struggled with transferring the class to an online format (http://www.mmaglobal.org/publications/JAME/JAME-Issues/JAME-2016-Vol24-SpecialIssue/JAME-2016-Vol24-Special-Issue-Rippe-Weisfeld-Spolter-Cummins-Dastoor-pp1-7.pdf).

**Conclusion**

Reflecting on a career of almost twenty years of teaching leaves one wondering where the time went. I wish I could go back and tell the beat-down young student who was me that everything would work out okay. But, I cannot go back in time. However, I can teach my students with my heart full of love for them and my discipline and let them know that everything will be okay. Now there is a role reversal. Like my college instructor who inspired me to teach, I have become the professor who makes a difference in the lives of students.

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SESSION 7D: CONSUMER BEHAVIOR & THE PANDEMIC

CHAIR

Mohan Menon
Full Paper

Panic Buying Phenomenon: A Review of Historical and Theoretical Perspectives

Mohan Menon, University of North Georgia, USA
Mary Norman, University of North Georgia, USA

The idea of Panic Buying (PB) is an old phenomenon but has been in the news lately mostly because of the pandemic but in 2021 for other reasons. While there are supply-side reasons that make it difficult for marketers to sell, the demand-side reasons cause psychological difficulties in consumers. While there have been a few attempts to smooth over these situations, it would seem that every PB situation is different. This limits the applicability of lessons learned from one instance to another in the future. The paper attempts to provide (1) a historical perspective for PB, layout the nature of PB and (2) provide an overview of the various theoretical perspectives that can utilized to potentially to understand the consumer psychology behind PB. This is followed by a brief section on the implications of PB and discussion.

Introduction

As the COVID-19 pandemic set in during earlier months of 2020 in the U.S., there were media reports of panic buying (PB) for all sorts of products. These products usually referred to as the FMCGs (Fast Moving Consumer Goods) were disappearing from store shelves. For instance, bathroom tissues, was nearly impossible to find. The “Great Toilet Paper Shortage of 2020” was dubbed so because in March 2020, some of the paper manufacturers reported a 700 percent increase in sales of the product (Prior 2020). Media reports on the shortage also exacerbated the PB situation. Before the virus hit American shores, there were instances of the phenomenon in China and Hong Kong. Early in 2020 there were shortages of basic items in Hong Kong according to media reports (BBC News 2020). There were instances of armed gangs stealing 600 rolls of bath tissue, worth around $130 from stores in the district of Mong Kok, Hong Kong. Similarly, stores in Tokyo were limiting purchases to one roll per customer in March 2020 even though they were not related to the virus (Mainichi 2020). About that time in Australia, a customer ordered 2,304 rolls accidently and later began selling them to raise money for their children’s schooling (Williams 2020). There were other incidents around the world including fights over the rolls in stores, newspaper publishing blank pages to be used as bath tissues, sales of bidets increasing, huge lines for bulk purchases of bath tissues, etc. (Jankowicz 2020).

Cambridge Dictionary defines panic buying or stockpiling as “a situation in which many people suddenly buy as much food, fuel, etc. as they can because they are worried about something bad that may happen (Cambridge Dictionary 2020). Some have theorized that technically there does not need to be a panic situation for panic buying to happen (Taylor 2021a). Nevertheless, the terms have been closely associated with situations that are enhancing consumers fear or anxiety. Similarly, panic buying is used synonymously with the term, ‘hoarding,’ although the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders characterizes it differently (American Psychiatric Association 2013). Hoarding is a persistent type of behavior that results in accumulation of things that are not discarded because of their perceived need.

Panic Buying – A Historical Perspective

This PB phenomenon is not new and has manifested itself multiple times during the past century. There have been numerous documented instances of panic buying during times of war, infectious outbreaks, and also during the days & weeks leading up to natural calamities such as hurricanes, in Florida and other Gulf Coast states, and in areas affected by flooding occurrences. (Kulemeka 2010).

At the start of World War I, panic buying broke out in numerous countries and food supplies became extremely scarce. In Britain, a country that relied heavily on imports for key staple items like meat and wheat, implemented a sugar rationing scheme. Shortages, high prices, and inequalities of distribution of food elevated concerns to a level that required government involvement by appointing a national Food Controller position, with broad-based food rationing being implemented. (“Food and the First World War – Everyday Lives in War” n.d.)

Another significant panic buying instance occurred during the Spanish flu outbreak of 1918. It was then that “consumers ravaged drug stores in search of products and potions to prevent influenza and relieve symptoms”(Taylor 2019). Newspapers were reporting how anxious shoppers were crowding stores and demanding the pharmacists provide them with gargling solutions, germicides, atomizers, inhalers, pills, cough drops, detergents, preventives, and all sorts of cures (Taylor 2019). This pandemic killed an estimated fifty million people world-wide, in less than two years.
In 1941, when the United States entered WWII, Americans began over buying fabric and clothing. This behavior was an off shoot of remembering the scarcities of WWI. The federal government established an Office of Price Administration in January 1942, in an effort to prevent price hikes of retail goods and services, and to ration materials needed for the war. The United States had implemented the rationing model used previously by Britain, to circumvent some of the hoarding. (Merrefield 2020).

Nearly 20 years later, in 1962, the Cuban Missile Crisis caused panic buying of canned foods by Americans fearful of possible nuclear war. In 1968, the Hong Kong flu pandemic was another panic buying instance, when consumers in Guangzhou, China resorting to panic buying of medications. Then in 1973, as the United States experienced a significant stock market crash, with the market losing over 45% of its value, along with an Arab oil embargo, which saw gasoline rise to $12/barrel from $3 per barrel, panic buying of toilet paper ensued, as consumers hoarded every roll they could acquire. Toilet paper was bartered, traded, and a black market even developed, before the public realized that the shortage was artificially created, and even further fueled accidentally by a popular nighttime talk show host (Crockett 2014). The 1979 oil crisis also led to panic buying of oil. Significantly higher prices and concerns about supply led to panic buying in the gasoline market. During this time, crude oil prices nearly doubled to almost $40 per barrel in twelve months. Due to near term memories of the oil shortage of 1973, motorists began panic buying, and long lines appeared at gas stations, to secure any fuel they could get.

In April 1985, the arrival of New Coke led many consumers to panic buy the original Coke. The Coca-Cola Company had released a reformulation of its popular Coca-Cola brand, due to concerns over losing market share to rival Pepsi Cola. It seemed that the Coca-Cola Company had significantly underestimated the high level of brand love the original formula possessed. A public outcry ensued, and many consumers began to “panic buy” the traditional Coke. They overwhelmed the Company with complaints, and even some lawsuits were filed. Coca-Cola was forced to apologize and brought back the original, branded as Coke Classic, which then led to a significant sales resurgence of Coca-Cola, charting a new trajectory for the brand (Morris 2015).

In 1999, some people around the world were preparing for a potential disaster termed Y2K. Fears of global computer crashes abound, thinking the turning over from 1999 to 2000 could lead to significant negative outcomes, due to year dates in computers having been coded with two instead of four digits. Batteries, cash, gas, canned goods, and toilet paper were being hoarded again throughout the world.

The September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks on the United States caused panic buying of metals, gold, and oil on international commodity markets. Then, in January and February 2003, during the SARS outbreak in China, several rounds of panic buying of various products (including salt, rice, vinegar, vegetable oil, antibiotics, masks, and traditional Chinese medicine) took place in the Chinese province of Guangdong and in neighboring areas such as Hainan and Hong Kong.

During the Venezuelan Economic Crisis of 2013, the Venezuelan government temporarily took over the Aragua-based Paper Manufacturing Company toilet paper plant to manage the "production, marketing and distribution" of toilet paper following months of depleted stocks of basic goods and foodstuffs, such as rice and cooking oil. Blame for the shortages was placed on government policies, including price controls on basic goods, tight restrictions on foreign currency, and also hoarding. (Keating 2015) Additionally, during the SARS outbreak in 2013, PB was observed for food items, disinfectants, and anti-viral meds.

Between 2008 and 2013, the United States experienced an ammunition shortage. Panic buying by gun owners who feared tougher gun control laws under then President Barack Obama was one blamed cause of ammunition shortages. The US is experiencing a similar situation in 2021 albeit at a lower scale.

Suffice to say, times of war, pandemics, and infectious disease outbreaks have contributed to consumers’ PB of products in mass quantities, to hoard and alleviate/cure disease. Thus, PB seems to be a natural human reaction to certain distress-inducing events in history. The pandemic of 2020 did not seem to be much different from the past in terms of PB. The common wisdom is that these reactive purchases, whether buying medicines in the past or paper products during 2020, provided some level of perceived comfort or relief.

There was also some discussion of potential PB situations due to the Suez Canal blockage in March-April 2021. The cargo vessel named, Evergiven, carrying about 17,600 containers with a $1 billion worth of products, slowed down 12 percent of 2021 global trade, including 14 percent of daily demand for crude and other items. Auto manufacturers, already facing semi-conductor shortages, were faced with shortages of petroleum-based goods such as seat foams (Eisenstein 2021). The vessel, traveling between Malaysia and Rotterdam, was traveling through the Canal for a shorter
passage between Asia and Europe. About 50 ships per day sail through the Canal. The canal blockage lasted nearly a week until it was moved on March 29, 2021 at a cost of $400 million per hour in trade, based on the approximate value of goods that are transported through the Suez canal every day (LaRocco 2021). Lloyd’s of London values the canal’s westbound traffic at around $5.1 billion a day, while eastbound traffic is about $4.5 billion per day (LaRocco 2021). Rerouting vessels around the continent of Africa adds up to 2-3 weeks more to transit time and increases both logistical and insurance related costs. Sao Paulo-based Suzano SA ships its wood pulp in cargo vessels through the Suez Canal. Wood pulp is the raw material for many products including bath tissue or toilet paper (Batista 2021). With higher demand for ships that carry the containers along with the current blockage, the company is concerned about exporting less in March and rolling over shipments to later months.

Finally, in just the past month (May 7, 2021), the east coast of the United States (Texas to New Jersey) experienced panic buying of gasoline, due to the Colonial pipeline cyber/ransomware attack. The Colonial pipeline runs for 5550 miles, transporting nearly 50% of the gasoline used on the east coast. This pipeline transports over 100 million gallons of gasoline a day and services over 50 million people. (Danner 2021a) Upon word of the attack and the subsequent shutting down of the pipeline, many American’s quickly moved to fill their vehicles, causing long lines at the pumps, and forcing many gas stations to close as a result of fuel outages. The pipeline came back online after five days of frustration for many drivers in the impacted states. (Danner 2021b).

**Why is panic buying a problem?**

For one it creates artificial shortages in the near term. Secondly, it might be an indication of consumers in distress. Thirdly, if PB is occurring during a pandemic, then consumers thronging to stores could enhance the infection spread risk. Fourth, PB seems to be the result of misinformation spread through social media while at the same time images of consumers’ PB in store can generate more PB creating a vicious cycle of events. Finally, if the messages from civic authorities are not clear or consistent, consumers might lose confidence in them in similar situations in the future. This is evident in the U.S. with significant sections of society not trusting the government, other civic officials, or some of the government bodies such as the Centers for Disease Control (Robson 2020). Yet, at the outset of the pandemic, Canadian consumers seemed to have responded to their officials’ advice to stock up on a two-week supply of groceries and household goods (Donnelly 2020; Payne 2020). Some researchers feel that these pronouncements, sharing of pictures/videos, and peoples experiences might have led to the spread of PB to other countries (Laato et al. 2020; Sim et al. 2020; Taylor 2021b).

Having discussed some of the PB events from a historical perspective, the manuscript attempts to examine various elements related to PB and later explore various theoretical frameworks that could possibly be tested to explain the phenomenon.

**Panic Buying – The What and Who.**

During natural or man-made events, there is a tendency for consumers to panic and exhibit irrational behavior (Johnson 1987). Beyond the infectious disease and natural calamity situations, there was panic related to the Y2K crisis when people were buying and hoarding necessities (Russo 1999). Recently Google published data on search trends, and it revealed the top five ways consumer search behavior is changing during COVID-19. These included, collecting critical information; exploring new connections; adapting to the new normal; appraising frontline warriors; and taking care of themselves and others around (Bhatt 2021). It seems during the latest pandemic, given the prevalence of social media and peoples’ propensity to generate and consume misinformation, the panic levels kicked into high gear. But not all behaviors were panic-driven. Some of the demand spikes for items to protect one’s health such as masks, sanitizers, etc. were justifiable. According to research, demand increases of more than 25 percent were noticed in 30 of the 138 product categories such as soap, soup, canned good, pasta, etc. (Smith, de Paula, and O’Connell 2020). These were mostly products that had longer shelf-life.

Researchers reported a survey of over 50 countries between January and April of 2020 and suggested that the PB bursts can occur for 7-10 days (Keane and Neal 2021). The authors indicated that consumers are receiving information cues from government pronouncements both within their countries and sometimes from actions of other governments. There might have been a couple of PB bursts during 2020 and toilet paper buying was prominent in both (Baertlein and Fares 2020; Drury 2020). Temporary limits on quantities by retailers tempered some of the demand increases (Toh 2020). To some extent product purchase limits per trip were somewhat neutralized by increasing frequency of trips and resultant hoarding behaviors (Smith, de Paula, and O’Connell 2020).

Then, there were many instances of COVID-19 unrelated non-safety related products being bought around the world (Altstedter and Hong 2020). These products included paper products, Twinkies, etc. Brand or product switching were also observed by the media when consumers could not find their regular brands (Altstedter and Hong 2020). A study
of PB conducted early in the pandemic in the U.S. and Canada found that there was PB of other items such as food, toiletries, cleaning products, prescription medications, cold/flu medicines, etc. (Taylor, Landry, Paluszek, Fergus, et al. 2020). Other research indicated PB for health oriented supplements in the US and for herbal remedies in countries such as China (Kostev and Lauterbach 2020; Liu et al. 2020). With stay-at-home orders, restaurant closings, and work-from-home conditions there were also reports of increases in demand for meal kits for cooking at home (Standridge and Ray 2021). While there are documented cases of PB of many CFMGs, the paper products under consideration seem to be unique as they frequently are the targets for stockpiling when consumers perceive threatening circumstances (Garbe, Rau, and Toppe 2020). Studies indicate that these paper products serve as a symbol of safety to alleviate perceived threats (Ellson 2020). Furthermore, media reports during 2020 also seemed to focus extensively on these products (Kavilanz 2020).

Among adults who are likely to panic buy, demographic variables does seem not to be correlated to this purchase behavior (Taylor 2021b). But the same study indicated minor correlation between the behavior and the adults’ socio-economic status in the sense that those with greater financial means were more likely to engage in PB.

The next section discusses some of the potential theoretical frameworks that could be used to study the phenomenon. This is not to suggest that these can explain the phenomenon solely. In some cases, one would need to combine the frameworks to comprehensively understand the nature of PB.

**Potential Theoretical Frameworks**

Beyond the historical perspectives, the paper also attempts to study the pandemic consumer PB phenomenon and its psychological underpinnings. PB by consumers under various circumstances have multiple influences and researchers have tried to explain these behaviors using various theoretical frameworks.

In most instances of PB, there might be several internal psychological factors and external inducements at play. Their individual and interactive influences lead to changes in consumer anxiety resulting in PB. A previous study revealed that the Big Five personality traits did not have any effect on the propensity for PB (Taylor 2021a). Yet, the same study indicated other psychological factors such as intolerance of uncertainty, disgust proneness, perceived threat, etc. seemed to have some effect on PB. Some have indicated traits such as selfishness, lack of empathy, exploitativeness, etc. for such actions (Paulhus 2014). Others have indicated mere profit motives for buying large quantities for resale (Lufkin 2020).

Forbes magazine reported that a model based on animal-foraging theory attempted to explain PB behavior (Varanasi 2021). Based on survey of households in U.K. and Ireland shortly after strict social distancing measures were enacted, researchers posited that PB, and hoarding behaviors occurs when consumer perceptions are stimulated by scarcity cues from the media. In many instances, PB was associated with “higher income, presence of children in the household, depression/death anxiety, and mistrust of others or paranoia”(Varanasi 2021).

Another framework suggested is the theory of fear. A catastrophe or prolong pandemic that could lead to death might trigger feelings of fear of the unknown among consumers - fear of lockdowns, others buying, scarcity of products, sharp swings in impulse buying patterns, social media news, etc. have a positive impact on impulse buying (Ahmed et al. 2020). Lack of awareness of the situation causes the fear of the unknown and consumers are likely to imagine variety of acceptable scenarios (Freeland 2020). There is some evidence that increases in spending might occur to prevent distress situations during disasters and possible lowering their stress levels (Kennett-Hensel, Sneath, and Lacey 2012).

Research shows that about 12-13 percent of adult consumers are distressed and intolerance to uncertainty are likely to perceive COVID-19 as being very dangerous (Asmundson and Taylor 2020). These consumers are more likely to engage in PB.

The concept of perceived scarcity might also lead to panic buying. Studies have indicated that when needed goods are perceived as inaccessible in the future, it sets off a mental reaction that causes a sense of emergency and thus an urgency to buy at once (Sterman and Dogan 2015). This phenomenon can also be related to anticipated regret of not possessing the items (Wang, Liu, and Zhang 2019). Some researchers call this panic buying (Pan et al. 2020).

Misinformation in the general or social media can amplify the scarcity perception resulting in consumers engaging in PB (Prentice, Chen, and Stantic 2020). While some of images of empty store shelves might have been factual in certain location, the widespread use of the imagery via. social media might have been the work those who were trying to create a hysteria around shortages (Patrick 2020). The objective of the mis-informers in this case might have been to create chaos and play out their psychopathic traits (Buckels, Trapnell, and Paulhus 2014).
Fear could also lead to herd behavior and the related bandwagon effect (Perry 2020). In this case, the belief is risk reduction can be achieved by acting collectively as part of a group and making group-consistent decisions (Patrick 2020). This behavior calls for imitating actions of others while ignoring one’s own information and belief (Dholakia 2020). A related concept is the bandwagon effect in which people do things because others are doing them regardless of what they know or believe. In other words, people ignore their own information or override them with what they see or hear as others’ behaviors (Schmitt-Beck 2015). In this case, when consumers see or hear of panic buying in their towns or elsewhere, they tend to follow the pattern of behavior there by hoping to mitigate risks of going without (Fernando et al. 2021). These psychological behaviors might also explain the panic buying activities during 2020.

Another way to try to explain panic buying is by reviewing consumers reliance on decision heuristics. Heuristics as explained in marketing and psychology relates to consumers using short cuts or simple strategies or mental processes to make evaluations and judgements when faced with rather complex situations (Hogarth and Karelaia 2006). As in the case of describing attitudes, fear seems to have three components – cognitive/belief components, affective or psychological component, and conative or behavioral component (Hodes, Cook, and Lang 1985). Fear results in emotional reactions and that in turn results in consumers ignoring logical information and decision making (Kuruppu and De Zoysa 2020). Fear can be a powerful motivator of certain behaviors and these behaviors can be intensified by available information or misinformation (Frijda 1986). Combining misinformation along with exaggerations found on social media and other popular outlets (Greco 2005) with the lack to authoritative information from credible experts reinforces health-related fears and phobias (Taylor 2019). Also, when emotional impact of media stories are greater than consumers tend to perceive, the situation as more risky (Finucane et al. 2000). The media portrayals of people suffering/dying in China and elsewhere and images of consumers leaving the store with loads of food and paper products and emptying the shelves, etc. could trigger the heightened sense of risk (Madarang 2020). Therefore, consumers had to make hasty decisions to buy and store in order to prepare for the impending lockdowns (Sharot 2011).

Consumers are likely to assess the risk of getting COVID-19 and generally take measures to minimize the risk. This assessment relates to the time and degree to which they are likely to contract the disease (Yuen et al. 2020). Hedging against these risks might involve certain mitigating behaviors and hoarding of large quantities of certain supplies (Kaur and Malik 2020). Research postulates three types of risk reduction behaviors – preventive behaviors such as hand washing; avoidance behavior such as social distancing; and management of disease behaviors (Bish and Michie 2010). Overbuying and related panic buying is part of these behaviors (Kaur and Malik 2020).

Aversion to risk taking combined with fears of lockdown might lead individuals to make quick decisions in their attempt to get some sense of control or safety (Barlow 2004; Harris and Mowen 2001). There have been mentions of the availability toilet paper provides consumers a sense of comfort (Osumi 2020) and possibly a metaphor of safety (Strait Times 2021). Risk aversion and possible regret for not buying immediately could also explain panic buying (Perry 2020).

Some researchers also view fear and anxiety as the result of framing bias (Peters, Lipkus, and Diefenbach 2006). In this instance, what consumers hear and see on social media and from neighbors are mostly negative in scope with respect to the effects of the pandemic. This leads to negative framing of information that in turn leads to fear of scarcity or what could happen and thus panic buying (Kuruppu and De Zoysa 2020). Media framing of out-of-stock situations, confusion, anticipated job losses, etc. lead to word-of-mouth and peer pressure that can influence panic buying (Frank and Schvaneveldt 2016). Sometimes, even devoid of peer pressure, consumers are likely to consider themselves to be aware of the situation and behave similar to how others might during a stressed period (Sheu and Kuo 2020).

There have been other explanations for panic buying in the literature. There is research that indicates that consumers want to gain control over the pandemic situation. This need motivates them to control certain aspects of their life that are controllable such as overbuying or panic buying (Chen, Lee, and Yap 2017). Although the study was conducted in a non-distress situation, others have reported certain intrinsic personality and interpersonal factors such as emotional attachment and materialism might lead to immediate purchases (Atulkar and Kesari 2018). Given that people look to the government or other legitimate authorities to provide information regarding the pandemic (Han, Hu, and Nigg 2011), a study revealed that consumers who exhibit high levels of trust in their government might not consider hoarding (Arafat et al. 2020; Drury 2018).

Others have tried to explain PB using game theory (Stiff 2020). In a book titled, Prisoners Dilemma, the author laid out the paradox in decision analysis in which two consumers who act on their own self-interest would not produce optimal outcomes (Poundstone 1993). In other words, the parties find themselves worse-off compared to a situation in which they cooperated with each other. Applied to the PB situation due to a pandemic, consumers have two choices – shop responsibly or stockpile. Shopping responsibly, in this case, means buying so as to meet ones’ normal demand for the item. If all consumers do this, then there will be enough supplies for every consumer. But if only one consumer is
responsible and others stockpile, then that consumer will be at a loss (also known as “sucker’s payoff”). If this consumer believes that others are going to stockpile when supplies are limited, then this consumer is likely to exhibit the same behavior to avoid being a “sucker.” Of course, if all consumers try to stockpile, the result is PB i.e., a zero-sum game.

Then there are attempts at using social learning theory to explain the PB phenomenon (Chadwick 2020). The basic idea here is that when many consumers prepare for a lockdown and go shopping for necessities, there will be a few that exhibit a sense of urgency or FOMO resulting in PB. These are likely to be consumers who eschew uncertainty because of the mental distress it causes (Yang et al. 2015). Such behavior by a few consumers is likely to cause others who observe the behavior to wonder if they would miss out or if those panic buyers know something they do not (Zheng, Shou, and Yang 2021). Such PB behaviors when broadcast over social media tend to spread the anxiety leading more consumers to carry out the same actions. In effect, the actions of a few can snowball into a national phenomenon. News that show empty shelves tend to fuel anxiety and spread fears causing widespread PB (Arafat et al. 2020).

Researchers have also sought to explain PB as a case of goal-directed behavior (Taylor 2021a). There seems to be some indication that some of the goal-directed purchases are non-conscious processes in consumers triggered by situational cues such as watching others do the same (Aarts, Gollwitzer, and Hassin 2004). Another related phenomenon is the idea of goal contagion in which consumers are likely to adopt others’ goals for themselves and following the same behaviors (Laurin 2016). The copycat behaviors in turn become PB.

In this section, a few possible theoretical perspectives in trying to explain PB were discussed. In the next section, some of the implications for marketing and public policy are discussed. As mentioned earlier, situations that cause PB are varied in nature and thus, lessons learned during one situation might not apply to another.

Managing PB: Implications for Marketing and Public Policy

While overbuying by consumers might be welcome by retailers and marketers during the normal times, there might be adverse consequences not only for consumers (ex. financial) but also for the value chain that includes retailers, wholesalers, manufacturers, and suppliers. In this section, the authors examine some of the implications that might have bearing on handling PB during future catastrophic events.

From the retailers perspective, a quick fix for PB is limiting number of items being bought per customer per visit (Martin-Neuninger and Ruby 2020). While this noble act of allowing more consumers to acquire the product might be socially benign, it might irritate consumers and they might simply try to buy the product at the next convenient outlet. Some consumers perceive gouging motives on the part of the retailer who are limiting supplies (Taylor 2021b). Retailers have tried to assure consumers about the normality of grocery shopping during the pandemic and that PB is unnecessary (BBC News 2020; Welle (www.dw.com) 2020). Government officials in some instances have exhorted consumers not be overbuy (ABC News 2020). Yet, these have not persuaded consumers from PB but might have in fact resulted in the opposite effect (Taylor 2021b). Instead of politicians or officials, community leaders and social influencers might be more effective if the messages are more altruistic in nature (Stiff 2020). If the messages foster kindship among consumers, showcases the plight of the less fortunate as a result of PB, etc. there might be a more positive effect on the phenomenon. A study suggested that messages such as those suggesting that over buying is understandable to some extent but exhorting consumers to think about those who are left without might have some positive effect on reducing PB (Naeem 2021).

There is evidence in literature about framing the advice or exhortation from retailers and public officials. Framing it with negative words might be less effective compared to positive framing (Earp et al. 2013; Wirth, Kunde, and Pfister 2019).

While there are some therapies that can be prescribed for those with excessive fears, it might take a while to get calmer and in the meanwhile PB might continue (Taylor, Landry, Paluszek, Rachor, et al. 2020). Minimizing fears and distress might reduce the need for PB. But for this effect to work in reducing shortages, society’s anxieties need to be lowered. This seems like a tall order giving that few will opt for such calm-inducing therapies.

Discussion

The paper was an exploratory attempt to understand the concept of panic buying both from historical and theoretical perspectives. While all the news about PB might make it seem like it is a new phenomenon associated with COVID-19, the situation has been experienced by consumers for over 100 years. While the earliest documented instance was in conjunction with the Spanish flu of 1918, there have been many such situations usually connected to wars, natural
catastrophes, or pandemics. But as we have seen twice in 2021, minor PB situations can be caused by shipping channel blockages or ever ransomware attack. It would seem that cyber security related disruptions are likely to be a recurring.

While not all over-buying is PB, this paper focused on mostly on consumer products and some of the psychological causes for it. Over the years, the psychological literature focused on a variety of factors for PB as presented in the paper. But it would seem that none of them individually explained all the aspects of PB. So, the authors feel that a comprehensive investigation combining many of the factors might be useful to determine the relative strength of each of the factors in explaining PB. This might be a promising study for the future. Another potential study could examine the relative role of various traditional and social media in creating the anxiety or may be in calming the public during the occurrence of PB.

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SESSION 7E: FOOD & FOOD CONSUMPTION

CHAIR

Terence Holmes
Summary Brief

Healthiness of food choices in adulthood: The role of childhood socioeconomic status, situational scarcity, and self-control

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The childhood environment has lasting effects on individuals well into adulthood for a range of behaviours, and this holds for food-related behaviours as well. In this study, we ask how situational scarcity and individual self-control influence the relationship between childhood socioeconomic status (SES) and the unhealthiness of food choices. We propose situationally experienced scarcity in adulthood may differentially influence individuals who did and did not experience scarcity as a child in exercising self-control and in turn making healthier food choices. Our study (N = 776; 54.5% female, M_Age = 37.9, SD = 10.99) confirms this prediction, finding low childhood SES individuals to be more susceptible to situational scarcity such that there is an attenuation of self-control resulting in greater unhealthy food choices. This moderating effect of situational scarcity is more substantial for those of lower childhood SES compared to their higher childhood SES counterparts. These findings are further discussed in terms of implications for various audiences.

Introduction

Childhood experiences predict food-related behaviour well into adulthood (Olson et al., 2007). One mechanism through which this occurs is due to a relationship between childhood socioeconomic status (SES) and adult self-control (Griskevicius et al., 2013). Self-control, in turn, impacts the unhealthiness of an individual’s eating behaviours (Kirk & Logue, 1997). Given the regularity with which situational scarcity arises for reasons ranging from job loss to stock-outs to scarcity promotions, we ask: might situational scarcity, or the current perceived scarcity of an individual’s resources, moderate this food behaviour relationship? In particular, we theorize that situationally experienced scarcity in adulthood may differentially influence how individuals who did and did not experience economic adversity as a child exercise self-control, and how this shapes the unhealthiness of their food choices.

Background

This research examines the relationship between childhood SES and unhealthiness of food choices, with respect to how situationally experienced scarcity and individual self-control influence the process therein. Childhood SES serves as a proxy for experienced childhood financial adversity and is characterized primarily by parental financial resources in this paper. Previous studies have found childhood financial adversity predicts eating behaviours in adulthood; for instance, low (high) childhood SES has been found to predict adherence to less healthy (healthier) diets in adulthood as evidenced by high consumption of energy-dense (nutrient-dense) items (Lee et al., 2018). Accordingly, we expect to find a positive association between childhood SES and unhealthiness of food choices.

Self-control is approached from a behavioural perspective with particular attention on the dimension of impulsivity (Gough & Bradley, 1996). Various extant literature has shown individuals who have experienced financial adversity to exhibit decreased self-control responses (Backer-Grøndahl & Nærde, 2017; Yanagisawa et al., 2013; Vrantsidis et al., 2018). Thus, we expect individuals with lower childhood SES to predict lower self-control in adulthood.

Situational scarcity is defined as the current perceived scarcity of an individual’s resources. Situationally experienced scarcity has previously been associated with increased risk-taking (Liang et al., 2019); moreover, when reencountering a state of food insecurity, individuals who had previously experienced childhood food insecurity were found to engage in greater unhealthy food behaviours (Nettle et al., 2019). From the literature, we expect situational scarcity to interact with childhood SES to attenuate self-control, thus influencing unhealthiness of food choices.

Specifically, we hypothesize self-control will mediate the relationship between childhood SES and unhealthiness of food choice (H1), and currently experienced (i.e., situational) scarcity will moderate the indirect effect of childhood SES on unhealthiness of food choice through self-control (H2). To test these hypotheses, we employed a within-person...
non-experimental correlational design wherein the variables were assessed via questionnaires after engaging in a virtual grocery shopping scenario.

**Key Findings**

There was a significant index of moderated mediation (index = -0.008; CI: -0.0168 to -0.0020); and there was an interaction between childhood SES and scarcity on self-control ($\beta = -.184; p<0.001$) wherein the effect of childhood SES on self-control was stronger as situational scarcity increased ($\beta_{low} = -.103$, $\beta_{high} = -.266$). An indirect effect of childhood SES on food unhealthiness through self-control was significant when situational scarcity was low ($\beta = -.014; CI: -.0298 to -.0026$), moderate ($\beta = -.026; CI: -.0459 to -.0091$) and high ($\beta = -.036; CI: -.0635 to -.0126$), increasing in strength as situational scarcity increased. All in all, we find support for our theorized moderated mediation model.

**References**


SESSION 7F: THE ONLINE RETAIL CONSUMER EXPERIENCE

CHAIR

Terence Holmes
Summary Brief

The Influence of Avatar Similarity on Psychological Ownership and Rental Intentions

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In an effort to maintain a human connection with customers, many companies have turned to the use of avatars, or digital entities that have human-like qualities, which simulate a person-to-person experience. Avatars may be able to help facilitate the perception of psychological ownership, which is threatened with new technologies that have changed consumption, such as online renting platforms. The current study is the beginning of a research project examining how avatar design can impact psychological ownership. Specifically, the results are a first study showing how avatar similarity can increase psychological ownership and positively impact consumer rental intentions.

Introduction

Non-traditional economies often bring with them non-traditional means of facilitating exchanges. The increased use of automation is relevant to exchanges that are facilitated digitally, usually through online means. In an effort to maintain a human connection with customers, many companies have turned to the use of digital entities that have human-like qualities, which simulate a person-to-person experience. Research on these digital entities, or “avatars” is needed to better understand their potential impact on psychological ownership in non-traditional economies. Psychological ownership, or the answer to the question “what do I feel is mine?” is the subjective sense of ownership that instills the endowment effect on objects to a greater extent than legal ownership (Reb and Connolly, 2007). In non-traditional economies there may be no physical or legal ownership, but objects can still be psychologically owned. The boundaries of psychological ownership have not been fully explored, so it is yet unknown under what conditions psychological ownership will be present when neither physical possession nor legal ownership are apparent or present (Peck and Luangrath, 2018). While possession alone can affect feelings of ownership (Furby, 1980), less is known about digital possession, possession in a sharing economy, or the anticipation of possession.

Studies of the use of avatars during online and virtual shopping experiences show that they are capable of improving customer ratings of trustworthiness & caring (Brave, Nass, and Hutchinson, 2005), perceived support and trust (Chattaraman, Kown, and Gilbert, 2012), and general satisfaction (Holwarth, Janiszewski, and Neumann, 2006). The use of avatars can also influence consumers’ attitudes toward products, subsequent purchase intentions, (Holwarth, Janiszewski, and Neumann, 2006) and patronage intentions (Keeling, McGoldrick, and Beatty, 2010). The extant research-to-date suggests that avatars help facilitate the perception of psychological ownership (Molesworth et al. 2016) but it is unclear what form or function such an avatar should embody.

Background

When an avatar is used in non-traditional economies, the first question we pose is whether or not the similarity of the avatar to the shopper would influence psychological ownership. From infancy, people tend to favor those who are similar to themselves and are biased toward them (Mahajan and Wynn, 2012; Gaertner and Insko, 2000). Research on buyer-seller similarity and its relationship with sales performance has shown mixed results for observable similarity traits, but positive results for internal similarity, or the perception that the salesperson thinks, feels, and acts the same as the customer (Lichtenthal and Tellefsen 2001).

This phenomenon of the similarity effect is pervasive in exchanges beyond the salesperson context (Montoya, Horton, and Kirchner 2008). For example, user reviews were perceived as more useful and trustworthy based on their similarity to the shopper (Fu, Yan, and Feng, 2018), and shopper perceptions of how similar their own level of attractiveness was to advertising models has been shown to be positively related to purchase intentions (Bekk, et al. 2017). Further, increasing personalization should decrease threats to psychological ownership (Morewedge et al. 2021). Hence, perceived similarity of the avatar should positively relate with psychological ownership more strongly when the avatar is further personalized to the user. We hypothesize that customer similarity with a modelling avatar will be more influential toward establishing perceived psychological ownership than a salesperson avatar that does not model the clothing item.
Psychological ownership has a myriad of benefits post-purchase, and not the least of which is purchase intentions (Spears and Yazdanparast 2014). The proposed mechanism through which psychological ownership is anticipated or perceived is through consumer imagination (Peck and Shu 2009). We hypothesize that psychological ownership in a non-traditional economy can be imagined by the consumer, in part due to the absence of physical presence, and that an intent to purchase or acquire the target object can be amplified through this means.

**Key Findings**

A total of 105 MTurk users were told they had subscribed to a rental clothing program and were thinking about renting a jacket (a unisex denim jacket was pictured). As they were being told that they were considering adding the jacket to their rental closet, an avatar pops up to help them (participants were then randomly shown one of two manipulations: an avatar dressed in the pictured jacket or not). The results showed a significant and positive effect of avatar similarity on psychological ownership ($a_1 = .74, t= 8.08, p<.001$). Neither the main effect of the avatar trying on the jacket (coded $0=$ not wearing the jacket, $1=$ wearing the jacket; $a_2 = .57, t = .99, p = .32$) nor the interaction of avatar similarity x trying on the jacket ($a_3 = -.09, t = -.68, p = .50$) were significant. However, psychological ownership had a positive and significant relationship to rental intentions ($b = .45, t = 5.77, p<.001$). Further, significant indirect effects were evident regardless of if the avatar tried on the jacket ($ab_1 = .29, 95\% CI: [.14, .53]$) or not ($ab_0 = .33, 95\% CI: [.16, .57]$), showing that higher amounts of shopper-avatar similarity led to greater rental intentions as explained through increased psychological ownership. A significant direct effect ($c' = .54, t = 7.22, 95\% CI: [.39, .68]$) was also present suggesting that a different explanatory mechanism could be added in future research.

**References**


Summary Brief

Examining the impact of self-service technology (SST) on front-line employees (FLEs) and service encounters

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The growing popularity of self-service technology (SST) has dramatically changed retail service provision and altered the dynamic between customers and frontline employees. The vast majority the SST research in marketing focuses on the how these technologies affect consumer behavior. This conceptual paper draws theoretical insights from the pyramid model, socio-technical system theory (STS), and the technology infusion matrix to develop propositions describing how customer usage of SSTs relates to employee satisfaction with service encounters.

Introduction

Meuter et al. (2000) define self-service technology (SST) as “…technological interfaces that enables customers to produce a service independent of direct service employee involvement (p.50)”. In essence, SST encourages consumers to perform a service by themselves; therefore, relinquishing an employee from the responsibility of providing the same service (Dabholkar and Bagozzi 2002). This is with the “intention of making services transactions more accurate, convenient, and faster” (Zeithaml, Bitter, and Gremler 2008, p. 56). The technological advances of remote management, wireless communication, and smartphone technology have led to various types of SSTs, such as self-checkouts/check-in kiosks, interactive voice response (IVR) systems, online websites, smartphone apps, and even virtual assistants.

The introduction of self-service technology has revolutionized many industries, including retail, tourism, and healthcare. The latest forms of SST (e.g., IVRs, web services, and smartphone technology) satisfy multiple service functions, unlike early technologies that mainly lowered operating costs by shifting certain tasks from firms’ employees to consumers. For example, IVRs and web self-service streamline service recovery efforts while kiosks and mobile technology (i.e., apps) replace traditional employee-to-customers interactions. As a result, the interactions between customers and front-line employees (FLEs) in retail settings have changed from being a required aspect of the core service experience to being more a supplementary service that occurs on occasion in many cases. An examination of the current literature reveals that most of the effects of SST on companies and FLEs are a byproduct of research between SST and consumers.

Theoretical Model

To explain how SSTs influence FLEs, the authors propose a theoretical model (e.g., Figure 1) that draws from a set of theories: the pyramid model, the socio-technical system theory, and the technology infusion matrix. The authors use the pyramid model to explain how technology affects all the actors in the service production process (i.e., company, employees, and customers). Then, the authors draw from socio-technical system theory to illustrate why it is vital to study the impact of SST on all actors of services, not just consumers. Using these two theories, the authors propose that increased customer usage of SSTs will have a positive effect on employee productivity, commitment, and job satisfaction (P 1a–1c), since it frees up employees to do other tasks and makes their work more fulfilling. In addition, the authors investigate the moderating effects of firm SST readiness and SST type (kiosk vs. mobile) on the relationship between customer usage and these employee outcomes (i.e., P2 & P3). Specifically, greater levels of firm SST readiness and the use of kiosks compared to mobile SST applications are expected to strengthen the positive influence of customer SST usage on employee outcomes. Finally, the authors draw on the technology infusion matrix to illustrate how customer usage of SSTs indirectly improves employees’ perceptions of service encounters, with employee outcomes mediating this relationship (i.e., P4).

P1a: Increase usage of SST by customers has a positive effect on employee productivity.

P1b: Increase usage of SST by customers has a positive effect on employee commitment.

P1c: Increase usage of SST by customers has a positive effect on job satisfaction.

P2: The relationship between customer SST usage and employee outcomes is moderated by the type of SST, such that the effect of customer SST usage is stronger when using kiosk-based platforms than for mobile-based platforms.

P3: A firm’s technological readiness positively moderates the relationship between customer SST usage and employee outcomes.
P4: Employee outcomes have a positive effect on employees’ service encounter satisfaction.

**Figures 1: Theoretical Model**

![Theoretical Model Diagram]

**Conclusion**

The research model discussed in the previous section attempts to understand the impact that self-service technology (SST) has on frontline employees and service encounters. The design of the first paper focused on summarizing the current SST literature and developing a theoretical framework to increase our understanding of the following phenomenon, the effects of SST on FLEs and service encounters. By doing so, the study will contribute to the existing body of knowledge in the following way. First, it will extend the current understanding of self-service technology by investigating its impact outside the consumer’s perspective. Second, it will support the idea that services must blend technology throughout the service production process to remain successful (Berry 1999) by developing a theory-based framework that explains the integration of self-service technology in a B2C environment. Ultimately, this will demonstrate that the integration of SST can affect customer behavior and the entire climate of an organization (Briggs, Deretti, and Kato 2020), such as customer treatment, service leadership, service training, and service blueprint (Shostack, 1987).

**References**


In the customer omnichannel experience there are a plethora of potential touchpoints available during the customer journey. Participants reported fewer technology-based touchpoints as important in their brand decisions and a preference for person-based information. Findings provide marketers with insights into how touchpoints are considered by consumers and what types of information to provide within particular touchpoints.

Introduction
To plan for the best customer omnichannel experience, a retailer/marketer must understand customer expectations about who they expect will provide information, physical products, and services. Cui et al. (2021) discuss three interrelated challenges that have prevented omnichannel marketing from realizing its full potential. In this study we focus on the second of these challenges—marketing attribution. That is, given the array of potential touchpoints available during the customer journey, which do customers believe are most important, and in what sequence, to offer the best experience? As Cui et al. (2021) note, “Such analysis may be challenging when the effect . . . can transcend multiple stages in the purchase funnel . . . occur concurrently, or consumers go back and forth between different stages in their . . . journey.”

Brands that are sold exclusively online offer unique challenges for retailers in an omnichannel world. Consider the cosmetics company Glossier:

"When Glossier launched as a digitally native beauty company, we were an anomaly in our industry, which has been slow to innovate beyond brick and mortar," Emily Weiss, founder and CEO of Glossier, said. "Now, nearly seven years into Glossier’s journey, our strategy and the expectations of beauty consumers everywhere are aligned: beauty discovery increasingly begins online as people look for inspiration from friends and strangers alike, and customers want to move fluidly between immersive and personalized e-commerce and retail experiences.” (emphasis added)

Regarding omnichannel marketing in such an environment, what touchpoints are available? Which are most effective to attract customers, and build relationships? To focus on a smaller set of attributable sources we surveyed customers of a firm that sells its products exclusively online.

Background
Both quality products and user-friendly websites contribute greatly to the overall trust that is established between an online business and its customers (Ke, 2015). “Recognizing that a vital key to retaining these customers is maintaining their trust in the e-vendor and that trust is at the heart of relationships of all kind” (Gefen, 2003). Online privacy is becoming more challenging because of people being interconnected through various social media. Social media can be great for omnichannel marketing, facilitating social discovery as consumers “discover” or “stumble upon” products through their connections with others. Social network use could also expose consumers to valuable new shopping-related information (Zhang, 2017).

We collected both qualitative and quantitative data to provide a richer view of the customer omnichannel experience (Merritt and Zhao, 2020). We surveyed and conducted follow-up interviews with customers of an online-based personal care seller. We also spoke directly with independent consultants for the company. We obtained responses from 48 customers and conducted follow-up interviews with some respondents, using a semi-structured approach (Merritt and Zhao, 2020, pages 9-10).

Key Findings
Personal touchpoints were the leading sources of discovery. Social media was not prevalent among our respondents. This could be because the use of independent consultants ensures there are other ways potential clients can be reached. “Personal touch” was a recurring touchpoint mentioned in the shopping process for this retailer. Another
interesting factor was that the product itself serves as an initial touchpoint for some customers, with seven respondents stating that a product sample was the key influence for them.

Further research on omnichannel marketing could investigate which online promotions and social media events customers deem most appealing and effective. Also, other types of online businesses could be studied to discover those factors and touchpoints unique to a particular business and others that are common across retail sectors.

References


SESSION 7H: LET’S SHARE SOME WINE: FOOD & DRINK
CONSUMPTION & THE SHARING ECONOMY

CHAIR

Jennifer Holt
Summary Brief

The Gender Gap: Differences in How Men and Women Feel about Sustainability and Food-Related Sustainability Benefits

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Sustainable (or green) consumption is a topic that receives increasing attention from scholars and researchers (e.g., Fischer, Bohme, & Geiger, 2017; Leary et al., 2014), but also the marketing community at-large. This is partly due to an increase in corporate sustainability initiatives and retail product offerings. In fact, Nielsen (2019) predicts that shoppers will spend nearly $150 billion on sustainable products in 2021. From a research standpoint, there are many angles from which to examine sustainable consumption patterns, attitudes, and intentions. For example, some focus young consumers since sustainability marketing efforts are often targeted towards this group (Fischer et al., 2017; Kadic-Maglajilic et al., 2019). Others have focused on gender differences (e.g., Bulut, Çımrin, & Doğan, 2017; Clark et al., 2019), finding that women generally exhibit more pro-environmental behaviors and attitudes than men due, in-part, to gender stereotypes (see Bloodhart & Swim, 2020).

Despite a surge in research, calls for further development in the context of sustainability are still being made (Quoquab & Mohammad, 2020). This is because 1) sustainability attitudes and behaviors are likely to change over time, and 2) there are many facets that shape sustainable consumption including gender, age cohort, personal factors, social norms, cultural factors, and consumption context. This means that sustainability research warrants consistent attention to achieve a modern practical understanding. The purpose of this research was to explore differences between how men and women internalize and approach sustainable consumption, focusing on those related to food products.

Method

The study was conducted using a cross-sectional design. Using CloudResearch as a sampling platform, 1,250 US respondents participated in the online survey. Quotas were utilized to ensure equal stratification across generations and gender. The survey focused on areas of sustainability including consumer intentions to purchase sustainable products, recycling behaviors, attitudes towards sustainability, sustainable purchase behaviors, and attitudes towards organic and plant-based foods.

Results

Overall, the study results indicate that women feel more strongly about many facets related to the potential benefits of sustainability, recycling, and natural/organic or plant-based foods. First, women have stronger attitudes about sustainability in general and report stronger GREEN (Haws et al., 2014) consumer behaviors. They also feel that recycling and eating foods that are either natural/organic or plant-based are more important compared to men. These responses could be explained by those that follow. Specifically, women seem to believe that natural/organic and plant-based foods provide more benefits to one’s overall health, and they more strongly relate natural/organic and plant-based foods to having a positive impact on the environment. Finally, women report that products made with all-natural ingredients and ingredients sourced responsibly are more impactful when making purchase decisions, compared to men.

References


Summary Brief

Exploring how language drives engagement: An analysis of social media engagement in the wine industry

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Introduction

Social media has become a dominant marketing tool for small and medium-sized businesses who lack substantial marketing budgets, dedicated marketing personnel, and specialized training. In many cases, business owners are forced to wear many hats to make their businesses function (CEO, Marketing Manager, Human Resources, etc.) throughout the year. As a part of the marketing mix, social media marketing has become the go-to platform for many small businesses, in part because of its inexpensive and relatively easy-to-use features (Jones, Borgman, and Ulusoy 2015; Jorge et al., 2020). In the tourism industry, consumers are increasingly using Tripadvisor, other review sites, and social media to gather information about potential destinations and engage with brands—and this is influencing their destination choices (Hudson and Thal, 2013; Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014).

Social Media & Wine Tourism

One industry that has made use of social media marketing is the wine tourism industry. While there are many several large wineries in the U.S., a predominant number of these businesses are local entrepreneurs and small, family-run businesses trying to lure customers out to visit an often remote and rural location to try their wines, which they likely have not purchased or seen in the grocery store. Large U.S. wineries like Mondavi and Coppola enjoy strong brand recognition, but for small local wineries, they must attract customers with their social media posts, their websites, positive reviews online, and other advertisements. Because social media and web traffic are important drivers of in-person traffic, it becomes increasingly important to study and understand how businesses engage consumers. Engagement becomes a critical factor for understanding marketing success in this industry.

Therefore, this research seeks to explore the factors that increase engagement with the brand and business online. Because a significant portion of a social media post is driven by language use, it becomes important to understand what words or phrases engage consumers the most. Existing research has examined similar factors, such as creative strategies (Ashley and Tuten, 2015) and humor use (Ge, 2019), but sometimes these studies aren’t able to track user responses to posts and must infer engagement. We wanted to focus on what keywords and language signifiers were associated with higher engagement and also be able to track actual metrics of user engagement. To answer questions about social media language use and consumer engagement, we examined the following questions:

Research Question 1: Which language elements of company posts influence consumer engagement in the wine tourism industry?

H1: Posts with less analytical language will have higher engagement.
H2: Posts with more clout language will have higher engagement.
H3: Posts with more authenticity language will have higher engagement.
H4: Posts with a more positive emotional tone will have higher engagement.
H5: Posts with more affiliation language will have higher engagement.
H6: Posts made in the time period after the start of the pandemic will have higher engagement than those made prior to the pandemic.

Sampling Frame

For this analysis, we started by sampling social media posts from the top 10 wine producing states in the U.S. as defined by amount of wine produced, number of wineries in the state, and economic impact.

Measures

Engagement rate. ER is a standard metric for understanding and comparing follower interaction with social media content. Because it is calculated relative to follower count, it is useful to compare accounts with audiences of all sizes. ER is calculated by dividing the total number of engagement behaviors for a specific post by the page’s follower count.
Language variables. We used the Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC) software to conduct natural language processing and identify the language variables. LIWC is built upon the premise that words can provide information about a variety of psychological constructs. Pennebaker et. al (2015) outlines the 90 variables analyzable with LIWC and their psychometric evaluation (descriptions of the dictionaries are available at liwc.wpengine.com).

We focus here on 5 specific variables including the summary variables analytical thinking, clout, authenticity, and emotional tone and one additional language variable accounting for affiliation language. Each of the summary variables uses algorithms derived from previous language research and converted to percentiles based on standardized scores (Pennebaker et al 2015). Affiliation language is based on the percentage of words from the affiliation dictionary used in the text.

Results
To test our hypotheses, we used the Univariate General Linear Model (GLM) in SPSS. Analytical thinking, clout, authenticity, emotional tone, affiliation and word count were entered as continuous variables while the coded variable for time period was included as a fixed factor. ER was the dependent variable in the model. The results shown in Table 1 indicate a significant negative effect on ER for analytical language ($F = 71.07, p < .01; B = -0.005$) and clout ($F = 6.95, p < .05; B = -0.002$), offering support for H1 but counter to H2. Authenticity had no significant effect on ER ($F = 1.65, p = .20$) giving no support for H3. There was a significant positive effect on ER for positive emotion ($F = 11.19, p < .01; B = 0.001$) and affiliation ($F = 26.32, p < .01; B = 0.013$). This supports H4 and H5. The effect of the time period was significant ($F = 288.67, p < .01; B = -0.391$) with the mean ER for posts after recognition of the pandemic higher (1.76) than those before (1.42) supporting H6.

Discussion
The results provided support for the idea that language use does in fact influence consumer responses towards and engagement with social media posts. The results of this study offer implications for small businesses like wineries, as well as other tourism destinations seeking to increase consumer engagement with their brand. This study has pushed our understanding of consumer engagement and utilized a more robust method for tracking actual consumer engagement rather than inferring it from “successful” brands as some other studies have done.
Summary Brief

The Effects of Consumer Brand Engagement on Purchase Intention in Sharing Economy

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Purpose

Although a growing number of researchers are interested in collaborative consumption, studies examining the drivers and the outcomes of brand love in the context of Airbnb are less documented. This paper bridges the literature gap by developing and testing a theory-driven conceptual model highlighting the central role of brand love.

Design/methodology/approach

Upon extensive literature review, the conceptual model was developed. An online survey was administered by using Qualtrics and data was collected from 380 Airbnb customers. Partial least square structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to test the proposed model.

Findings

Results indicate that brand love is not only driven by consumer brand engagement, perceived authenticity, and value co-creation, but it also leads to purchase intention. However, different from what is anticipated, purchase intention is not caused by consumer brand engagement. The reason is because this relationship is fully mediated by value co-creation, perceived authenticity, and brand love.

Originality/value

The results of this study advance the current knowledge of sharing economy by highlighting the importance of consumer brand engagement in sharing economy platforms which enables consumers to cocreate their own sharing experiences and ultimately positively affects their purchase intention via enhancing their perception of brand authenticity and brand love.
SESSION 7I PANEL: BEING THE GIRL IN THE ROOM

PANELISTS

Rebecca VanMeter, Ball State University, USA
Katie Howie University of Southern Mississippi, USA
Pia Albinsson, Appalachian State University, USA
Joanne Cao, University of Southern Mississippi, USA
Emily Tanner, West Virginia University, USA
SESSION 7J PANEL: CHALLENGES AS INTERNATIONAL SCHOLARS IN PHD & EARLY CAREER

PANELISTS

A. Banu Elmadag Bas, University of Southern Mississippi, USA
Wei Wang, University of Southern Mississippi, USA
Gallayanee Yaoyuneyong, University of Southern Mississippi, USA
Ismail Karabas, Murray State University, USA
Yana Andonova, Murray State University, USA
SESSION 8A: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BRANDING & SOCIAL MEDIA

CHAIR

Brian Vander Schee
Summary Brief

The White Bear Problem: The Potential Negative Consequences of Well-Being Messages on Feelings and Engagement

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Brands use social media platforms for a variety of marketing activities. However, what happens when a social media platform’s own brand account advises users to take a break from consuming their content? Under the proposed study, we examine the relationship between well-being messages and consumer engagement, as well as the mechanism that might underlie this relationship. Specifically, we investigate whether well-being messages from social media platforms (such as Tik Tok) can have an unintended negative impact on consumer well-being by inadvertently increasing consumers’ positive feelings toward the platform (and thus their subsequent engagement with, and usage of, the platform). Through this study, we hope to show that sometimes consumer behavior is not as predictable as one might expect and telling consumers to limit their use on an app can increase engagement and create positive feelings toward the platform.

Introduction

Brands use social media platforms for a variety of marketing activities including being a paid advertising channel, lead generation, and branding (Ashley & Tuten 2015), and must therefore define the customer engagement behaviors they are seeking based on their own terms. Recently, social media platforms have started brand accounts on their own apps to engage with consumers. For example, although Twitter has multiple verified accounts for different parts of its business such as “Twitter Support” and “Twitter Safety”, it also has an established account called “Twitter” with almost 60 million followers that contributes to social media trends, retweets consumer tweets, and engages with their users (Twitter 2021).

However, what happens when a social media platform’s own brand account advises users to take a break from consuming their content? Recently the emerging social media app TikTok has created a “You’re in Control” content series that utilizes creators from their app to promote messages about health and safety from its own platform’s account (Burke 2020). Examples of these messages include prompting users to get some water or go to sleep when they have been “scrolling for way too long now” and that the TikTok videos will “still be there tomorrow” (Burke 2020). This begs the question, how does this type of messaging, in which the platform’s own brand account is directly promoting consumers to stop engaging in their platform, affect subsequent consumer engagement and feelings toward the platform? Under the proposed study, we examine the relationship between such well-being messages and consumer engagement, as well as the mechanism that might underlie this relationship. Specifically, we investigate whether well-being messages from social media platforms (such as Tik Tok) can have an unintended negative impact on consumer well-being by inadvertently increasing consumers’ positive feelings toward the platform (and thus their subsequent engagement with, and usage of, the platform).

Background

The relationship between social media and well-being has become a hot topic since recent research shows social media can negatively impact personal well-being through higher levels of perceived loneliness, depression, and isolation (Kross et al. 2013; Primack et al. 2017; Steers, Wickham, & Acitelli 2014). To combat this, a recent push to disseminate public health messages from different public health accounts (like cancer charity organizations on Twitter) have shown to increase the knowledge surrounding the well-being topics (Gough et al. 2017). However, although these different charity accounts are increasing knowledge among Twitter users and making them more informed, the user is still using the platform where the potential well-being issues are derived from. We argue the unique approach that Tik Tok is using, wherein the official Tik Tok account discourages consumption of its own service, tries to more directly address social media over-usage problems, but at the same time, may have an unintended backfire effect such that positive feelings toward the platform will be achieved that can actually lead to higher levels of long-term consumer engagement with the platform (i.e., more usage compared to the absence of such well-being messages).

Expected Implications

One major theoretical contribution this study would make is further highlighting the complex relationship between brands and consumers in social media contexts. Other factors surrounding this relationship, such as the type of messaging, platform, and other intrinsic consumer/brand attributes such as brand loyalty and attachment, can also be
explored in subsequent studies. This is an important contribution since it answers the call to research and empirically explore brand/consumer engagement and relationships in social media (Hollebeek, Glynn, & Brodie 2014). Importantly, we would show a critical effect reversal that would highlight how discouraging social media consumption can actually lead to higher engagement and consumption. This would have major implications for consumer well-being and managers, alike.

Our results would also build a foundation for practitioners implementing strategies for social media platforms. Future results from this study would help social media managers tackle how to approach topics that are sensitive to consumers like their well-being and help firms balance profits with consumer welfare. Furthermore, through this study, we hope to show that sometimes consumer behavior is not as predictable as one might expect and telling consumers to limit their use on an app can actually increase engagement and create positive feelings toward the platform.

References


Summary Brief

Meme Your Brands on Social Media: The Impact of Memes on Perceived Humor and Consumer Engagement

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Brands regularly create content to maintain their relationships with existing followers as well as gain new followers. This research takes a look at the widely known trend of internet memes and how their usage by brands impacts consumer engagement. Previous research has established how the growth of memes has increased on social media over the past few years, however, no empirical study to date has studied the brand’s use of memes results in increased perceived humor which in turn, has downstream consequences of increased engagement due to interest in the product. We take the first step in this direction. Four studies, including one study using field data, are conducted that are aimed to lend support to the proposed relationships. The findings provide insight into a previously unexplored domain of using internet memes on social networking sites and have theoretical and practical implications.

Introduction

As social media becomes a major tool for businesses, brands strive to maintain relationships with consumers using social media platforms. One recent phenomenon that has emerged recently is the widespread use of memes on social media. In our research, we explore the consequences of brands employing memes in their social media ads or social media posts. Although memes could either be text and image or a GIF and image (Graphics Interchange Format) (Kostadinovska-Stojechevska and Shalevska 2018), for our study we only emphasize and test the photo and text format of memes. Using four studies, we show that when brands use memes, it results in consumers perceiving them as humorous which results in downstream consequence of increased consumer engagement. As an underlying process, the interest in the product is identified for the increased consumer engagement when brands use memes and are perceived to be humorous. To the best of our knowledge, ours is the first empirical research to establish the causal link between memes and perceived humor with the downstream consequences of interest in the product and consumer engagement. Our findings provide theoretical contributions in the field of consumer engagement and social media marketing as well as practical implications for social media managers by outlining the effectiveness of the currently popular trend of using memes on social media.

Theoretical Background

The word “meme” was originally coined by Richard Dawkins in 1976 in the book “The Selfish Gene” and he defined it as “a natural human spreading, replication, and modification of ideas and culture” (Miles 2014; Tomaž and Walanchalee 2020; Wu and Ardley 2007; Bury 2016; Anne Garcia Claire Anne P Luces and Engay 2018). Memes have been classified to belong to the humor genre and their communicative purpose has been recognized (Tomaž and Walanchalee 2020). Memes are largely reliant on humorous punchlines to draw attention and can only have the desired outcome when it is understood in the same context as the one in which it is posted (Lee et al., 2019). This has also been recognized by Patel (2013) who established that the main aim of an internet meme is to “make a joke” (Patel 2013).

Internet memes tend to persist in the minds of people (Rabea Hecker and de Jong 2020), hence providing a unique opportunity to brands for customer engagement. People prefer to watch humorous content on the internet (Heimlich 2010) and the humor element in the meme has been found to be the reason to attract the recipient’s attention (Sălcudean and Motoroiu-Ștefan 2020). Experiencing humor usually aids the achievement of hedonic goals by increasing positive emotion and helps consumers reinforce relationships (Warren, Barsky, and Mcgraw 2018). Further, most viral content has been found to be humorous (Reichstein and Brusch 2019). Humor can lead to increased attention and liking for the ad as well as the product and causes less frustration towards the ad (Duncan and Nelson 1985). When humor is used in ads, the positive affect generated is considered to be “beneficial to the communicator, the message or the associated objects” (Flaherty, Weinberger, and Gulas 2004). It has been stated that use of humorous advertisement can persuade the recipient to view the ad and the advertised product favorably (Zhang and Zinkhan 2006). Such is the prominence of favorable attitude towards the reception of humor that violent ads with humor have been found to have greater involvement, retention, likeability with them being more likely to get viral (Brown, Bhadury, and Pope 2010).
Findings

Study 1A and 1B examined the effect of memes on perceived humor. Study 2 provided evidence that brands’ use of memes results in higher consumer engagement due to higher perceived humor associated with the memes. Study 3 established that brands using memes experience higher consumer engagement due to higher perceived humor, which in turn, leads to interest in the product offered by the brand.

References


Summary Brief

The Passive to Active Social Media Brand Engagement Continuum: A Mediator in the Consumer Journey from Content Inquiry to Brand Advocacy

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Consumers are comfortable with social media and accept firms occupying the same digital space. They view, share, and create brand specific social media content at varying levels as some consumers become more emotionally engaged with firms online than others. However, the path beyond engagement leading to brand advocacy is not clear. Grounded in uses and gratifications theory, this study fills the gap in the literature by investigating the social media consumer journey. We used structural equation modeling to analyze the data from the 440 completed surveys. The results demonstrate that the passive to active social media brand engagement continuum plays a mediating role in social media content inquiry to brand advocacy through emotional brand attachment. Firms can more efficiently spend on social media marketing by providing content viewing, sharing, and creating mechanisms to move consumers along in their journey to foster brand attachment and brand advocacy.

Introduction

Social media usage has become commonplace with over 3.6 billion users worldwide (Tankovska, 2021). Prior research demonstrates that consumers are willing to interact with brands online (Laroche et al. 2012). Vander Schee et al. (2020) called for research to investigate the relationship between the antecedents of brand engagement and engagement outcomes. The objective of this research is to contribute to the literature by extending the understanding of the antecedents and consequences of the passive to active social media brand engagement continuum. Moreover, the current study seeks to answer the research questions, what is the association between social media content (SMC) inquiry and the social media brand engagement continuum? and, what is the influence of social media brand engagement on emotional brand attachment and brand advocacy?

Literature Review

SMC inquiry is defined as the motivation to find information related to products and services, events, or social opportunities (N. Park et al., 2009). The definition of brand advocacy used in this study was adopted from Roy et al. (2014) as a consumer’s active and uncompensated brand promotion behavior. In this study, emotional brand attachment is defined as a consumer’s emotional perception of brand relevance based on how it addresses personal needs, values, and interests (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Brand engagement has been studied along cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions (Hollebeek et al., 2014). Prior research showed mixed results regarding brand engagement and emotional brand attachment. Social media brand engagement has been considered from a behavioral perspective that encompasses either passive or active elements.

Methods

The survey was pretested with business faculty to assess clarity and face validity. The revised survey was then completed by a convenience sample of college students enrolled at a Midwestern public university. The number of completed surveys was 440 out of 586 students for a response rate of 75%. A comprehensive review of the social media marketing, brand engagement, and branding literature informed the development of constructs to investigate in this study (Vander Schee et al., 2020). Exploratory factor analysis was utilized to identify an initial set of dimensions using varimax rotation based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Six dimensions, explaining 74.65% of the variance emerged. Discriminant validity was also established by having the square root of the AVE exceeding all paired correlations shown in the diagonal of the correlation matrix.

Results and Discussion

Full SEM path analysis using AMOS 26 was conducted. Three of the five direct effects on brand advocacy were significant. Six of the eight hypothesized indirect pathways to brand advocacy were positive and significant. The results of this study make valuable theoretical contributions to the marketing discipline and provide important practical implications regarding social media marketing. This study adds to the literature by establishing SMC inquiry leads to viewing brand specific SMC, progressing to sharing and creating brand specific SMC. Moreover, emotional brand
attachment mediates the relationship between each of viewing, sharing, and creating brand specific SMC and brand advocacy. The results of this study also show that the relationship between brand engagement and brand advocacy is partially mediated by emotional brand attachment. This suggests that brand engagement connections are not purely behavioral in nature. Therefore, social media marketing strategies should incorporate thinking and feeling elements to foster behavioral connections (Harmeling et al., 2017).

**Future Considerations**

Brand engagement was investigated in this study through the lens of uses and gratifications theory. Future research should build on social media brand engagement from other theoretical perspectives. Continued studies from a variety of theoretical approaches will broaden and deepen the understanding of brand engagement using social media, making a valuable theoretical contribution, providing further implications for marketing practice.

**References**


Summary Brief

Motivations behind the brand-related activities on different profile-based social media platforms across different digital native age cohorts

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Assuming the importance of the motivations behind the new media use, this research seeks to explore what elements drive the different types of brand-engagement responses (COBRAs) within different age cohorts of digital natives (Generation Y and Z) among a relationship platform (Facebook), and a self-expression platform (Instagram) in a sample of Chilean people. Results showed a general similarity between native digital generations (Generation Y and Generation Z) in terms of the main drivers of consumer related responses. Nevertheless, more differences were detected in the U&G behind COBRAs between the two profile-based platforms examined.

Introduction

In the literature there is consensus that, behind media consumption and engagement, there are different users’ motivations that drive to select and use mass media in a particular way. The Uses & Gratifications Theory (U&G) has been the most widely theoretical framework used to understand the consumers’ motivation toward the media (McQuail, 1983). Originally formulated in an offline and non-commercial media context, this theory has been revised in the context of marketing and new media remaining as one of the most widely used approaches to analyze what drives the media use among consumers (Muntinga, Moorman, & Smit, 2011).

Studies examining these motivations behind new media engagement have repeatedly proposed that it is strongly influenced by the generation to which users belong. Pieces of research have tended to compare non-native and native digital age cohorts, remained almost unexplored the potential differences within digital native generations (Fietkiewicz, Lins, Baran, & Stock, 2016). Moreover, studies have also examined and reported that the motivations behind media engagement may also vary according to the type of platform, mainly because each social media outlet has been designed and tailored for different purposes and target groups. Although early pieces of research on social media tended to focus on social media in general or on specific media platforms (such as Facebook or Twitter), recent pieces have focused on comparing different platforms reporting differences among them in terms of users’ motivations and brand-related responses (Buzeta, de Pelsmaker, & Dens, 2020).

Assuming the importance of the motivations behind the new media engagement and the relevance of differentiating within digital native cohorts and social media platforms, this research seeks to expand the understanding of social media use by young consumers in their relationship with brands. It explores the motivations behind the brand engagement responses within different age cohorts of digital natives (Generation Y and Z) across two types of profile-based social media (Facebook, a relationship platform, and Instagram, a self-expression platform) (Zhu& Chen, 2015).

Background

Although there is no unique definition for consumer engagement, there is a convergence in the literature regarding the richness of the interaction between consumers and brands as a central element of this notion (Barger, Peltier, & Schultz, 2016). Although some authors had proposed typologies of the interactions between users and brands based on the ideas of consuming, participating, and producing content (see, for example, Shao, 2009), the Consumers Online Brand-Related Activities (COBRAs) model has become a key framework to examine engagement. It defines that brand-related activities may vary in the degree to which the consumer interacts with social media and engages in the consumption, contribution, and creation of media content (Dolan, Conduit, Fahy, & Goodman, 2016). In this vein, a recent study reported by Buzeta et al. (2020), showed that empowerment and remuneration motives—two U&G specifically relevant for social media use—are the most critical COBRAs drivers.

The first research question (RQ1) of this study examines the potential differences between generation Y and Z in terms of the U&G motivations associated with brand related activities (COBRAs). This is based on the idea that individuals who share similar temporal conditions, social events, distresses, and faith tend to show similar behavioral patterns. Current
generations have been divided as Silent (born between 1928-1945), Baby boomers (1946-1964), Generation X (1965-1980), Generation Y (1981-1996) and Generation Z (1997-2012) (Dimock, 2019). Empirical studies have reported that compared with X and older generations, consumers from generations Y and Z show more similarities than differences in social media usage and motives (Pongpaew, 2020). Nevertheless, other studies have reported the existence of divergences between both generations in terms of engagement behaviors: Generation Y would prefer to share information via SNS, while Generation Z would like and develop higher levels of engagement, creating its own content and collaborating with others in these platforms, which is based on the idea that a major characteristic of Generation Z members is that they prefer creating their own content to just sharing what others have created (Smith, 2019).

The second research question of this study (RQ2) evaluates the existence of differences between relationship and self-expression social media platforms in terms of the U&G associated with COBRAs. This question is based on the idea that the differences in the nature of social media platforms lead to dissimilar forms in which users interact with them (Zhu & Chen, 2015). This notion has been corroborated in the literature, which has reported divergent motivations associated not only with different platforms, but also with different brand engagement behaviors (Buzeta et al., 2020).

**Methods**
A sample of 408 of Chilean undergraduate and postgraduate students from the generation Y and Z (51% females, Age average: 27.4 years) participated in this study. They answered an online questionnaire (Qualtrics) evaluating: (1) The six motivations of the U&G Theory proposed by Muntinga et al. (2011); and (2) the three brand related activities (COBRAs). Regarding social media platforms, participants evaluated Facebook (as a relationship platform) and Instagram (a profile-based platform). For data analysis, SmartPLS 3.0 software was used, using the Multi-Group Analysis (MGA) option.

**Key Findings**
For RQ1, it was checked all the measures of validity, reliability, and the model adjustment. The multigroup analysis (MGA) corroborates the similarities between Generation Y and Z in terms of brand related actions on the social media. Only two comparison showed significant differences: Consumption showed a greater effect of Remuneration in the Generation Y; Creation was strongly motivated by Personal Identity in the Generation Z. In the rest of comparison, no significant differences were detected between both age groups examined in this study.

For RQ2, the measures were reliable and valid, and the model was adjusted. MGA analysis corroborated that there are some significant differences between the use of both types of platforms. These differences were in terms of both, what drives some brand related activities (particularly Contribution and Creation) and in the comparison of the models (MGA) in Consumption (Remuneration) and Creation (Information and personal Identity).

**References**


SESSION 8B: EDUCATION FOR SALES & SERVICES

CHAIR

Lucy Matthews
In today’s society, the global marketplace has become more relevant to all businesses in order to help ensure sustainability (Hummel, 2012). In marketing, students pursuing a career in sales can find significant opportunities due to the availability of open positions as well as the benefits such as a high-income potential, flexibility, travel, and opportunities for quick advancement (Allen et al, 2014; Arnott, 1995; Lopez et al, 2006). However, when selling internationally, there are additional skills required (Salesforce, 2021).

Prior research has highlighted that many organizations have lost revenue as a result of internationally incompetent employees (Daniel, Xie, & Kedia, 2014). This study first conducts a content analysis of sales course descriptions for all U.S. Sales Education Foundation universities. Results indicate that only 6.5% include some international sales element as part of their program, highlighting a need for increased emphasis on international sales skills. Second, this study provides one innovative way that universities can incorporate an international role play in Professional Selling courses in order to fulfill this gap.

Specifically, this international sales role play would require the U.S. university to partner with an international university that offers a similar sales class. Students from each university would be partnered together to complete a role play based on an international sales scenario using virtual communication technology such as Zoom, Teams, or Google Meet. As part of this role play, students will be required to use virtual communication tools such as screen sharing. They will also have to record this role play so that they can later reflect on the experience. Due to the collaboration, it is likely that there may be challenges such as setting up university partnerships, finding equal class sizes, creating an easily understood sales scenario, and overcoming language barriers. However, the benefits to students for participating in this experiential learning exercise far outweighs these challenges.

References


Universities found themselves unprepared for the disruption caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, and the rapid transition that required universities to move all classes to an online format posed unexpected challenges. One of these challenges was service failure in the university offerings due to not meeting the students’ perceived expectations. Within this context, the authors use the SCARF model to examine how motivational factors impact service recovery and value co-recovery in the face of dynamic changes to the students’ learning experience. Stemming from its nature in facilitating and improving collaborations and interactions with others, the SCARF model is considered a successful framework to improve motivation and engagement in academia. The data showed support for four out of five SCARF components as being relevant to service recovery that rectified, amended, and restored the student’s interrupted classroom experience. The results have some important initial implications for teaching faculty who want to be prepared to recover in case there is another educational service delivery failure.

Introduction

Universities are continually striving to grow enrollment, provide more relevant degree plans, and adapt to students’ needs (Munoz, Miller & Poole, 2016a, 2016b). While universities spend significant amounts of time preparing and planning for each semester, no university was fully prepared for the disruptive forces associated with the COVID-19 pandemic. As instructors were rapidly forced into transitioning to virtual classes, students and faculty alike reimagined the relationships in and expectations of each course. College students are believed to have experienced the pandemic more acutely as they were forced to isolate themselves at home while adhering to online education (Hamaideh et al., 2021). Consequently, instructors were faced with attempting to maintain some level of normalcy to mitigate the stresses felt by students due to the pandemic’s disruptive effects.

Service performance variability and failures often arise from the inseparability of service production and consumption (Hess et al., 2003). In a university setting, students are not afforded the opportunity to inspect the quality of the service prior to its delivery; and thus, the delivery of courses to a student by the university, when examined as a service, falls into this domain. A service failure is defined as service performance that falls below a customer’s expectations (Hoffman and Bateson, 1997). Many students experienced more challenging times as their expected face-to-face college experience, where socialization and development organically occur, was unexpectedly disrupted. Along these lines, it is posited that the forced transition during the COVID-19 pandemic can be seen as a service recovery phenomenon where colleges and universities failed to provide a ‘normal’ college experience which did not meet student expectations.

Within the context of allowing the students to co-create value and personalize their experience, this research examines how motivational factors impact service recovery and value co-recovery in the face of dynamic changes to the students’ learning experience. Rock (2008) introduced the SCARF model as a method of examining these motivational factors through the five domains of human social experience, which are Status, Certainty, Autonomy, Relatedness, and Fairness. Educators are positioned to provide certainty by employing clear outlines of what is being learned and deliver a perception of certain autonomy by initiating choice into the classroom (Rock, 2008). These feelings of certainty and autonomy are critical to service recovery when the students’ learning environment has been radically disrupted. According to Gordon (2000), most motivation driving social behavior is governed by the overarching principles of minimizing threat and maximizing reward. During the disruption created by the COVID-19 pandemic, it is reasonable that students would experience feelings of conflict and react accordingly. The authors seek to examine how the facets of the SCARF model can reduce those feelings of conflict and aid in service recovery.

Key Findings

The SCARF model is considered a successful framework to improve collaboration and engagement in academia. This stems from its nature in facilitating and improving collaborations and interactions with others as it highlights an individual’s instinct to avoid or minimize conflict and difficult situations and move towards a solution that involves benefits or rewards. The data showed support for four out of five SCARF components as being relevant to have a service
recovery that rectified, amended, and restored the student’s interrupted classroom experience. Specifically, status, certainty, relatedness, and fairness were significantly related to improving service recovery in a classroom. The facets of SCARF account for 58.0% of the variance in the expectations facet of service recovery, 63.8% of the variance in the promptness facet of service recovery, and 73.9% of the variance in the voice concerns facet of service recovery.

References


SESSION 8C: WHAT’S SALES GOT TO DO WITH IT?

CHAIR

Diane Edmondson
Summary Brief

A Comparative Study between Pre and Mid-COVID Key Employee-Organizational Constructs

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The COVID-19 pandemic has significantly impacted not only business-to-business sales organizations globally but has also been the greatest disruptor to society in centuries (Moritz, 2020). Travel restrictions, organization communication changes, remote work, business closures, layoffs and/or pay reductions, and numerous societal changes have vastly modified the way businesses operate. The sales industry is one career field that has changed more significantly than others due to the pandemic (e.g., Bages-Amat, Harrison, Spillecke, & Stanley, 2020; Connley, 2020; Sikorsky, 2020; Terrell, 2020). Because of these drastic modifications to both career and family life, sales organizations need to understand how attitudes and perceptions of their employees have changed.

In order to investigate attitude and perception changes, two surveys of business-to-business salespeople from a variety of industries were compared. The first survey was collected prior to the pandemic (2018) while the second survey was collected mid-pandemic (late-2020). Key organizational constructs including support, work-family conflict, engagement, burnout, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions were investigated. There were five significant differences between pre-COVID and mid-COVID. Sales employees saw an increase in organizational support and personal accomplishment and a decrease in work-family conflict, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intentions from 2018 to 2020. Overall, this research highlights that organizations need to develop strategies to be successful in a post-COVID world. Practical and managerial applications of these implications are discussed.

References


Summary Brief
How Perceived Sales Cannibalization Relates to Post Disruption Sales Performance: The Roles of Salesperson Bricolage and Customer Orientation

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Though retailers have been investing in technologies to stimulate online purchasing, many salespeople perceive online channels as a potential threat to their jobs and financial security. Furthermore, COVID 19 has been a disruptive force that has required salespeople to rapidly adapt their approach to sales negotiation to avoid even greater losses to online channels. The present research proposal suggests that employees’ perception of how much their store’s internet strategy is cannibalizing sales in physical outlets has had an effect on their customer orientation and performance since the onset of the COVID 19 pandemic. Salesperson bricolage, a trait that assess how well they utilize available resources, is expected to have a positive direct influence on salespersons’ post disruption performance, and positively moderate the relationship between customer orientation (relational and functional) and salesperson performance as well. We propose a study to test the aforementioned relationships.

Introduction
Retail customers today are becoming increasingly comfortable making purchases online or through mobile apps. It has become more common for retailers to provides service through multiple channels, such as by allowing customers to pick up products delivered to a physical store or allowing customers to exchange products in store that were purchased online (Verhoef et al., 2015). Research also suggests that customers may gather information from physical channels, but purchase using online or mobile applications because they prefer not to interact with a salesperson (Kazancoglu an Aydin, 2018). With a variety of available channels, consumers can customize their shopping experience in a manner that suits their individual preferences (Brynjolfsson et al, 2013).

With the internet having become an integral aspect of retailers’ strategies, the role of the retail salesperson has shifted, and managers have been left without a clear understanding of how to handle this change in the retailing context. In addition, the COVID-19 pandemic has been a disruptive force, requiring salespeople to adapt their approach to provide sustainable sales results. This research suggests that employees’ perception of how much their store’s internet strategy is cannibalizing sales in physical outlets affects their customer orientation, and ultimately, their performance since the onset of the COVID 19 pandemic. Salesperson bricolage is expected to have a direct influence on salespersons’ post disruption performance, and function as a moderator of the relationship between customer orientation and performance during this time as well.

Background
Employees are fearful that online channels and internet-based competitors will cannibalize their role in the organization and make them outdated, so they feel insecure about their jobs (Sharma and Gassenheimer, 2009). According to Diaz et al (2015), when faced with the existence of the multiple channels, salespersons perceive both a reduction in their sales and an uncertainty regarding the continuation of their jobs. When salespeople have such a high concern about their own well-being, they will be less sensitive to the needs of others (e.g., customers).

Customer orientation is viewed as the implementation of the firm market orientation at the individual salesperson level (Saxe, Weitz, and Weitz 1982). Recent research has applied a two-dimensional conceptualization of this construct involving functional customer orientation (FCO) and relational customer orientation (RCO) (Homburg, Müller, and Klarmann 2011; Miao and Wang 2016). FCO relates to solving common problems in a practical way, while RCO relates to establishing a strong personal relationship with clients, have strong interactions, and being seen as a friend. Hence both relational and functional customer orientations are inherently “other-oriented”, and will suffer when the salesperson is highly concerned about their in-store sales being cannibalized by internet sales.

Diminished levels of FCO and RCO brought about by online channel expansion are especially detrimental to salesperson performance post COVID 19. Despite the challenges of the pandemic, basic customer needs persist that can be more effectively and efficiently addressed by salespeople high in FCO. At the same time, customers increasingly need
a human touch as technology-based interactions have risen, which speaks to the continued relevance of RCO post disruption.

However, during times of disruption, previous salesperson capabilities and strategies may no longer be enough and adapting to environmental shifts in resources is critical (Epler and Leach, 2021). Disruptive events, like the COVID-19 pandemic, require different approaches from salespeople to in order to succeed or even maintain sales performance. According to Epler and Leach (2021, p. 114) “bricolage is a combination of “making do” under environmental conditions of resource constraint. Bricolage characterizes a salesperson’s ability to utilize available resources effectively by assessing available resources and working to reconfigure them in order to meet new challenges and create opportunities”. It is expected that bricolage helps salespeople to perform better in the post disruption period. Further, bricolage should enhance other salesperson capabilities, by helping salespeople to apply them more appropriately in a pandemic and/or post-pandemic scenario. Given the previous considerations, the set of hypotheses that will guide the present research proposal are:

**H1:** Salesperson cannibalization perception negatively influences a) relational customer orientation and b) functional customer orientation.

**H2:** Relational customer orientation positively influences salesperson post disruption performance.

**H3:** Functional customer orientation positively influences salesperson post disruption performance.

**H4:** Salesperson bricolage moderates the relationship between relational customer orientation and salesperson post disruption performance; such that the association between relational customer orientation and salesperson post disruption performance is stronger when bricolage is higher.

**H5:** Salesperson bricolage moderates the relationship between functional customer orientation and salesperson post disruption performance; such that the association between functional customer orientation and salesperson post disruption performance is stronger when bricolage is higher.

**Method**

We expect to send questionnaires to product and service retailers in Brazilian cities. To distribute the questionnaires, we have the support of 2 undergraduate students with a Junior Research Scholarship provided by the Brazilian Government Agency. The questionnaire will have demographic questions and preexisting scales to measure the constructs presented in the hypotheses. Also, the questions will be translated from English to Portuguese, and then translated back to English to ensure the intended meaning capture. Finally, a pre-test will be conducted before the final version of the questionnaire is submitted to salespeople from the companies that should take a part in the survey. The data will be analyzed and hypotheses tested with SMART PLS.

**References**


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Summary Brief

Direct Selling: Literature Review and Future Research Directions

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Direct selling is often ignored in the marketing literature. This paper seeks to offer an updated definition of direct selling and offer a review of key articles in the field. Ultimately, the end-goal of the proposed research is to offer a comprehensive research agenda for the future.

Introduction

Direct selling companies and their distributors have a broad impact on the economy. In 2018, the worldwide sales of direct selling companies was $192.9 billion, with over 118 million direct selling representatives (WFDSA, 2019). In the United States, 2018 direct sales totaled $35.4 billion and there were 6.2 million direct selling representatives selling to more than 36 million customers (DSA, 2019). Research suggests 7.7 percent of U.S. adults have participated in one or more direct selling companies in their lifetime (DeLiema et al., 2018) and the percentage of consumers that have purchased items from direct sellers ranges from 17.5 percent to 25.5 percent (Poon et al., 2012; Young & Albaum, 2003).

Over twenty years ago, Peterson and Wotruba (1996) offered a definition of direct selling and a research agenda. They noted that “direct selling has been virtually ignored in the marketing literature” (Peterson & Wotruba, 1996, p. 1). Surprisingly, this remains largely true in the present day. The research that is conducted on direct selling often takes a negative view of the channel (Groß & Vriens, 2019), calling into question its legitimacy as a field of study.

Similar to Albaum and Peterson (2011), this paper takes the view that direct selling is a legitimate form of business and as such is a legitimate field of study. The purpose of this paper is to offer an updated definition of direct selling and offer a review of key articles in the field. Ultimately, the end-goal of the proposed research is to offer a comprehensive research agenda for the future.

Definition of Direct Selling

Peterson and Wotruba offered the following definition of direct selling: “Direct selling is face-to-face selling away from a fixed retail location” (1996, p. 2). Given the technological advancements since 1996, direct selling no longer necessarily takes place face-to-face. Anyone who regularly uses Facebook has likely seen Facebook “lives” where direct selling representatives are peddling their products through video. One direct selling company with which the author is familiar has extensive training on how to use social media to sell products. Clearly, the days of direct sellers primarily selling at home parties is a thing of the past. In addition, the language “fixed retail location” does not adequately describe direct selling. Most direct selling companies now have individual websites for their representatives. Similar to Amazon.com being a fixed retail location on the internet, a direct seller’s personal internet store is a fixed internet location.

To resolve these issues, this paper offers the following working definition. Direct selling is a distribution channel and form of non-store retailing whereby independent contractors sell products through various mediums, including but not limited to, face-to-face, social media sites, web pages, etc.

Literature Review

Direct selling has been investigated through the lens of ethics (e.g. Ferrell, Gonzalez-Padron, & Ferrell, 2010; Groß & Vriens, 2019), entrepreneurship (e.g. Scott et al., 2012), and sociology (D’Antonio, 2019) among other fields. Direct selling is sometimes used as a context to study research questions with broader implications (Ho, 2012; Itani, Jaramillo & Chonko, 2019; Jaramillo, Mulki & Boles, 2013). Yet, there is limited empirical research on direct selling in the field of marketing. However, a review of the direct selling literature published in the recent past revealed three main themes. The first theme is the legitimacy (or non-legitimacy) of direct selling. Albaum and Peterson (2011) defend direct selling, and subsequently multi-level marketing as a legitimate field of study. Crittenden and Albaum (2015) examine internal consumption in various studies and conclude that internal consumption is not unique to direct selling. Keep and Vander Nat (2014) offer a historical review of direct selling and take a negative view of the channel. Similarly, Grob and Vriens (2019) outline the legal and ethical problems associated with direct selling, but also offer an extended model that can be used to examine multi-level marketing companies.
The second theme is the level of analysis of direct selling companies. Direct selling has been examined at the company level, the representative level, and at the customer level. At the company level, Martin and Rawlins (2018) examined the recruiting content from three direct selling companies. Bosley and McKeage (2015) examined the diffusion of the Fortune Hi-Tech Marketing company in Wyoming. Scott and colleagues (2012) examined Avon in South Africa and concluded that Avon aids some disadvantaged women and helps them earn a superior income while also inspiring empowerment.

At the representative level, Harrison and Hair (2017) found that technology use had a positive effect on enhancing relationship quality and relationship management performance with both consumers and sponsored independent contractors. Dai and colleagues (2017) found that the social environment in a direct selling organization positively influenced the self-efficacy of direct sellers which subsequently positively impacted their performance as representatives. Gleim and colleagues (2019) compared direct sellers to gig economy workers and found that there were differences in self-congruence, financial motives, organizational trust, and job satisfaction between the two groups. Specifically, direct sellers view themselves as more congruent with their organization than gig economy workers. Direct sellers are also less likely to be driven by financial motivations than gig economy workers.

Only one study could be identified that examined direct selling from the customer’s perspective. Poon and colleagues (2012) surveyed 210 Chinese consumers using the street-intercept method. They found that affective trust in a direct selling salesperson is positively related to repurchase intention.

The final theme that emerged in the review of the direct selling literature is using direct selling as a context to examine various variables related to salespeople in general. Ho (2012) examined the effects of friendship on outcome favorability and found that when an outcome is unfavorable, friendships have a positive effect on outcome fairness. Two studies examined the relationships between ethical climate and job satisfaction within the contexts of direct selling (Itani et al., 2019; Jaramillo et al., 2013).

References


Summary Brief
Retailer Location-Based Brand Equity, Conceptualization of a Missing Part of Brand Equity

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Previous research has recognized the importance of location in retail. On the other hand, previous work on brand equity has never specifically considered the role of geographic location of the retailer brand in relation to customers. This research explores the role of location on brand equity. A custom Python script was used to collect a large Yelp dataset of retailers from fast-food restaurants, coffee shops, and grocery stores. This research utilizes mixed qualitative methods including ML, AI enabled content analysis, and content analysis to develop the Retailer Location-Based Brand Equity (RLBBE). The results lead to the creation of three dimensions of RLBBE: Location-Based Convenience, Locus of Loyalty, and Locality of the Brand.

Introduction
This research takes a qualitative approach to theory-building as it makes the case for RLBBE as a component of overall brand equity. An extensive literature review of the constructs of brand equity and retail location informs a grounded theory approach to uncovering the importance that consumers place on the location of retailers and to answer the overarching research question that follows: What are the factors that make up the portion of brand equity that is related to the location of the retailer relative to the consumer?

Background
To achieve this goal, this research employs a mixed-method qualitative approach to both justify the existence of RLBBE and to, more importantly, uncover the components that constitute the overall construct. The role of location importance for retailer brands is established with the support of land use theory (von Thünen, 1826/1966; Fujita, 2012) to explain that consumers from rural and urban areas live and consume differently and exhibit different expectations and habits in their purchase behavior. The mixed-method qualitative analysis explores consumer perceptions of retailer brands as posted on the social media platform Yelp. Yelp’s users have a detailed profile that includes their city, state, number of reviews posted, and user photos, allowing for additional data to be collected and for the removal of reviewers that are irrelevant to the scope of this analysis. Furthermore, Yelp users are identified only by their first name and first initial of their last name and can choose whether or not they want to post a profile picture. This practice provides a certain level of anonymity and allows consumers to review a store without fear of repercussions when posting a negative review and can lead to a more honest review (Van Zant and Kray, 2014). Previous netnographic content analysis researchers have used web crawlers to collect data (Brejla and Gilbert, 2014; Zhou et al., 2005). Researchers conducting sentiment analysis on large datasets have begun, during the past several years, to leverage the use of machine learning to carry out this general linguistic method, the use of which was previously limited to smaller, more manageable datasets (Brejla and Gilbert, 2014; Mei and Frank, 2015), which is especially useful in verifying the quality of the data (Schelter et al., 2018). One of the methods used to verify the quality of data is to use naïve Bayes (Chen et al., 2019; Schelter et al., 2018). Once the entire dataset was analyzed using the naïve Bayes algorithm, a sentiment analysis using IBM Watson Tone Analyzer was used to offer a more in-depth analysis of the data. Finally, a subsample of the larger dataset was pared down based on its probative value and was assessed with the support of expert coders until saturation of themes was achieved (Fusch and Ness, 2015).

Key Findings
The qualitative analysis identified the differences between micropolitan (rural) and metropolitan (urban) consumers as a lens that allows for the constant comparison that is required by grounded theory. The emerging themes are then used to develop the theoretical framework of RLBBE. The netnographic content analysis allowed us to identify three major factors that differentiate between micropolitan and metropolitan consumers, named the 3L’s (location-based convenience, locus of loyalty, and locality of the brand). First, location-based convenience explains that micropolitan and metropolitan consumers perceive the importance of convenience differently. The second factor of RLBBE uncovered is referred to as locus of loyalty. This factor identifies a tendency of consumers from micropolitan areas to perceive their local retailer location as a proxy for the entire brand, and of metropolitan consumers to judge the brand more holistically.
instead of basing their brand perceptions on a specific retail location. Lastly, the content analysis uncovers a major difference in the way the locality of the brand is perceived between metropolitan and micropolitan consumers. In this case, metropolitan consumers are much more cognizant of the origin of the brand while micropolitan consumers do not seem to hold salient the brand origin of the retailer.

**Conclusion**

The content analysis uncovered three major components to help make the case for retailer location-based brand equity. The three L’s of RLBBE correspond to location-based convenience, locus of loyalty, and the locality of the brand. The three L’s represent the core differences among consumers based on their physical locations. These differences correlate with the need to consider RLBBE as a component of brand equity.

**Reference**


Summary Brief

Consumer Response to the Steadily Increasing Discount Strategy

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The Steadily Increasing Discount model is a pricing strategy that utilizes discounts and perceived scarcity. Along with the discount and scarcity components, customers must weigh the risks of the timing of their purchase decisions. Customers must decide whether they will forego a lower price in order to securely obtain a product as opposed to risking the loss of the product by waiting for a lower price that will come at a later date. In order to understand these psychological mechanisms that customers experience as they progress through the discount model, a 2 (Scarcity: 10, 5) X 3 (Discount: $45, $40, $35) experiment was implemented with a student sample from two universities. It was found that when customers believe there will be fewer units of a product, then they will anticipate regret if the product is not purchased. The anticipated regret is likely to lead to risk. In order to forego the risk, customers are more likely to make the purchase. Theoretical and managerial implications are discussed.

Introduction

Retailers are constantly trying to manage prices with two major goals in mind: set a pricing schedule that maximizes revenue without alienating customers. A price that is too high can lead to a loss of customers, while a price that is too low leaves money on the proverbial table (Pavesic 1989). This presents a challenge to retailers to try and strike the right balance. A possible solution to the challenge is an approach known as the Steadily Increasing Discount (SID) Model. This strategy can drive traffic, manage inventory, and optimize revenue for retailers by using discounts and perceived scarcity to motivate customers to make purchases (Gabler, Landers, & Reynolds 2017; Gabler & Reynolds 2013). To date, there has been little research that as examined the key drivers that link the interplay between the SID process and scarcity to purchase. Individuals perceive and respond to scarcity differently (Hamilton et al. 2019), which should translate to the perceptions and responses of how much of a product will be left in stock as prices are set to lower. The concept of projected demand in relation to projected scarcity has not been analyzed in the context of SID. This highlights the importance of inventory positioning for retailers. This research makes an investigation of the SID pricing strategy, but more generally, we unpack the psychological mechanisms different individuals use to make purchase decisions. Understanding customers’ reactions to the SID strategy can help managers understand the optional pricing schedule.

Background

Pricing and promotions are effective, because they manipulate how customers perceive product quality based on the deal they are receiving (Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal 1991). The particular pricing model analyzed in the current study is the SID model. It is an emerging strategy which utilizes scarcity and a steadily dropping discount schedule to maximize profits (Gabler & Reynolds 2013). SID leverages scarcity as consumers are aware of when the discount will drop and by how much the discount will drop, but not of how many, if any, units will be left. Scarcity is an effective retail strategy, because it limits the amount of information customers absorb and process when making decisions (Suri, Kohli, & Monroe 2007). Customers want to obtain a product that they might not have access to due to scarcity. In fact, customers will generally choose to purchase early in the discount schedule at a higher price to avoid missing out on the opportunity (Gabler & Reynolds 2017). Customers do not want to experience the regret of missing the promotion; therefore, they anticipate regret based on the information they have available to them in the moment regarding price and remaining units. Customers are also more likely to regret not purchasing early and missing an opportunity than purchasing early and losing out on a better deal (Gabler et al. 2017). In order to forego regret, customers must weigh their options: purchase now at a higher price and ensure acquisition of the product or wait to purchase the product at a lower price and risk losing the product if all units are sold.

Seeing as pricing and scarcity are known to be effective, we expect that scarcity and price level will interact to influence a customer’s projected scarcity. Additionally, it is expected that anticipated regret and risk will have an effect between projected scarcity and purchase. In order to test these relationships, a 2 (Scarcity: 10, 5) X 3 (Discount: $45, $40, $35) experimental design was conducted with a student sample from two universities. Participants were randomly assigned to scarcity level and level of the SID process so that we could understand what goes into decision-making when entering
at different stages of the SID process. In the analysis, discount was coded with $45 being the comparison price. Therefore, we had two dummy variables, one for $40 and one for $35. Scarcity was also dummy coded with low scarcity being 0 and high scarcity being one 1.

Key Findings

The results indicate that discount level (b$_{40}$=0.18, p<.01; b$_{35}$=0.20, p<.01) and scarcity level (b=.56, p<.01) influence projected scarcity. Projected scarcity has a positive relationship with anticipated regret (b=.20, p<.01), and anticipated regret has a positive relationship with risk (b=.58, p<.01). Ultimately, risk has a positive relationship with likelihood to purchase (b=.29, p<.01). This shows that if customers believe there will be fewer units of a product, then they will experience anticipated regret if they did not make the purchase. The anticipated regret is likely to lead to feelings of risk. In order to forego the feelings of risk, customers are more likely to make the purchase. This shows that customers operate off of a perception of how many units will be left, and that acts as one of the psychological drivers to spur customers to make a purchase. Retailers can manipulate levels of scarcity to enhance the perception of projected scarcity, thus motivating the process of anticipating regret and considering the risk of potentially losing the product to wait for a cheaper price or to secure the product at a higher price earlier in the discount model. This research offers a glimpse into customers’ reactions to the SID strategy, illuminating the psychological aspects that are triggered, such as projected scarcity, anticipated regret, and feelings of risk that lead to the likelihood to purchase a product.

References


SESSION 8E: DOCTORAL DISSERTATION PRESENTATIONS

CHAIR

Christopher Newman
Summary Brief

Going Digital to Conform and Perform: Learning Logics Underpinning Digital Advertising Spending

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Despite a rich understanding of how and when digital advertising contributes to firm performance, we know less about the drivers of digital advertising spending. Drawing on the strategic change perspective, we delineate five learning sources motivated by either conformance or performance that serve as antecedents to firms’ digital advertising spending. A panel vector autoregression analysis of a 54,628 firm-quarter dataset provides empirical evidence corroborating our theory that learning from an array of stakeholders – customers of a focal firm, peers in an industry, general consumers in the marketplace, and society – affects investment in digital advertising. In general, conformance-oriented learning logics better explain digital advertising spending, even more so under resource constraints. A non-parametric multivariate joint-trajectory clustering approach finds that firms oriented to consumer reactions financially outperform both firms that seek to learn from multiple learning sources and firms that are apathetic learners.

Introduction

Since a rudimentary banner appeared in an online magazine in 1994, the way that firms communicate with customers has transformed remarkably. Now digital advertising is inarguably a primary marketing vehicle that businesses use to bring about cognitive, attitudinal, and behavioral changes in customers. Digital advertising budgets became comparable to traditional advertising budgets in 2020 (Adgate 2020), and future projections indicate that digital advertising spending (DAS hereafter) could account for two-thirds of total ad spending in 2021, which suggests budgets for digital advertising will become twice as large as traditional advertising budgets (IAB 2020).

In line with the growing emphasis placed upon digital advertising by firms, the marketing literature has produced rich insights into the relationship between DAS and performance in terms of how much and when digital advertising rewards advertisers. What underlies the interest in the research is the predominant assumption that firms adopt digital advertising because it is effective at improving firm performance. Indeed, the widespread view among practitioners on digital advertising attributes its popularity to its superior return on investment (ROI) or its effective measurability (e.g., Nielsen 2018). However, the prevalent view is incomplete for four reasons.

First, firms are limited in their ability to accurately attribute performance to each advertising medium in their advertising media mix portfolios, especially with the growing proliferation of advertising media. Indeed, firms may not necessarily determine their advertising spending in a way that benefit them.Advertisers often do not have access to the critical information that they need to accurately assess ad effectiveness (Pritchard 2021) or the attribution analysis capability to analyze the true incremental value of each advertising decision they make (Frederik and Martijn 2019).

Second, the better return claims of digital advertising over traditional advertising are being questioned. Illustrative is a class-action lawsuit filed against Facebook in 2018 for its allegedly false claim, “We can show the ads to the right people.” Besides this, rising unease over digital advertising results from ad annoyingness (John et al. 2018), privacy concerns, emerging privacy regulations (IAB 2020), and brand safety concerns due to prevalent programmatic advertising media buying in which firms cannot control ad placement (IAB 2020).

Third, marketers recognize that digital advertising is not a panacea that enables them to attain whichever marketing goals they pursue. Underlying Airbnb’s decision to slash its digital marketing spending in 2020 is the recognition of digital advertising’s conversion-oriented nature (Spanier 2021), which represents digital advertising’s limited ability in acquiring consumers at the top of the funnel.

Fourth, there is noticeable heterogeneity among firms and industries in terms of their budgetary emphasis on digital advertising. Although the migration to digital advertising is an evident transition, some firms are more involved in it (e.g., Under Armour, Pepsi), whereas others (e.g., P&G, Airbnb) appear less motivated in that direction (Spanier 2021). Thus, whether increasing DAS is an unequivocal, paradigmatic transition in which all firms are equally engaged is open to debate.
Against this background, we view digital advertising spending as a crucial strategic change decision and identify five learning sources, each of which represents a source that a firm learns from to determine its digital advertising spending. Drawing on the strategic change literature that encompasses neo-institutional (DiMaggio and Powell 1983) and organizational learning theories (e.g., Levitt and March 1988), we conceptualize five learning logics, each of which explains how a learning source influences a firm’s digital advertising spending. The learning logics can be classified into two distinct categories based on the nature of the learning that each embodies: performance learning logics representing a firm’s exploration and the analysis of growth opportunities to perform better and conformance learning logics standing for a firm’s alignment of its decisions with institutional environments as a means of remaining legitimate. Because the strategic change literature views resource constraints that a firm encounters as the fundamental contingency factor that determines the firm’s decision on strategic changes, we also investigate the effect of resource constraint perception and slack resources as moderators of the learning logic-DAS relationship. The manner in which a firm utilizes the learning source characterizes the firm’s unique learning style; the dynamic pattern shows the extent to which each learning logic explains a firm’s digital advertising spending over time. Correspondingly, we investigate the consequence of adopting different learning styles by analyzing each learning style’s influence on firm performance. Thus, the study attempts to address the following research questions: (1) What learning logics explain firms’ decisions on DAS? (2) Under what condition are firms more likely to follow performance vis-à-vis conformance learning logics in their DAS decisions? (3) What is the effect of DAS related firm learning styles on firm performance?

Despite the significant financial resources that flow to digital advertising, the drivers of the budgetary decisions about digital advertising have been left underexplored. This study will provide a systematic understanding of the drivers of firms’ decisions on DAS and the performance implication of the manner in which firms learn (i.e., learning style) to determine their DAS.

References


SESSION 8F: SUSTAINABILITY & CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

CHAIR

Marla Stafford
Summary Brief

**A Comparison of Sustainability Intentions and Attitudes Across Generations**

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Amidst advancements in technological advances, consumer trends and social movements, it is imperative to continue to follow how consumers think about, react to, and perceive their role in the world. One such issue is how consumers think about sustainability as they make consumption choices.

Sustainable consumption is a topic that receives increasing attention from scholars and researchers (e.g., Fischer, Böhme, & Geiger, 2017, Leary et al., 2014), but also the marketing community at-large. From a research standpoint, a major thrust of attention is focused on how consumers feel about sustainable consumption, including whether they feel they can make a difference in helping to preserve the environment through their own actions. Some research focuses specifically on young consumers since a great deal of sustainability marketing efforts are aimed towards this group (Fischer et al., 2017, Kadic-Maglajilic et al., 2019). Researchers are also trying to understand what behaviors are relevant in constituting sustainable consumption behaviors, since extant literature employs a wide range of methods to measure it (Geiger, Fischer, & Schrader 2018).

The purpose of this research was to examine how different generational groups think, feel, and act towards sustainability in the consumption of food and grocery products. This follows claims that there are generational divides in sustainability (Gelski, 2019). Our study focuses on some of the more intricate nuances of sustainability consumption so that food marketers may better understand consumer feelings and intentions towards sustainability in the food category.

**Method**

The study was conducted using a cross-sectional design. Using CloudResearch as a sampling platform, 1250 US respondents participated in the online survey. We utilized quotas to ensure equal stratification across generations and gender. The survey focused on areas of sustainability including consumer intentions to purchase sustainable products, past purchase behaviors, involvement in sustainability, and attitudes towards companies in their sustainability efforts.

**Results**

Overall, the results suggest that there are some generational differences when it comes to general attitudes towards sustainability. For example, the Baby Boomers scored lower than the other three generational groups. No other differences between the groups were present. Interestingly, results also showed that although the older generation seems to value sustainability less than younger generations, they are equally active in pro-environmental consumption.

In general, consumers tend to be in strong agreement that “Sustainability is necessary for planet health”. However, the Baby Boomers demonstrated lower levels of agreement than did Gen-X, and Millennials. Furthermore, generations seem to feel differently about the benefits and costs to achieve sustainability. When asked if the positive impacts of sustainability efforts on the environment is greater than the cost to achieve them, we found agreement to be higher for the youngest generations compared to the Baby Boomers. This suggests that younger consumers are more apt to feel that the reward to the environment outweighs the costs to achieve them. Baby Boomers also reported that eating organic natural foods were less important than the other groups.

**References**


Many Americans are aware of climate change issues and believe they must increase engagement in pro-environmental behaviors (PEB). Utilizing value-belief-norm (VBN) theory, we investigate the psychological processes driving consumers to engage in home energy efficiency investment behaviors and the potentially inhibiting role that climate change conspiracy beliefs play in those processes. Using structural equation modeling, we find strong support for the VBN model and the inhibiting role of climate change conspiracy beliefs.

Results suggest that scholars investigating decisions to adopt environmental products or engage in pro-environmental behaviors should consider the inhibiting role of conspiracies as well as using the VBN model as a theoretical foundation. Practitioners and policymakers should evaluate the components of the VBN framework for opportunities to influence consumer choices. Further, decision-makers who believe consumers might be prone to conspiracies should incorporate strategies designed to counteract this effect.

Acknowledgements
This study was supported by a grant from the Green Fee Allocation Committee at the University of Memphis. The committee was not involved in the study design; collection, analysis and interpretation of data; writing of the report; or the decision to submit the article for publication.

Introduction
The purpose of this research is 1) to gain a better understanding of the psychological processes that drive consumers to engage in home energy efficiency investment behaviors, 2) to investigate the relationship between belief in climate change conspiracy and pro-environmental behaviors and the inhibiting role that climate change conspiracy may play in modifying those behaviors, and 3) to apply the value-belief-norm (VBN) model (Stern 2000) in the context of understanding psychological drivers of home energy efficiency investment behaviors.

Hypotheses
We posit the following hypotheses:

H1: Values are positively related to the New Ecological Paradigm.
H2: The New Ecological Paradigm is positively related to Awareness of Consequences.
H3: Awareness of Consequences is positively related to Ascription of Responsibility.
H4: Ascription of Responsibility is positively related to pro-environmental Personal Norms.
H5: Personal Norms are positively related to Energy Efficiency Behaviors.
H6: Climate Change Conspiracy is negatively related to Awareness of Consequences.

Analysis and Results
A link to a Qualtrics survey was distributed to 2,008 faculty and staff of a major southeastern university through the university’s email distribution list. After removing respondents for missing values or other survey errors, the final sample resulted in 277 usable responses, a 13.8% response rate (42.6% male, average age 52, 85.6% with college degree or higher).

All items were subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using SPSS AMOS software. Overall fit statistics indicate that the model fits the data well ($\chi^2(155) = 289.10, p < .0001$, RMSEA = .056, CFI = .97, NFI = .93, TLI = .96). The internal consistency reliability coefficients (coefficient $\alpha$) of the measures, which ranged from .84 to .91, as well as the average variance extracted (AVE) and shared variance between constructs, all of which indicate that convergent and discriminant validity have been achieved and that the scales are highly reliable (Fornell and Larcker 1981).

A structural model was tested, also using SPSS AMOS ($\chi^2(184) = 522.14, p < .0001$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .92, NFI = .89, TLI = .91). Support is found for all six hypothesized relationships.
Discussion

Each of the hypotheses in the VBN model finds support; hence, we find strong empirical support for the VBN model in the context of understanding psychological drivers of home energy efficiency investment behaviors.

This study also contributes to the literature by specifying a condition where the VBN framework is inhibited – namely belief in a Climate Change Conspiracy. The significant impact of climate change conspiracy is interesting in that it highlights an issue that has seen very little attention in the sustainability literature. Given this study’s findings, and the results of Lewandowsky, Gignac, and Oberauer (2013a) and Lewandowsky, Oberauer, and Gignac (2013b), we call for more research in this area. It is clear conspiracy can play a role in consumer decision making in the PEB context through the VBN model, but further work is needed to understand what role it might play in other theoretical frameworks [e.g. Fishbein and Ajzen’s (2010) theory of reasoned action (TRA)].

Marketing practitioners and policymakers who believe that segments of their target markets might be prone to conspiracies would be well served to incorporate strategies proposed by Lewandowsky et al. (2012). They apply cognitive psychological theory to the problem of misinformation and suggest solutions to four different types of misinformation problems. For example, one problem associated with misinformation stems from conspiracies that are repeated often, and thereby reinforce it. This is called the familiarity backfire effect. To counteract this type of misinformation or conspiracy, Lewandowsky et al. (2012) suggest reinforcing the correct facts while avoiding repetition of the conspiracy.

When attempts to persuade individuals to adopt sustainable behaviors fail, the organizations responsible for the persuasion often look to their own efforts to understand how to succeed in the future. Better marketing plans, more attractive promotional materials, and more enthusiastic pro-environmental representatives are among some of the obvious areas for improvement. However, such efforts may still meet failure if the individuals being persuaded reject the science of climate change altogether. New approaches to encouraging the adoption of sustainable behaviors should put facts first in an attempt to debunk climate change myths, convincing skeptics of the rigidity of the science as well as the proclivity of the behaviors. Just as one conspiracy theory can turn an individual away from many credentialed scientific claims, perhaps one debunked theory can change said individual’s entire paradigm toward scientific thinking, ultimately having an impact on the sustainability of our planet.

References


Summary Brief

The Attitude-Behavior Gap towards Sustainable Consumption in K-pop

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While K-pop's unique marketing strategies ensure their success, many of their products and plans may not be considered environmentally sustainable. The current literature often focuses on the international growth and marketing of the K-pop phenomenon (Fuhr, 2016; Jin & Yoon, 2016) or the Korean Wave. However, there is far less focus on the consumption behaviors of K-pop fans. Additionally, the massive growth in global demand for K-pop goods certainly warrants further academic research on the consumption practices of K-pop fans and the issue of sustainability. Therefore, this study aims to examine the attitude-behavior gap towards sustainable consumption in K-pop fans. Additionally, the current study is the first to attempt to understand this gap between K-pop fans' consumption and perceived sustainability. Understanding K-pop fans' consumption behavior may help introduce a new marketing strategy that not only increases sales but also offers a sustainable option for the music industry.

Introduction

Since 2018, Korean Popular Music (henceforth, “K-pop” in this paper) has amassed an enormous worldwide fandom of teenagers and young adults. Many K-pop companies employ a distinctive marketing strategy to build a community of superfans and enhance their brand loyalty through unique fandom marketing plans. Recently, the practice of bulk buying albums, in particular, has come under scrutiny for being wasteful and harmful to the environment (Herman, 2021). The massive growth in global demand for K-pop goods, alongside and in contrast to a growing interest in sustainability among younger generations, certainly warrants further academic research on the consumer attitudes and practices of K-pop fans. This study, therefore, introduces a conceptual model and examines the attitude-behavior gap towards sustainable consumption in K-pop fans.

Exploring the attitude-behavior gap in K-pop fans regarding sustainability must address the complex set of tangible and intangible benefits motivating purchase intention and consumption behavior. We hypothesize that K-pop fans will generally have a positive attitude towards environmental issues and social concerns but are not green-conscious regarding K-pop consumption. Based on the literature review, two questions are proposed: (1) Is there a gap between consumers’ attitudes toward sustainable consumption and their actual behaviors regarding K-Pop merchandise? and (2) Do K-Pop fans realize that their buying behavior may not be considered environmentally sustainable?

Furthermore, this study will observe the difference in purchase behavior when considering individual traits, including fan obsession, materialism, compulsive buying, and price conciseness. Lastly, we will control for age, gender, income, and education since these factors may influence the model.

Literature

Attitude-Behavior Gap

Research suggests that while many consumers typically have a positive attitude towards sustainability and green products, this attitude does not translate to actual behavior (Bernardes et al., 2018; Park & Lin, 2020). Although many studies attempt to understand the attitude-behavior gap, further research is still needed (Jacobs et al., 2018), especially in sustainable consumption. Additionally, many researchers have investigated attitude behavioral gaps in sustainable products such as clothing, foods, and personal care (e.g., Park & Lin, 2020; Schäufele & Janssen, 2021). What has not been considered in the attitude-behavior gap research is the rise of K-pop fans’ consumption. Evidence seems to suggest an attitude-behavior gap since K-pop fans do not lack concern about environmental and social issues. Particularly, K-pop fans are known for their activism and charitable contributions. For instance, the K-pop fan group of BTS recently raised over $29,000 for COVID-19 relief in Indian under 24 hours (Tusing, 2021).

Environmentalism

Prior research addressed values that significantly influence sustainable consumption (Jacob et al., 2018) since Schwartz’s (1992, 1994) Theory of Fundamental Human Values has been used in numerous pro-environmental and prosocial behavior studies to differentiate between self-transcendence values and self-enhancement values. Jacob et al.
(2018) defined self-enhancement value as considering one’s own interests. In contrast, self-transcendence values reflect collective interests. Additionally, people who support self-transcendence tend to have pro-environmental and prosocial behavior than those who support self-enhancement values (Steg et al., 2014). For example, Jägel et al. (2012) suggested that consumers rooted in self-transcendence values have preferences for sustainability-related apparel traits.

Proposed Methods

Two studies will be considered to test the conceptual model. First, a qualitative study will be performed in which the data will be collected around a K-pop album release date (pre-and post-purchase). The data will be curated using Twitter, and the sampling technique will be an algorithm approach (snowballing). The data will be harvested and stored using a hashtag downloader called tags.hawkey. For example, the hashtags #kpop4planet and #kpopalbum are gathered and stored in Google Sheets. The second study will be a survey study to measure K-pop fans’ attitudes and purchase behavior after their album purchase using a consumer panel. Logistic regression will be the method of analysis to test the empirical model.

References


SESSION 8G SPECIAL SESSION: BEST PRACTICES IN PIVOTING TO REMOTE LEARNING

PANELISTS

Sarah Mittal, St. Edward’s University, USA
Nancy Richmond, Florida International University, USA
Adam Mills, Loyola University, USA
SESSION 8H PANEL: DEMYSTIFYING THE TENURE & PROMOTION PROCESS

PANELISTS

Anton Fenik, Grand Valley State University, USA
Joel Collier, Mississippi State University, USA
Terence Holmes, Murray State University, USA
SESSION 8I: SOCIAL MEDIA & THE IMPACT OF CONSUMERS BRAND COMMUNITIES

CHAIR

Jen Riley
Summary Brief

The Impact of Brand Trust on Brand Resonance in Ride-hailing Services

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Omer Topaloglu, Fairleigh Dickinson University, USA

New branding theories are needed to explain and predict today’s digital brands and services. The aim of the current study is to investigate the relationship between brand trust and brand resonance for peer-to-peer digital brands (P2P-DBs). In particular, the impact of platform performance, personal reputation, and service value on brand resonance and the mediating role of brand trust are studied. A survey was administered with 363 ride-hailing customers in two countries, the US and Pakistan. Findings contribute to the existing literature in two ways: 1) The role of trust as a mediator between platform performance, personal reputation and brand resonance is significant for the current sample and 2) personal reputation and service value are key in creating brand resonance for P2P-DBs.

Introduction

Peer-to-peer digital brands (P2P-DBs) have significantly changed consumption behaviours in the past decade (Hamari, Sjöklint, and Ukkonen 2015). Traveling or staying with an unfamiliar person is no longer taken as a violation of privacy for many people. One factor that led to this transition is the online rating and review mechanisms provided by the latest digital technologies. Ride-hailing is one of the most popular and global forms of peer-to-peer service provision. The number of Uber and Lyft cars are expected to outnumber taxis four to one in New York City (Jiang et al. 2018). The advantage of P2P ride-hailing services is the timely utilization of mobile technologies, such as GPS, mobile networks, and app-based smartphones. This paper seeks to answer two research questions: 1) How should the current brand equity theory be implemented in P2P service provision contexts in the ever-changing digital world? 2) Given that trust-building is the most crucial concern of digital brands according to earlier brand equity theories, how can this reality be translated into the P2P-DB contexts?

Background

The current study proposes a trust-based brand resonance model for P2P-DBs. The P2P-DBE model is based on personal reputation and trust perceptions of P2P ride-hailing users. Further, it accommodates the tangible and intangible brand associations of the users. The sense of trust, which lies at the base of the model, is a brand resonance component with two dimensions: P2P-DBs should both build trust in the brand and ensure that individuals using their services trust each other. Trust in the brand can be achieved by a solid digital infrastructure and reliable transactions. Creating a peer-trust is perhaps a more difficult task. P2P-DBs have created a rating and review mechanism through their technological infrastructure, and the cumulative ratings and reviews are used as a measure of personal reputation among users.

Key Findings

Consumer decision processes, expectations, and experiences in P2P-DB service exchange mechanisms differ from the traditional forms (Tussyadiah and Zach 2017). In the P2P context, communication between the peers is reciprocal and recursive happening through a mediator of a digital platform. One of the aims of the current research is to uncover these relations. The major commitment of the study is to acknowledge the brand resonance dimensions in P2P ride-hailing service exchange. Therefore, we propose two effects of platform performance on brand resonance, a direct and an indirect (mediated by the trust) effect. The results of the analysis showed that the direct relationship from platform performance to brand resonance was not significant. However, platform performance is mediated by trust and indirectly affects brand resonance. This translates that, the users of P2P ride-hailing brands do not only expect a well-designed platform, they also need to trust the platforms.

References


Summary Brief
Content or Engagement, Which Comes First?
A critical assessment of, eWOM, Customer Engagement, and Value Co-creation within Social Media Brand Communities

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Eric Harvey, Kennesaw State University, USA

What comes first, social media content generation or social media customer engagement? As technology has become more prominent in today’s society, customers are spending excess amounts time engaging media outlets. Due to increased popularity of social media, marketers must be creative to stay top-of-mind for customers and willing to engage customers differently throughout the buying journey. While social media has gained attention from businesses (e.g. marketing, salespeople, and other stakeholders) as a viable communication tool to reach target audiences, it can also drain resources. Social media allows brands to facilitate traditional offline brand communities, virtually. By engaging in content creation within social media brand communities, company stakeholders can increase customer engagement and co-create value. This manuscript empirically tests a proposed framework assessing electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM) within social media brand communities and the impact content generation and customer engagement have on sustaining social media brand communities and value co-creation activities.
Summary Brief

Keep Calm and Be Nice:
Deviations in Responses to Movie Trailers across Social Media Platforms

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In this paper, we aim to fill in this research gap by investigating and document, if any, the systematic deviations of social media posts to movie trailers on two dominant social media platforms, Facebook and YouTube. According to Politeness theory (Brown and Levinson 1987) and non-critical approach to social media contacts advocated by popular culture (Carnegie 1998), social media posts often tend to display significant positivity bias (Spottswood and Hancock 2016). Based on the aforementioned theories, we hypothesize that there is a higher motivation to “keep calm and be nice” on Facebook to maintain social desirability, which is reflected by the sentiments expressed in user comments. To test our hypothesis, we analyze a unique dataset from a major social media listening company, which is comprised of the sentiments of user responses to the same set of movie trailers on Facebook and YouTube across 413 movies. Specifically, we analyze the sentiments expressed in user comments on movie trailers on Facebook and YouTube. While Facebook’s social networks were established on closely knitted social ties such as family and friends, those on YouTube are more loosely connected.
SESSION 10A: ALL THE FEELS: CONSUMER REGRET, REVENGE, & GRATITUDE

CHAIR

Jamie Grigsby
Summary Brief

Helping Consumers Justify Future Impulse Purchases: Understanding Advertising Message Effectiveness

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Impulse purchases are commonplace for consumers and an important source of sales for retailers, however, consumers often report negative outcomes related to impulse purchasing such as post-purchase regret. This research explores how advertising messages can be used to increase consumer’s justification for a future impulse purchase, thereby reducing anticipated regret associated with impulse purchasing the product. While most advertisers use an impulse appeal to encourage impulse purchases, the current research suggests that fact-based messages more commonly associated with planned purchases provide consumers with more justification for future impulse purchases, and are superior to impulse appeals at reducing the associated impulse purchase regret. Further, the research finds that when fit is low between the product and an impulse appeal, such as when the product has some utilitarian characteristics or typically requires some planning, an impulse appeal can trigger perceptions of manipulative intent and further reduce its effectiveness.

Introduction

Impulse purchasing is a regular occurrence in many consumers’ lives; a recent survey indicated consumers spend as much as $5400 a year on impulsively purchased products (O’Brien 2018) and retailers report that impulse buys make up a significant portion of sales (Park, Kim, Funches, and Foxx 2012). Most academic research characterizes impulse purchases as a self-control failure and notes that consequences of impulse purchases are often negative and include regret, guilt, and financial problems (Baumeister 2002). However, little research has explored how the consequences of impulse purchases can be improved (Grigsby, Jewell, and Campbell 2021; Iyer, Blut, Xiao, and Grewal 2020). The current research explores how advertising messages can influence consumers’ perceptions of how acceptable or justifiable an impulse purchase of a product might be. Conceptually, it extends the goal congruence framework for understanding how impulse purchases can be justified (Grigsby et al. 2021) to an advertising context. It explores how different types of ad messages can be used to influence consumers’ anticipated regret for future impulse purchases. It offers several practical recommendations for advertisers, depending on the characteristics of the product they wish to promote. It also shows that perceptions of manipulative intent can limit the extent to which traditional impulse appeals are effective and links the persuasion knowledge literature with the purchase justification literature to form a better understanding of how consumers build justification for impulse purchases.

Background

The current research suggests a goal congruence framework for understanding what kinds of advertising messages can encourage impulse purchases but also result in improved downstream outcomes, such as reduced purchase regret, for the consumer. In general, behaviors that are congruent with personal goals tend to result in more positive outcomes (Nyer 1997). While most research suggests that impulse purchases go against long term goals (Hoch and Loewenstein 1991), some research suggests that impulse purchases do not have to result in regret and that consumers can have goal-based reasons for making impulse purchases (Grigsby et al. 2021; Kivetz and Keinan 2006; Spears 2006). Impulse purchases, therefore, are not necessarily incongruent with all of a consumer’s goals; an ad that shows consumers that the product can meet a goal they have could make a future impulse purchase of the product more acceptable. To this end, I compare the influence of a “planned appeal”, an appeal that makes purchasing the product sound like a rational choice, characteristic of a planned purchase, with an “impulse appeal”, an appeal that makes purchasing the product sound like an irrational but desirable choice, characteristic of an impulse purchase, on anticipated regret if the consumer were to buy the product on impulse.

I expect that the planned appeal will be more effective because it shows that an impulse purchase of that product can be goal-congruent. In particular, a planned appeal should provide consumers with a source of justification, or a feeling that there was a rational reason for the purchase. Justification can be applied to reduce inconsistencies between long-term goals and impulse purchases (Kivetz and Zheng 2006). Further, justification should be associated with reduced anticipated regret (Grigsby et al. 2021; Spears 2006). I propose fit between the product and appeal to be an additional limitation of the impulse appeal; that is, when fit between the product or brand and the appeal is low, impulse appeals should be even less effective due to perceptions of manipulative intent.
Key Findings

Two studies established the main effect; in Study 1, participants that saw the planned appeal ad reported that if they were to impulse buy the advertised product, it would be more justifiable (M = 4.48) compared to those that saw the impulse appeal ad (M = 3.75) and the control condition ad (M = 3.73; overall F (2, 184) = 7.87, p < .001). Study 2 replicated these findings.

Two additional studies explored the influence of fit on the effectiveness of the appeals. In Study 3, the interaction between ad appeal type and product characteristics on justification was significant (F (1, 112) = 3.94, p < .05). For a hedonic product, ad appeal type made no difference in justification (p > .05), however, for a utilitarian product, justification was higher when participants viewed the planned appeal ad (M = 4.91) compared to the impulse appeal ad (M = 3.80; F (1, 58) = 10.73, p < .01). In Study 4, an expensive and highly hedonic product was tested. In this situation, the impulse appeal ad was associated with greater perceived manipulative intent (M = 3.92) compared to the planned appeal ad (M = 2.82; F (1, 57) = 7.79, p < .01). The predicted serial mediation model, in which ad appeal type influences perceived manipulative intent, justification, and anticipated impulse purchase regret, was also supported (indirect effect = .44 ; 95% CI: .08 to .99).

References


Summary Brief

The Influence of the Dark Triad on Direct and Indirect Revenge-seeking after Service Failures

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Service providers have long realized the need to meet the expectations of their customers to prevent service failures. These failures describe interactions that fall below a customer's expectations. While some customers can be delighted after a failure if enough time is given to recover, some customers respond much more severely and quickly by seeking revenge. When a consumer feels that their goals are being threatened, their frustration may then turn to aggression. Consumers recommending service providers may have ulterior goals and may respond aggressively if a failure threatens these goals. In this regard, consumers with darker personality characteristics may respond particularly aggressively. This research explores the relationship between the Dark Triad and indirect and direct revenge-seeking intentions.

Introduction

While service providers have grown accustomed to the flexibility needed to provide exceptional service to their customers, mistakes still arise. Given time, a service provider may over-perform by offering a recovery. However, not all customer responses to such failures will allow service providers the time to initiate a recovery. Revenge-seeking is the act of engaging in activities to punish another party for causing some form of perceived harm (Grégoire et al., 2010). Revenge-seeking can be indirect through negative WOM and direct, through vindictive complaining to punish the service provider’s employees (Grégoire et al., 2019). What traits may consumers possess that make them likely to jump directly into revenge-seeking after a service failure? Research into the Dark triad traits provides clues as to which tendencies can more actively drive revenge-seeking.

Background

Customers who recommend services online may be doing so to accomplish personal goals, those of which may be unknown to both consumers and service providers. The Dark Triad encompasses the characteristics of Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy and has been linked to both adverse and beneficial actions in consumer behavior and B2B literature. For example, Machiavellianism is linked to controlling and manipulation (Jones and Paulhus, 2014), narcissism is linked to clout, expertise, and self-grandeur (Jones and Paulhus, 2014), and psychopathy is linked to callousness and lack of remorse for one’s actions (Hare and Neumann, 2008). If a service firm prevents a consumer from attaining a goal, frustration-aggression theory states individuals are likely to act aggressively (Breuer & Elson, 2017). Dark Triad consumers may seek to retaliate (Grégoire et al., 2009). However, the role of Dark Triad traits is relatively underexplored in marketing a services literature. The study examines the role of the Dark Triad in driving direct and indirect revenge-seeking intentions after a service failure. Additionally, the study aims to understand the mediating role that revenge-seeking plays in types of revenge that are sought.

Key Findings

Estimands were calculated to parse out the indirect effects on the DVs, negative WOM, and vindictive complaining, through the mediator, revenge-seeking. The indirect effect of Machiavellianism through revenge-seeking onto negative WOM ($a_1^*b_1 = 0.06$, $p = 0.65$, CI Lower = -0.26, CI Upper = 0.32) and vindictive complaining ($a_1^*b_2 = 0.07$, $p = 0.69$, CI Lower = -0.33, CI Upper = 0.38) were non-significant (Zhao et al., 2010; Hayes, 2018) Additionally, the direct effect from Machiavellianism to negative WOM ($c_1 = 0.05$, $t = 0.27$, $p = 0.8$) and vindictive complaining ($c_2 = 0.03$, $t = -0.15$, $p = 0.88$) were also non-significant. Therefore, other mediators could be present in driving the relationship with Machiavellianism and revenge-seeking activities. Consumers with high Machiavellianism tendencies may take additional measures to retaliate after a service failure, some of which might not be as overtly obvious as complaining behavior. Moreover, additional moderators and mediators should be explored to determine the mechanisms in which negative WOM and vindictive complaining take place. Machiavellianism consumers may be secretive when planning their retaliation.

The indirect effect of narcissism through revenge-seeking onto negative WOM ($a_2^*b_1 = 0.13$, $p < 0.05$, CI Lower = -0.002, CI Upper = 0.30) and vindictive complaining ($a_2^*b_2 = 0.16$, $p = 0.05$, CI Lower = -0.001, CI Upper = -0.35) were both
significant (Hayes, 2018) Additionally, the direct effect from narcissism to negative WOM was also significant (c3=-0.32, t=-3.75, p<.01) but non-significant for vindictive complaining (c4=-0.07, t=-0.82, p=0.41). These findings suggest that narcissistic consumers may be less likely to post Negative WOM unless the offense by the service provider drives a desire to retaliate. Consumers with high narcissism tendencies may use outlets for retaliation that do not harm their image. Additionally, narcissistic consumers are unlikely to complain directly to a firm after a failure unless they first seek to retaliate.

The indirect effect of psychopathy through revenge-seeking onto negative WOM (a3*b1 =0.30, p <.05, CI Lower = 0.06, CI Upper =0.55) and vindictive complaining (a1*b2 =0.33, p <.05, CI Lower = 0.07, CI Upper =0.68) were both significant (Hayes, 2018) However, the direct effect from psychopathy to negative WOM (c5=0.08, t= 0.50, p=0.62) and vindictive complaining (c 6=0.09, t= 0.56, p=0.58) were both non-significant. Consumers with high psychopathic tendencies may immediately seek revenge after a failure. Thus, they may be easiest to notice and adapt to when creating a recovery since they aim to seek revenge and convey their discontent.

References


Employee Gratitude and Customer Citizenship Behaviors

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Employee gratitude is often associated with positive customer-related benefits. Past studies have made significant strides in developing a stream of research surrounding employee gratitude. For instance, researchers have examined organization-focused (i.e., job performance, corporate social responsibility) and employee-focused (i.e., employee wellbeing, job satisfaction) consequences of employee gratitude (Andersson, Giacalone, & Jurkiewicz, 2007; Grant & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Kaplan et al., 2014; Waters, 2012). Despite these early studies, gratitude research is still considered to be a notably understudied area of research (Fehr, Fulmer, Awtrey, & Miller, 2017). Therefore, to improve our understanding of how organizations can foster gratitude to maintain and build organization-employee and employee-customer relationships, we focus on two key questions: What organizational factors are more effective in eliciting employees’ feeling of gratitude, and what are the relational outcomes on customers impacted by employee gratitude?

Both organization-employee relations and employee-customer relations can be categorized as similar interdependent relations, in which the maintenance of such relations requires both continuous effort and exchanges from both parties. According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), the quality of social interactions induces unspoken obligations to return favors to those who have acted in one’s interest. One of the most frequently utilized rules of social exchange theory is reciprocity (Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, & Hall, 2017; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960; Palmatier, Jarvis, Bechkeff, & Kardes, 2009). Reciprocity can be understood as a social norm of responding to a positive action with another positive action, rewarding kind behaviors. Therefore, employee reciprocity occurs when employees reward their organization due to received benefits in an organizational setting. Further, in a service interaction setting, reciprocity can lead customers to reward frontline employees and the organizations they represent with positive customer behaviors.

The project was done across two studies, utilizing employee self-reported data (Study 1) and employee-customer dyadic data (Study 2). In Study 1, we examine how employee gratitude mediates the relationship between service climate and customer-oriented behavior. Study 2 examines how customer-oriented behavior, an outcome of employee gratitude, influences customer citizenship behaviors, with customer-perceived employee performance and customer satisfaction serving as the primary mediators. Using structural equation modeling, the results from both studies supported the proposed relationships.

We make four specific contributions to the gratitude and service marketing literature. First, we identify perceived service climate as a critical organizational and contextual antecedent of employee gratitude, introducing a potential strategy for organizations to foster employee gratitude. Second, we examine the consequences of building intraorganizational employee gratitude and demonstrate that employee gratitude can link organizational resources to customer-oriented behavior. Third, we offer meaningful insights on how to encourage customer citizenship behaviors through outcomes of employee gratitude.

References


SESSION 10B: HERE’S WHAT I THINK: CONSUMER BELIEFS & IDEOLOGIES

CHAIR

Ania Izabela Rynarzewska
Summary Brief

An Assessment of the Relationship between Anti-Consumption Behavior and One’s Political Inclination

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Tammy McCullough, Eastern Michigan University

A sample of 938 adults residing in the United States provided insight about attitudes and behaviors regarding 12 plausible reasons a consumer might choose to punish a marketer by engaging in anti-consumption behavior such as a boycott. The most accepted reason for anti-consumption behavior was a marketer’s perceived violation of basic human rights. Least acceptable was action based on the marketer’s use of a nonunion workforce. The same reasons were documented when respondents reported their own decisions to boycott a marketer. A scale measuring political inclination was found to be associated with a scale that measured the acceptance of the 12 reasons for anti-consumption. That scale was likewise positively related to a scale that measured the respondents’ decision to boycott a specific marketer. The key finding was that as respondents moved closer to the liberal side of the scale, they grew more accepting of consumers using the 12 reasons as bases for anti-consumption. And as this acceptance increased, their own propensity to engage in a personal boycott also increased.

Introduction

The act of rejecting a specific product, or a particular brand, is termed 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 (Sudbury-Riley, Kohlbacher, 2018; Koek 2018; Friedman, 2002; Smith, 1990). As articulated by Nebenzahl, Jaffe, and Kavak (2000), consumers can choose to reward or to punish marketers with their own purchase behavior. Anti-consumption encompasses an array of consumer actions designed to punish the marketer that is seen as behaving in a manner or supporting a philosophy with which one disagrees. In this regard, each approach for engaging in anti-consumption behavior can be characterized as a way of punishing misbehaving marketers. Such behavior can be an individual initiative, or it can be encouraged as group behavior. Reference groups have long influenced what products consumers purchase, but from the opposite side of the dyad, they likewise impact consumers’ decisions to refrain from purchasing products from specific marketers. The target for anti-consumption activity can be large or small, domestic or foreign, a manufacturer or an intermediary. In reality, no marketer is impervious to anti-consumption behavior. Unlike the vast majority of research on consumer behavior, rather than examining why people choose to purchase a product or brand, this research will focus on why they reject a particular product or brand. In light of the highly charged political atmosphere in the United States, it was deemed appropriate to examine how one’s political orientation impacts both their attitude towards the appropriateness of consumer decisions regarding anti-consumption behavior and the propensity to engage in one particular form of anti-consumption, boycotts.

Literature Review

Myriad considerations for engaging in anti-consumption behavior have been documented in the literature. A set of 12 plausible reasons for consumers to engage in such behavior were delineated in the literature. They include environmental degradation (sustainability), religious orientation/affiliation, country-of-origin (COO), attitudes towards the LGBTQ community, large size of the marketer, use of a disliked celebrity endorser, employing marketing tactics (e.g., advertising) perceived to be offensive, use of live animal testing or other techniques seen as imposing cruelty upon animals, actions viewed as violations of basic human rights, employing a nonunionized labor force, employment-related discrimination based on demographic considerations, and espousing or supporting an unacceptable political ideology. Just as there are numerous reasons for engaging in anti-consumption behavior that is based on the consumer’s desire to punish an offending organization, there are numerous ways in which the consumer can administer that punishment. The most obvious and among the most commonly discussed is a boycott. A boycott is a behavior that most consumers have long understood; it has been defined by Friedman as “an endeavor by at least one gathering to accomplish certain goals by asking singular buyers to avoid making chosen buys in the commercial center.” Perhaps more succinctly stated, it has also been defined by Friedman 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).

From a political perspective, a modest amount of research has shown that some consumers will refrain from purchasing products when they believe the marketer has a political agenda that is incongruent with their own (Sandikci
and Ekici, 2009). Sandikci and Ekici addressed the concept of *politically motivated brand rejection* which they defined as the refusal to purchase and/or use a brand on a permanent basis because of its perceived association to a particular political ideology to which the consumer is opposed. In this regard, it has been stated that “one may acknowledge that a product is good and still avoid it because they disagree with a company’s politics” (Tal, Gvili, Amar, and Wansink 2017). Likewise, while defining *political consumerism* as the intentional buying or abstention from buying specific products for political, social, or ethical purposes, Newman and Bartels (2011) also delineated a number of specific examples of politically based boycotts. These examples include boycotts against Nestlé, Nike, and Whole Foods. A recent article in *HBR* likewise articulated the idea that political consumerism is tied to an individual’s political philosophy (Mittal, Malshe, and Sridhar 2018). Taking this assessment a step further, the authors of one study developed a “political consumerism index” in an effort to assess the relationship between anti-consumption behavior and the consumer’s political inclination (Stolle, Hoogle, and Micheletti 2005). In the politically polarized United States today, it is logical to presume that a company’s overarching political philosophy may lead to a backlash on the part of opposing segments of consumers (Hydock, Paharia, and Weber, 2019). An example of this phenomenon is consumers who refuse to stay at a Trump-branded resort because of political beliefs that conflict with their own.

The literature also provides some insight into how one’s political bent might influence that individual’s propensity to engage in anti-consumption behavior. Businesses have long been shown to make more donations to conservative candidates because these businesses tend to favor ideology over pragmatism (McMenamin 2020). This fact would lead one to presume that liberals would tend to favor society over business, thus they would be more inclined to engage in anti-consumption behavior designed to punish targeted business entities. A recent Gallop poll indicated that liberals in the United States, in this case Democrats, assigned a more positive assessment to socialism than they did to capitalism; this opinion was even more prominent among younger consumers (Newport 2018). This finding would lead one to presume that consumers of a liberal ilk would be more inclined to engage in anti-consumption behavior with a goal of punishing firms that they see as behaving in an unacceptable manner. Further support for this premise is provided with the assertion that Democrats, that is to say liberals, “are considered to be more empathetic towards the needs and exigencies of workers and supportive of worker’s unions, which is often considered implicit opposition to the interests of big business” (Anonymous 2017). A study that assessed the link between ideological (political) intensity and the propensity to engage in anti-consumption behavior – boycotts in particular – delineated the fact that those respondents who categorized themselves as Democrats were considerably more likely to engage in “political-consumer behavior” than were their Republican counterparts (Endres and Panagopoulos 2017). Similarly, it has been concluded that “Republicans/conservatives are more likely to boycott a product, whereas Democrats/liberals are more prone to engage in boycotting” (Baek 2010, p. 1079). So, conservatives are more likely to reward companies which exhibit a political perspective which is congruent with their own while liberals are more likely to punish those firms which they do not view as possessing a political bent similar to their own. In a similar context, it has been stated that “Liberals’ greater concern for the suffering of others and unfair treatment makes them more likely to engage in consumer political actions” (Fernandes 2020, p. 494).

**Research Objectives**

The initial objective of this research was to identify or otherwise develop three scales designed to measure the three primary components germane to the current study: Political Inclination (PI), Appropriateness of Identified Criteria as Bases for Anti-Consumption Behavior by Consumers in General (APP), and the Propensity of the Individual Respondent to Personally Use Each of the Identified Criteria as a Basis for Personally Boycotting a Marketer’s Offering (USE). Pursuant to that objective was the objective of achieving a high level of reliability for each of the three scales. With these tasks completed, the focus shifted to the two primary objectives. First was that of determining the nature of the relationship between one’s political inclination and the level of appropriateness of the 12 criteria being used by consumers to formulate anti-consumption behavior. In this regard, the overarching premise is that there will be a relationship whereby more liberal respondents are more open to punishing business entities by way of engaging in anti-consumption behavior. As such, the initial research hypothesis is:

**H1**: There will be a positive relationship between PI and APP.

The second research hypothesis is predicated upon the premise that there will likewise be a positive relationship between the appropriateness of using the 12 criteria as anti-consumption bases and the propensity for the individual to engage in personal boycotts against marketers that the respondents view as behaving in an unacceptable manner. This assumption leads to the second hypothesis:

**H2**: There will be a positive relationship between APP and USE.
The final objective comprised two sub-objectives. First was the task of identifying the criteria that were deemed most and least appropriate for consumers to use when making an anti-consumption decision. Related to this objective was the second task of identifying the criteria that were most and least commonly used by the respondents as a basis for engaging in their own personal boycott.

Methodology

Based on the literature review, a preliminary questionnaire was developed. A series of demographic questions were answered using a multiple-choice format. In the second section, 12 questions sought feedback regarding the appropriateness of consumers using each of the 12 identified criteria as a basis for anti-consumption behavior. These 12 items comprised the “Appropriateness Scale (APP)” which was calculated by summing the responses on the six-point itemized rating scale for each criterion. Next, input was sought as to the frequency with which the individual respondent excluded one or more marketers from their evoked set because of each of the 12 criteria. The “Personal Use Scale (USE)” was likewise calculated by summing the responses to the 12 questions. The final section of the questionnaire measured “Political Inclination (PI)” using the “Conservatism-Liberalism” scale originally developed and subjected to empirical scrutiny by Mehrabian (1996). The preliminary questionnaire was pretested with a sample of 175 university students from two universities.

A national sample of adult consumers residing in the United States was drawn using the Dynata online platform. Prospective respondents who were members of a consumer panel maintained by Dynata were sent invitations to participate along with a link to the survey. The survey was not accessible by anyone who was not provided that link. Four quality control checks were used in an effort to assure that the respondents provided accurate responses; these QC checks were (an instructional manipulation check, two reCAPTCHA questions, and a time check. Interim checks were performed and subsequent invitations to participate were targeted towards underrepresented demographic segments in order to assure that the sample was a reasonable representation of the US population on the bases of age, gender, and education. For analyses of the data, the initial step was that of cleaning the data by identifying those respondents who failed one or more of the quality control checks. The first analytical step was to assess the relationships between the Political Inclination Scale and the Appropriateness Scale as well as the relationship between the Appropriateness Scale (APP) and the Personal Use Scale (USE). The metrics were calculated by summing the items used in each scale (all used a six-point itemized rating scale). The mean and standard deviation of each scale were calculated, then the reliability of each scale was measured using Cronbach’s alpha. The Pearson coefficient of correlation (r) between each set of relevant indices was calculated in order to test the two research hypotheses. A probability of less than .05 was used as the benchmark for rejecting the null hypothesis that the two scales under scrutiny were not correlated with each other.

Results

The aggregate sample attained was 1,452 respondents. The four QC checks identified 514 individuals whose responses were subject to concern. Many of these inattentive respondents failed multiple checks with nine even failing all four. So, the net result was the dropping of 514 inattentive respondents thus resulting in a net sample of 938 valid responses. With a clean data set, the mean and standard deviation for each of the three scales were calculated. The mean for the Political Inclination Scale was 13.69 where higher numbers represented a more liberal political inclination. The mean for the Appropriateness Scale was 30.47 with lower values representing a more open perspective regarding the decision for consumers to engage in a boycott. For the Personal Use Scale, the mean score was 51.48. Lower scores represent a greater propensity for the individual respondent to engage in a personal boycott. Next, the three scales were tested for reliability using Cronbach’s alpha. The four-item “Political Inclination Scale” produced an alpha metric of .915. The 12-item “Appropriateness Scale” produced an alpha of .920 while the alpha calculated for the “Personal Use Scale” was .959. All three results exceeded the .700 value that is deemed appropriate for this type of empirical study (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994). The results of this assessment are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary Statistics for the Three Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th># Items</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Political Inclination Scale (PI)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13.69</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>.915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriateness Scale (APP)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>30.47</td>
<td>11.55</td>
<td>.920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Use Scale (USE)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>51.48</td>
<td>13.83</td>
<td>.959</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The penultimate step of the analyses was the calculation of the correlation coefficients for the pairs of scale values where a meaningful relationship was hypothesized to exist. In both cases, a statistically significant relationship was documented. Also, in each case the direction of the relationship was as hypothesized. When examining the relationship between the Political Inclination Scale and the Appropriateness Scale, the correlation coefficient was calculated to be -.185. Though not an inordinately strong relationship, it was significant at the .000 level. The finding supports the initial
hypothesis by documenting a tendency for the perceived appropriateness for consumers to accept specific criteria as legitimate reasons to engage in anti-consumption behavior (lower scale outcomes) to grow stronger in conjunction with the respondents’ propensity to exhibit a more liberal political inclination (higher scale outcomes). Thus, \textit{H1 is supported}. Next was the assessment of the hypothesized relationship between the Appropriateness Scale and the Personal Use Scale. The correlation coefficient was .271 which was also significant at the .000 level. This outcome supports the second research hypothesis by documenting a positive relationship. As the respondents exhibit a greater openness to the consumers’ applying the 12 rationales as bases for engaging in anti-consumption behavior, then their personal propensity to engage in their own personal boycott increases accordingly. \textit{Thus, H2 is supported}. These results are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. Correlation Matrix for the Three Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>PI</th>
<th>APP</th>
<th>USE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PI</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.185</td>
<td>-.258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APP</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.271</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* All correlations significant at the .000 level

Finally, our attention turns to the two research questions. With an item mean of 2.01, the rationale for which respondents were most amenable was that of punishing companies that were guilty of violating basic human rights. Though still deemed slightly appropriate, with a mean of 3.19, a company’s use of a nonunionized workforce was the rationale which attained the least support. Similar priorities were in evidence when the focus shifted to the individuals’ actual use of each rationale as a criterion for their own decision to exclude a marketer from their personal consideration set. The mean for the Personal Use Scale (USE) was 51.48. This value translates into a mean response of 4.29. This value falls between “sometimes” and “seldom” when asked how often they personally decide to omit one or more alternatives from their consideration set because of a specific rationale for exclusion. With a mean of 3.87, the most commonly used criterion for exclusion of a particular marketer was again the firm’s violation of basic human rights. At the other end of the spectrum, with a mean of 4.90, the use of a nonunionized labor force was the criterion that respondents were least likely to have used when making that exclusionary decision. So, the conclusion to be drawn from this assessment is that the respondents’ actual behavior tends to mirror their perception of the appropriateness of a particular rationale being used to make the decision to boycott a particular brand.

\textbf{Conclusions}

A consumer’s political inclination was found to be related to two scales germane to anti-consumption behavior. Individuals possessing a more liberal political mindset tend to be more open to consumers engaging in anti-consumption behavior such as a boycott. This openness tends to lead to a greater propensity to personally engage in the act of boycotting a particular marketer. Given the acrimony between the left and the right that is evident in the United States in 2021, it is not surprising that political inclination plays a role in the decision to engage or otherwise participate in a boycott.
Summary Brief

The Role of System Justification in Carnists’ Conflict Behavior when Confronted with a Vegan Lifestyle

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The steady increase in veganism has led to vegans often being confronted, by omnivores and carnivores, about their dietary/lifestyle choices. The current research examines whether systems justification theory could lead us to understand, and maybe, resolve these conflicts to the benefit of not just humans, but also the ecosystems that humans need to survive and flourish on this planet. The present research is work in progress, and therefore the results and the discussion/conclusion will be presented at the conference.

Introduction

Vegetarianism and veganism have seen a continuous increase over the last decades (Chu, 2019). It appears that this steady increase in the number of individuals who prefer a meatless diet/lifestyle has led to new conflicts in our society. That is, a Google search for anti vegan leads to 124 million hits, and for how to make a vegan shut up to 19.5 million hits (June 16, 2021). Many of these websites feature discussion groups, blogs, or YouTube videos that deal with reactions of carnists—defined as individuals who adhere to “the belief system in which eating certain animals is considered ethical and appropriate” (Joy 2010, p. 30)—to vegetarians and vegans. Further, an empirical study compared attitudes toward vegans and vegetarians with attitudes toward individuals who are often target of prejudice—such as gay people, immigrants, atheists, and black people—and found that “only drug addicts were evaluated more negatively than vegetarians and vegans,” especially those who identified environmental concerns or animal rights as their motivation for being vegetarian or vegan (MacInnis and Hodson, 2017, p. 726).

The present research study focuses on understanding why carnists react with hostility and resentment toward especially those vegans who embrace ethical veganism (MacInnis and Hodson, 2017) which has been defined as the “personal rejection of the commodity status of nonhuman animals, of the notion that animals have only external value, and of the notion that animals have less moral value than do humans” (Francione and Garner, 2010, p. 62). Understanding the reason for these displays of hostility could help consumer researchers and social marketing practitioners address several increasingly pressing problems faced by societies across the planet. That is, a growing body of research has shown the negative impacts animal agriculture has on our environment and climate change (Garnett, 2017).

System Justification Theory

System Justification Theory posits that individuals from all levels of a social hierarchy are motivated—by a need for permanence and a sense of certainty—to believe that the social, economic, and political systems in which they live are equitable, beneficial, and stable, and thus are prone to resist any challenge to that belief by rationalizing the way things are and minimizing or denying any problems caused by the status quo (Feygina, Jost and Goldsmith, 2010). It has been suggested that the motivational tendency to justify and defend the status quo is especially high in the face of a threat that challenges the “very foundation of our socioeconomic system” (Feygina, Jost and Goldsmith 2010, p. 327). Further, the more perceived benefits individuals derive from the status quo, the more passionately they embrace system justification (Feygina, Jost and Goldsmith, 2010). Therefore, we expect carnists to display higher levels of system justification tendencies than ethical vegans, because carnists benefit from the status quo, whereas ethical vegans challenge the cultural, social, and economic traditions and institutions that support and promote the exploitation of nonhuman animals. Hence, the first hypothesis states:

H1: Carnists display significantly higher levels of system-justifying beliefs than ethical vegans.

Jost et al. (2014, p. 58) reviewed religious texts across a wide variety of religious doctrines and observed that “certain themes repeatedly emerge, and these reflect basic psychological needs or motives to believe that the world is just …, and that existing social, economic, and political institutions and arrangements are fair, legitimate, and justifiable.” Accordingly, Jost et al. (2014) hypothesize that religious ideologies serve a system-justifying function and find empirical evidence for positive relationships between religiosity and a variety of other constructs that manifest the justification of societal status quo, including general system justification beliefs. Further, considering that many of the major religions have historically promoted dominion over animals, it should come as no surprise that Australian moral philosopher Peter
Singer criticizes religious views formed centuries ago are standing in the way of advancing animal welfare and rights (2010). Hence, our next hypotheses state:

H2: Individuals high in religiosity display a significantly higher level of (general) system-justifying beliefs than individuals low in religiosity.

H3: Individuals high in religiosity are significantly more likely to be carnists than ethical vegans.

Key Findings
Will be presented at the conference.

References


Summary Brief

Power Distance Belief and Service Robot Adoption

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We propose that high (vs. low) PDB consumers have a higher service robots adoption due to a higher need for status difference and thus perceive a superior status when interacting with service robots. This effect disappears when service robots are positioned as a “partner” of consumers, and when the robot is dehumanized.

Introduction

With the development of machine learning and artificial intelligence technology, we witness an increasing presence of the service robot nowadays. The COVID-19 pandemic further accelerates the adoption of the service robot as the rising need to keep social distance. Existing literature has identified various factors that can influence consumers’ willingness to adopt the service robot, such as the perceived humanness of the robot, customers’ technology readiness, and customers’ level of involvement, etc. (Belanche et al. 2020). However, how does culture influence consumers’ adoption toward service robot is understudied, and the result is not conclusive (Bartneck 2008; Li, Rau, and Li 2010). In the current research, we focus on one dimension of the culture proposed by Hofstede (1984), power distance belief (PDB), and propose that high PDB consumers have a higher preference toward service robots because they have a higher need for status difference.

Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

Power distance belief (PDB) refers to the extent to which individuals expect and accepts inequality and hierarchy (Hofstede 1984). The central difference between high and low PDB lies not in an actual power disparity per se but rather in people’s attitudes toward power disparity. While high PDB individuals believe that everyone should have a rightful and defined social place, low PDB individuals believe that everyone should be equal (Hofstede 1984).

Compared with those in the low PDB cultures, consumers in the high PDB cultures are constantly reminded of their social standing, which makes the status concept more salient. Therefore, consumers in high (vs. low) PDB cultures are more sensitive toward status differences and more likely to look for ways to improve their social status (Kim and Zhang 2014). For example, high PDB consumers have a higher preference toward national brands than private brands as national brands satisfy high PDB consumers’ status consumption need (Wang, Torelli, and Lalwani 2020). Because of the status seeking mindset, when high (vs. low) PDB consumers interact with service robots, they are more likely to perceive service robots to be in the inferior status and to be designed to serve them. Whereas, for low PDB consumers, they will perceive no status difference from the service robots as they will treat service robots as an equal partner. Therefore, we propose:

H1: High (vs. Low) PDB consumers have a higher preference for the service robot.
H2: This effect is mediated by the need for status difference.

Research Design and Results

Study 1 (N=98) employed a PDB (high vs. low) between-subjects design. PDB was primed by asking participants to support a cultural awareness movement (Song et al. 2021). Those assigned to the high [low] PDB condition were asked to support a movement about social hierarchy [equality]. Thereafter, participants were asked to imagine that they are traveling alone and have booked several nights’ stay at a hotel. When they arrived at the hotel, a robot employee, Pepper, was introduced and served them. Then, the participants were asked to indicate their preference for the service robot on a 2-item measure (α=.95). Thereafter, consumers’ need for status difference was measured by a 3-item scale (α=.86). We controlled consumers’ need for precision as potential alternative explanation, and consumers’ past experience in using service robot. Results showed that high (vs. low) PDB consumers have higher robot adoption ($M_{high}$=5.30 vs. $M_{low}$=4.52; $F(1, 94)$=6.33, p=.01). This effect was mediated by need for status difference ($β=.26$, 95% CI [.04, .55]).

In study 2, we examine the boundary condition of the core effect by manipulating consumers’ need for status difference. According to our theorizing, the effect of PDB on the robot adoption is due to high PDB consumers’ need for status difference. Therefore, when consumers’ need for status difference is situationally reduced, high PDB consumers—whose baseline need for status difference is high and has a greater potential to decrease—should decrease their robot adoption. However, such an effect is less likely to appear for low PDB consumers, whose need for status difference is already low and may not decrease further (“floor effect”). To test these predictions, Study 2 (N=203) adopted a 2 (PDB: high vs. low) × 2 (need for status difference: reduced vs. control) between-subjects design. To manipulate need for status
difference, in the reduced condition, the robot was introduced as “Your Best Partner”. We predict that the prime of introducing the robot as consumers’ best partner should yield effects that correspond to priming reduced need for status difference. Supporting our predictions, a $2 \times 2$ ANCOVA with past experience as a covariate revealed a significant two-way interaction ($F(1, 198)=6.31, p=.01$). Results showed that for high PDB consumers, robot adoption was lower when the need for status difference was reduced (vs. control; $M_{\text{reduced}}=4.39$ vs. $M_{\text{control}}=5.23$; $t(97)=-2.59, p=.01$). For low PDB consumers, in contrast, there was no significant difference in their robot adoption when the need for status difference was reduced (vs. control; $M_{\text{reduced}}=4.77$ vs. $M_{\text{control}}=4.45$; $t(102)=.98, p=.33$). Effects were mediated by need for status difference ($\beta=-.46$, 95% CI [-.86, -.15]).

In study 3, we examine another boundary condition by dehumanizing the robot, to make the robot looks like a non-human liked machine. We believe that when the robot is dehumanized, high PDB consumers should decrease their robot adoption because they perceive no social status differences between themselves and the robots. However, such an effect is less likely to appear for low PDB consumers (“floor effect”). Hence, Study 3 ($N=217$) adopted a 2 (PDB: high vs. low) $\times$ 2 (dehumanization: dehumanized vs. control) between-subjects design. We also controlled consumers’ risk aversion (Sharma 2010) and robot’s performance efficacy (Lu et al. 2019) as potential alternative explanations. Supporting our predictions, a $2 \times 2$ ANCOVA with consumers’ risk aversion, robot’s performance efficacy, and consumers’ past experience in using service robot as covariates revealed a significant two-way interaction ($F(1, 210)=5.68, p=.02$). Results showed that for high PDB consumers, robot adoption was lower when the robot was dehumanized (vs. control; $M_{\text{dehumanized}}=3.92$ vs. $M_{\text{control}}=4.74$). For low PDB consumers, in contrast, there was no significant difference in their robot adoption when the robot was dehumanized (vs. control; $M_{\text{dehumanized}}=4.58$ vs. $M_{\text{control}}=4.37$). Effects were mediated by the need for status difference ($\beta=.39$, 95% CI [.13, .72]).

**Discussion**

Using three studies, we show the consistent results that high PDB consumers have a higher preference toward the service robot than low PDB consumers, and this relationship is mediated by the need for status difference. We also identify two boundaries conditions that attenuate the relationship between PDB and service robot attitude. Lastly, we ruled out the need for precision, risk aversion, and robot performance efficacy as alternative explanations. Our work contributes to the literature on service robot adoption as it identifies one of the cultural dimensions, PDB, as the potential influencer. Our work also contributes to the PDB literature as it reveals one of the downstream effects of status consumption.

**References**


SESSION 10C: FROM SOCIAL TO LONELY CONSUMERS: CROSS CULTURAL RESEARCH

CHAIR
Lubna Nafees
Summary Brief
The Influence of Culture on the Perception of Deceptiveness among Chinese and Canadian Consumers: A Multilevel Cross-cultural Study

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Mengxia Zhang, University of International Business and Economics, China
Kamel El Hedhli, Qatar University, Qatar
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This study applies McCornack (1992)’s information manipulation theory (IMT) to the context of insurance fraud and tests for cultural differences in perceived deceptiveness across China (i.e. collectivistic culture) and Canada (i.e. individualistic culture). Findings show that insurance fraud resulting from violation of quality (i.e. falsifying a date of incident to come into effective period of coverage) was perceived to be the most deceitful across cultures. In particular, vertical allocentrism and vertical idiocentrism were found to weigh against the perception of deceptiveness in insurance fraud, suggesting that individuals who score high in either vertical allocentrism or vertical idiocentrism could be more tolerant to insurance fraud.

Introduction
The prevalence of insurance fraud has raised concerns about the global issue of fraud as worldwide the insurance industry was alarmed at a growing public tolerance to insurance fraud. However, most research have studied fraud in western cultures to the exclusion of non-western cultural context. Therefore, little research has been paid to the effect of culture on perceived deceptiveness of fraud. Understanding cultural differences in perceived deceptiveness is helpful to spot sources of vulnerability (i.e. fraud tolerance) among culturally diverse public. This becomes particularly relevant in the context of globalization where both local insurers and multinational insurance companies are facing constant challenges with culturally diverse customers. Efforts to address the global issue of insurance fraud should start with gaining a more comprehensive view of how to reduce the perceived prevalence and acceptability of fraud across different cultural contexts.

Theoretical Background
Little attention has been paid to the information manipulation theory (IMT) in the field of marketing. The main assumption of IMT is that deception could result from the violation of one or more of Grice’s four maxims, namely the quality, the quantity, the manner and the relevance of information. Applied to the context of insurance fraud, the quality maxim refers to the insurer’s expectations towards the veracity of information provided by the customer; the customer is expected to disclose truthful and correct information to the insurer. However, any falsification or distortion of the information (e.g. inflating a claim), will result in a violation of the quality maxim and leads to fraud. Whereas, the quantity maxim refers to the insurer’s expectations towards a full disclosure of complete and exhaustive information; the customer is expected to provide the right amount (neither more nor less) of information to the insurer. However, withholding information (e.g. concealing driver’s history) could result in a violation of the quantity maxim and conduces to fraud. The relevance maxim refers to the insurer’s expectations of disclosing information that relates to the situation at hand. The customer is expected to provide the information that is related to the event and circumstances of the loss. However, providing extraneous or irrelevant information (i.e. blurring) that make the task of getting the correct information difficult to the insurer will result in a violation of relevance maxim and tends towards fraud. Finally, the manner maxim suggests that consumers are expected to present clear information without obscurity or ambiguity. Information is expected to be presented in a way that enables the insurer to understand the event of loss circumstances without confusion. An example of violation of manner could be the use of vagueness and ambiguous wording when filling a claim, which results in equivocation and leads to fraud.

Methods
The study employed an experimental design to test hypotheses. Four scenarios evoking insurance fraud resulting from (1) quantity violation (i.e. withholding information), (2) quality violation (i.e. falsifying a date of accident), (3) manner violation (i.e. providing ambiguous and unclear information) and (4) relevance violation (i.e. providing irrelevant information), were developed. Data was collected using online surveys conducted by two research companies located in
China and Canada. 400 Chinese consumers and an equal-size sample of Canadian consumers were recruited to participate in this study.

**Conclusion**

The study has examined the effects of culture on perceived deceptiveness and has pointed to multilevel cultural differences. While prior cross-cultural research has merely focused on the societal level of culture (i.e. individualism-collectivism dimension), the current research provides a deeper insight of the effect of culture on perceived deceptiveness by considering additional levels of culture. In particular, vertical allocentrism and vertical idiocentrism were found to weigh against the perception of deceptiveness in insurance fraud, suggesting that individuals who score high in either vertical allocentrism or vertical idiocentrism could be tolerant to insurance fraud. The research advances marketing literature on two fronts. First, to the best of our knowledge, our empirical work is the first to demonstrate the impact of cultural tightness on consumers’ perception of deceptive behaviors. Thus, this study enriches the growing body of cross-cultural consumer research by proposing a novel dimension of cultural tightness that remains still understudied in the marketing field (Li et al., 2006). Second, the study tests IMT theory using a multilevel cultural approach rather than a single approach, thereby answering the call of previous research to use different approaches in cross-cultural studies (i.e. Triandis et al., 1990), and therefore paving the way for more universal theories unbiased by cultural perspective.

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Summary Brief

Perceived Source Credibility of Social Media Influencers and Consumer Attitudes toward the Brand: An Exploratory Study of Differences between India and the United States

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The growth of social media and the power of influencers in the digital marketplace has increased markedly in the past several years. Social media influencers (SMI) have become a driving force in shaping consumers’ brand perceptions across product types worldwide. Despite the increased practitioner interest in assessing their impact on brand perceptions, academic research has been relatively silent on the mechanisms behind the SMIs influence on consumers. Furthermore, there is little cross-cultural work to date. This study attempts to explore the relationship between SMI credibility (a crucial ingredient of influence) and the formation of brand attitudes of followers. Using survey data from both India and the U.S., this research explores the dimensions of source credibility of SMIs and compares the mechanisms that influence brand attitudes in the two countries. Empirical analysis including a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) suggests that SMI’s goodwill is positively related to followers’ brand attitudes in India, while expertise and trustworthiness were more important in the U.S. sample. These findings are consistent with Hofstede’s cultural theory and suggest that culture plays an outsized role in determining the mechanics of influencer marketing.

Introduction

Social Networking is one of the most popular online activities and the number of active users continues to increase. In 2020, 3.6 billion people were actively using social media worldwide, and projections are for 4.41 billion people to be using it by 2025 (Tankovska 2021). Because of the tremendous growth in social media, influencer marketing is on the rise with the global influencer marketing value doubling from 2019 to 2021, growing from 6.5 billion to 13.8 billion US dollars. According to Influencer Marketing Hub, an influencer is someone who has “the power to affect the purchasing decisions of others because of his or her authority, knowledge, position, or relationship with his or her audience accompanied with a following in a distinct niche, with whom he or she actively engages (Werner 2021). Social Media Influencers (SMIs) appear virtually across all industries: from electronic gaming (Jian, Hua and Parviainen 2020) to cosmetics. Instagram alone accounts for over 500,000 active influencers with more than 15,000 followers. Despite the impressive growth in overall social media usage, as well as that of SMI’s in particular, academic and practitioner research has been relatively silent on the implications of the role of a SMI in shaping consumer brand attitudes, as well as the mechanisms behind their impact. The current situation with influencer marketing is one of the rare cases where academic interest and industry needs/developments are combining to make the need for additional research urgent. The purpose of this research is to explore the relationship between perceived SMI source credibility and consumer attitudes toward the brand. Specifically, we examine which dimensions of source credibility assume more cross-cultural significance as we compare the U.S. and Indian SMI markets.

Background

Perceived source credibility research has its roots long before social media was in existence (e.g., Whitehead, 1968). Defined as “judgements made by a perceiver...concerning the believability of a communicator (O’Keefe 2002, p. 181), a highly credible source is commonly found to induce more persuasion toward advocacy of a message than a low-credibility source (Litzman and Shuv-Ami 1986). In this research, we posit that the trustworthiness, goodwill and expertise dimensions of source credibility might have differential importance in affecting attitude formation and change. Perceived SMI Expertise refers to the extent to which a SMI is perceived to be capable of making correct assertions (Hovland, Janis and Kelley, 1951). Perceived SMI Goodwill refers to the SMIs intention toward the consumer (Hoveland et al.1951). Perceived SMI Trustworthiness is the degree of confidence the consumer has that the SMI will communicate the arguments they consider most legitimate. Overall, we propose a three-factor model of impact with perceived SMI expertise, goodwill, and trustworthiness positively related to consumer’s attitude towards the brand across the two cross-cultural samples. We test the model independently across our two samples, starting with a CFA which achieved a
significant model fit ($\chi^2/df = 3.096$, NFI = .902, IFI = .932, CFI = .931, RMSEA = .072). Next, we implemented a structural equation model (SEM).

**Key Findings**

Results indicate that only perceived SMI goodwill is positively related to consumer attitudes toward the brand in the Indian sample (p = .009), whereas perceived SMI expertise (p < .001) and perceived SMI trustworthiness (p = .025) is positively related to consumer attitudes toward the brand in the US sample. The differences in the two sub-samples are consistent with several dimensions of Hofstede’s cultural theory (Hofstede 2011). For example, **Power-distance** refers to the notion that not all individuals are equal, as well as the attitudes of the people toward existing social inequalities. India scores high on power distance, indicating that there is a social hierarchy and a top-down structure in society. This implies that (1) Society members are dependent on the power holder for direction; (2) Society accepts unequal rights between those with power and those who hold less power and (3) A high degree of paternalistic leadership where leaders take interest in the personal lives of those they supervise and look out for their personal well-being. In the United States the concept of “liberty and justice for all” and equal rights for all members of society is a guiding philosophy. This could possibly explain why perceived SMI goodwill is the more dominant dimension of source credibility in the Indian culture whereas expertise and trustworthiness are the dominant dimensions in the U.S. sample. The Indian audience follows an influencer when they perceive them to be more understanding, empathetic and responsive, whereas the US audience connects with the influencer based on their expertise and the legitimacy of their communication. The Indian audience also accepts hierarchies and allows the emergence of leaders, who become idolized. Whereas the US audience evaluates based on expertise and builds trust. Overall, this research demonstrates that the mechanics of influencer marketing may vary across cultures - This has significant implications for both practitioners and academics, especially as more marketing firms explore influencer marketing to reach a bigger audience in a highly networked world.

**References**


Summary Brief

The Global Phenomenon of Lonely and Insecure Self-Gifters: Cross-cultural Insights from the United States and India

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The COVID-19 pandemic has presented various prompts for researchers to re-examine how people deal with personal and social challenges. Before the pandemic, consumer researchers became increasingly interested in understanding how negatively valenced psychosocial factors, such as loneliness, can lead individuals to utilize shopping as a coping mechanism. Expanding this knowledge, we explore whether two salient, singularly focused concepts—attachment and self-gifting—might offer deeper insights on what drives consumers to shop strategically relative to a negative psychosocial condition. We present a conceptual model that introduces insecure attachments (i.e., anxiety, avoidance) as antecedents to loneliness and drivers of self-gifting consumer behaviors. We make use of a two-country sample (i.e., United States of America, India) to ascertain whether our framework is bound or agnostic to individualistic (USA) or collectivistic (India) societies, consequently elevating existing thought on self-gifting behavior. Based on a rigorous application of methodologies—ANOVA, PLS-SEM, and HTMT ratio of correlations—we find several meaningful connections between attachment, loneliness, gender, and self-gifting. We also discuss important country differences and managerial implications.

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has presented various prompts for researchers to re-examine how people deal with personal and social challenges. Prior to the pandemic, many consumer researchers became increasingly interested in understanding how loneliness, a negatively valenced psychosocial factor, can lead individuals to utilize shopping as a coping mechanism. Loneliness, defined as perceived isolation based upon discrepancies in an individual’s desired versus actual relationships is globally significant in individualistic and collectivistic countries. In the United States, nearly half of Americans regularly feel lonely (Cigna, 2018). In India, almost 5 million adults experience loneliness (Ali & Barnagarwala, 2019). Not surprisingly, marketers pursue lonely consumers through products, such as virtual assistants (e.g., Amazon’s Alexa) to meet companionship needs, packaging and brand icons (Orth, Cornwell, Ohlhoff, & Naber, 2017), and even promotional campaigns that solicit lonely consumers dining out. Not only do marketers pursue lonely consumers, but lonely consumers pursue marketers by shopping at the retail store to alleviate their loneliness (Rippé, Smith, & Dubinsky, 2018).

Background

In this research, we investigate the role of emotional loneliness on self-gifting consumer behavior for both compensatory and non-compensatory reasons. Together these literature build a new conceptual framework that depicts a lonely consumer with differing degrees of attachment who engages in many self-gift behaviors. We theoretically ground our research to attachment theory since having an insecure attachment leads to a relational deficit such as what is experienced in loneliness. Lonely persons attempt to assuage their angst by engaging in loneliness reduction strategies such as shopping, but little is known about lonely consumers’ shopping behavior. Self-gifting is of particular interest because loneliness may bring a susceptibility to self-oriented shopping. Self-gifts are “personally symbolic self-communication through special indulgences that tend to be premeditated and highly context-bound” (Mick & Demoss, 1990a, p. 322).

At present, relatively little is known about self-gifting related to consumers globally, particularly within collectivistic societies. Simultaneously, collectivistic cultures are becoming more individualistic (Santos, Varnum, & Grossmann, 2017). According to Mortimer et al. (2015), “we don’t know if self-gifting is a global consumer phenomenon or simply present in individualistic, Western societies” (p. 176). The present research addresses this gap by investigating lonely consumers’ self-gifting behavior across individualist (U.S.) and collectivist (India) countries. The U.S. is the world’s largest economy and epitomizes Western culture, while India is among the world’s fastest-growing economies and reflects features of Asian culture. As “developing Asian countries” are suggested for future self-gifting research (Mortimer et al., 2015, p. 176), India provides a particularly viable cultural context for this study.
The objectives of this research are threefold. First, given the pervasiveness of insecure attachments and loneliness, both made especially evident during the COVID-19 pandemic and the under-researched domain of self-gifting consumer behavior, this article conceptualizes a new robust self-gifting process exploring these psychosocial antecedents. This is the first study to examine these direct effects from insecure attachment types and loneliness to self-gifting consumer behaviors. Second, while previous research has typically examined one or two types of self-gifting (mainly reward and therapy), this study examines seven different self-gifting motivations (Mortimer et al., 2015), subsequently providing a more comprehensive, nuanced, and richer understanding of relationships involving this domain. Accordingly, this study provides a universal framework for understanding self-gifting across cultures and not merely within Western societies. This research examines a conceptual model across countries (India and USA) to explore self-gifting parallels of consumers affected by insecure attachment and emotional loneliness. As a third contribution, potential cultural differences of self-gifting motivations are also explored.

**Key Findings**

Our two-country study identified negatively valenced psychosocial conditions— insecure attachment and loneliness, both made especially evident during the COVID-19 pandemic—as previously unexplored antecedents to self-gifting. This empirical work answers ongoing calls to improve current knowledge about consumer loneliness, self-gifting relative to cultural context, and measurement parsimony, and validity of self-gifting types. The PLS-SEM results confirmed that consumers’ insecure attachment styles relate positively to loneliness and self-gifting consumer behavior, respectively. The results also showed that loneliness related significantly to some, but not all, self-gifting consumer behaviors. Mediation was not a focus of this study; however, we did ascertain that loneliness functions only as a complementary (not full) mediator. So, while loneliness is situated between attachments and self-gifting behaviors, both direct and mediated paths are positive. Mediation manifested only within the total sample (neither country sample) for just six paths, including three from anxiety attachment to hedonism ($\beta=0.050$, $t=2.074$, $p=0.038$), negative mood ($\beta=0.091$, $t=3.264$, $p=0.001$), and personal disappointment ($\beta=0.086$, $t=3.270$, $p=0.001$) and three from avoidance attachment to hedonism ($\beta=0.020$, $t=2.002$, $p=0.045$), negative mood ($\beta=0.036$, $t=3.050$, $p=0.002$), and personal disappointment ($\beta=0.034$, $t=3.046$, $p=0.002$).

**References**


SESSION 10D: CONSPICUOUS CONSUMPTION

CHAIR

Xin He
Summary Brief

When Conspicuous Consumption Leads to Greater Preference for Cash Payment

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While many consumers tend to use credit cards to purchase status products, the current research shows that, surprisingly, conspicuous consumption leads to greater preference for cash payment. The results of two studies demonstrate this effect in both field and lab settings. Study 1, conducted in a restaurant in Slovakia, offers empirical support for the predicted effect of conspicuous consumption on preference for cash payment in a naturalistic setting. Study 2, conducted at a large U.S. university, replicates the predicted effect in a controlled laboratory setting. Future studies will attempt to discern the underlying mechanism driving the observed effect. Together, this research contributes to the literature on conspicuous consumption and has important managerial implications for the service industry.

Introduction

With the increased popularity of credit cards, debit cards, and mobile apps, consumers are gradually losing interest in paying for their purchases by cash. According to the 2018 TSYS U.S. Consumer Payment Study, only 14% of consumers consider cash to be their most preferred payment method. This research introduces conspicuous consumption as a potential driver that could increase the use of payment method by cash, particularly in the service industry.

Theoretical Background

The majority of the existing work has focused on exploring the link between conspicuous consumption and credit usage. In fact, it is suggested that conspicuous consumption dramatically increases consumer borrowing and credit card debt (Christen & Morgan, 2005; Frank, 1999). This is largely caused by the fact that those most prone to engage in conspicuous consumption are the low-status and low-income consumers (Mazzocco et al., 2012; Walasek & Brown, 2015). Since these consumers have a tendency to buy conspicuous goods that they cannot afford, they often end up buying those goods on credit, thereby increasing their credit card debt. In contrast, we argue and demonstrate in this research that conspicuous consumption leads to greater preference for cash payment. We expect this effect to be driven by conspicuous consumption’s ability to affect consumers’ level of mental construal.

Construal level theory suggests that consumers can construe information either abstractly or concretely (Trope & Liberman, 2010). We argue that due to the importance of the visibility aspect tied to it (Veblen, 1899/1994), conspicuous consumption is perceived as rather tangible. This would suggest that consumers are likely to construe conspicuous consumption on a more concrete level. Furthermore, existing research demonstrated the link between payment method and mental construal level; namely, the concept of credit card was shown to be associated with more abstract construing of information than the concept of cash (Chen et al., 2017). Thus, we expect that conspicuous consumers will be more likely to use a cash payment method and that construal level will mediate this effect.

Findings

Two studies provided preliminary support for the focal effect of conspicuous consumption on preference for cash payment. Study 1 provided evidence in a naturalistic setting (i.e., a restaurant) involving actual conspicuous (vs. inconspicuous) consumption and actual payment. Study 2 replicated the results from the field study in the lab. Moving forward, this research will attempt to empirically examine the mechanism underlying this effect.

Together, this research establishes conspicuous consumption as an antecedent to preference for cash payment. Apart from contributing to the conspicuous consumption literature, this research has significant managerial implications for the service industry.

References


Summary Brief

The Effects of Store Environment and Conspicuous Consumption Orientation on Impulse Buying Tendency in Apparel Industry

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Impulse buying shows purchasing behavior without thinking, and contains cognitive and affective dimensions. There were many factors that affect impulse buying tendency in literature. In this research, it was aimed to analyze how store environment factors such as ambient and design, and conspicuous consumption orientation impact impulse buying tendency in the apparel industry in Turkey. Within this aim, face-to-face survey technique was used, and the field study was conducted in the third biggest city of Turkey, Izmir, with convenience sampling. Total 226 questionnaires were held. Data were analyzed via structural equation modelling. It was found out that store environment only influenced affective impulse buying tendency whereas conspicuous consumption orientation affected both cognitive and affective impulse buying tendencies. It was advised to apparel retailers that they should improve store environment factors that lead to impulse buying, and also, they should be careful about the features of conspicuous consumption to support impulse buying tendencies.

Introduction

Impulse buying is an instant purchase without detailed planning, the purchase decision is made quickly, and contains hedonic and emotional components (Hausman, 2000). In impulse buying, the psychological motive that may be powerful and irresistible occurs suddenly and prompts action. Impulse buying is performed without much consideration and consequences. The motive of impulse buying is hedonic and stimulates emotional conflict (Rook, 1987). Impulse buying behavior was seen as irrational buying behavior in many studies and it was criticized since consumers buy products without thinking too much and do not see the negative consequences of the purchase (Rook and Fischer, 1995; Herabadi et al., 2009). However, with the rising importance of impulse buying, retailers try to increase impulse buying with various techniques. Store environment is important factor that affects impulse buying. Store environment is related to the features such as color, music, ambient, and design. With the help of store environment elements, retailers stimulate senses, draw attention to the certain products, and create positive emotions which lead to impulse buying (Herabadi et al., 2009). Conspicuous consumption is consumers’ desire to show their social prestige through acquiring and consuming products. In general, consumers use conspicuous consumption to increase their prestige in society. This important social and cultural phenomenon influences consumers’ consumption decisions. It has become more important to understand the variables associated with materialism and conspicuous consumption in societies (Segal and Podoshen, 2013).

The apparel market in Turkey was dominated by the international companies such as H&M, Mango, Zara, Nike, Adidas, Lacoste, Nautica. There were also some big national companies in the market such as Koton, Defacto, Lcwaikiki, Boyner. Apparel retail industry in Turkey had total revenues of $17.1 billion in 2018, representing annual growth rate of 10.3% between 2014 and 2018 (Market Research, 2020). Turkey is one of the biggest exporter countries in the apparel industry. The Turkish apparel industry exported both textiles and apparel products to the United Kingdom, Germany, Italy, and Spain in 2018 (Shahbandeh, 2020). According to Rook (1987), impulse buying can be towards to low-priced convenience products such as fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) and snack products, as well as products such as microwave and furniture. It may be common to observe impulse buying behavior in the FMCG industry, and for shopping products, it is more difficult to act impulsively and purchase products without thinking too much. However, the apparel brands subject to the research were for middle class and the prices of them were in medium level. Besides impulse buying, also products can be divided into two groups that are subject to conspicuous consumption and not. Apparel items, automobiles, sunglasses, and mobile phones can be examples for the products which are subject to conspicuous consumption while FMCG products such as shampoo, toothpaste, and water cannot be given as examples for the products that are subject to conspicuous consumption (Phillips and Back, 2011). Because of these reasons, the apparel industry was selected for the research.

The aim of the research was to analyze the relations between store environment, conspicuous consumption orientation, and impulse buying tendency. Store environment includes three main factors such as design, ambient, and employees (Baker et al., 2002). In the research, design and ambient characteristics of store environment were focused on, and direct effects of store environment on impulse buying tendency and conspicuous consumption orientation were
measured. Then, direct effects of conspicuous consumption orientation on impulse buying tendency was measured. Conspicuous consumption orientation was related to materialism, and materialism’s direct effects on impulse buying were proven in previous studies (Podoshen and Andrzejewski, 2012; Vohra, 2016). However, this research only analyzed the direct relation between conspicuous consumption orientation and impulse buying tendency. Results showed important relations among variables. The first result of the study was that store environment factors only influenced affective impulse buying tendency, and the second result showed that conspicuous consumption orientation impacted both cognitive and affective impulse buying tendency. Due to the importance of the positive effects of both store environment and conspicuous consumption orientation on affective impulse buying tendency, the previously created retail environment which influences the emotions and feeling of consumers should be deliberately designed by the apparel companies. Besides affective impulse buying, cognitive impulse buying shows buying without planning and thinking too much and is affected by conspicuous consumption. Noticed by others and gain respect in the store are too important for consumers in cognitive impulse buying. Time pressure and other situational factors should be designed by the apparel stores to support cognitive impulse buying tendency.

**Literature Review**

Impulse buying is an unintentional purchase suddenly made while shopping. It is known as irrational buying (Verplanken and Herabadi, 2001). Consumers do not specifically search for the product, they do not plan of purchase before shopping. Consumers focus on instant satisfaction rather than solving an existing problem or meeting a predetermined need, so they decide very quickly after seeing the product, and the time between realizing and purchasing the product is very short. Consumers respond quickly to the stimuli, which drive them to purchase, and buy without delay (Jones et al., 2003). Consumers act under the influence of the stimuli without thinking the results (Beatty and Ferrell 1998).

Time, money, in-store browsing, stimulus, shopping enjoyment, positive mood of consumers affect impulse buying behavior (Beatty and Ferrell, 1998). Optimum stimulation level, consumer impulsiveness, and self-monitoring are the factors that affect consumers’ impulse buying behaviors (Sharma et al., 2010). Impulse buying is an action taken without thinking with emotional reactions (Herabadi et al., 2009). According to Verplanken and Herabadi (2001), impulse buying has two main components such as cognitive and affective. Cognitive dimension involves acting without thinking and planning. Affective dimension contains excitement of shopping and satisfaction during shopping. It may be occurred in pre-purchase, sales encounter, or post purchase stage. In post purchase stage, consumers may feel regret because of spending unnecessary money.

Since impulse buying is an unintentional and sudden purchase, and related to hedonic consumption and sensory arousal, it has strategic importance for retailers (Arnold and Reynolds, 2003: 90). Consumers do not only react to the product's design, packaging, price, warranty, advertisement and image while deciding during purchase, but are also affected by the place where they buy the product. In some cases, store environment may be more effective than the characteristics of the product in making the purchase decision. It was obtained that store environment had higher effect on impulse buying than personality variables (Mohan et al., 2013). Saad and Metawie (2015) showed that music, light, layout, and employee assistance are the factors of store environment. Baker et al. (2002) classified store environment factors into three parts as ambient factors like lightening and music; design factors like layout and assortment exhibition; and social factors like employees’ attentions. Chang et al (2011) analyzed three factors of store environment, and showed that all these factors revealed positive emotional reactions and affected impulse buying behavior. In this current study, only the ambient and design environments of apparel stores were investigated. Only the effects of ambient and design characteristics of store environment on both conspicuous consumption orientation and impulse buying tendency were analyzed.

There are many studies that show store environment affects impulse buying behavior (Chang et al, 2011; Mohan et al., 2013; Saad and Metawie, 2015; Santini et al., 2019; Hashmi et al., 2020). Store environment characteristics such as color, light, music, style create an immediate effect on consumers’ decision-making process during shopping (Baker et al., 1994). Consumers' perceptions of the retail environment can affect their emotional responses and impulse buying behaviors (Chang et al., 2011). Retailers often try to create a retail store environment that generates positive emotions in consumers’ motivations to buy. These positive emotions will comfort consumers and they feel as if they are in a shopping mood, so they will start to buy impulsively. Xu (2007) found out that store environment affected emotions of Gen Ys and so their impulse buying behaviors. In literature, it was shown that store environment affects consumers’ positive emotions, and these positive emotions affect impulse buying behavior (Xu, 2007; Chang et al., 2011; Hashmi et al., 2020). In these relations, store environment indirectly affects impulse buying through positive emotions. On the contrary of this indirect effect of store environment on impulse buying behavior, in the current research, direct effect of store environment’s on impulse buying tendency was analyzed. Therefore, the first hypothesis was developed below:

**H1:** Store environment affects impulse buying tendency.
In addition to strong influences of store environment on impulse buying, literature was reviewed to see store environment’s effect on conspicuous consumption, but no study could be found. However, a lightening, fancy, good store environment may trigger consumers’ conspicuous consumption orientation, and make them buy with the hedonic motivations in the aim of being noticed by others or showing them who they are. Since store environment can trigger hedonic motivations and conspicuous consumption can be implemented by the results of hedonic motivations (Podoshen and Andrzejewski, 2012), a direct relation between store environment and conspicuous consumption can be occurred. Hence, this relation was examined in the research and hypothesized as follows:

H2: Store environment affects conspicuous consumption orientation.

Conspicuous consumption was developed in the Theory of the Leisure Class (Veblen, 1889). According to Veblen (1989), being respected in a society is related to the power of money, and having a rich life proves the power of money. Rucker and Galinsky (2009) found out that consumers, who focus on utilitarian aspects of the products, do not perform conspicuous consumption behavior. Conspicuous consumption is performed for not only self-satisfaction, but also showing social status, value, and prestige in a society (Podoshen and Andrzejewski, 2012). In conspicuous consumption, product satisfaction consists of other people's reactions rather than utilitarian traits (Wong, 1997). It is important not to confuse conspicuous consumption and status consumption. Conspicuous consumption is more related to exaggerating of egos and exhibiting the power occurred by wealth, however status consumption behavior is a process implemented for gaining status and social prestige (O’Cass and Frost, 2002). Conspicuous consumption orientation can be differed based on individual differences. It was obtained that gender as one of the most important personal differences affect conspicuous consumption (O’Cass and McEwen, 2004). It was proven in literature that conspicuous consumption affects compulsive buying behavior directly (Benli and Ferman, 2019). Benli and Ferman (2019) proved the effects of conspicuous consumption on compulsive buying behavior among Turkish and American consumers. According to the study, compulsive buying is more affected by conspicuous consumption in Turkish consumers (r=.475) than American consumers (r=.463). It is important not to confuse impulse buying and compulsive buying behaviors. Impulse buying is related to unplanned shopping whereas compulsive buying is more implemented by psychological motivations such as spending money to cure loneliness. Chaudhuri et al. (2011) showed the factor which are directly related to conspicuous consumption orientation as follows: individualism, social visibility, self-esteem, and materialism. Materialism is the one which highly affects conspicuous consumption. Materialism involves consumption that exhibits power, status, prestige, and possessions (Cole and Clow, 2011; Santini et al., 2019). In literature, it was shown that consumer behaviors related to materialism involve conspicuous consumption (Wong, 1997; Lins et al., 2015). Besides, there have been many studies in literature that show the effects of materialism on impulse buying (Cole and Clow, 2011; Podoshen and Andrzejewski, 2012; Vohra, 2016). Since it has been already proven that materialism’s direct effects on both conspicuous consumption and impulse buying, in the current research, it was analyzed that direct effects of conspicuous consumption orientation on impulse buying tendency. With the support from literature that shows direct links between materialism and conspicuous consumption, and materialism and impulse buying, it was hypothesized that if there is a direct relation between conspicuous consumption orientation and impulse buying tendency. Therefore, next hypothesis was developed as follows:

H3: Conspicuous consumption orientation affects impulse buying tendency.

The conceptual research model was shown below in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: Conceptual Model](image-url)
Methodology

The questionnaire was developed by three constructs and 31 items. First construct, store environment, was measured by five items developed by Chang et al. (2011). The second construct, conspicuous consumption orientation, was modified by O’Cass and McEwen (2004). They modified the 18-item conspicuous consumption scale which was developed for measuring the attitudes towards the meaning of conspicuous consumption by Marcoux et al. (1997). The last construct was impulse buying tendency, and measured by 20 items developed by Verplanken and Herabadi (2001). 5-point Likert type scale was used to measure the items in the constructs.

The field study was performed in Izmir, Turkey. Face-to-face survey technique was used and the field study was conducted between January and April of 2018. Convenience sampling was used and 300 consumers who buy apparel items were participated to the research. After eliminating incomplete and missing questionnaires, total 226 participants were reached.

Data were analyzed by using SPSS 22 and AMOS 22 statistical programs. Demographics were analyzed via descriptive statistics, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to analyze the constructs and show the reliability and validity values, lastly structural equation modelling (SEM) and path analysis were carried out.

Findings

Demographic characteristics of the sample were as follows: women 57.5%, men 42.5%, high school graduated 45.1%, college and graduate school graduated 54.8%, married 27%, single 73%, low income level participants 36.2%, middle income level participants 42.4%, high income level participants 21.2%. The majority of the participants (57.1%) prefer buying from these apparel brands: 17.3% Zara, 16.4% Mango, 14.6% Nike, 8.8% Adidas.

CFA was implemented to the constructs. One item (It is not my style to just buy things) from AIB was deleted since cross-loading. A total of 30 items loaded to the dimensions and measurement model in the CFA provided an adequate fit as follows: $\chi^2/df = 2.226$, GFI = .786, AGFI = .748, NFI = .828, CFI = .896, RMSEA = .074, and SRMR = .077. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to measure reliability. All constructs provided high reliability which is above .7 (Hair et al., 2006). Convergent validity and discriminant validity were measured to analyze validity. AVE values did not meet the recommended threshold which is .5 whereas 3 of 4 CR values of the constructs met the minimum threshold which is .6 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). The result of the CFA, Cronbach's alpha coefficient ($\alpha$), composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) values were shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Store environment (SE)</td>
<td>S1. This store was clean.</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>.518</td>
<td>.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S2. This store was a relaxing place to shop.</td>
<td>.927</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S3. The store was a pleasant place to shop.</td>
<td>.918</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S4. The store has an impressive interior design.</td>
<td>.671</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S5. The color of this store was bright.</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conspicuous consumption orientation (CC)</td>
<td>CC1. Buying from this store helps me being noticed by others.</td>
<td>.631</td>
<td>.269</td>
<td>.685</td>
<td>.940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CC2. Because of the presence of others, I think to buy from this store.</td>
<td>.811</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CC3. Buying from this store helps me to gain respect.</td>
<td>.932</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CC4. Buying from this store helps me to gain popularity.</td>
<td>.879</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CC5. Buying from this store helps me to show who I am.</td>
<td>.938</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CC6. Because I want to be seen using this store’s products, I think to buy from this store.</td>
<td>.859</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive impulse buying tendency (CIB)</td>
<td>CIB1. I usually think carefully before I buy something.</td>
<td>.707</td>
<td>.293</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>.903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CIB2. I usually only buy things that I intended to buy.</td>
<td>.841</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CIB3. If I buy something, I usually do that spontaneously.</td>
<td>.697</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CIB4. Most of my purchases are planned in advance.</td>
<td>.775</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CIB5. I only buy things that I really need.</td>
<td>.838</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CIB6. I like to compare different brands before I buy one.</td>
<td>.345</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CIB7. Before I buy something I always carefully consider whether I need it.</td>
<td>.817</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CIB8. I am used to buying things on the spot.</td>
<td>.707</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CIB9. I often buy things without thinking. .731

Affective impulse buying tendency (AIB)

AI B1. It is a struggle to leave nice things I see in a shop. .759 .268 .766 .872

AI B2. I sometimes cannot suppress the feeling of wanting to buy something. .763

AI B3. I sometimes feel guilty after having bought something. .267

AI B4. I’m not the kind of person who “falls in love at first sight” with things I see in shops. .223

AI B5. I can become very excited if I see something I would like to buy. .574

AI B6. I always see something nice whenever I pass by shops. .651

AI B7. I find it difficult to pass up a bargain. .536

AI B8. If I see something new, I want to buy it. .750

AI B9. I am a bit reckless in buying things. .832

AI B10. I sometimes buy things because I like buying things rather than because I need them. .846

According to the result of the CFA, there were four main dimensions that show store environment (SE), conspicuous consumption orientation (CC), cognitive impulse buying tendency (CIB), and affective impulse buying tendency (AIB). Based on these dimensions, the research model was shown below in Figure 2 and the hypotheses were rewritten.

![Figure 2: Research Model](image)

H1a: Store environment affects cognitive impulse buying tendency.

H1b: Store environment affects affective impulse buying tendency.

H2: Store environment affects conspicuous consumption orientation.

H3a: Conspicuous consumption orientation affects cognitive impulse buying tendency.

H3b: Conspicuous consumption orientation affects affective impulse buying tendency.

Path analysis was performed to predict the effects of SE and CC on CIB and AIB. It was found out that the research model was provided an adequate fit: χ²/df = 2.320, GFI = .810, AGFI = .776, NFI = .823, TLI = 878, CFI = .890, and RMSEA = .077 (Schumacker and Lomax, 2016). After measuring the model fit, the hypotheses were tested and the results were presented in Table 2 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P Value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1a</td>
<td>.216</td>
<td>.144</td>
<td>1.499</td>
<td>.134</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b</td>
<td>.535</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>2.844</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>.270</td>
<td>.788</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3a</td>
<td>.212</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>3.620</td>
<td>.000*</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3b</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td>.071</td>
<td>2.727</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.001

Three of total five hypotheses were supported. Store environment did not affect cognitive impulse buying (H1a, β = .216, p<.01) while it affected affective impulse buying (H1b, β = .535, p<.01). Store environment did not have any effects on conspicuous consumption (H2, β = .047, p<.01). The last two hypotheses were found as statistically significant.
and showed that conspicuous consumption affected both cognitive (H$_{3a}$, $\beta = .212$, $p<.01$) and affective impulse buying (H$_{3b}$, $\beta = .192$, $p<.01$).

**Conclusion**

In the research, it was found out in the first hypothesis that store environment influences affective impulse buying, but not cognitive impulse buying. Affective impulse buying is related to consumers’ emotions and senses whereas cognitive impulse buying shows the actions without much thought during shopping. According to this finding, a good store environment can affect consumers’ emotions rather than their cognitive actions. Similar to this finding, it was revealed that in-store positive and negative emotions influence affective impulse buying behavior, but not influence cognitive impulse buying behavior (Yassin, 2019). The finding related to store environment does not affect cognitive impulse buying tendency can be explained by the nature of the products subject to the study. Previously created good store environments will rise consumers’ desire of buying products and keep consumers longer time in the store which is a desired behavior (Xu, 2007). However, not all consumers are affected by store environment at the same level; psychological factors such as motives, basic personality, and moods may affect them (Herabadi et al., 2009). The study related to tourist’ behaviors showed that positive shopping environment and emotions significantly affect cognitive impulse buying (Sohn and Lee, 2017). Since tourists have limited time for decision-making process, they usually buy spontaneously without thinking, and this shows how time pressure affects consumers’ cognitive impulse buying behaviors (Youn and Faber, 2000; Sohn and Lee, 2017). On the contrary of this, buying apparel products includes a complex decision-making process, hence consumer behavior may change during apparel shopping (Moon and Lee, 2013). The current study was conducted with apparel stores’ consumers and it was revealed that consumers’ cognitive impulse buying behaviors were not affected by store environment in the apparel industry. A possible explanation of this finding may be related to the other factors which affect the nature of buying apparel items such as no time pressure, high entertaining and self-rewarding context. Moreover, this finding can be related to the sample since it was shown in literature that personal factors such as gender, age, and income affect impulse buying (Verplanken and Herabadi, 2001; Santini et al., 2019). It was suggested to analyze the effects of personal factors and store environment factors together on impulse buying (Saad and Metawie, 2015) since customer outcomes cannot be analyzed without individual characteristics of consumers.

In the second hypothesis, it was searched about the effects of store environment on conspicuous consumption orientation. There was no statistically significant relation between them. It may be because of a missing variable between them. There should be added a new variable such as hedonic motivations or positive emotions as mediators. Store environment may positively affect them, and they may affect conspicuous consumption orientation lastly.

In the third hypothesis, it was obtained that conspicuous consumption influenced both affective and cognitive impulse buying. It showed that consumers buy apparel products without thinking within the aim of having desired prestige. Moreover, this finding showed that consumers buy apparel products within the aim of increasing their positive emotions and making theirselves happy. In some situations, consumers may perform impulse buying for having the positive emotions such as feeling happy, and they may buy impulsively when they are in stress and depression in order to reward, support, and comfort themselves (Verplanken and Herabadi, 2001).

Since cognitive impulse buying is affected by conspicuous consumption, apparel retailers should pay attention to cognitive process. Noticed by others and gain respect in the store are too important for consumers in cognitive impulse buying. Time pressure and other situational factors should be designed by the apparel stores to support cognitive impulse buying tendency. Besides cognitive impulse buying, since affective impulse buying is affected by both store environment and conspicuous consumption orientation, the previously created retail environment which influences the emotions and feeling of consumers should be deliberately designed by the apparel companies.

**Limitations and Further Research Suggestions**

There are some limitations in the research. The first limitation is about the factors of store environment. In the research, only the effects of ambient and design factors were analyzed. Social factor of store environment such as employees’ attentions was not included to the research since it may lead to a bias. Social relations and high interactivity between employees and customers may easily affect impulse buying tendency positively.

Second limitation was that the research did not search about the differences in personal factors. It was proven in literature that personal factors such as gender, age, and income affect impulse buying (Verplanken and Herabadi, 2001; Santini et al., 2019). Personal factors, individual differences, socio economic status of consumers, and also hedonic and utilitarian motivations should be analyzed in further research since impulse buying is affected by personal and situational factors.
Third limitation was methodological. The survey was conducted with apparel stores’ customers with convenience sampling. The mall intercept survey techniques can be used in further studies. Also, the apparel store brands may be classified as luxury or high-fashion brands, and the differences can be revealed.

References


SESSION 10E: CONSUMER & CULTURAL EMPATHY

CHAIR

Anastasia Thyroff
Summary Brief
The Virtuous Cycle: Social Media Influencer’s Potential for Kindness Contagion

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Ashley Hass, Texas Tech University, USA

Social media influencers have received significant recognition for their marketing capabilities but are also identified as contributing to several negative consequences in society. As an emerging marketing actor, this paper explores social media influencers’ role and practices in the spread of kindness to benefit the larger society. Informed by both the parasocial and construal level theories, we introduce the concept of kindness contagion and conceptualize social media influencers’ kindness contagion cycle. The framework lays out 4 key propositions in addition to 6 authentic kindness practice forms in which influencers are most likely to reinforce their kindness embedded relationship. The novel collaboration of these parasocial and construal level theories allows this research to extend beyond commonly discussed marketization capabilities for this actor and allows for insights into how a social media influencer can build an intimate, trusting relationship with their followers, productive for kindness dispersion. Practical and theoretical implications are also discussed.

Introduction
Social media influencers have increasingly become a medium for marketers to sell products and services. Yet, what influencers sell goes far beyond the marketized offerings. Arguably they sell and shape culture and others’ identities (Hund & McGuigan 2019). As social media has risen in popularity, so have cases of depression, with arrows pointing to social media as being a cause (Thapa & Subedi 2018). Social media influencers are a likely contributor to this contrast syndrome and its adverse effects (Chae 2018; Lee & Eastin 2020).

In this paper, we introduce the concept of kindness contagion and its prospect for influencers. Conversation within marketing literature surrounding influencers has concentrated on understanding how firms can utilize influencers as a new promotional tool (e.g., Audrezet, et al. 2018; Ki & Kim 2019; Moulard, et al. 2016; Mulcahy & Parkinson 2019; Nascimento, et al. 2020; Sánchez-Fernández & Jiménez-Castillo 2021). Social media influencers have a significant impact on their followers as they have learned to harness the power of their social media platforms by creating trusting relationships with their audience. As such, we ask: If social media influencers can influence negative effects, how can influencers also utilize social media to promote kindness contagion? To inform how influencers can help generate kindness, this paper introduces a conceptual framework of influencers’ cycle for kindness contagion. Our framework, informed by the collaboration of both the parasocial (Horton & Wohl 1956; Schiappa, et al. 2005) and construal level theories (Liberman & Trope 1998; Wilson, et al. 2013), allows for insights into how a social media influencer can build an intimate, trusting relationship with their followers, productive for kindness dispersion.

Conceptual Framework Overview
Leveraging parasocial and construal level theories, a conceptual framework is offered to help inform how influencers can engender kindness contagion. The conceptual framework of how an influencer's actions can lead to kindness is illustrated through a cycle that consists predominantly of four elements: the authenticity of the social media influencer, the parasocial relationship, the construal level, and ultimately genuine kindness. We conceptualize that the social media influencer's authenticity sparks a parasocial relationship that is made more intimate due to the construal level. This intimate relationship then allows for the spread of kindness both externally and internally, consequently restarting the cycle. Leveraging these theories allows us to make the following propositions:

Proposition 1: Influencers who desire to spread kindness must first have a foundation of authentic relations with their audience.

Proposition 2: Influencers who desire to spread kindness may benefit from communicating and providing content that is concrete, incidental, contextual, non-schematic, and subordinate.

Proposition 3: As influencers spread kindness, they may positively impact (a) their audience’s and (b) their own well-being.
Proposition 4: As the audience receives kindness, their motivation to continue this spread of kindness to others increases.

Conclusions and Implications

The proposed framework allows for insights into how a social media influencer can build an intimate, trusting relationship with their followers, productive for kindness dispersion. Once this intimate relationship has been formed, the social media influencer can then utilize their platform to promote kindness by posting repetition of kind intentions and kind meditations and use their social media stories to teach their followers proactive kindness. Due to their intimate relationships with their followers, built upon the parasocial relationship and ultimately the reduced construal level, social media influencers’ promotion of kindness will affect their followers by positively benefiting their well-being. For instance, this may increase their happiness and decrease their stress and blood pressure levels. The promotion of kindness should then internalize within the social media influencer allowing for the same effects to occur in them as well, reinforcing these positive effects for the influencer and the perception of the influencers’ (now) authentic practices.

Leveraging construal theory, we offer four propositions and six authentic kindness practices in which influencers are most likely to reinforce their kindness-embedded parasocial relationship. Future research can test the propositions offered in this research, including data from the influencer and consumer perspectives. We see an opportunity for future research to widen the conversation to interrogate how perceived authenticity is enabled in a discussion of kindness. This research contributes to the developing knowledge on positive consequences possible for influencers beyond monetization. Social media influencers, through authentic kindness practices, can support a wider spread of positivity. Kindness contagion has important implications for the larger social system, including consumers, influencers, and marketers who wish to support the spread of something beyond the marketization of sometimes unachievable and falsified lifestyles.

Select References


Summary Brief
Human Dignity and Meaningful Work: A Frontline Employee Perspective

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William B. Locander, Louisiana Tech University, USA

The present study identifies antecedents and consequences of two factors that affect frontline employee well-being: perceptions of meaningful work and workplace dignity. A conceptual model tests three antecedents of meaningful work and workplace dignity (i.e., ethical leadership, social impact, and work-life imbalance) and their influences on two organizational outcomes (i.e., organizational commitment and turnover intentions). Using a Qualtrics sample of 242 frontline employees, results from a structural equation model (SEM) provide strong support for the antecedents and outcomes of workplace dignity, emphasizing the importance of recognizing and cultivating dignity in frontline employee work environments. The results also show that social impact strongly influences perceptions of meaningful work, and when frontline employees perceive their work to be more meaningful, organizational commitment is greater.

Introduction
Firms often struggle to find an appropriate balance between ensuring their performance interests and the well-being of their employees. The anti-human forces of technology, markets, politics, and the media have changed workplace environments, marginalizing being human in society (Rushkoff, 2019). More than ever before, management is failing to prioritize the well-being of frontline employees – employees who provide important services to customers. Indeed, many frontline employees (FLEs) work excessive hours in stressful environments for low levels of compensation (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Additionally, FLEs often face debilitating pressure trying to satisfy both customers and their organization (Bateson, 1985). Working under these conditions can be harmful for FLEs, resulting in diminished physical and psychological well-being (Schwepker et al., 2019). The present study emphasizes that management should prioritize employee well-being and consider meaningful work and workplace dignity as moral responsibilities of an organization.

Background
Meaningful work is described as a fundamental human need fueled by an inner desire for autonomy and freedom (Yeoman, 2014). Meaningful work is valuable because it provides FLEs with the ability to personally identify with their work environment, experience personal fulfillment, and enhance personal growth (Demirtas et al., 2017). Importantly, when employees perceive their work as meaningful, psychological well-being is enhanced (Arnold et al., 2007). A second factor that may contribute to employee well-being is workplace dignity. Workplace dignity is defined as “an individual's perception about respect and trust, equal treatment, valuation of one’s worth, fair-treatment, autonomy and freedom of expression and decision making enjoyed by an employee at the workplace” (Tiwari & Sharma, 2019, p. 8). The development and validation of a workplace dignity scale has piqued scholarly interest in this area, seeking to understand its importance in workplace settings. Some authors believe that human dignity ought to be the ultimate purpose by which organizations’ accomplishments are assessed (Thomas & Lucas, 2019). Unfortunately, organizations commonly neglect dignity in the workplace, treating employees as resources for achieving immediate goals and profits.

Three antecedents are hypothesized to affect FLE perceptions of meaningfulness and dignity in the workplace: ethical leadership, social impact, and work-life imbalance. First, we predict that ethical leadership is positively related to meaningful work and workplace dignity, as ethical leaders make decisions that benefit the organization beyond the short-term by respecting employees, striving for fairness, taking personal responsibility, ensuring high ethical standards, and showing concern for the greater good (Mihelic et al., 2010). Second, we predict that social impact is positively related to meaningful work and workplace dignity, as studies show that when jobs are designed to promote a sense of purpose through positive impact on others, employees perceive their tasks to be more significant and their work more meaningful (Grant, 2007). Finally, we predict that work-life imbalance is negatively related to workplace dignity and meaningful work. Work-life imbalance occurs when employees are unable to simultaneously balance the emotional and behavioral demands of their jobs with family responsibilities and personal duties (Bell et al., 2012). When work-life imbalance exists, employees may experience conflict, resulting in greater turnover, emotional exhaustion, lower job satisfaction, and negative affect toward the organization (Allen et al., 2012).
Results

Using a sample of 242 frontline employees, our model tests three antecedents of meaningful work and workplace dignity (i.e., work-life imbalance, ethical leadership, and social impact) and two organizational outcomes (i.e., organizational commitment and turnover intention). The results from a structural equation model (SEM) show that all three antecedents (i.e., ethical leadership, social impact, and work-life imbalance) are strongly related to perceived dignity in the workplace. Additionally, workplace dignity is strongly related to organizational commitment and turnover intentions, emphasizing the importance of recognizing and cultivating dignity in frontline employee work environments. Our findings also highlight that social impact is strongly associated with perceptions of meaningful work, and when frontline employees perceive their work to be more meaningful, organizational commitment is greater. Overall, the results emphasize that management should create a sense of meaning for FLEs, ensure that employees experience dignity in the workplace, and be cognizant of practices that undermine, deny, mend, or safeguard FLE dignity (Kostera & Pirson, 2017).

References


SESSION 10F: BEHAVIOR CHANGE IN CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

CHAIR

Pam Richardson-Greenfield
Summary Brief
Blessings of Gratitude: Fostering Well-being and Examining the Effectiveness of Social Marketing Messaging

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Dong-Jun Min, University of New Orleans, USA
Judith Anne Garretson Folse, Louisiana State University, USA
Pamela Richardson, Radford University, USA

COVID-19 riddled many Americans with fear and anxiety. This research examined the role that feelings of gratitude played in the emotional well-being of individuals and investigated how efforts to manage anxiety influenced social marketing initiatives at the outset of the COVID-19 outbreak. Study 1 revealed that emotion management serves as a mediator between feelings of gratitude and prosocial behavior. Prosocial behavior then leads to intentions to comply with guidelines presented in social marketing messaging to slow the spread of COVID-19. Study 2 investigated how enlisting an "other" orientation in social marketing messages stimulated compliance with government guidelines to control the spread of COVID-19. Results confirm that as individuals attempt to mitigate anxiety by experiencing feelings of gratitude, messages promoting an other-orientation were effective in garnering compliance with government guidelines. Implications for addressing mental health and social marketing messaging during catastrophic occurrences are discussed.

Introduction

COVID-19 became a pandemic in March 2020 (World Health Organization 2020), and riddled many Americans with fear and anxiety. This research sought to examine ways in which individuals could manage negative emotions during the early outbreak of the coronavirus pandemic while contributing to societal well-being. Specifically, it investigates the impact of anxiety and gratitude on emotional health and addresses the role that social marketing efforts played during the early part of the coronavirus pandemic (March-April 2020). Findings from two studies are reported, which examined the relationship between anxiety, gratitude, prosocial behavior, and behavioral intentions to slow the spread of COVID-19. This research offers insight on how individuals can address mental health concerns during catastrophic occurrences by demonstrating how negative emotions such as anxiety can be down-regulated or mitigated by positive emotions such as gratitude. In addition, it examines how gratitude and promoting an other-orientation in marketing communications can be effective at stimulating compliant behaviors that serve the greater good. Implications for addressing mental health and social marketing messaging during catastrophic occurrences are discussed.

Background

The coronavirus pandemic heightened anxiety among Americans. Because anxiety can involve excessive worry which can become counterproductive, it is often in the best interest of individuals to manage or regulate anxiety levels. Individuals can work to manage or regulate emotions by experiencing positive emotions, which can undo the effects of negative emotions (Fredrickson et al. 2000). Specifically, research has shown that people who experience gratitude exhibit lower rates of depression and anxiety (Petrocchi and Couyoumdjian 2016). In addition, expressions of gratitude have been found to correlate with high levels of positive affect (Emmons and McCullough 2003). Ultimately, gratitude is a positive emotion that can mitigate the adverse effects of negative emotions and help foster positive affect (Fredrickson et al. 2000).

Gratitude also motivates individuals to behave morally and exhibit prosocial behaviors (Yost-Dubrow and Dunham 2018). Because positive emotions such as gratitude broaden momentary thought-action repertoire (which involves greater recognition of positive actions) it is proposed that this broadening mechanism might explain the relationship between gratitude and prosocial behaviors. Thus, the following hypotheses are predicted:

H1a: Feelings of gratitude will increase emotion management behaviors for reducing anxiety.
H1b: Emotion management will increase intentions to engage in prosocial behaviors.

As individuals work to mitigate anxiety by experiencing feelings of gratitude, their tendency to adopt prosocial behaviors and attend to the needs of others might increase their likelihood of complying with guidelines outlined in marketing communications to abate the spread of the coronavirus. Subsequently, the following is predicted:
**H1c**: Intentions to engage in prosocial behaviors will increase intentions to comply with government guidelines to slow the spread of COVID-19.

The literature recognizes that people may vary in the extent to which they possess a "self" versus "other" orientation. Messaging which pursues an other-orientation might be effective in encouraging behaviors in favor of the greater good, making everyone feel responsible for each other. Subsequently, as individuals make attempts to mitigate anxiety levels during the coronavirus outbreak by experiencing feelings of gratitude, social marketing messages which promote an other-orientation might be more effective in garnering compliance from individuals than messages that do not foster an other-orientation.

**H2**: Individuals who have feelings of gratitude and are exposed to social marketing messages, which promote an other-orientation, will be more likely to comply with guidelines to slow the spread of COVID-19 than individuals who express feelings of gratitude but are not exposed to messaging promoting an other-orientation.

**Key Findings**

Two experimental studies were conducted to test the hypotheses. Results from Study 1 demonstrate that emotion management serves as a mediator between feelings of gratitude and prosocial behavior ($\beta = .28$, SE = .09; 95% CI = .10 to .45), and that prosocial behavior can lead to intentions to comply with guidelines to slow the spread of COVID-19 ($\beta = .18$, SE = .07; 95% CI = .04 to .32). Study 1 provides insight into how individuals can address mental health concerns during catastrophic occurrences like a pandemic. Negative emotions, such as anxiety, can be down-regulated or mitigated by positive emotions such as gratitude. In turn, once emotion management efforts are activated, which we view as a broadening mechanism, individuals may become more inclined to engage in behaviors that consider the well-being of others.

Findings from Study 2 confirm the efficacy of using an other-orientation in messaging for those experiencing gratitude to garner compliance with guidelines to slow the spread of the coronavirus. Specifically, individuals who expressed feelings of gratitude and were exposed to social marketing messages promoting an other-orientation, were more likely to comply with COVID-19 guidelines than individuals who expressed feelings of gratitude but were not exposed to messaging promoting an other-orientation [$M_{\text{Gratitude-present+Other-present}} = 6.45$, $M_{\text{Gratitude-present+Other-absent}} = 5.88$; $F(1,161) = 5.22$, $p < .05$]. Although not predicted, the analysis showed that participants who were not primed to feel gratitude and not exposed to messaging promoting an other-orientation showed greater intent to comply with COVID-19 guidelines than those who were not primed with gratitude but were exposed to messaging promoting an other-orientation. This finding underscores the importance of inducing gratitude in concomitance with presenting an other-orientation. Although results suggest that not inducing gratitude and not fostering an other-orientation might be effective for gaining compliance, it ignores the importance of mitigating a potentially destructive emotion such as anxiety, which can be done by introducing feelings of gratitude.

This research examined the role that feelings of gratitude could play in the emotional health and well-being of individuals during the early outbreak of the coronavirus in the United States, and how efforts to manage anxiety might influence the social marketing to control the spread of the virus. Anxiety is a growing public health concern in the United States. Findings from this research can be used to consider how anxiety can be managed in challenging situations. For example, individuals can purposely conjure up feelings of gratitude to help in regulating and managing anxiety. This research also explored messaging, which invoked an other-oriented approach. With the rapid spread of COVID-19, individuals should enlist behaviors and actions that consider others. Especially germane to the coronavirus threat, social marketing messages might be made more effective in getting individuals to prioritize group goals over personal goals.

**References**


Summary Brief

Sensitizing, Forbidding or Transmitting Knowledge? The Role of Family Communication in Responsible Drinking Practices Among Students

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Alcohol (over)consumption represents a common experience for students. Hence, one may wonder what role the parents play in their teenagers’ wine consumption. To prevent excessive consumption, parents may convey different types of messages. In particular, parents may forbid or prevent excessive consumption by communicating about its hazards or the technical aspects of wine to make their teenagers more knowledgeable and aware of how to consume responsibly. Yet, research on the effects of parental communication remains scarce. We thus examine the influence of parental communication on wine consumption. Using an econometric analysis (based on a large sample of French students), we show that students who received technical-based messages from their parents are more knowledgeable. Moreover, moderation-based messages make students both more knowledgeable and responsible. Subsequently, while responsible drinking practices help limit consumption, wine knowledge increases consumption. Interestingly, both wine knowledge and responsible drinking practices have convex relationships with consumption. We provide marketing and public policy implications.
SESSION 10G SPECIAL SESSION: THE FUTURE OF SPORTS MARKETING

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Joe Cronin, Florida State University, USA
David Martin, Auburn University, USA
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SESSION 10H: BRAND ATTITUDE, PRICING STRATEGIES & RELATIONSHIPS IN ADVERTISING

CHAIR

Marla Stafford
Summary Brief

The Mediating Role of Narrative-Realism in Congruence and Brand Attitude for In-game Advertising

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This study investigates the effect of game-product congruence (high versus low) on brand attitude in the context of in-game advertising and the mediating role of narrative-realism in the congruence and brand attitude relationship. To test the hypotheses, we used ANOVA and Hayes PROCESS with a sample of 72 participants. Results revealed high-congruent games produced favorable brand attitudes, and higher levels of narrative realism mediated the relationship between game-product congruence and brand attitude. The study offers important implications for marketing practitioners in designing effective in-game advertising. We extend the findings of prior research on players’ brand attitude in the context of IGA by empirically testing how game-product can improve players’ attitude toward the brands when placed in IGA. More specifically, the paper highlights that in case of high-congruence, brand attitude is more favorable than in the case of low-congruence. This theoretically indicates that based on congruity theory, the higher the relevance or fit between the theme and context, the higher the evaluation of the brand by the customer. Hence, in IGA, higher relevance under a high-congruence condition makes customers think and imagine the expected associations with the brand that matches with their schemata structure, but not in the case of low-congruence. Congruent in-game ads lead to greater overall acceptability of IGA because this type of ad does not interrupt the gameplay experience and appears more plausible and coherent within the game world. In addition, this research highlights the mediating role of narrative realism in the relationship between game-product congruence and brand attitude. IGA should also be made an interactive part of the game such as customizing one’s character with branded clothes or making IGA an essential part of a quest to make the ad less intrusive and the gameplay experience more realistic. Thus, narrative realism factor must be considered by game-developers to produce effective in-game advertising.

Keywords: In-game advertising, Narrative realism, Game-product congruence, Brand attitude
Summary Brief

The Effect of Pricing Strategies on Purchase Intention

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The purpose of this study is to examine how consumers make decisions about purchasing products given time constraints. Specifically, we are interested to examine consumers’ evaluations towards product and price and subsequently measure their purchase intentions in the context of airlines tickets to frame an optimal pricing strategy. The idea was to observe consumers’ choice selection when different product options are given which vary in price and choice deferral. It was found that consumers are more willing to opt for the ‘expensive now’ condition than deferring their choices compared to the inexpensive conditions.

Introduction

Consumers make everyday decisions under a myriad of conditions. Time pressure and multiple product or service options are some of them. Choice overload or multiple alternatives lead to decision avoidance or choice or purchase deferral. Although prior literature has addressed the effect of time pressure when consumers are forced to choose (Svenson and Maule 1993), no-choice and deferral options (Dhar and Nowlis 1999), choice overload and time stress (Mahmood, Guo, and Sismeiro 2016), it has not examined when there are multiple product attributes within a single product. Hence, the research question is - How price attractiveness and value perception influence consumers’ purchase intention?

Background

Research on time pressure has focused on both forced choice (Svenson and Maule 1993) and no-choice option (Dhar 1997; Luce 1998). Dhar and Nowlis (1999) further found that in case of in brand-choice decisions, consumers who are under time pressure tend to focus more on unique features than common features compared to store-choice decisions where there was no significant change regards to weights placed in common features. Furthermore, studies in temporal discounting suggests that consumers perceive to receive lower benefits in more distant periods compared to less distant periods thereby making people place more value on a near-future reward than a distant future-reward (Bambauer-Sachse and Grewal 2011; Trope and Liberman 2003). Based on previous research findings, we anticipate that consumers will be more likely to opt for choices sooner than opting for choice deferral.

Method and Data

We employed a 4 X 1 within-subject research design by presenting the respondents a hypothetical scenario of “Trip protection” purchase. 42 respondents participated in the study. As part of the survey, a scenario was generated consisting of four options (Trip Protection options – A, B, C, D) which are as follows: Which one would you like to buy? - A) “Trip Protection A” for $10 at the time of online booking, that is, 6 weeks before flight date, B) “Trip Protection A” for $40, 1 week before flight date, C) “Trip Protection B” for $80 at the time of online booking, that is, 6 weeks before flight date, and D) “Trip Protection B” for $150, 1 week before flight date. The product - “Trip Protection A” – covers a) lost baggage and “Trip Protection B” – covers a) lost baggage, b) trip delay (exchange of tickets), c) trip cancellation (refund). Purchase intention was measured adopting measurement items from Baker and Churchill (1977). Whereas scale items pertaining to measurement of value were developed as per Hunt and Morgan’s (1995) Competitive Position Matrix.

Key Findings

It was found that Trip Protection C (“Expensive Now” or $80) was most chosen (57.8%) followed by Trip Protection A (“Cheap Now” or $10) (28.9%). It gives an indication that majority of the respondents want to buy the expensive ($80) product at the time of online booking than buying later. Moreover, both Trip Protection A and Trip Protection C also showed that the attitudes of respondents were in line with their choices to agree on their preference for faster deals. This is evident from the responses received for Purchase Intention measures (Time of Buying questions) as it can be observed that majority of respondents chose to buy at the time of online booking. Similarly, the Market Position measures (Time of Buying) depicting value perception and price perception also show similar attitudinal tendencies as most of the respondents agreed to choose amongst combinations of ‘similar price for higher value’, ‘lesser price for higher value’, and ‘lesser price for similar value’.

Key Contributions

One of the main contributions of this study is that it contributes towards temporal price framing and choice deferral literature since price and value are the components which impact consumers’ decision-making. Managerial implications can take form of helping airline companies to price their secondary products (Trip Protection) in an effective manner to increase sales and profits or create a price point where consumers will actually buy the product.
References


SESSION 11A: SOCIAL MEDIA & ITS CONSUMER ENGAGEMENT RELATIONSHIPS

CHAIR

Eric Harvey
While social media engagement provides a degree of fulfillment with respect to information sharing and social networking, it may also pose challenges for users both emotionally and behaviorally. The current research investigates relationships between social media engagement, anxiety, and consumption. A model is tested with young adult participants (n = 795) from the Gen Z and Millennial cohorts. The findings reveal that while having a sense of belonging is negatively related to anxiety, high social media engagement is positively related to anxiety. Additionally, the results indicate that both social media engagement and anxiety are positively related to consumption behaviors that are intended to relieve negative emotions, as well as the consumption of vice products. Implications for how unfavorable outcomes from excessive social media use can be curtailed are discussed.

Introduction

Although social media can be a useful tool for disseminating information and providing users with an extensive social network, it can also present challenges, especially for young adults. For example, social media can be an unwelcome distractor, disrupt sleep, help spread inaccurate information and promote bullying behavior. There is growing concern that high social media use may lead to negative mental health outcomes—specifically increasing levels of anxiety. Rising levels of anxiety and the experience of negative emotions can result in adverse consumption behavior. The purpose of this research is to examine the role social media has on emotional well-being and consumption. Specifically, it investigates the relationship between social media engagement and anxiety in young adults. It further explores the impact social media engagement has on consumption—notably, behavior with the intent of mitigating anxiety—and how such consumption behavior may have adverse effects on health and well-being.

Conceptual Background

A burgeoning body of literature suggests that social media use is negatively associated with subjective well-being. For example, studies have found associations between social media use and indicators of mental health among adolescents and young adults (Barry et al., 2017). Research has also found that when individuals are on social media, they experience several stressors which fuel anxiety (Bonnette et al., 2019). For instance, they often make upward comparisons which can intensify anxiety. This is partly driven by the usage of ‘likes’, and ‘followers’ in social media platforms, which inherently contribute to such comparisons. Anxiety is often associated with a lack of sense of belonging. Believing that one is an outsider, or at risk of becoming one, is likely to engender anxiety. Oddly enough, frequent social media use has been linked to social isolation. Thus, although having social connectedness is essential in promoting emotional and psychological well-being, high levels of social media use and engagement can contribute to increased anxiety as well as isolation. A sense of belonging, however, might help to mitigate anxiety.

Because sustained anxiety can be counterproductive, individuals may make attempts to manage or regulate emotions. Specifically, individuals experiencing negative emotion may consume products with some hedonic benefit in an effort to mitigate or “undo” negative emotions. Kemp and Kopp (2011) identified this phenomenon as emotion regulation consumption (ERC), which refers to the consumption of a good or service for the purposes of alleviating, repairing, or managing an emotion.

In addition, social media has been deemed a valuable tool for engaging consumers. Industry research indicates that over 70% of consumers use social media to guide their purchase and consumption decisions (Shepherd, 2021). Given the alluring marketing campaigns on social media designed to target the senses, individuals who use social media frequently may be more likely to engage in consumption behavior that appeals to their affective sensibilities and subsequently use consumption to regulate emotions.

Studies suggest that highly anxious individuals on social media may show an increased tendency to engage in alcohol consumption (Bonnette et al., 2019). Substance use is often glorified by celebrities and others on social media. Research has found that exposure to substance use imagery is associated with subsequent onset in use (Costello & Ramo,
Similarly, imagery and videos of food are also pervasive throughout social media. Therefore, given the prevalence of multiple vice products on social media platforms, individuals may be more inclined to consume such products as well as use them as a mechanism for down-regulating anxiety.

**Key Findings**

Participants (n = 795) were recruited using Qualtrics panel services. Fifty-nine percent of the participants were female. Participants were from the United States and belonged to either the Gen Z or the Millennial generational cohort. A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to confirm the measurement properties of the constructs. Upon confirming the characteristics of the scales, the hypotheses were tested using structural equation modeling. The results suggested that the research model provided good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 7, df = 2, p < .05; CFI = .991, IFI = .992, TLI = .957; RMSEA = .056; SRMR = .0234$). Moreover, all hypothesized relationships were supported.

This research examined the impact social media has on emotional well-being and consumption. The findings indicate that social media engagement is positively related to anxiety, whereas having a sense of belonging is negatively related to anxiety. In addition, social media engagement as well as anxiety are positively related to consumption behavior with the intent of alleviating negative emotions and vice consumption. Because high social media use may be responsible for having a negative impact on well-being by inducing negative emotions, individuals might benefit from identifying specific, effective emotion regulation strategies to help improve subjective well-being. Additionally, social marketing might be enlisted to provide more counter-marketing efforts regarding the use of vice products like vaping, cigarettes, and alcohol. Furthermore, creating chat rooms and interactive forums on social media platforms where individuals can discuss the behavior of consuming unhealthy products to manage emotions might be helpful considering high consumers engagement on these platforms. Finally, because individuals may struggle with an inability to regulate emotions, they might be aided in their regulatory processes by not only adopting restriction goals but also re-categorizing alternatives. Instead of consuming vice products for managing emotions, individuals might re-categorize alternatives by engaging in activities such as meditation, yoga, and distraction to reduce emotional duress.

**References**


Summary Brief

Reliance on Social Media Influencers to Improve Small Beauty Brand Metrics during Covid-19: Evidence for ROI

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Consumers often associate newer brands with increased risk. As Covid-19 spread across the world, causing death, economic uncertainty, and unemployment, perceived risk increased in step with infection rates. In recent years, however, and perhaps especially during these uncertain times, reliance on social media influencers to improve brand awareness, conversion, and engagement has increased. The aim of this study was to determine whether reliance on social media influencers might also be an effective means of social media marketing during times of uncertainty and high economic risk. Tracking a small brand during Covid-19 revealed how a small influencer campaign influenced several brand-related variables.

Introduction

In times of hyper-commercialized marketing messages, word-of-mouth (WOM) marketing (e.g., influencer marketing) offers a more credible, likable, and relatable source of information for consumers than any brand could easily create on its own (Kozinets et al., 2010). Influencer marketing has gained popularity not only among young consumers, who tend to be responsive to messages delivered by their favorite influencers, but also by brands, who have found this form of marketing profitable, and by academics, who have found this relatively new form of marketing intriguing. Individuals often follow influencers on social media because they add value to their lives, and consumers learn to trust them. Within the current economic turmoil caused by Covid-19, opportunity exists. Given product shortages and policies that keep employees distanced while working, smaller businesses might be able to turn orders around more quickly and avoid the disruptions that larger-scale businesses have experienced (Knowles et al., 2020). At the same time, strapped for money, some businesses might be able to harness the power of eWOM marketing in form of social media influencers. One question is whether a small, relatively unknown brand might use smaller influencers to improve its social media and sales metrics.

Background

Interest in influencer marketing has increased for several reasons. First, influencer marketing is an effective way to introduce new products. Influencer chatter across various channels has helped brands such as The Ordinary and Lxmi to become household names. In fact, as of April 2021, The Ordinary influencers are in full swing, present on all platforms among key influencers in skincare and lifestyle niches. Beyond observational data about The Ordinary, social media industry experts have reported specific metrics on the success rates of influencer campaigns. For example, MarketingDive reported that the Silk beverage brand of WhiteWave Foods enjoyed 10% increase in sales after one such marketing campaign. Experts estimated that brand spending on influencers would reach 15 billion dollars in 2020, an increase from 8 billion the previous year (Schomer, 2020). Some have suggested that influencer marketing is more effective than the more traditional celebrity marketing (Jin et al., 2019) and in 2016, AdWeek reported that, according to Twitter, users trusted influencers nearly as much as their friends (Swant, 2016). Social media influencer marketing is a powerful tool the dynamics of which scholars are only beginning to uncover.

The second reason that influencer marketing has gained popularity is its potential impact on consumer attitude, trust building, purchase intention, and perceived risk of purchase (Lim et al., 2019; Jin et al., 2019). Perceived risk of purchase occurs when consumers believe that a product might not meet desired expectations (Horton, 1976). Chopra, Avhad, and Jaju (2020) found, however, that consumers do not experience higher perceived risk when following influencer suggestions.

H1. Social media influencer posts will have higher engagement, as measured by (a) likes and (b) comments, than posts made by the brand itself.

Based on previous findings that influencers are a common source of information and favorably influence consumer attitude and purchase intention (Lou & Yuan, 2019; Lim et al., 2019), social media influencer posts are likely to increase unique visits to the website and, in turn, increase the number of transactions:
H2. On days when influencers post (vs. days only the brand itself posts), (a) transactions and (b) unique website visits will be higher.

H3. (a) Number of likes, (b) number of comments, and (b) unique website visits. will positively relate to revenue level

In addition, the following research questions guided the study:

RQ1. Do influencer posts contribute to unique website visits?
RQ2. Do influencer posts contribute to greater brand awareness and consumer investment?

Key Findings
The findings indicate a difference in post engagement between brand posts and influencer posts and a substantial increase in unique visitors to the website. Positive effects on revenue also emerged. Netnographic analysis revealed the development of favorable attitude toward the brand among the influencer communities. The findings also indicate a substantial return on investment in influencer marketing.

References


SESSION 11B: PEOPLE, PRODUCTS & SERVICES

CHAIR

Vernon Murray
Organizational Politics and Employee Identification: The Mediating Effect of Equal Treatment

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Organizational identification and functional identification are both desirable employee states that reduce interfunctional stereotyping and increase cross-functional communication. While perceived organizational politics have been shown to negatively relate with organizational identification, such a relationship has not been examined with functional identification. As well, there is evidence of a positive relationship between distributive justice and organizational identification, but not with functional identification. Finally, and most notably, this study looks at equal treatment (i.e., distributive justice) as a mediator between perceived organizational politics and organizational and functional identification. In other words, perceived inequity between employees is examined as the vehicle through which organizational politics influence employee self-identification in companies. The results of a questionnaire study of employees are examined and the results and implications are discussed.

Introduction & Hypothesis Development

Organizational politics in companies is the prevalence of individual employee actions that serve the self rather than the organization (Chang et al., 2012). Such behaviors are neither endorsed by the organization, nor are they collective-minded. Perceived organizational politics (POP) reduces employee organizational commitment and other employment-related factors such as job satisfaction, job stress, job performance, and turnover intentions, as well as organizational identification (Rana et al., 2020). As employees perceive politics in the workplace, they are not likely to feel a connection to or identify with a workplace collective. Based on social identity and self-identity theories, organizational identification is the extent to which an individual’s self-definition is based on their affiliation with a company, as an employee or some other way (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Organizational identification is therefore a desirable employee state for managers to facilitate and foster. In keeping with past findings, hypothesis one states: H1: POP are negatively related with organizational identification.

Occupational identification, commonly studied as functional identification, also has the potential to positively effect workplace behaviors and performance. This target of identification can occur alongside organizational identification and is also a collective-level identification (Miscenko and Day, 2016). Functional identification is also desirable for its ability to bring together the occupational collective within the organization (Sethi, 2000). What is left unclear in studies of POP is its relationship with functional identification. It is reasonable to hypothesize that POP has a similar relationship with functional identification as it has on organizational identification: H2: POP are negatively related with functional identification.

Distributive justice concerns the equity of resource allocation between hierarchical levels of the workplace or between workgroups within an organization. The perception of justice or fairness is influential in positive worker outcomes, including reduced turnover intentions, job stress, and cooperation (De Cremer, 2005). Distributive justice, or perceived equality within organizations is hypothesized to also result in stronger feelings of organizational and functional identification. Accordingly, hypotheses three and four state: H3: The perception of equal treatment (i.e., distributive justice) is positively related with organizational identification, and H4: The perception of equal treatment (i.e., distributive justice) is positively related with functional identification.

Finally, POP has been shown to negatively relate to perceptions of distributive justice (Andrews and Kacmar, 2001), and in a study of perceived organizational support, POP was fully mediated by perceived organizational support in relation to job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, and turnover intentions (Harris et al., 2007). Organizational politics may exist in an organization, but the means by which this self-serving behavior comes to influence employee outcomes is through perception of support, and as hypothesized here, perceptions of justice or equity. Therefore, it is hypothesized: H5: The perception of equal treatment (i.e., distributive justice) mediates the relationship between POP and organizational identification. H6: The perception of equal treatment (i.e., distributive justice) mediates the relationship between POP and functional identification.

Method and Results

The results of a survey of 221 sub-C-level supply chain employees with an average age of 41, average of 15 years of work experience, and who were 77% male were used in this research. All measures were adapted from existing
measures of organizational and functional identification, POP, and equal treatment. The resulting measurement model exhibited acceptable fit (CMIN = 192.92; DF = 141; CFI = .969; RMSEA = .042) and validity was acceptable for convergence (CR > .76; AVE > .52) and discrimination (r < \sqrt{AVE}).

Hypotheses one through four were tested for their bivariate relationships utilizing SPSS. As hypothesized, POP is negatively related with organizational identification (H1: r = -.32, p < .001) and functional identification (H2: r = -.23, p = .001), while equal treatment is positively related to each, respectively (H3: r = .57, p < .001; H4: r = .38, p < .001). Utilizing SPSS and Process v3.1 by Andrew F. Hayes a test of mediation was conducted for each hypothesized form of identification. This Model 4 test processed 10,000 bootstrapped samples and used a 95% confidence interval. The test of hypothesis five resulted in evidence of full mediation, with equal treatment mediating the relationship between POP and organizational identification. The standardized direct effect of POP on organizational identification became insignificant (β = -.01, p = .88), while the standardized indirect effect through equal treatment was significant (β (-.54)(.56) = -.31). Hypothesis six was also confirmed with the standardized direct effect of POP on functional identification reducing to insignificant (β = -.02, p = .74), with the standardized indirect effect demonstrating a significant relationship (β (-.54)(.36) = -.19). Figure 1 illustrates these findings.

Figure 1. Results of Hypotheses 5 and 6, Test for Mediation

Discussion and Conclusion
This research is important for marketing and other managers who are seeking to facilitate organizational and/or functional identification amongst their employees. Efforts to diminish politicking behaviors should focus on those that create the perception of inequity or that inhibit distributive justice, if increased identification with the organization or functional workgroup are being sought. This research also points to the potential of perceived equity as a mediator of yet more managerial interventions. This paper is in development and currently suffers from a lack of replication, which future research aims to resolve.

References


Summary Brief

Entrepreneurs as Influencers: Exploring Characteristics Through a Source Credibility Lens

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Based on the number of articles written in both scholarly and practitioner outlets, as well as the market size, influencer marketing is of critical importance in doing business in the 21st century. While much of today’s research intermingles influencer marketing with social media platforms, this research attempted to instill the importance of entrepreneurial personal brands, not social media platforms or dollars spent on those platforms, as critical to influencer marketing. Initially, the research ensured the theoretical grounding for identifying influencer characteristics. Then, a consumer survey was conducted and found entrepreneurial personal brands are built on those theoretical underpinnings and that these entrepreneurs’ personal brands have longevity. Interestingly, while at no point in this study of influencer marketing were social media platforms considered, the results from Gen Z respondent attitudes toward one of the influencers might be attributable to the influencer’s social media activity. If so, this would suggest that entrepreneurs building their personal brands will need to engage actively on social media platforms in order to have long-term impact.

Introduction

Almost three decades ago, Scheer and Stern (1992) described the dynamic that ensues when one party attempts to influence another party in an exchange, suggesting that the way in which influence attempts are constructed affects the recipient’s attitude toward the influencer. The Merriam Webster dictionary describes influence as the power to cause changes without directly forcing the changes to happen. Thus, an influencer is someone or something that affects the opinions or actions of others. Influencer marketing is a welcome topic in both the popular press and scholarly publications. An organic Google search on influencer marketing easily returns millions of hits. While a Scholar Google search returns fewer results, both types of searches show an intense effort by practitioners and scholars to capture the influencer marketing phenomenon. In today’s 21st century world of social media, influencer marketing has become associated primarily with social media platforms (e.g., tools such as Instagram, TikTok, YouTube, Facebook, Snapchat). Campbell and Farrell (2020) and Campbell and Grimm (2019) go so far as to define influencer marketing as related only to social media platforms and compensation. In terms of platforms and paid influencers, the Influencer Marketing Benchmark Report 2020 reported that influencer marketing is expected to continue its upward growth trend, approaching a US$10 billion market size, with everything from macro-influencers to micro-influencers to nano-influencers (Influencer Marketing Hub, 2020). However, the principle behind an influencer is not new since individuals (i.e., influencers) have long had the power to affect decisions of others because of real or perceived variables (e.g., authority, knowledge, relationship, etc.). This begs the question, then, as to whether influencers in the 21st century live solely on platforms or if we, as consumers, are influenced by the human influencer her or himself.

While we know what influencer marketing does, we do not have a clear consensus of how to determine if someone is an influencer. One very popular way to make that determination is based on number of followers (Campbell and Farrell, 2020). Yet, describing an influencer by the number of followers does not get at the underpinnings of what it means to be an influencer, with Gross and von Wangenheim (2018) noting that very little is actually known about influencers. Determining if someone is an influencer should focus on the relationships established over time through thoughts shared in various outlets and personal reputations (Taillon, Mueller, Kowalczyk, & Jones, 2020). To this end, the source credibility model, derived from the seminal work of Hovland, Janis, and Kelley (1953) provides the underlying theoretical foundation for understanding characteristics of influencers, with the source attractiveness model (McGuire, 1985) offering additional foundational support.

The objective of the research presented is to explore the notion of influencer marketers, minus the social media component. That is, do human brands (still) influence and, if so, what are the characteristics that describe the influencer? To accomplish this objective, the scholarly and practitioner literatures and human brands, in conjunction with the theoretical underpinnings, provided the foundation for the research reported here. Given the current intermingling of influencer marketing with social media platforms, the intent here was to focus on influencers who have built prominent human brands as entrepreneurs to attempt to determine the characteristics of influencers that may (or not) resonate with consumers in the 21st century. Those studied included Mary Kay Ash, Michael Jordan, and Kim Kardashian.
Key Findings
It is clear that the oldest of the three influencers studied in this research has had a long-lasting impact. Although now deceased, the data clearly suggest that Mary Kay Ash was a powerful influencer. However, although not as clear-cut in terms of her influence, the data also allude to the power of Kim Kardashian and that power is likely attributable to her social media activity. Thus, while Mary Kay Ash may be a primogenitor of influencer marketing, the social media platform toolkit might be critical, generationally, to continue that long-lasting impact.

As social media has become the delivery mechanism for influencer messages, there is a need to further explore the relationship between modern-day entrepreneurs and social media use and impact. That is, what is the potential for lasting impact of an entrepreneur’s personal message when delivered in short, digital versions? At the same time, the role of the primogenitors of influencer marketing in today’s digital society opens an avenue of research for exploring how important messages can impact consumer attitudes in the 21st century. For example, can the messages of Mary Kay Ash (clearly a primogenitor of influencer marketing) be re-packaged digitally to revitalize her role as an influencer on the entrepreneurial lives of many?

References


Summary Brief

Organization’s response strategy and crisis for recovery

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When crises arise, immediate decisions that have long lasting implications are needed; in-action can be as devastating as the wrong action. For an organization, crisis management can be essential to performance and survival; however, the response strategy (defensive, accommodative, and offensive) a firm should consider will vary by the type of crisis (unintentional and intentional) encountered. While firms can have plans in place for a variety crisis management plans, we have learned from the recent COVID-19 pandemic that it is not possible to prepare for every situation. To survive, firms must have a framework that allows for an overall, fluid approach to decision-making and response in the early days of a crisis. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to provide managers with insights to help survive a crisis, create advantage during slow-growth recoveries, and thrive when the crisis is over. We offer a conceptual framework, grounded in Attribution Theory and Situation Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT), for managers to utilize when determining which crisis response strategy is most appropriate during a crisis. From this conceptual framework, six propositions are presented.

Based on the framework proposed for the organization’s crisis response strategy and crisis recovery, several insights for managers across a variety of industries emerge. Our framework provides a starting point for creating the proper response strategy when a crisis arises that is not within the organization’s crisis management planning. Managerial implications for several industries such as restaurant, hotel, airline, education, retail, medical, and other professional services are provided.
SESSION 11C: CREATING WOW-WORTHY SERVICE

CHAIR

Monika Rawal
Summary Brief

Stress is Rising: A Re-examination of Family-Work Conflict in Service Employee Performance

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David E. Fleming, Indiana State University
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One often overlooked issue in today’s service environment is how service employees’ family situations affect their in-role and extra-role performance. An important piece of research that has direct implications for today’s environment is Netemeyer, Maxham, and Pullig’s (2005) seminal work on the effects of family-work conflict on service provider outcomes. The current study re-examines this work and extends the work by adding an important moderating variable, workload, to investigate the issue in light of ever-evolving service provider challenges.

Introduction

The historic Covid-19 pandemic has created countless challenges for service marketers today. From shopping hysteria, to worker shortages, to increased reliance on e-commerce and “touchless” delivery, the issues seem endless. One often overlooked issue is how service employees’ family situations affect their in-role and extra-role performance. Family/work conflict (and work/family conflict) have long been recognized as important influencers of service employee performance, and importantly, these conflicts have increased across service sectors during the last couple of years. Indeed, it has been estimated that as many as one million hospitality service employees currently experience significant stress due to the pandemic (Freiberg, 2021).

One important piece of research that has direct implications for today’s environment is Netemeyer, Maxham, and Pullig’s (2005) seminal work on the effects of family-work conflict on service provider outcomes. In their work, Netemeyer and colleagues (2005) investigated their assertion that work/family (WFC) and family/work (FWC) conflict are important drivers of service worker performance, and they found support for an incremental effects model for the effects of conflict on important outcome variables.

Research purpose

Given the changes that have occurred in the service environment, the current research aims to: re-examine the basic approach presented by Netemeyer et al. (2005), to extend their conceptualization by adding an important moderating variable, and to investigate the issue in light of ever-evolving service provider challenges. For clarification purposes, FWC represents a form of inter-role conflict in which family demands interfere with job performance while WFC represents conflict from work that interferes with family demands. Noting that future work should consider the context of the service job, Netemeyer and colleagues (2005) concluded that when conflict and stress are high, important work-related outcomes are affected. The current utilizes their work as a general framework while adding the moderating variable, workload, in an attempt to ascertain how the modeled variables influence service worker outcomes today. As established in previous work on job demands and resources (Bakker, Demerouti, Sanz-Vergel 2014; Harris et al. 2020), workload is an important influencer of service worker performance.

It is noted that the current work is not a full replication. Rather, the model focuses on customer burnout as an intervening construct (rather than job stress), and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) as an outcome in addition to self-rated performance. Additionally, the work does not include customer purchase intent or managerial ratings as outcomes.

Hypotheses examined include:

H1: WFC positively influences service worker burnout.
H2: FWC positively influences service worker burnout.
H3: Customer workload positively influences service worker burnout.
H4: The influence of WFC on service worker burnout is moderated by workload such that the effects are stronger (weaker) under higher (lower) levels of workload.
H5: The influence of FWC on service worker burnout is moderated by workload such that the effects are stronger (weaker) under higher (lower) levels of workload.
H6: Service worker burnout negatively influences organizational citizenship behaviors.
H7: Service worker burnout negatively influences self-rated service provider
performance.

H8: Beyond the effect of burnout, WFC and FWC negatively affect organizational citizenship behaviors.

Method

Two service settings were selected for this study: retail banking and food service. An online data collection firm was utilized (Qualtrics), the effort was part of a larger study, and all participants worked at U.S. service firms. The settings were selected based on specific criteria. Namely, each context has revealed evidence of increased FWC/WFC conflict and burnout; and the settings differ in the level of tangible offerings, the nature of long-term vs. short-term provider/customer relationships, and customer workload. The data supported the assertion regarding differences in workload, which was assessed with a combined measure of number of customers served and amount of effort expended on customers per day. Specifically, 45 customer interactions on average were reported per day in the banking sample and 200 interactions per day were reported in the restaurant sample \( t = -5.75, p < 0.05 \). Ultimately, 75% of the work time was devoted to serving customers in the restaurant setting, compared to 60% in banking \( t = -4.75, p < 0.05 \). Two hundred one (\( n = 201 \)) surveys were collected from full-time bank employees (70% female) and 205 from full-time restaurant service employees (73% female). All measures exhibited acceptable psychometric properties in terms of reliability and validity.

The model(s) were tested using partial-least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). The analysis utilized a bootstrapping technique in SmartPLS 2.0 with parameters set using 500 draws of 175 cases and a significance level of .05. In the banking context, hypotheses 1, 2, 5, 6, and 7 were supported; hypothesis 8 was partially supported with FWC having an impact on OCB that is fully mediated by burnout. Also, a partially mediated effect of burnout on performance, through OCB, was found after a post-hoc examination. In the restaurant setting, only hypotheses 2, 6, and 7 were supported, and hypothesis 8 was partially supported with FWC influencing OCBs with the effect being fully mediated by burnout. Furthermore, a fully mediated effect of burnout on performance, through OCB, was found during a post-hoc examination.

Conclusion

The results of this research reveal that both WFC and FWC remain significant influencers of burnout in bank settings and that the family/work conflict effect is moderated by workload. Conversely, only FWC influences burnout in restaurant settings. In addition, the impact of FWC on OCB is fully mediated by burnout and there is no direct path from WFC to OCB in either context. Overall, the results reveal that much is to be gained by examining these issues in the current environment, especially when it comes to looking at the disparate impact of FWC on burnout, OCB, and performance based on the type of service setting and differing levels of workload. In addition, the findings show that performance in these contexts is heavily influenced by burnout through its impact on extra-role behaviors (i.e., OCB).

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Summary Brief

The role of customer accents and service failure magnitude on the service recovery encounter

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Research examining the influence of customer accent on service recovery efforts is scant. This research extends existing studies by examining the interaction between customer familiar accent and service failure magnitude on recovery behavior by a service manager. Using 2x2 between-subject experimental scenario analysis, findings show that while there are no direct effects of customer familiar accent and service magnitude on the credibility of claims, interestingly, the interaction effect is significant, signaling the dynamics of service recovery encounter.

Introduction

Currently, there are 6500 spoken languages in the world. With globalization and broadening sets of interdependencies, communication between different nationalities is inevitable. While English is becoming a universal language, it is the primary language of almost 38M people worldwide, i.e., only about 5% of its population. Therefore, communicating with an accent is widely common. However, research on accent is scant (Tombs & Hill 2014). In a service setting, communication challenges are no different. With the internationalization of services, outsourcing of call centers, migration of service personnel through cross-national agreements, communication with an accent becomes the norm rather than the exception. As such, it is essential to explore the effect of accents in a service interaction. Even more critical is examining how accents might affect a service recovery interaction, the encounter after the negative experience of service failure. Would communicating with a nonnative accent make communication more challenging? Would this challenge affect the perceptions of these parties?

While service companies should recover based on the failure severity, attribution of failure, and injustice (Hess et al., 2003), the nature of service heterogeneity brings room for many other non-service related to affect the service recovery. Research has shown that frontline customer ethnicity, language, gender play a significant role in the service recovery outcome offered (Montoya & Briggs, 2013). While most of the research focuses on how these personal factors, including accent in the frontline employee, affect customers evaluation of the recovery, much less research has examined how customer language, accent, ethnicity affect frontline employees’ assessment on the failure and necessary efforts to recover (Azab & Holmqvist, 2021). No research has examined whether all accents are the same or whether certain familiar accents have a lesser effect on recovery outcomes. Moreover, research has not looked at possible interaction effects of service failure severity and accent. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to examine the effect of customer accents and service failure severity on service rapport, the characterization of the service encounter.

Theoretical Background

We use social identification theory (Tajfel, 1982) as a basis to build the proposition that individuals tend to identify with others that are similar to them. As such, accents create a disidentification factor, where service employees will identify less with recognizable non-native accents and thus affect their judgment. We also use the long-established stream of literature on service failure (e.g., Smith et al. 1999, Hess et al. 2003) as a basis to show that the higher the magnitude of the failure, an accent would create an even less favorable characterization of the even.

Method

We have used a similar approach to Azab and Holmqvist (2021), where the scenario presented had room for the frontline employee to exercise value judgment on whether they believe the service failure claim is credible or not. We purposely used a video scenario (without depictions of actors, but only the accent) where the customer is returning an item past the return date because she was out of the country. We used a 2x2 between-subject design, where the narration was in (American standard versus Spanish accent) and failure varied in severity (100-dollar dress versus 800 dollar dress), creating four different scenarios. The Spanish accent was used in this study since the Hispanic population represents one of the most prominent U.S. subcultures.

Same control questions and attention checks were used. Manipulation checks show that accent recognition was (98, 70 %) accurate. Moreover, customers recognized significant differences between these two accents. Similarly, manipulation checks for failure severity were also passed, and respondents recognized significant differences between minor failures and severity failure t(143)=9.621 p<0.01 Msevere= 6.42 Mminor=4.12.

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The sample was acquired through a special panel of M-Turk. Two hundred ten respondents started the survey by automatically kicking respondents out before finishing the survey if they failed attention checks and comprehension questions. The final number of complete responses was 145. The sample included a variety of age groups (15.2% ages 20-30; 30.3% ages 31-40; 23.4% ages 41-50; 19.3% ages 51-60; 11.7% above 60). Respondents were 41.4% males and 58.6% females. Ethnicities distribution with our sample being 77.2% White, 9.7% Black, 4.8% Asian, 8.3% Hispanic. Data were analyzed using ANCOVA with cultural intelligence included as a covariate. Gender was included as a control variable. Severity of failure did not have a direct main effect on credibility of claims; (λ) = 0.997, F(2, 135) = 0.169 p>0.05. In other words, the service failure, whether minor or severe, did not influence the claim's credibility. Interestingly, the interaction effect between severity of failure and accent was significant (λ) = 0.937, F(2, 135) = 4.50 p<0.01. The univariate test is f(1,144)=0.343 p<0.01 for the claimant’s credibility, as shown in the figure. The credibility of the claim had a direct effect on rapport f(1,144)=83.585 p<0.01

This shows that for the native American accent, the claim's credibility is higher when the service failure is severe and is lower when the failure is minor. In contrast, the exact opposite relationship pertains to the nonnative accent, where the claimant's credibility is higher for a minor failure but is less when the failure gets severe. The results above suggest several things. First, since previous studies on different accents show nonnative foreign and less familiar accents directly affected the claimant’s credibility, this effect was not significant with a familiar accent (Spanish), suggesting that not all accents are created equal. Second and more interestingly, while the main effects of nonnative accent on the credibility of a claim are not significant, the interaction effect with failure severity gives a higher rise of discrimination effect that is usually illicit if only main effects were considered. In short, the results show that the claim of failure is more believable for those that have a nonnative accent only when the failure is minor. However, it is less credible when the failure is severe, yet the credibility level in the claim rises with the severity of failure (800 dollars) for native American speakers.

Research Implications
This research has several implications. First, managers must not only consider the effect of accent solely but also must give higher importance to service failure of high magnitude. Managers can assign multiple service employees or provide a second layer of a thorough review of high magnitude interactions. It is also important to realize that all accents are not created equal and might segment customers accordingly. For scholars, it is essential to go beyond direct effect and explore the interaction of other service failure moderators like the strength of accents, service failure attribution, locus of control, and ethnicity.

References:
SESSION 11D PANEL: DISNEY VILLAINS: AN ANALYSIS OF MARKETING THROUGH ANALOGY

PANELISTS

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Alisha Horky, Columbus State University, USA
Michael Levin, Otterbein University, USA
Bob McDonald, Texas Tech University, USA
Mark Pelletier, University of North Carolina Wilmington, USA
Kevin Shanahan, Mississippi State University, USA
SESSION 11E PANEL: GLOBAL VS LOCAL CONSUMER CULTURE

PANELISTS

Kamlesh Tiwari, University of Arkansas - Pine Bluff, USA
Benjamin Garner, University of Central Arkansas, USA
Kristina Harrison, University of Southern Mississippi, USA
SESSION 11F: THE IN STORE RETAIL CONSUMER EXPERIENCE

CHAIR

Christopher Newman
Summary Brief
Shopper Solutions as an In-Store Shopper Marketing Initiative: Implications of Shopper Goal Congruency for Consumers and Retailers

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Shopper solutions have become an increasingly popular and important in-store shopper marketing initiative. Yet, their implications for shoppers and retailers remain largely unexplored in the existing marketing literature. To address this gap, we assessed consumer responses to real shopper solutions in a controlled retail lab setting. Findings indicate that solutions impact not only shoppers’ responses toward the displayed products (choices and willingness-to-pay [WTP]), but also their behavioral intentions toward retailers offering them (future patronage and word-of-mouth [WOM] intentions). We further demonstrate that the level of congruency between solutions and shoppers’ goals serves as an antecedent to these outcomes, and that perceived shopping convenience underlies the documented effects.

Background
As online shopping continues to grow in popularity, many brick-and-mortar retailers have turned to in-store shopper marketing to draw customers into physical stores and influence them at the point-of-purchase (Grocery Manufacturers Association [GMA] 2011; Newman, White, and Wachter 2018). One in-store shopper marketing initiative that has gained popularity and serves as the focus of our research is the “shopper solution” (Cho 2020; Food Marketing Institute [FMI] 2012; GMA 2011). We define a shopper solution here as an in-store promotional display that offers shoppers a set of two or more thematically-related products - in a single convenient location - designed to “solve” a specific shopper problem or goal. For example, a Cold and Flu-themed solution could offer complementary products such as medicine, tissues, hand sanitizer, thermometer, nasal spray, and chicken noodle soup all in a single convenient display that fulfill shoppers’ goals of buying products that eliminate their cold and flu symptoms.

A key conceptual difference between solutions and more traditional retail displays (e.g., endcaps, islands) is that retailers carefully craft solutions to fulfill a specific, existing shopper need/goal that has been identified via shopper insights. They use solutions to encourage goal fulfillment and facilitate preplanned purchases more so than to stimulate unprompted needs and impulse purchases.

However, researchers have paid surprisingly little attention to solutions and their implications for retailers or consumers. Thus, the aim of the current research is to begin bridging this gap between current managerial practice and the extant academic literature. To accomplish this, we conducted an initial study in a realistic retail lab where participants shopped in the presence of an actual shopper solution.

Methods
We employed the following between-subjects experimental design: (goal/solution congruency: congruent vs. incongruent vs. no goal [control]). This study was conducted in the Shopper Experimental Lab Facility (ShELF), a realistic retail laboratory setting designed to look like an actual retail store. A sample of 249 undergraduate students were recruited from a large public university’s subject pool and participated in exchange for extra course credit (51% women; mean age=21 years, age range=19-34).

We manipulated goal/solution congruity by telling participants in the congruent condition to: “Imagine you are visiting the retailer with a specific shopping goal in mind. Specifically, imagine that you need to buy birthday party supplies for a small birthday party that you’re throwing for a child.” Participants in the incongruent condition were told to: “Imagine you are visiting the retailer with a specific shopping goal in mind. Specifically, imagine that you need to buy school supplies”. We never mentioned a shopping goal to participants in the no goal condition; they read the same instructions indicating that they would be evaluating products in a solution and were only given the “Grilling Central” example. This control condition represents shoppers who do not have a particular need and are not looking for specific items in the store.
All participants, regardless of condition, then entered the fully-stocked retail store that also offered a “Birthday Party Central” solution consisting of a variety of party-related products (e.g., birthday balloons, birthday banner, birthday plates, birthday napkins, birthday gift bag, party hats, etc.). We then measured respondents’ product choices, WTP for each of the focal products, patronage intentions, WOM intentions, and perceived shopping convenience while they were in the ShELF in the presence of the “Birthday Party Central” solution.

Findings Overview and Discussion
This research demonstrated the effects of goal/shopper solution congruency on important consumer-related outcomes (choices and WTP) and key retailer-related outcomes (future patronage and WOM intentions). Findings show that solutions impact not only shoppers’ responses toward the displayed products, but also their behavioral intentions toward retailers offering them.

This also study adds to the goal literature by demonstrating how the congruency between shopper solutions and shopping goals (or lack thereof) impacts consumers’ responses to solutions. Specifically, our findings suggest that consumers negatively attribute solutions to retailers when the solutions are not compatible with their specific shopping needs, but make positive attributions to retailers when their shopping goals are congruent or undefined.

Lastly, we demonstrated why the observed effects occurred by identifying shopping convenience as an important mediator of solutions. We showed that the incremental increases in shoppers’ WTP and choices of products in a solution were driven by the degree to which shoppers valued the convenience of the solution.

References


Summary Brief

Gender Differences in the Likelihood of Experiencing an Information Overload Amongst Retail Customers

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This paper investigates whether the likelihood of retail customers experiencing an information overload varies by gender. Specifically, we use the selectivity hypothesis and information overload theory to hypothesize and test whether females are more likely to experience information overload in a retail context than males. A self-report survey among 302 student respondents is used to test the hypothesis. Results of a multigroup invariance analysis and a test of mean differences offer support for the hypothesis. If replicated in future studies, these findings offer practical and theoretical guidance for retail managers and researchers.

Introduction

The objective of this paper is to examine gender differences in the likelihood of experiencing an information overload while shopping. While recognizing that gender is psychological and biological, in this study we are focusing on biological sex and we use the term gender and sex interchangeably. Theory suggests that one gender may be more susceptible to information overload than the other because of differences in the way that information is processed. According to the selectivity hypothesis, females tend to process information comprehensively, looking at more details relative to males who tend to selectively choose information to process (Meyers-Levy and Loken 2015; Meyers-Levy 1989).

Gender differences in susceptibility to information overload are important to retailers for several reasons. Gender is often used as a variable in retailing segmentation strategies and differences in susceptibility to information overload would be useful in several areas within each of those segments. Information overload occurs when retail customers are exposed to information that exceeds their ability to process during a given amount of time and results in increased errors and negative affect (Jacoby, Speller, and Kohn 1974a). Decisions that would be impacted by differences in susceptibility amongst men and women would be assortment size, merchandising strategies (Chernev 2003), emotions experienced in stores (Aydinli, Gu, and Pham 2017), the likelihood of purchase (Iyengar and Lepper 2000), the optimal number of variants offered by a retailer (Hunter 2000), and the usefulness of product labels (e.g., consumers’ use of nutritional information; Jacoby et al. 1974a; 1974b). Gender differences in likelihood of experiencing an information overload would suggest different strategies in each of the above areas for retailers segmenting by sex. Additionally, this research responds to a call for greater insight into the effects of gender differences in marketing (Meyers-Levy and Loken 2015).

Background

Selectivity hypothesis

A theoretical basis of this study is the selectivity hypothesis. The hypothesis “…proposes that, compared to males, females tend to process incoming data more comprehensively, and they possess a lower threshold at which they apprehend information,” (Meyers-Levy and Loken 2015, p. 134). In comparison, males are said to be, “more selective data processors and, relative to females, rely more on less effortful heuristics,” (Meyers-Levy and Loken 2015, p. 134). Generally, females perceive and use more information than males to make decisions, while also making greater use of the information obtained. Males tend to focus on a subset of information in making a decision. These processing differences could alter the likelihood of experiencing an information overload, which is directly affected by processing ability.

Information overload

A second theoretical basis of this study is information overload theory. Jacoby et al. (1974b, p. 22) offer evidence that, “there are finite limits to the ability of human beings to assimilate and process information during any given unit of time, and that once these limits are surpassed behavior becomes confused and dysfunctional.” The researchers refer to the state evoked by attempting to process too much information as an information overload.

Examining the relationship between the selectivity hypothesis and information overload

Research suggests that females, relative to males, use more information in making a decision (Meyers-Levy and Loken 2015). In comparison to males, this could make females more likely to suffer an information overload, as females would be more motivated to use more available information. In contrast, males would select a smaller portion of available information than females and be less likely to suffer an information overload.
H1: Females will demonstrate a higher likelihood of experiencing an information overload in a retailing context than males.

**Key Findings**

Results of the study are analyzed using covariance based structural equation modeling and a t-test. Separate models for males and females are used in a multigroup invariance analysis to determine comparability of the models, and then a t-test is used to determine differences between the models. Specifically, an independent samples t-test is used to investigate the hypothesis of this study. In this data, females report a higher likelihood of experiencing an information overload ($m = 81.5$) relative to males ($m = 75.35$; $t = -2.738$, $df = 297$, $p = .007$). This finding supports the hypothesis that in a retailing context, females are more likely to experience an information overload than males.

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SESSION 11G SPECIAL SESSION: THE INTERFACE OF GIS AND MARKETING: UTILIZING MOBILE APP DATA AND HEATMAPS TO INVESTIGATE CUSTOMER CLUSTERING SHOPPING BEHAVIOR

Mark Sciuchetti
Special Session

The Interface of GIS and Marketing: Utilizing Mobile App data and Heatmaps to Investigate Consumer Clustering Shopping Behavior

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Mark Sciuchetti, Jacksonville State University, USA

Introduction

The recent technological developments and data analytics in Geographic Information Systems (GIS) has been utilized for marketers to explore retail behavior patterns since the COVID-19 Pandemic. An accurate customer clustering analysis can help companies to optimize distribution networks, minimize costs, prevent supply disruption, and above all, improve the level of customers’ satisfaction. Applying GIS in Marketing planning can help to find the best locations for distribution centers among a set of potential facilities, allocate customers to the nearest facility, and design appropriate delivery routes and delivery times.

Following this phenomenon, we propose using new GIS and spatial marketing methods through customer clustering analysis to help develop businesses and customer experiences in cities in the southern United States. This type of analysis is essential at this time with the restructuring of the global economy after a worldwide pandemic. Through a multi-disciplinary approach using spatial marketing, we will examine customer clustering to develop businesses post-COVID-19. Using these techniques would benefit the exploration of customers’ product preferences and consumer patterns to provide suggestions for improving customer satisfaction as businesses begin to open.

Therefore, the research questions supporting this work are listed as follows:

1) How did the COVID-19 Pandemic affect customer shopping clustering and patterns?
2) Did consumers change their travel patterns and patronage of businesses after the COVID-19 Pandemic?

This research effort, combining GIS and marketing strategies, suggests the development of methodologies to analyze customer data to answer the proposed research questions. The researchers seek to use these methods to select alternative locations to support growing businesses in developing areas (Bopche and Neware, 2020). GIS has become a helpful tool in spatial marketing for retail and service companies to make decisions concerning store locations, trade area delineation, and customer plotting.

Preliminary Investigation - Literature Review

Customer Clustering

Accurate customer clustering is important for a company to segment their consumer, identify the characteristic of the target market, and reposition its brand image to attract more customers (Wang et. al., 2018). Customer Clustering also aids firms in improving the effectiveness of promotion, such as store sampling and online advertisement; moreover, it can provide valuable data to decision-makers regarding the allocation of resources to better serve customers, thus increasing customer satisfaction.

Clusters refer to data items grouped according to logical relationships or consumer preferences. Mining data is helpful to identify market segments or consumer affinities. Clusters can also refer to mined data that identifies associations between products (i.e., the beer-diaper association would be an example of an associative cluster). Cluster analyses also show sequential patterns, including anticipated shopping behavior patterns and trends. For example, a marketer could predict the likelihood of restraint choices based on a consumer's grocery shopping list (Rajagopal, 2011).

Methodology

Using data obtained from UberMedia containing customer locations, we intend to explore the frequency and use of businesses before, during, and after the COVID-19 Pandemic. The data from UberMedia is a newly available set of data that contains the geolocations extracted from smartphone devices utilizing several applications. Currently, UberMedia collects data from over 300 applications, meaning researchers can collect a wider breadth of customer data beyond what has been collected in the past (Antreas, 2000).
Results

Researchers explored the data available for two locations, Walmart and McDonalds in a small southern US college town for the preliminary analysis. The data was collected from June 8, 2020, to June 8, 2021, to observe businesses before the development of the Pandemic to the present moment. According to the data, visitation to McDonald's was at a low at the beginning of the Pandemic and, as we can see from Figure 1, grew as with peak times during the Christmas shopping season and then after January 2021, as the Pandemic began to settle down. As more individuals started receiving COVID-19 vaccines, we have seen spikes in shop and restaurant visitations. As we can see at the end of May 2021, again visitations begin to drop, possibly explained by the end of the school year or the new delta variant of the COVID-19 virus.
An alternative method to explore the locational data is by observing the common evening locations of consumers. As Figure 2 illustrates, most individuals visiting the local McDonald's location seem to live within a 3–5-mile radius. Consumers were not traveling long distances when visiting this location during the COVID-19 Pandemic. As the Pandemic progressed to the end of 2020 and into January 2021, consumers traveled less and less outside the 5-mile radius of the McDonald's location. As the Pandemic waned toward March 2021, individuals began opening up and returning from further locations to this McDonald's. This information can help McDonald's understand their market and reconnect with consumers who once visited but stopped due to the Pandemic.

Finally, using the geolocational data, these researchers can examine the thirty-minute locations of consumers before and after their visit to McDonald's. In Figure 3, individuals' locations before and after visiting McDonald's seem to be within 3 miles of the McDonalds. This data aids researchers in examining which locations could be utilized for outdoor and digital advertising as consumers travel from highly concentrated locations toward McDonald's. Examining this data during COVID-19, researchers observed very few customers traveling the space from different stores before or after McDonald's, possibly due to COVID-19 store closures and the difficulty of traveling during the Pandemic.

As a comparison for these preliminary results, we examined data for Walmart in this same small southern college town. This data was obtained from the same source, UberMedia, during the same time frame as the data retrieved for McDonald's.

![Figure 4 – Visitation Over Time](image)

The examination of visitations over the past year revealed that the impact of the Pandemic did not have the same effect on Walmart as it did on McDonald's. Visitation trends for Walmart did not have many downturns (Figure 4). As the data illustrates, there are a few downticks, and these downturns were not associated with spikes in COVID-19 cases in the area. However, it is important to note that services available from the different retailers affected customer visitations. Walmart was able to offer and heavily promote contactless pick-up early in the pandemic period. Though McDonald's offered curbside pickup before the Pandemic, they did not seem to capitalize on this service like Walmart.

**Discussion**

The COVID-19 Pandemic has alternated customers' purchase behavior and forced retailers to find innovative methods to retain customer satisfaction and increase market share. The changes in the household with limited outdoor activity, diminishing brand and store loyalty, as well as rising difficulty for stores/businesses to satisfy shoppers when customers have limited time windows to pick up their orders or when items are out-of-stock, or when substitute products disappoint consumers, has led to a fundamental shift in how retailers and consumers interact.

The precise information about customer location provided by GIS is substantial for creating and repositioning branding and promotion strategy for the target market. Customer locations can be linked to the respective geographical focus to obtain a heat map. The evening location heatmap indicates the residency location of the majority of customers. It allows marketers to embed the traditional promotion activities such as store ads, coupons, free samples, and loyalty programs in their store APP or nearer the consumer. In addition, the heatmap of the traveling location of a consumer to a store shows consumers' shopping clustering. The shopping clustering shows that consumers with similar demographic characteristics may indicate homogenous neighborhoods, creating opportunities for local businesses and marketers to initiate co-branding and co-promotion.

**References available upon request**
SESSION 11H PANEL: MERGING THEORY WITH PRACTICE WHEN TEACHING SPORT MARKETING COURSES

PANELISTS

James Blair, Eastern Kentucky University, USA
Geraldo Matos, Roger Williams University, USA
Delancy Bennett, Clemson University, USA
Chuck Lichty, Orlando Magic, USA
Summary Brief

How does compensation affect new product valuation?

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Saim Kashmiri, University of Mississippi, USA
Duncan Nicol, Union University, USA

This study attempts to investigate the hitherto unexplored role played by a key corporate governance factor (CEO-TMT pay ratio) in explaining the variance in stock market response to new product introductions. Results of an event study support the authors’ hypotheses that the stock market reacts less positively to announcements about new product introductions when the firms introducing these products have high CEO-TMT pay ratio. We also find that advertising intensity and a history of greater new product introductions tend to attenuate the impact of CEO-TMT pay ratio. Having more product concerns in the past, however, tends to further strengthen the impact. These results have important implications for board members, investors, compensation committee members, and scholars investigating the valuation of new product introductions.

Introduction

The average CEO compensation increased from $2.9 million in 1992 to $17.2 million in 2018. Thus, topic of CEO pay has led to an increased interest from scholars in management, and business ethics, exploring the relationship between total CEO compensation and various corporate outcomes (e.g., Gala 2018; Gala and Kashmiri 2020). For example, researchers have pointed out that CEOs make strategic decisions based on its’ impact on their compensation instead of long-term firm orientation (Huang and Trusov 2020; Mizik and Jacobson 2007). TMT compensation has also gained attention recently such that CEO-TMT pay gap was found to affect firm performance (Kashmiri et al., 2017; Kashmiri et al., 2019; Carpenter and Sanders 2002; Ridge et al. 2015). However, work on analyzing how the gap between the CEO compensation and the compensation of other TMT members impacts strategic marketing outcomes, remains scant, leading to calls for such an analysis (e.g., Lee et al. 2019; Ridge et al. 2015). A key question that warrants our attention is ‘Does having a high CEO-TMT pay ratio impact the outcomes of the firm’s marketing actions?’

This study responds to call for more research on how compensation-related factors impact corporate outcomes in general (e.g., Lee et al. 2019) and marketing outcomes in particular (You et al. 2020). Researchers have investigated the impact of marketing outcomes like sales performance (Beeler et al., 2020) brand acquisitions (Wiles, Morgan, and Rego 2012) and corporate name changes on shareholder value. One strategic marketing action which has received significant interest among researchers and practitioners is new product introductions (Bayus et al. 2003; Chen et al. 2014). Researchers have tried to explore factors that help explain why the stock market rewards some firms for introducing new products and penalizes others. We contribute to this exploration by focusing our attention on a key attribute of corporate governance: the CEO-TMT pay ratio. Following Henderson and Fredrickson (2001), this study defines CEO-TMT pay ratio as the ratio of CEO’s compensation to the average pay of other TMT members impacts strategic marketing outcomes, remains scant, leading to calls for such an analysis (e.g., Lee et al. 2019; Ridge et al. 2015). A key question that warrants our attention is ‘Does having a high CEO-TMT pay ratio impact the outcomes of the firm’s marketing actions?’

We used event study methodology to calculate the abnormal stock returns of firms announcing NPI with an estimation window of 255 to 14 days before the event. Most of our hypotheses were supported. In that, the CEO-TMT pay ratio was negatively associated with abnormal returns of firms making NPI announcements (β = -0.054, p<0.05), thus supporting H1. For interaction effects, we found, in support of H2, that the negative impact of CEO-TMT pay ratio on NPI valuation was weakened when the advertising...
intensity of the firm was high ($\beta_{\text{Advertising Intensity Interaction}}=0.003$, $p < .05$). We also found support for H3: the impact of CEO-TMT pay ratio on NPI valuation was weakened when there were more number of new product introductions in the past three years ($\beta_{\text{Past NPI interaction}}= 5.17\text{E}-4$, $p < .01$). Finally, we found support for the moderating impact of product concerns reported by the firm in the past three years, such that the impact of CEO-TMT pay ratio on NPI valuation was further strengthened when the firm had greater number of past product concerns as proposed in H4 ($\beta_{\text{product concern interaction}}= -.030$, $p < .01$).

We have theoretical and practical implications. First, investors should invest in companies where the pay gap between the CEO and other TMT members is smaller. Second, when hiring CEOs, corporate boards need to use the other TMT members as a measuring stick and encourage similar salary for CEO, perhaps offering stock options that they don’t receive until later – such a compensation system would continue to motivate TMT members but also keep up the appearance of less pay disparity for the rest of the TMT. Third, firms that are contemplating launching new product introductions in the near future should be aware of the negative signaling value a high CEO-TMT pay gap is likely to send in this context. Board members and compensation committee members should try to minimize the gap between CEO and TMT pay before launching new products (by, for example, increasing the salary of other TMT members besides the CEOs). Fourth, if reducing CEO-TMT pay gap is not possible, firms with high CEO-TMT pay gap that are considering launching new products should (1) maintain high levels of advertising leading up to the launch, (2) avoid or minimize product related controversies. These two recommendations are likely to minimize the negative signal that a high CEO-TMT pay gap provides in the context of NPIs and allow firms to get greater value from their new product introductions.

References
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In this working paper we present a model of passive actors who take a leading role as active actors and investigate the B2B platforms in which two firms offer horizontally differentiated platforms and have followed the industry recipe within an institutionalised market. The lead actor drives the core value; however, it uncovers how complementors offer products that are able to drive value on its own. We look at an industry where we get an impression that complementors take up a real role. That they are not just the saddle back to the horse, but these actors take the reins that are needed to move forward. The paper uncovers two cases of complementors who have chosen to break away and go it alone delving deeper into each respective platform development and how value is co-created with the customer.

Introduction

Digital technology platforms are enablers of value creation in producing networks and service ecosystems (Hein et al., 2019). A shift from the customer to the actor in recent years has become a key focus in value co-creation (Breidbach and Maglio, 2016). We start to see these actors as creators and beneficiaries interacting through a network effect, as such, actors who create value and who are recipients of value. We could argue that both derive advantage from the collaboration and as such value co-create or we could argue that in B2B, value co-creation can be actively created between beneficiaries and creators in networks by taking the lead, or value co-creation can also be passive by following the lead actor. Pera et al. (2016) suggest that growth and value creation in increasingly complex markets is forcing organisations to change from creating services in isolation and move to the co-creation of value in collaborative networks with actors (Van Alstyne et al., 2016).

Complementors are businesses that directly sell a product/s or service/s that complement the product or service of another company by adding value to mutual customers; for example, Intel and Microsoft (Pentium processors and Windows), or Microsoft and MacAfee (VirusScan Enterprise) (Kapoor, 2014). Platform owners can employ considerable influence over complementors’ benefit. Many complementors with successful products have been pushed out of their markets not by competition from counterparts, but by platform owners that choose to leverage complementors however keep them at arm’s length to maintain control or to compete directly with complementors and appropriate the value from their innovations (Zhu, 2018).

Existing literature does not fully understand complementors and the role they play in leading in delivering value in B2B, as prior work has primarily focused on the role of the platform owner or orchestrator (Schreieck et al., 2016). In platform business models the following roles exist: a platform sponsor, complementor and end customer. The platform sponsor is also referred to as the creator, focal firm, or lead actor. It defines the platform sponsor as securing value creation and sees the complementor as the saddle on the back of a horse, an added extra on the ride to move forward. But the complementor is a key part of the movement, it’s not a saddle but the reins that are required to move forward.

Iansiti and Levien (2004) refer to the platform sponsor as a keystone player in the ecosystem, securing value creation and distribution among participants. From a network perspective, the sponsor is referred to as a hub that preserves relationships with nearly all the participants (Burkard et al. 2012). Jansen and Cusumano (2013) describe the platform sponsor’s function as that of an ecosystem coordinator and orchestrator (van Angeren et al. 2013; Leten et al. 2013; Jansen et al. 2009). The sponsor provides and maintains the foundation platform technologies and enables interaction between actors (Eisenmann et al. 2009). Complementors are referred to as niche players by Iansiti and Levien (2004) that deliver products for special niche markets with particular functional requirements. Eisenmann et al. (2009) call them supply-side platform users.

Haile and Altmann (2012) state that stakeholders of service platforms mainly benefit from a growing installed base of application users. The benefit of a large service variety, however, mainly benefits the service platform provider. Organisations need a better understanding of how active and passive actors participate in the platform and network effect and how value can be created, as the need to collaborate and co-create increases. In the cases observed, we look at a two-
sided network effect, and how actors can effectively engage in these activities to maximise the value created. At the same time, we investigate the value co-creation of the actors as creator of the platform, but in this study, we focus on the complementor as the creator. Given the above comment by Haile and Altmann (2012) we can say that a large share of the value from a two-sided network effect goes to the platform provider, but here we observe how this translates when the complementor is lead actor.

The research for this paper aims to observe how complementors can break the mould in the industry and take the lead. Complementors are seen as participating in passive collaboration, almost as by-side engagement and as a supporting role. Yet, they are critical in the value co-creation process, where we see active collaboration as interaction driven from the creator to achieve outcomes through co-creation. Institutionalized markets require actors to enable change through co-creation for value, this looks beyond its traditional boundaries to unlock new opportunities (Van Bockhaven et al., 2015) with complementors at the helm. The key research question posed is: How do complementors take up a leading role in developing a B2B platform?

Literature Review

The topic of value co-creation in B2B has attracted significant interest in current management and marketing research. Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004), state that consumer co-creation is a leading force in business today and recognises that ‘the role of the consumer in systems has changed from isolated to connected, from unaware to informed, from passive to active’ (p.4), highlighting the impact of how multi-actors have been established within the environment. While you could agree with Prahalad and Ramaswamy that all actors are active, one could also argue that in B2B there remains passive actors that are beneficiaries of value, through the structure of the two-sided network effect, and are not active creators of value but are recipients of value. Here the complementor as passive actor can lead in co-creating value, and ultimately adopt the role as creator, where traditionally complementors help enable creators but are not seen as the lead creator and actor of value.

Much of the complementor literature refers to case examples in business-to-consumer (B2C) with prominent research in consumer mobile, crowdsourcing or retail, such as Apple and Google (Chen et al., 2021), Airbnb (Wessel et al., 2017), BlaBlaCar and Amazon (Saxena et al., 2020), Philips Hue (Hilbolling et al., 2019), with fewer research focus on B2B.

Hilbolling et al. (2019) investigates how firms can coordinate a platform strategy through complementary products and identifies increasingly complex ways in which independent components connect to a focal platform such as the increasingly open API’s, complementors strive to advance new use cases for which they rarely addressed one platform only rather the innovations create connections across platforms. The focal firm manages complementor interactions at arms-length. Chen et al. (2021) focuses on how platform owners’ governance behaviours directly affect complementors, where open governance grants greater autonomy to platform providers and less so to the complementors, set in the context of Apple and Googles IOS. Wessel et al. (2017) examine the positioning strategy of platform models observing barriers to entry for new hosts which are mainly created by the established hosts through their reputation and lead role. Wessel et al. (2017) deals with the focus on lead actor and complementor actors as an extension to the central actor, which is set in a consumer case example of Airbnb.

In analysing the theoretical background to the study, it draws on three major areas discussed in the literature, research on (1) value co-creation (2) platform development and (3) complementors in platform development.
Value Co-creation

The concept of value creation has been discussed extensively in literature, Payne et al. (2008) states that the value co-creation process occurs when the customer performs a series of activities to achieve a desired outcome. Thus, value is co-created when resources are used. Vargo and Lusch (2008) states that companies can only create value propositions which are dependent on input from the customers. Co-production refers to a more all-inclusive concept capturing different types of resource-integrating practices amongst multiple network actors (Kohtamäki and Rajala, 2016). Frow (2014) outlines the role of the of the value proposition within an ecosystem moves from the proposal of a resource offering between actors to shaping of resource integration between actors within the system.

Platform Development

Parker and Van Alstyne (2014) see a platform strategy as the mobilization of a networked business platform to expand into and operate in a given market. Interactions are valuable in a service strategy, as the more actors interact, the more valuable the platform-based offering becomes (Gawer and Cusumano, 2014, Evans et al., 2016). Rangaswamy et al. (2020) outline that digital business platform interactions and the data generated amongst actors, are key enablers of value creation and value appropriation on these platforms. Key platform development literature by Tian et al. (2021); Gawer and Cusumano (2014) and Constantinides et al. (2018), focuses on how platforms can be designed and built from shifting from working at arm’s length with other firms to creating integrated platforms in a staged process.

Complementors in platform development

Rickmann et al. (2014) identify goals complementors pursue with their partnership with a platform sponsor. First, complementors target better customer access by improving their visibility, customers gain awareness, and credibility, and where the customers’ trust in the quality of the complementor’s products. Complementors often develop enhancements to the platform sponsor’s core application, rather than standalone applications. A complementor’s business model, is unlike that of its competitor, it will often bear little resemblance to the focal firm (Yoffie and Kwak, 2006). Complementors are likely to be more cautious in platform participation if the platform owner is strongly positioned in complementary segments (Lan et al., 2019). In terms of the types of benefits that firms derive from their relationships with complementors, Kapoor (2014) outlines collaboration with complementors as most beneficial in improving the performance of focal firms’ products, market segments, and least beneficial in gaining customers in new market segments.

Aims and Objectives

This study aims to highlight complementors which are seen by the focal actor as more of an added offering and, as such, a beneficiary rather than a creator. In B2B, value co-creation is less natural and more structured (Hein et al, 2006). In the B2B space value networks are created to have multiple actors co-create through passive collaboration. B2B markets much like corporate co-creation contexts look at competitive advantage and in B2C contexts it focuses more on the customer need. Which in the two-sided network effect, could support the fact that multi-stakeholders’ collaboration is not organic but rather structured through an active firm level and a passive actor level. As beneficiaries and creators, we see this theoretical view supported by a study that outlines that a considerable share of value was developed and provided by users before the service provider commercially introduced them into the markets (Oliveira and von Hippel, 2011).

To address the gaps in the literature highlighted above the overall research problem analysed in this research paper can be stated as follows: How do complementors take up a leading role in developing a B2B platform? This study aims to respond to the problem of the focal firm only as lead actor and observes the role of complementor co-creating value with customers directly to drive scale as lead. The research aims to highlight that the complementor need not depend on the focal firm to drive value but more and more can break-away from the sponsor and looks at what happens when the passive actor becomes an active actor, and operate as a standalone without the need of the lead actor? In order to respond to this aim, the following research questions are to be examined:

(RQ1) How can complementors be stimulated to engage in co-creation and platform development in B2B markets?
(RQ2) What is the (potential) impact of different business models adopted by complementors on platform development?

It analyses two cases, one adopting a freemium business model with a niche offering as part of the value chain and the other a software-based modular service that also targets a niche area of the value chain, both set within the asset management industry.

Freemium business models yield revenues only after building a customer base (Yogev, 2011). The business model revolves around two distinct user groups; one larger group who consumes the service for free and a smaller percentage that pays a premium price (Rietveld, 2017). The model observes key areas of feasibility and desirability of converting free users
to paying ones, the presence of significant variable costs, which requires balancing the ratio of free and paying customers and the use of non-traditional pricing schemes to enhance value capture (Layrisse and Reficco, 2020). Software based platforms on the other hand offers a core functionality, that is then supplemented by modular services (Tiwana et al., 2014). Each modular service is a software subsystem that can extend the functionality of the platform (Baldwin and Woodward, 2009). The modularity of a software-based platform makes it more accessible for both customers and external partners or complementors as well as the platform owner to substitute system components while retaining a stable core (Hein et al., 2019). The research paper aims to analyse both models and compares the co-creation of value that occurs.

This paper is proposed with the intention of contributing to the theoretical development on how passive actors is helping the core strategic value of the platform rather than the operational routine functioning value to scale the platform.

Methodology

The asset management industry is an intriguing context to observe co-creation in platform development. In fact, we see that institutionalized factors in the asset management industry like regulatory pressures are indirectly pushing for better value creation from the distribution/value chain. In this institutionalized and risk-averse market where regulations threaten the foundations of the distribution value chain, we find aspects of cognitive-cultural, normative, and regulative factors that restrain change. While these cognitive-cultural factors exist, at the same time, fund managers are looking to break this restraining logic and disintermediate the distribution network in the process, through technology platforms and selective actor engagement. The research includes cases of two purposefully sampled firms in the asset management industry. The interviews followed a semi-structured interview process. The purposive sampling of these firms allows for the identification and selection of information-rich cases related to the research/topic phenomena (Cenamor et.al, 2017).

The paper is based on qualitative case studies (Klein and Myers, 1999; Walsham, 1993) concerning two platforms and their asset management solutions, one focused on due diligence and the other on cloud digital experience. These cases were first studied independently and then compared collaboratively. Despite being gathered separately, the two data sets yielded to comparative analysis without difficulty. Both studies began by studying the complementor and its organization and proceeded to value creation perspectives. The analysis focused on similarities and differences between the cases in order to find critical issues in the platform development and design of its solutions. The fictional names “Epsilon” and “Zeta” provides clarity for the analysis which emphasizes challenges faced by the companies.

The study includes a selection of 15 interviewees based on a predefined list of criteria. Purposive sampling was followed, with interviewees which possessed top management positions, relevant technical knowledge and business knowledge and were required to know the companies value chain, business process and their characteristics well (Denzin, 2010). Data collection included informants on C-level, 1st/2nd management level of the companies related to the topic. Each interview had to have participated in the value co-creation process, participated in the building of the B2B platform models and decision-rights and been part of taking decisions.

Semi-structured interviews and company documents (Yin, 2013) were utilised. Different internal and external stakeholders were interviewed to provide as broad a picture as possible. The interviews focused on the development of both platforms and the value creation, customers’ needs or use of the platform, expectations of value and the solutions, and possibilities and constraints related to the solution. A topic list of questions was followed. Interviews were performed online, via virtual ZOOM. The interviews were recorded and then transcribed. Analysis procedures had some case-specific differences as the cases were compared after the primary analysis round. The analyses will follow the basic method for comparative, theory-building multiple case study (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Platform business models are complex and unique configurations, making them the best to study through case research. Case studies offer flexibility for explorative and theory building research as during the study, the research scope can be re-addressed, and additional data sources can be acquired, while applying several types of research objectives (Voss et al., 2002).

Case Outline

From a technical perspective, platforms as software-based platforms, provide core-functionality, supplemented by modular services (Tiwana et al., 2010, Tilson et al., 2010). In a modular design, each modular service is a software subsystem that can extend the functionality of the platform (Baldwin and Woodward, 2009). The standardisation integration processes and modular architecture of software-based platforms minimize interdependencies among modules and other network externalities by reducing transaction costs. As such, it is about joint creation of value by the company and its customers in a freemium platform model, which is facilitated by the co-creation process. This model follows a strategy by which a service
or product (typically an application or digital offering) is provided without paying anything, but money in the form of premium which is charged for through virtual services or features, often in exchange for knowledge or content sharing (Panda et al., 2019).

Epsilon has been designed to respond to the asset management industry demands for an effective automated due diligence of fund distributors. It focuses on a targeted area of the value chain to the asset management industry, through SaaS service platform design, focused on due diligence. It provides the contact information, risk scoring as well as the supporting documents to facilitate this process. It is like a Trip Advisor of fund distributors. Distributors find it painful to respond to multiple due diligence questionnaires attempting to capture similar risks. As a consequence, it takes between 3 to 9 months for management companies / global distributors to receive answers. Epsilon’s platform proposes one standardised questionnaire.

Zeta is a digital experience platform, specifically built for the needs of global financial institutions. It enables sales teams to drive higher fund flows through transformative enablement technology. Zeta allows global enterprises to deliver sophisticated digital and content-based experiences to their clients and partners. Built around WordPress and tailored to the security and compliance needs of the enterprise, Zeta accelerates time to value and reduces the need for custom coding. It includes a modular design with five modules to assist with the creation of a variety of different deliverables, from websites and portals to complex technical collateral. With tools in place to handle both data, content, and documents, the possibilities are limitless.

**Intended Findings and Implications**

This study aims to contribute to the theoretical literature of value co-creation, platform development and complementors. As it is a working paper, there is still much work to be done on extrapolating our findings and discussion. It aims to build on the theoretical approach to create an empirical model of passive and active actors when developing a B2B platform. It outlines a key focus on how passive actors is helping the core value rather than operational value to scale. It uncovers what happens when the passive actor becomes an active actor, and its service offering is able to deliver value directly to the customer and operate as a standalone without the need of the lead actor. The theoretical implications aim to relate to research on value co-creation, platform development theory and complementors, set within a two-sided network as part of the platform business model. The study integrates value co-creation and platform model development. Through this it aims to outline the process of value-co-creation needed for scale through the lead role of the complementor.

In reference to an interview completed, one respondent stated the following on how complementors can drive change and break the industry recipe: “The system needs to change, the structure needs to change, it’s like the beautiful whale in the water with all the little fish eating off it. Arguably economic benefit is accruing to the market participants, and then it brings you back to the actors involved, as we the complementors are all the fish, and the institutionalised industry and lead actor is the whale. Who is going to be the little fish that gets all the other little fish together and say we are part of something much bigger?”

The leading role of the complementor is critical in breaking the industry mould and taking the reins and not jumping on and riding the saddle. In this paper practitioners in both business and marketing functions can better understand the benefits of value co-creation and what is the role of passive actors (complementors) in platform development. It will help provide an outline of how effective co-creation practices can build platform scale and what can be done to stimulate platform complementors to engage in platform development. The research findings will provide recommendations for organisations that aim to achieve scale in platform development in B2B environments, and to adopt the strategies needed to understand the core principles for setting up the platform for scale.

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Summary Brief

The impact of CEO extraversion on organizational proactiveness and corporate social responsibility

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This research examines the relationship between the personality trait of extraversion in Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) and firms’ corporate social responsibility. The authors argue that firms led by more extraverted CEOs are likely to exhibit a lower rate of corporate social responsibility initiatives. The impact of CEO extraversion on CSR is partially mediated by firms’ organizational proactiveness. The marketing capabilities of the firm and CEO equity to pay-ratio, attenuates the impact of their extraversion on CSR initiatives. A longitudinal analysis of a sample of 325 publicly listed U.S. firms in the period 2006–2010 provides considerable support for the authors’ hypotheses. This research underscores the importance of studying CEOs’ personality traits as antecedents of firms’ CSR and organizational behavior, highlights the positive and negative impact of CEO extraversion on firms’ CSR-related behavior, and delineates the process through which this impact can be appropriately managed.

Introduction

The importance of personality has been evidenced in the management literature in terms of its impact on team decision-making processes (Peterson et al. 2003), leadership styles (Resick et al. 2009), and organizational culture (Giberson et al. 2009). The duality of these personality traits makes for plenty of opportunities to take a deep dive into the minds of CEOs and further understand the implications of hiring individuals with different perspectives and attitudes towards their strategic decision-making. Despite the prevalence of this research on individual differences between CEOs, research investigating the impact on marketing outcomes due to differences in CEO character traits is relatively scant.

The paper which follows looks at a trait that one might expect to have implications for firm outcomes: Extraversion.

Background

While some studies argue that the dominance and surgency of an extraverted CEO is likely to promote positivity and enthusiasm in employees (Bono and Judge, 2004; Judge et al., 2002) which points to leadership effectiveness, more recent research has suggested that previous findings may be the result of a “halo effect” resulting from the charisma of the CEO rather than their actual ability to foster superior behaviors and in turn performance (Grant et al. 2011). The argument here states that leaders who are high on trait extraversion may indeed thrive in environments where employees are subservient or submissive (Barrick, Stewart and Pitroski, 2002), however, in environments where CEOs are faced with proactive behaviors from employees, those CEOs with high trait extraversion may actually feel threatened and engage in more conflict and unconstructive behaviors (Ames and Flynn, 2007). As a result, CEOs who are high on trait extraversion were found to be less likely to be receptive of suggestions, initiatives and upward influence (Grant et. Al. 2011)

Based on this premonition, and using upper echelon theory (Hambrick and Mason, 1984) as the theoretical crux, this paper looks to investigate the role of trait extraversion in strategic marketing decision making. More specifically, we focus our attention on the relationship between CEO extraversion, organizational proactiveness and corporate social responsibility initiatives. We also investigate boundary conditions including marketing capabilities and an indicator of CEO stock to salary ratio. Based on these considerations, we seek to answer the following research questions:

1. How does CEO trait extraversion impact the number of CSR initiatives that firms invest in?
2. What boundary conditions mediate / moderate this relationship?

Key Findings

Most of our hypothesis in were supported. Providing evidence to support H1, the path between the dependent variable, CEO extraversion and the mediator, organizational proactiveness was negative and significant (β =.008, p < .001). The relationship between CEO extraversion and CSR was also negative and significant providing evidence to support H2a (β =-.156, p < .1). Support for partial mediation was also found indicating that CEO extraversion has both a direct and indirect effect on CSR strength, finding support for H2b. Finally, the moderating effect of both Marketing Capabilities and CEO equity-pay ratio were found positive and significant, indicating that they do indeed attenuate the relationship and help to limit the impact of CEO extraversion on CSR in support of H3 (β =0.017, p < .001) and H4 (β =0.642, p < .1). To test for endogeneity effects, we regressed against a set of antecedent and concomitant variables all measured in t-1 (i.e., the year preceding the CEO’s appointment). No significant association of these explanatory variables with CEO extraversion was found providing evidence that CEO extraversion is not an endogenous proxy for other factors.
Implications

We have both theoretical and practical implications for this research. Research in upper echelon theory, although numerous, has surprisingly limited amounts of work done involving TMT member personality traits. Most of the research in this area has tended to focus on demographic characteristics. This research fills this gap in the literature by providing evidence that the personality trait of extraversion in a firm’s CEO does indeed have some impact on the firm’s organizational orientation. From a methodology standpoint, this research contributes a new measure of CEO personality. Along those lines, the proxy measure of CEO extraversion should also allow further research in this field where it is difficult to get responses from the intended sample. It is my hope that this new measure of CEO extraversion will spur further use of previous LIWC findings as a measure of other TMT member personality traits. For practitioners, these results delineate the resulting impact of hiring more outgoing and social CEOs. Interestingly, these findings suggest that CEOs who are more extraverted may cause their firms to be less proactive. For certain industries, such as the tech industry where change is faster and more complex, it may be an important trait to consider when hiring. Finally, although it is not realistic for corporate boards to analyze writing samples for candidates for their open CEO positions, our findings do suggest that a broad view understanding of their social network or ability to interact with strangers may provide a foreshadow of their success as the firm’s leader.

References


SESSION 12B PANEL: THE EVOLUTION OF MARKETING: TEACHING INNOVATIONS USED IN THE PRINCIPLES COURSE

PANELISTS

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Prachi Gala, Kennesaw State University, USA
Karen Hopkins, Auburn University, USA
Michelle Sullivan, East Tennessee State University, USA
Dana E. Harrison, East Tennessee State University, USA
Panel Session

The Evolution of Marketing: Teaching Innovations used in the Principles Course

James Blair, Eastern Kentucky University, USA
Prachi Gala, Kennesaw State University, USA
Karen Hopkins, Auburn University, USA
Michelle Sullivan, East Tennessee State University, USA
Dana E. Harrison, East Tennessee State University, USA

Over the last few years, the marketing discipline has experienced an evolution. Marketing has gained prominence in organizations and has now “earned an important place in corporate boardrooms” (Kumar, 2015, p. 3). Industry conversations and academic articles have introduced how topics such as data, artificial intelligence (AI), digital marketing, privacy and corporate social responsibility are transforming marketing (e.g., Ferrell and Ferrell, 2020; He and Harris, 2020; Herhausen, Miocevic, Morgan and Kleijnen, 2020; Minuto, 2021; Quinn, Simkin, Canhoto and Analogbei 2016). The impact of these influences among others have impacted the role and influence of marketers. Companies are in search of experienced marketers, but there often remains an academic capabilities gap.

The objective of this panel session is to explore changes to the marketing discipline over the last several years, as well as the impact of these changes on principles of marketing - the foundational marketing course. PANELISTS will also introduce teaching innovations surrounding these topics to incorporate into class for both small and large sections, strategies for engaging students, followed by audience Q&A.

Anticipated Panel Outline:
15 minutes on marketing changes and how academia evolved.
15 minutes on how and why COVID has changed the way we teach principles
15 minutes on techniques towards experiential learning in principles
15 minutes Q&A

References


SESSION 13A: ONLINE CONSUMER BEHAVIOR & CONSUMER ENGAGEMENT

CHAIR

Brandon Holle
Our paper aims to present the results of four studies which explore the maladaptive nature of multi-episode viewing of sequential media content known as binge watching. Much of maladaptive behavior has been associated with impulsivity. The current study looks at the positive and negative aspects of multi-episode viewing based on whether the watching was planned or occurred on impulse. We first look at the concept of "binge-watching" and how this has emerged as a significant force in the consumption of media content. We then explore the role that impulse plays in maladaptive behavior. Next, we present the results of four studies which look at the consumer's views of binge-watching as maladaptive behavior and the impact of unplanned versus planned binge-watching.

Introduction

The term binge watching commonly refer to the practice of sequential watching of a TV series or movies. There are multiple views on whether the practice is healthy or maladaptive. Negatives associated with binge-watching have included procrastination (Reinecke, Hartmann, and Eden 2014) excessive or poor quality food consumption (Boulos 2012), social isolation (Sung, Kang, and Lee 2018), social anxiety (Tukachinsky and Eyal 2018), poorer sleep quality (Exelmans and Van Den Bulck 2018), depression (Tukachinsky and Eyal 2018), addiction (Panda and Pandey 2017; Tukachinsky and Eyal 2018), self-regulation failures (Tukachinsky and Eyal 2018). Positive aspect of binge watching include mental restoration (Pittman and Sheehan 2015), positive mental outlook (Panda and Pandey 2017), deeper engagement with plot and characters (Perks 2014), deeper affect and cognitive transportation into story (Perks 2014), means of reward (Pittman and Sheehan 2015), reflection (Tukachinsky and Eyal 2018), camaraderie (Perks 2014), hedonic and eudemonic enjoyment (Tukachinsky and Eyal 2018), feelings of accomplishment (Perks 2014), and parasocial relationships (Tukachinsky and Eyal 2018).

We posit that impulsivity plays an important role in the effects of binge watching and all binge watching sessions are not the same. The purpose of this research is to explore one potentially important variable that might determine whether binge-watching is maladaptive. That factor is whether the multi-episode watching session is planned or unplanned.

Background

Planning, or the lack thereof has been mentioned as an important variable that impacts people's binge-watching behavior (Perks 2014; Riddle et al. 2018). Pittman and Sheehan (2015) posit that a major factor that differentiates positive from negative multi-episode viewing is the extent to which the sessions are planned. Despite these indications that planning or lack thereof may significantly affect the binge-watching experience, little empirical research has been done to explore this relationship further.

In one important study, unplanned binge-watching was shown to be closely related to impulsivity (Riddle et al. 2018). That is important because impulsiveness has often been seen as a key component of many forms of maladaptive behavior (Hofmann, Friese, and Strack 2009) including maladaptive consumer behavior (Baumeister 2002). According to Dholakia (2000), impulse control reduces negative forms of consumer behavior. In general, consumers can act on their impulses or they can keep these impulses under control. Whiteside and Lynam (2001) argue that the lack of premeditation is key to impulsive behavior, Hofmann, Friese, and Wiers (2008) see reflective control as a means of reducing the negative effects that impulsiveness may create.

Not all unplanned behavior is impulsive but all impulsive behavior is unplanned. Thus, one clear manifestation of impulsive consumption is the extent to which the behavior is planned. All this points to the role that planning, or the lack thereof, may have as we try to understand the potential maladaptive nature of some binge-watching. We conducted four studies seeking to answer the following research question:

Does the planning, or lack thereof, of a multi-episode viewing session determine whether that session possesses maladaptive traits?
Key Findings

The first study explores whether consumers see the phrase "binge-watching" as being negative and if binge-watching is generally a planned or unplanned activity. Study 1 finds that binge watching is seen as maladaptive by a substantial portion of the population and when it comes to binge watching, and three groups of about equal size existed among our respondents. Planned binge watchers, unplanned binge watchers and a group that both planned and unplanned binge watching sessions. Study 2 compared the motivations for planned sessions with those of unplanned sessions. This was done to identify differences that may cause some binge-watching to be planned and other binge-watching to be unplanned. Study 2 indicated that there may be greater negativity with unplanned sessions but certainly not enough to make planned binge-watching healthy and unplanned binge watching maladaptive. Study 3, showed the real difference between viewing sessions The viewing behavior that extended beyond that which was planned exhibited deeper negative consequences than the viewing behavior that ended as planned. Planning to quit and then not doing so appears to be what has the potential to turn normal, healthy viewing behavior into maladaptive consumption. Having identified in studies 2 and 3 that following the plan is more significant than simply having a plan in determining the differentiating types of binge-watching, study 4 looks to see if length alone can explain some of the differences we found. As identified earlier, impulse behavior has long been associated with maladaptive behavior. Because of what we found in study 4, it seems unlikely that the negative consequences of extending multi-episode viewing sessions can be solely attributed to the length of the extended sessions, however, impulsivity does play a contributing role.

References


Helpful Reviews: The Mediating Effects of Diagnosticity on the Reviewer Certainty–Helpfulness Relationship for Online Reviews

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Drawing on the accessibility-diagnosticity framework, this study explores the impact of certainty in the text of online reviews on perceived review helpfulness. We examine diagnosticity as a mediator and identify moderators of the mediated relationship. We examine both the main effect of reviewer certainty on review helpfulness and the mediating effect of diagnosticity using a sample of real review data obtained from a large online retailer. In addition, we examine the moderating effect of product innovativeness and brand familiarity. The results show that product innovativeness moderates the reviewer certainty–perceived review helpfulness relationship through the mediating effect of diagnosticity. In addition, brand familiarity moderates the relationship as well. By revealing the relationship between reviewer certainty and review helpfulness, as well as the mechanism and boundary conditions, these findings offer valuable contributions to theory and online retailers.

Introduction

As the world continues to become more connected online, e-commerce has become ever more important for firms. In 2020, thousands of brick-and-mortar retail stores shut their doors, while e-commerce grew by more than 44% to more than $861 billion in the United States alone (Digital Commerce 360 2021). Thus, it is paramount for firms to understand what influences consumers’ decision-making processes while shopping online. Online shoppers generally seek information about the products for which they are shopping online, as they cannot see, test, or touch the product for themselves. As a result, online customers’ reviews are a prominent source of information for online shoppers. Indeed, 91% of consumers read online reviews on a regular basis, and 84% of consumers trust these reviews as much as they trust personal recommendations from friends or family (Bloem 2017). Therefore, online reviews exert a substantial impact on other consumers’ online purchase decisions and ultimately sales performance of online products (Babic Rosario et al. 2016; Chevalier and Mayzlin 2006; Floyd et al. 2014).

Yet not all reviews are equal. Online reviews perceived as more helpful provide consumers with more information and thus help reduce perceived risk when they purchase products online (Babic Rosario et al. 2016). Prior research has examined various visible context-based drivers of perceived review helpfulness, including review rating, word count, and valence (Filieri 2015; Mudambi and Schuff 2010; Pan and Zhang 2011). However, an emerging research stream has begun examining the impact of latent aspects of the text of online reviews. Analyzing the text in greater detail can provide valuable insights into the influence of reviews on consumers. For example, recent work shows that within the text of online reviews, latent concepts such as arousal (Yin, Bond, and Zhang 2017), emotion (Yin, Bond, and Zhang 2014), and tone (Agnihotri and Bhattacharya 2016) affect how readers evaluate the review. In addition, Srivastava and Kalro (2019) find a positive impact of the latent factors of comprehensiveness, clarity, and relevance on review helpfulness. However, current understanding of how the latent factors within the text of online reviews influence the perceived helpfulness of the review is still limited. We aim to expand this knowledge, by examining how the latent factor of certainty in the text of online reviews influences perceived review helpfulness.

Background

In today’s online age of information, consumers have opportunities to obtain an abundant amount of information to aid in their purchase decisions. Online consumer reviews are a focal point for online shoppers and thus have been a ripe area for research. Consumers consult online reviews to obtain information and reduce risk in their purchase decisions (Pavlou and Fygenson 2006; Pavlou, Liang, and Xue 2007). However, not all reviews are treated equally, with consumers viewing some online reviews as more helpful than others. More helpful reviews facilitate consumers’ decision-making processes, especially when they seek to purchase products online (Mudambi and Schuff 2010). Reviews perceived as more helpful and credible also provide enhanced value to consumers and increase their purchase intentions (Ketron 2017). With more helpful reviews, customers gain more information, and sales tend to increase (Chen, Dhanasobhon, and Smith 2008).
Therefore, the type of information in reviews has an impact on their helpfulness. Reviews that are viewed as more helpful typically contain more detailed information (Filieri 2015; Mudambi and Schuff 2010), while reviews with good grammar not only are viewed as more helpful but also have a stronger influence on purchase intentions than reviews with poor grammar (Ketron 2017; Schindler and Bickart 2012). Helpfulness also increases when reviews are more entertaining, such that they express humor or use slang (Schindler and Bickart 2012). Thus, the textual content within each review is also a valuable source of information to consumers. In addition, discrete emotions displayed within a review can have a significant impact on the perceived helpfulness of a review (Yin, Bond, and Zhang 2017). Ultimately, however, research focusing on the dimension of perceived reviewer certainty in online reviews is lacking. Therefore, we ask, are reviews with greater perceived reviewer certainty more helpful than others? If so, what is the mechanism underlying this relationship, and what are the boundary conditions?

Key Findings

Based on PROCESS model results, we found that we found that the direct effect of diagnosticity on review helpfulness was positive and significant. In addition, the direct effect of perceived reviewer certainty on review helpfulness was positive, providing support for a main effect. Also, the indirect effect of perceived reviewer certainty on perceived review helpfulness was positive, suggesting that the positive relationship between perceived reviewer certainty and review helpfulness is mediated by diagnosticity.

We also tested two different moderators. Based on multilevel analysis using the MLmed macro in SPSS, we found that the product innovativeness negatively moderated the mediation relationship. Lastly, we tested the moderating effect. Our results from multilevel analysis using the MLmed macro in SPSS showed that there is marginal evidence that brand familiarity moderates the reviewer certainty – review helpfulness relationship.

References


SESSION 13B: THE ROLE OF INDENTITIES IN PROMOTIONS

CHAIR

Joshua Coleman
The Hidden Influence of the Enneagram on Advertising Research

Joshua T. Coleman, Ph.D., Missouri State University, Springfield, MO, USA

The Enneagram is a personality typing system which explains human motivation on a subconscious level. Nine personality types are divided into three Intelligence Centers (triads) – Thinking, Feeling, and Instinctive – which bear a striking resemblance to the three seminal advertising effects of cognition, affect, and behavior. As all individuals are inherently aligned with one of the nine types (and thus one of the three triads), research which does not account for the Enneagram may be missing a key link between the way advertising works and the way human personalities function. This research agenda begins the process of uncovering the hidden influence the Enneagram has had and will continue to have on advertising research.

Introduction

To some, the Enneagram is the latest iteration of the ubiquitous personality typing trends which seem to manifest every few decades. To others, it is the explanation of human personality and behavior which has been guiding personal and social interactions for millennia. Neither perspective on the Enneagram is without merit. However, neither takes into account the influence the Enneagram may have – and perhaps has been having for years – on advertising. Specifically, when considering the three triads into which the nine types of the Enneagram are divided, a clear overlap between this personality typing system and traditional advertising research emerges: the categorization of Thinking, Feeling, and Instinctive Centers, or triads, bears striking resemblance to traditional cognitive, affective, and conative advertising effects, colloquially referred to as thinking, feeling, and doing. This manuscript begins an investigation into the hidden influence of the Enneagram on advertising research.

Advertising: Think, Feel, and Do

Scholars have long debated how advertising works. Schulz (2018) recently raised this question again, observing the discrepancy between academics and working professionals. As he explains, “Simply put, practitioners are generally focused on an economic view of how advertising ‘works,’ while academicians favor a psychological view. They seemingly should be connected, but… they are not… They have been separated, seldom if ever to be combined” (Shultz, 222). Whether explored practically or psychologically, is advertising a cognitive process, in which consumers must first learn about a product or brand through advertising before purchasing? Is it all emotion, with advertising being used as merely a spark to stir up an affective reaction from consumers? Or is advertising a bridge between the brand and an experience? In their seminal work, Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) suggest all three must play a role.

Advertising necessitates some level of cognitive processing, such as reductions in search costs (Stephen 1994) and signals of product quality (Erdem, Keane, and Sun 2008). Cognitive appraisals can either occur in tandem with or in isolation from affective responses, though an overlap between the two is often highly likely (Vakratsas and Ambler 1999). The role of cognition is perhaps most prevalent in frameworks such as the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Petty and Cacioppo 1986), in which cognition precedes affective evaluations and behavioral experiences. However, such a sequence has not received consistent empirical support. Cognition has thus been expanded to something as simple as product or brand awareness (Romaniuk, Sharp, Paech, and Driesener 2004), demonstrating the importance of the mind in processing and evaluating advertisements.

Effective advertising will also make consumers feel some emotion. Pure affect models purport that advertising evaluations can only be attributed to emotional reactions, advocating for the mere exposure effect which significantly reduces or even completely negates the role of cognition (e.g., Zajonc 1980). While facial recognition technology attempts to capture purely affective reactions as they occur (Ekman 2007), it is difficult to avoid the cognitive bias that influences any emotional response (Vakratsas and Ambler 1999). This cognitive interference is why some suggest a combination of cognitive and affective effects that contribute to developing attitudes toward an advertisement (e.g., Shimp 1981). Pure affect or not, emotions are a critical component of understanding the effects of advertising.

The third key advertising effect, experience, pertains to an advertisement’s ability to drive behavior. As much as 90% of the ads in some of the United States’ top print magazines contain language intended to promote action, such as “Call now” or “Order today!” (Zemack-Rugar, Moore, and Fitzsimons 2017). Indeed, advertising elasticity, the increase in market share or sales as a result of an increase in advertising expenditure (Sethuraman, Tellis, and Briesch 2011), is a
primary component of an advertisement’s success. Advertising’s influence on thoughts and feelings can only be economically valued if it results in some measure of behavior, whether that be brand engagement, social media activity, or sales.

Perhaps most salient for an application of the Enneagram to advertising research is that, after their review of over 250 books and journal articles, Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) found no support for a hierarchy of effects. That is, despite the prescription from some models that individuals follow a sequence when processing advertising (e.g., Petty and Cacioppo 1986), no empirical evidence supports a designated order. Rather, space and context should be given in which all three effects can coexist as having an equal potential for influencing advertising evaluations (Vakratsas and Ambler 1999). Additionally, their comprehensive review discovered that all three effects are imperative for understanding how advertising works. As they conclude, “Experience, affect, and cognition are the three key intermediate advertising effects, and the omission of any one can lead to overestimation of the effect of the others” (Vakratsas and Ambler 1999, 35). While their work is over two decades old, and though more recent work has promoted similar avenues of analysis (e.g., Batra and Keller 2016; Zhang 2011), no scholar to date has refuted these findings.

Therefore, it is in light of this conclusion that the true value of the Enneagram is illuminated. The nine types of the Enneagram are divided into three triads: thinking, feeling, and instinct. There is no hierarchy or sequence in the division of these triads, and all three must exist for the Enneagram to be complete. Additionally, aside from a few exceptions (Haugtvedt, Petty, and Cacioppo 1992; Orth, Malkewitz, and Bee 2010; Paek, Choi, and Nelson 2010), much of advertising research does not specifically factor into studies of advertising the role of personality, or the consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behavior which comprise an individuals’ public persona or image. The Enneagram is uniquely positioned to elucidate the role of human personality in shaping thoughts, emotions, and behaviors. Thus, while decades of advertising research may have led to the conclusion that cognition, affect, and experience or behavior are the three key advertising effects, what Vakratsas, Ambler, and others have been lacking is the language of the Enneagram to explain why these effects exist in the first place.

**Figure 1: The Enneagram**

The Enneagram as it is understood today is a modern iteration of an ancient symbol (Figure 1), the roots of which can be traced back thousands of years (Riso and Hudson 1996). Consisting of nine distinct types, divided into three centers, the Enneagram framework is used as a typing system that derives its interpretation of human personality from core desires, fears, and key motivations (Riso and Hudson 1999). Enneagram scholars argue that these core motivations have been present and influential from childhood, yet many individuals have lost touch with these desires and fears over time and thus have lost their true self (Cron and Stabile 2016). The impetus of the Enneagram, then, is not to fixate a particular personality type at the present time but rather to facilitate the pursuit of understanding the personality motivators that have been present throughout one’s entire life to then learn the effects this type has on beliefs, attitudes, and behavior in the present day.

The three Intelligence Centers, or triads, into which the nine types are divided provide direction toward the ways by which one takes in, processes, and responds to the world (Riso and Hudson 1996). The three types in each center are distinct from one another yet share the benefits and burdens of the center. For example, though types Eight, Nine, and One
all exist within the Instinctive Center and share the emotional theme of anger, the ways by which each type deals with this anger differ: Eights express their anger, Nines deny their anger, and Ones attempt to control their anger (Chestnut 2013). Thus, though the intricacies and nuances of each type are critical to effectively navigating the Enneagram, they must always be understood within the context of their centers. As such, each type is explained in brief after a description of each center is provided. Table 1 organizes the triads and types of the Enneagram. (Please note: In an effort to avoid repetitive citations, content within the following three sections has been adapted from Riso and Hudson’s seminal work on the Enneagram (1996, 1999).)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intelligence Center</th>
<th>Emotional Theme</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>Five</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Six</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Seven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling</td>
<td>Shame</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Three</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Four</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instinctive</td>
<td>Anger</td>
<td>Eight</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nine</td>
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<tr>
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<td>One</td>
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</table>

**Thinking Center: Types Five, Six, and Seven**

Individuals in the Thinking Center process the world through the mind. These are not merely smart or intelligent people; rather, they are those who make decisions based on facts, who use logical and analytical thought processes in every area of life. Many in the Thinking Center fill their lives with systems to organize productivity, brainstorming, and even pleasure to maximize efficiency. Because they process their lives systematically, these individuals naturally respond well to orderly communication supported by research and statistics.

The emotional theme shared by those in the Thinking Center is fear. This can manifest itself in a myriad of ways, whether physical fear of personal harm or safety or internal fears such as lack of knowledge or anxiety. All three types in the Thinking Center are driven in some way by this emotion: fear drives Fives to withdraw and isolate themselves, it overwhelms Sixes toward anxiety and doubt, and it draws Sevens to busyness in order to distract themselves from having to face any type of fear. The distinctions between these types, however, go much deeper than their responses to fear.

**Type Five**

Fives epitomize the Thinking Center in that they are highly capable of developing complex and abstract ideas. They are always thinking, and this introspection can at times make them come across as distant or isolated. Fives struggle to ever feel like they possess enough knowledge and understanding of their world, so they hoard time, energy, and emotional resources to help them feel competent.

**Type Six**

Committed and responsible, Sixes are highly trusting and loyal. This reliability is most often driven by fear and anxiety; Sixes place their trust in others because they feel they cannot trust themselves. At their core, they desire security and protection from the worst-case scenarios that can so easily mentally and emotionally paralyze them.

**Type Seven**

Sevens are enthusiastic, optimistic, adventurous, and oftentimes completely ignorant of the deep deprivation, pain, and boredom they spend so much time trying to avoid. When they are not actively engaging in some new endeavor, Sevens are planning the next positive experience to maintain their insatiable, gluttonous desire for freedom. Sevens struggle with contentment; as a result, they relentlessly pursue anything that will distract them from feelings of emptiness or discontent.
Feeling Center: Types Two, Three, and Four

Those in the Feeling Center process their world through emotions. Their image and sense of worth are strongly influenced by what others think of them. Whereas those in the Thinking Center might make decisions after a careful analysis of facts and information, individuals in the Feeling Center do so primarily based on what feels right to them in any given situation. They are highly in tune with their emotions and will identify with communication that utilizes affective appeals.

Individuals in the Feeling Center share the emotional theme of shame. For those whose identity is so heavily influenced by the validation they receive from others, the internal self-conscious emotion of shame, of never feeling good enough, is a persistent and key motivator. None of those in the Feeling Center want to acknowledge or succumb to their shame, so they each find ways to control or deny it: Twos seek validation from others, Threes pursue an image of success, and Fours attempt to distract themselves with expressions of individuality.

Type Two
Twos are compassionate and caring. They long to be loved and appreciated, so they constantly fill others’ physical and emotional needs to receive validation of their own self-worth and belongingness. This sacrificial lifestyle can turn manipulative or possessive if Twos do not receive the affirmation from others they desire. Twos may also struggle with pride as they turn their acts of service from benevolent altruism to a list of accomplishments.

Type Three
Threes often appear successful, charming, and admirable. While at times these traits are true, they can also be misleading, for the Three is a master of deceit. Becoming overly consumed with what others might think of them or their image, Threes ambitiously pursue material success to distinguish themselves. When these feelings are navigated healthily, Threes are driven, innovative leaders who consistently excel in their endeavors.

Type Four
While every type of the Enneagram possesses a distinct collection of personality traits, Fours often feel like the exceptions who do not possess any. Perpetually misunderstood, Fours may come across as detached or melancholic as they seek to discover and accept their own, unique identities. Many Fours are artistic and express their individuality in exceptional ways.

Instinctive Center: Types Eight, Nine, and One

The Instinctive Center serves as a bridge between the Thinking and Feeling Centers. For these individuals, decisions are not made primarily on the basis of the mind or the heart; rather, the instincts or gut feelings with which they process their world are an everchanging fluctuation of both thinking and feeling. Those in the Instinctive Center are honest and often impulsive. While they value facts and feelings, they do not wish to be inundated with either in excess, so they respond well to communication that is clear, direct, and includes attainable calls to action.

The emotional theme shared by the Types in the Instinctive Center is anger. Eights express their anger openly and sometimes even physically, Nines attempt to suppress their anger until it eventually boils over, and Ones try to constantly leverage their anger to propel themselves toward improvement. At their best, these individuals are passionate, risk-taking drivers of social change; at their worst, they find themselves sulking and frustrated.

Type Eight
Eights are among the most visibly identifiable Types of the Enneagram. They are socially dominating, assertive, and at times confrontational and intimidating. Their confidence is likely rooted in a desire for protection and control. Eights struggle with vulnerability; rather than embrace weakness of any form, they live with decisiveness and authority, pursuing productivity in lieu of building emotional relationships with others.

Type Nine
Whereas Eights are dominant and powerful, Nines are submissive and gentle. They must constantly fight for the energy Eights so easily exude. Nines desire peace and harmony, but their unyielding inertia may hold them back from taking any steps to counter conflict. Nines may come across as complacent and easygoing, but they must consistently manage the roiling anger they experience when faced with both disharmony itself as well as their own inaction toward bringing about peace.

Type One
Ones are highly ethical and inflexibly rational. They constantly act to better themselves and the world around
them to comply with the personal and societal standards which drive their worldviews. While Ones are influenced by the opinions of others, they are driven by an inner voice of criticism; that is, they are their own worst enemy. The Ones’ integrity is inspirational and motivating when appropriately channeled, and Ones can be tremendously influential toward achieving societal change.

**Advertising and the Enneagram: A Research Agenda**

Decades of research have been devoted to understanding advertising, and innumerable books have been written exploring the Enneagram. The brief summaries of each provided thus far are inadequate for the richness of the content herein, but they have served to provide a foundation for further advertising research in this vastly underexplored domain. To that end, four research propositions are prescribed (Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: An Agenda for Research on Advertising and the Enneagram</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Advertising with Intelligence Centers: Thinking, Feeling, and Instinctive</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Everyone is driven by either thinking, feeling, or instinct. Each of these motivations is highly influential on one’s advertising evaluations. Uncovering the impact Intelligence Centers have on advertising research is highly valuable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Advertising with Emotional Themes: Fear, Shame, and Anger</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People are motivated by an emotional theme tied to their Intelligence Center, either fear, shame, or anger. When advertising uses one of these emotional appeals, individuals’ emotional themes must be taken into consideration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Developing a Brand’s Enneagram Type</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Just as individuals possess one distinct Enneagram type, brands too should develop and maintain one specific type. Doing so will ensure consistency in communication and, potentially, a competitive advantage in terms of personality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4. Advertising with the Nine Types of the Enneagram</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The aforementioned research directions limit the application of the Enneagram to its triads. Though complex, promoting the nine types of the Enneagram in advertising is of critical importance to both scholars and advertisers.</td>
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**1. Advertising with Intelligence Centers: Thinking, Feeling, and Instinctive**

Advertising in terms of cognition, affect, or behavior has long been a subject of academic and practitioner discussion. Thus, this first research proposition is not novel in its subject content; rather, it provides perhaps the greatest evidence of the overlap between advertising and Enneagram research. Both domains have been categorized in taxonomies of thinking, feeling, and doing. It is therefore contingent upon current and future scholars to expose the influence and intricacies of these parallel fields.

Researchers in advertising should become familiar with the Enneagram model to enhance their understanding of consumers. The simplest way to accomplish this is to include items on self-report questionnaires related to the Enneagram; as respondents report their age and gender, they can report their Enneagram type as well. However, this is highly dependent on each individual’s knowledge of his or her own Enneagram type, which is likely variable across samples. More nuanced approaches can and likely should be taken. Scales can be developed which determine individuals’ Intelligence Centers without ever directly referencing the Enneagram, including items relating to how respondents make decisions or how strongly they identify with one of the three emotional themes. Current Enneagram scales are unreliable to meet appropriate rigor in statistical testing, so much work should be done in this area.

Experimental results must then be analyzed in the light of Intelligence Centers. It is not enough to know what drives an individual; the scholar must then discover what impact thinking, feeling, or instinct has on advertising research. If using emotional appeals, one would assume individuals in the Feeling Center would demonstrate a stronger overall effect than those in the Thinking or Instinctive Centers; if using cognitive or informational appeals, individuals in the Thinking Center would score higher than others, and so forth. In essence, the impact of some advertising appeals may be related less to the manipulations themselves and more to some congruency effect which exists between the appeal and one’s Intelligence Center.

Take the following scenario as an example: suppose an advertiser wishes to explore the effects of two emotions in an advertisement, joy and sadness. Samples of 300 respondents for each ad reveal mean affective ratings of 4.6 for the
joy appeal and 3.2 for the sadness appeal. The advertiser thus concludes that the joy appeal is more effective. However, if considering Intelligence Centers, analyses may reveal that, in both samples, 100 of the 300 respondents were dominant in the Feeling Center. Further investigation might show that mean ratings among these individuals were 4.7 for the joy appeal and 4.9 for the sadness appeal.

Several conclusions can thus be made: for one, these high scores among those in the Feeling Center are due to the mere fact that an emotional appeal was used, regardless of which emotion was actually employed. The differential effects of these ads are therefore nonexistent for individuals in the Feeling Center, and an advertisement using either emotional appeal will be highly effective. The true impact of each emotion must then be explored in the context of individuals in the Thinking and Instinctive Centers, for their evaluations regard not congruency with the type of appeal but the emotions themselves. As this scenario illustrates, uncovering the hidden influence of the Enneagram has the potential to provide new avenues of analysis.

It must also be noted that the Enneagram should never be classified as an outcome or dependent measure. No one is classified in the Thinking Center because he or she views an advertisement created with a cognitive appeal. The true nature of the Enneagram – and in fact, the impetus for this manuscript – is that one’s type is set from childhood and is a perpetual driving force, even if an individual never acknowledges or recognizes its influence (Riso and Hudson 1996). The goal of the researcher is to uncover the effects of the Enneagram which already exist but are not currently identified, rather than develop methods for eliciting certain Enneagram types to be made manifest through advertising. If taken, the latter approach reverses the directional influence of the Enneagram.

2. Advertising with Emotional Themes: Fear, Shame, and Anger

In tandem with a deeper understanding of the influence of the Intelligence Centers on advertising research is an application of the emotional themes which accompany them. The influence of emotional themes is not as ubiquitous as that of the Intelligence Centers. While nearly every advertisement will entail some measure of either thinking, feeling, or doing, many advertisements are emotionally neutral, invoking neither fear, shame, nor anger. However, these emotional themes still drive everyone to some extent, even when not externally evoked, so their impact cannot go unexplored.

In terms of methodological implications, the same issues arise as were discussed with the Intelligence Centers. Unless individuals know their Enneagram types and triads and are given the opportunity to disclose this information through some sort of self-report index, additional scales will necessarily be required to ascertain which emotional theme applies to each respondent. In addition, results of advertising research should begin including a layer of emotional themes to properly understand its influence.

Where the impact of the emotional themes will be felt the strongest is when these specific emotions are utilized in an advertisement, and these are indeed among the most commonly explored emotions in advertising (Poels and Dewitte 2019). The effectiveness of a fear appeal cannot be fully understood apart from an acknowledgement of individuals who are driven by the emotional theme of fear. Similarly, an understanding of the effectiveness of shame appeals and anger appeals must be accompanied by individuals’ emotional themes.

The difficulty of applying emotional themes to advertising research lies in many individuals’ inability to identify their own emotional theme. As has been discussed, nearly half of the types are marked by an attempt to deny their emotional theme (Riso and Hudson 1999). Especially if individuals do not possess any prior knowledge of their Enneagram types, if they have spent the majority of their lives denying that an emotion such as fear, shame, or anger exists or affects them, it is highly unlikely they will be able to self-identify their emotional theme on a questionnaire. Before any application to advertising research can occur, researchers must first determine effective ways to uncover emotional themes.

3. Developing a Brand’s Enneagram Type

Thus far, the influence of the Enneagram has been contained to individual advertisements and advertising campaigns, specifically focusing on advertising research. However, in terms of both managerial implications and research opportunities, the concept of brand personalities must be considered. Brands today are developing unique and distinct personalities by using social media to connect with consumers in terms of lifestyles, even using humor, memes, and hashtags to appear relatable (Sharma 2018). Concerning personality, a person’s Enneagram type is set from childhood and influences nearly every aspect of life whether he or she ever acknowledges its presence (Riso and Hudson 1996). In this sense, the Enneagram is an uncontrollable facet of personality that can only be uncovered but never chosen. In terms of advertising, brand managers can do the exact opposite: they can choose their brand’s unique Enneagram type, an effort which may prove more valuable to brand personality research than preexisting models of personality (Xu and Huang 2013).
One advantage of developing a brand’s Enneagram type is the resulting consistency in voice which will occur across all media platforms. This cohesion of communication begins with an application of the Intelligence Centers. A brand personality in the Feeling Center will always pursue engagement and interaction with its customers, seeking the social validation those in the Feeling Center so strongly need. A brand personality in the Instinctive Center will be confident and direct in all of its communication, relying less on social validation than those in the Feeling Center. A brand in the Thinking Center will include facts and information in marketing messages to a much greater extent than those in the other Intelligence Centers. If a brand does indeed possess one Enneagram type, as all humans do, then these communication habits must remain consistent no matter which channels are used.

Taking this insight a step further, advertisers should choose their brand’s specific type. Each type of the Enneagram has a unique and distinct voice and personality (Riso and Hudson 1996; Cron and Stabile 2016). Where Eights are assertive, Nines are accommodating; Sevens are optimistic, while Sixes are cautious. As is the case with many business leaders and entrepreneurs, many brands will default to Type Three, depicting success, accomplishments, and confidence. However, the choice to communicate as a Three should be intentional. Developing a personality aligned with an Enneagram type other than a Three will have a profound impact on setting a brand’s voice apart from the majority of the competition.

One caution with developing and maintaining a brand’s Enneagram personality type pertains to the individuals tasked with managing the brand’s communication. If a team is involved, requiring them to embody an Enneagram type that may be foreign to many of them will be challenging. This obstacle is heightened when only one individual is in charge of a brand’s communication and must forego developing content according to his or her own type. However, ample education on the Enneagram, and especially on the specific type chosen for a brand, will provide a platform for greater consensus as individuals seek to understand the vast interconnectedness of their own Enneagram types and their brand’s (Cron and Stabile 2016). Rather than determining what they think a brand might say at any given time, advertisers need only look to the Enneagram to determine what their brand’s type would say in any given situation.

4. Advertising with the Nine Types of the Enneagram

Finally, advertisers should eventually consider all nine types in both research and practical implementation. This is perhaps the most challenging facet of the Enneagram to effectively apply to advertising, primarily due to the nine-fold communication strategy necessary to tap into the nuanced effects of each type. Research methodology becomes increasingly complex when one needs a sufficient sample of each of the nine types, especially when many individuals are unaware of their own types. Furthermore, whereas it may be feasible for advertisers to appeal to three different Intelligence Centers or emotional themes within one campaign, splitting a campaign into nine different directions, and then attempting to reach individuals with an advertisement targeting their specific type, seems unrealistic at best.

However, complexity in implementation and complicated methodologies have never and should never inhibit the progression of research in any domain. While many individuals are unaware of their Enneagram types, as it grows in popularity, many more are in fact becoming well aware of their own types and triads. Social media is swiftly becoming a platform for individuals to discuss the Enneagram, and algorithms allow for hyper-sensitive targeting which could begin to include one’s Enneagram type. Regardless of the direction or pace at which Enneagram research in advertising may advance, scholars and practitioners should never settle for triads. The vast distinctions and intricacies of the nine Enneagram types provide too rich of a harvest for insight and understanding to ignore.

Conclusion

The Enneagram has had a profound influence on advertising. The unique challenge before scholars and advertisers today is that, as the Enneagram has only recently increased in popularity and acceptance, no one really knows to what extent this influence has been. Of utmost importance is the continued impact the Enneagram will have on advertising moving forward. A vast domain of research is preeminent, including Intelligence Centers (thinking, feeling, and instinct) and emotional themes (fear, shame, and anger). The true challenge and opportunity ahead is not to develop methods for manipulating Enneagram types within experimental designs but rather to begin interpreting advertising effectiveness through the lens of an individual’s personality. By identifying the advertising effects of thinking, feeling, and doing, scholars have come close for decades to discovering the Enneagram. It is now time to uncover the hidden influence the Enneagram has had and will continue to have on advertising.

References


Summary Brief

Pride or Pandering? The Views of the LGTBQ+ Community on a Company’s Use of the Rainbow Flag.

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The rainbow flag on packaging, displays, and logos is ubiquitous on June 1, the beginning of Pride month. Through surveyed participation, self-identified members of the LGTBQ+ community do not have higher views of a company’s cause-related marketing motivations, perception of congruence between the use of the rainbow flag and the company itself, nor a differing level of skepticism of the company’s CSR than heterosexuals when the rainbow flag is in an advertisement. However, members of the LGTBQ+ community actually have significantly lower views of a company’s CSR and commitment of the company to “pride” than heterosexuals. Thus, members of the LGTBQ+ community may not feel that the use of the rainbow flag in promotional activities is authentic virtue signaling and may be considered pandering.

Introduction:

Are companies serving the values of consumers during Pride month by including the rainbow flag in its promotional activities? Or, has the rainbow flag, during the month of June, become pandering to the LGTBQ+ community? For decades, several companies (e.g. Subaru and Absolut) have included gays and lesbians in their advertising and were involved in promotional activities for Pride marches and related festivities. Today, the rainbow flag on packaging, displays, and logos is ubiquitous on June 1, the beginning of Pride month, with some viewing the companies’ decisions as pandering while the company “virtue signals” its support of the LGTBQ+ community.

Virtue signaling is “the public expression of opinions or sentiments intended to demonstrate one’s good character or social conscience or the moral correctness of one’s position on a particular issue” (Oxford Dictionaries 2021). This study looks into members of the LGTBQ+ community’s views on a brand’s inclusion of the rainbow flag. It is assumed that members of the LGTBQ+ community will have favorable perceptions of a company and its corporate social responsibility as the company utilizes the rainbow flag as part of its promotional activities—the virtue signaling of recognition and support of this particular community. Consumers of the LGTBQ+ community that have lower perceptions of the company, and associated brands, may believe that the companies are pandering to the “cause,” and corresponding members, as companies have “jumped on the bandwagon” of including the rainbow flag for Pride month. To pander to someone is “to please other people by doing or saying what you think they want you to do or say” (Cambridge Dictionaries 2021). Consumers want to be confident that companies are being authentic in their virtue signaling.

In general, it would be assumed that members of the LGTBQ+ community are happy to see companies use the rainbow flag in a show of support of the community. If there is pleasure by the community of seeing the support, it would be inferred that the members have a positive attitude towards the companies utilizing the rainbow flag for promotional activities. Key constructs used for the study are the attitudes and perceptions of consumers in relation to corporate social responsibility, the commitment to the company’s cause of the rainbow flag, the congruence between the community and the LGTBQ+ community, skepticism of the utilization of the rainbow flag within a company’s CSR activities, and the cynicism by the consumers of a company involving the rainbow flag in its promotional activities.

Methodology:

Participants were recruited in exchange for a small payment on Prolific. Participants were given one of two Crest toothpaste advertisements—versions created using photo-editing software using a rainbow flag-imposed image or a rainbow flag-imposed image including the PFLAG logo. Toothpaste, as the brand category, was chosen as a consumer-packaged good that would appeal across demographics. The measured constructs included Attitude toward the Company based on Corporate Social Responsibility, Commitment to the Cause by the Company, Congruence between the Brand and the Community, Skepticism of CSR, and Cause-Related Marketing Motive Attributions. The researchers separated self-identified members of the LGTBQ+ community out of the surveyed group to analyze attitudes toward the company’s CSR and CSR-related activities. The number of self-identified members of the LGTBQ+ was 41 out of a total of 399 respondents.
Hypotheses and Results:

Corporate Social Responsibility—CSR is encompassing voluntary activities that go beyond the scope of basic company economic interests and/or governmental measures (Carroll and Beiler, 1975). Companies include stakeholders and the environment to decide what actions to take part in to be altruistic.

Hypothesis 1: Members of the LGBTQ+ community will have a higher view of a brand’s CSR when viewing an advertisement with the rainbow flag than those that identify as heterosexual. This hypothesis is rejected as participants who identified as part of the LGBTQ+ community have a significant ($p < 0.01$) lower view of a brand’s CSR.

Cause Commitment—Commitment is defined as “the degree to which stakeholders perceive the organization as dedicated or steadfast in its CSR initiatives as opposed to adjusting initiatives to meet current trends (Joo, Miller, and Fink 2019, p. 239). The inclusion of the rainbow flag does not necessarily mean that the company is putting members of the LGBTQ+ community first or above others. However, the virtue signaling of the rainbow flag from the company would be perceived as a commitment to equality and equity including the LGBTQ+ community within the primary stakeholder categories of the company.

Hypothesis 2: Members of the LGBTQ+ community will have a higher view of a brand’s commitment to a cause when viewing an advertisement with the rainbow flag than those that identify as heterosexual. The hypothesis is rejected as participants who identified as part of the LGBTQ+ community have a significant ($p < 0.01$) lower view of a brand’s commitment to a cause.

Congruence—Congruence is defined as “the degree to which stakeholders perceive an alignment between an organization’s CSR efforts and the vital core of its own business” (Joo et al. 2019, p. 240).

Hypothesis 3: Members of the LGBTQ+ community will have a higher view of the congruence between a brand and its connection to the LGBTQ+ community when viewing an advertisement with the rainbow flag than those that identify as heterosexual. The comparison was found to not be statistically significant, ($p > 0.10$), thus rejecting the hypothesis.

CSR skepticism—Skepticism is viewed as an attitude of doubt, or more specifically within marketing, as consumers to doubt the truthfulness of promotional messages and, subsequeht, marketers’ motives (Webb and Mohr 1998).

Hypothesis 4: Members of the LGBTQ+ community will have a lower view of CSR skepticism when viewing an advertisement with the rainbow flag than those that identify as heterosexual. Analysis is found to not be statistically significant ($p > 0.10$), thus rejecting the hypothesis.

Cause-Related Marketing Motive Attributions—Cause-Related marketing (CRM) is defined as “a 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 customers engage in revenue-producing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives” (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988, p. 60).

Hypothesis 5: Members of the LGBTQ+ community will have a lower cynical view of cause-related marketing motives when viewing an advertisement with the rainbow flag than those that identify as heterosexual. The comparison was found to not be statistically significant ($p > 0.10$), thus rejecting the hypothesis.

References


SESSION 13C: CONSUMER WELLBEING

CHAIR

Sergio Robles-Avila
Evaluating Consumer Victimization of Package Theft: The Problem of Porch Piracy

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This research attempts to explore crime victimization in the context of package theft. In the past decade, consumers are increasingly purchasing products online rather than the traditional "brick-and-mortar" retailing outlets. This new phenomenon requires consumers to entrust third-party delivery services to deliver purchases to their homes. This change provides an opportunity for thieves to steal purchases from consumers' porches. Using PLS-SEM, we find that past experience with theft and risk perception influences consumers' fear of crime victimization. Consequently, fear of crime victimization influences psychological distancing and consumer purchasing intent.

Introduction

In recent years, consumers have pivoted away from the traditional retailing channels of shopping malls and brick-and-mortar retail outlets to online and digital establishments. Consumers are increasingly buying their products from Amazon, eBay, and from other digital retailers. This change in consumption patterns also illustrates a change in how consumers receive their products. Instead of paying for their products and bringing them home from the checkout counters, consumers digitally point and click and have their merchandise delivered directly to their homes. A major problem with this new retailing paradigm is that consumers are increasingly suffering package theft—or sometimes known as porch piracy. Package theft has been defined as “taking the possession of a package or its contents, outside of a residence or a business, where it has been commercially delivered or has been left for commercial pick-up, with intent to deprive the rightful owner of the contents (Hicks et al. 2021).” Package theft usually takes place at the end of the delivery chain when it is delivered via a third-party delivery service (e.g., UPS or Federal Express) and is left unattended at the victim’s home or business (Hicks et al. 2021). This presents criminals with an opportunity to steal the package without the consumer’s knowledge. Package theft takes place at the end of the delivery chain when consumers’ merchandise is delivered via a third-party delivery service.

Research Purpose

Despite the increasing prevalence of package theft, consumer behavior research has been largely silent on the matter. So far, only two empirical studies have explored package theft (See Mckinon & Tallam 2003; Stickle et al. 2020). This research attempts to fill this theoretical gap by using crime victimization theory to explore what drives consumers’ fear of theft victimization and how it can affect their future consumer behavior. This is important because industry reports suggest that consumers would buy less online if they knew porch pirates are operating in their communities (Hicks et al. 2021).

Theoretical Background

Criminal Victimization Theory posits that consumer lifestyle patterns and everyday routine activities may determine his or her exposure to crime (Tseloni 2000). Further, prior victimization and risk assessments may also influence a consumers’ level of fear of victimization (Cook and Fox 2011). Some emerging research suggests that fear of victimization may also impact consumption and that some consumers may attempt to psychologically distance themselves from their perceived victimization (Lu et al. 2012; Hicks et al. 2021). Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed: H1) The higher the risk perception, the higher the fear of victimization; H2) Past theft experience will increase fear of victimization; H3) The higher the fear of victimization, the higher the psychological distance, H4) the higher the psychological distance, the lower the buying intent, H5) the higher the fear of victimization, the lower the buying intent.

Measurement Model

Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) was used to evaluate the structural model and to test the proposed hypotheses. This research used five measures to capture consumer victimization using a seven-point Likert-type scale. Our sample is 120 recruited through mTurk. The five measures were risk-perception, past-experience, fear, psychological distance, and buying behavior. Only two items were removed for not meeting the minimum loading of 0.7 as recommended by Hair et al. 2017. With the exceptions of Fear (alpha=0.697) and Psychological distance (alpha=0.693), the Cronbach’s Alphas were above the .70 thresholds. The AVEs of the constructs exceeded the threshold of .50 and the composite reliabilities were above the .70 thresholds. Further, the squared AVEs were all larger than the
correlations shared by the paired constructs and all HTMT ratios were below 0.85 giving sufficient evidence of discriminant validity. These thresholds were all recommended by Hair et al. (2017) as seen below in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Scale Measure and Measure Statistics</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Measure/Statistics</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived Risk</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha=0.871</td>
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<td>CR=0.912</td>
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<tr>
<td>AVE=0.721</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Past Experience</strong></td>
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<td>Cronbach’s Alpha=0.794</td>
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<td>AVE=0.709</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Fear of Victimization</strong></td>
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<td>Cronbach’s Alpha=0.693</td>
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<td>CR=0.867</td>
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<tr>
<td>AVE=0.764</td>
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<td><strong>Psychological Distance</strong></td>
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<td>CR=0.860</td>
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<td>AVE=0.620</td>
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<td><strong>Buying Intent</strong></td>
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<td>Cronbach’s Alpha=0.719</td>
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<tr>
<td>CR=0.841</td>
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<tr>
<td>AVE=0.640</td>
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**Structural Model and Hypothesis Testing**

The evaluation of the structural model was followed by the recommendations in Hair et al. (2017). These include the thresholds for the $R^2$, VIF, and statistical significance of the proposed relationships. The Variance Inflation Factor values indicated no evidence of multicollinearity. The $R^2$ were between moderate and weak; they ranged from 0.125 to 0.323. Overall, all five proposed hypotheses were strongly supported by the results. The relationships and their t-values are all illustrated in Figure 1.
Fig 1: Structural Model Results

Conclusion

Using PLS-SEM, this research found that risk perception and past theft experience to influence consumers’ fear of victimization and that this fear does negatively affect consumers’ buying behavior. Although consumers may attempt to establish some psychological distance, fear still negatively impacts consumer buying behavior intent. These findings are important to managers because consumers may modify or avoid buying from online retailers if they have been a victim of porch piracy in the past and if they perceive high risk of being a victim in their communities.

References


Summary Brief
Consequences of Consumer Burnout

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Various forms of advertising strategies have been studied to determine the most effective ways of attracting consumers, but there is no clear consensus about one particular strategy being most successful. Furthermore, the introduction of variations in consumer preferences, based on things such as extenuating circumstances and outside emotions, makes the consensus even less clear. In an attempt to begin bridging this gap in the research, this paper aims to investigate the impact of consumer burnout on consumer responses to specific combinations of advertising. In order to do this, we propose a conceptual framework reflecting how consumer behavior may be influenced by emotional versus informational advertising appeals in combination with socially versus non-socially oriented advertising. When examining the response to these advertisements, this provides insight into how these methods of advertising may impact consumer purchase intent, attitude towards the product, and likelihood to recommend.

Introduction

The outbreak of the novel coronavirus, here on out referred to as COVID-19, has resulted in significant increases in burnout as a phenomenon in individuals. Employees began working longer hours and ultimately working more than was needed. On top of that, the stress of constantly having to adapt between in-person versus online, as well as balancing home life with these changes, has caused people to realize the extent to which the COVID-19 pandemic has had a longer-term impact than anticipated (Kossek & Lee, 2020). This led to a subsequent increase in burnout among individuals in the United States.

Burnout is defined as having three components, categorized as exhaustion, cynicism/depersonalization, and inefficacy (Langelaan et al, 2005). These three characteristics influence one another and are all essential qualifications for understanding burnout as a whole phenomenon. Physical and emotional exhaustion, or the lack of energy, explains the stress aspect of burnout and subsequently plays a role in dictating how employees may react to work overload (Maslach et al, 2001). This is where the depersonalization element comes in, and employees tend to develop a cynical attitude towards their work when they are feeling overwhelmed and discouraged. This commonly increased in essential workers, particularly in the medical field, but also impacted people across the nation in all job positions (Siwicki, 2020). Furthermore, the increase in exhaustion and cynicism also contributed to growing feelings of inefficacy. This decline in feelings of personal and professional accomplishment led to a decrease in effectiveness in the workplace and overall further contributed to feelings of burnout in individuals (Maslach et al, 2001). As burnout became a more prevalent phenomenon, individuals experienced burnout in all facets of life, making them burnt out consumers too (Siwicki, 2020).

Previously conducted research has established many types of advertisements and dichotomies about which types of advertisements are most successful, particularly the debate between informational and emotional appeals advertisements. There has been no clear data to show that one is consistently more effective than the other, and instead relies on other mediating factors to indicate when one may be more preferable. In order to investigate these types of advertisements, it is first necessary to understand the difference between the two. Informational advertisements emphasize rationality to sway consumer decision making, and typically focus on product features, quality, and performance value (Teichert et al, 2018). Alternatively, emotional advertisements emphasize feelings and mood to appeal to consumers, and typically focuses on eliciting either positive or negative emotions through the use of music or drama. Positive emotions typically include happiness, love, humor, and pride, while negative emotions typically include guilt, shame, sadness, and fear. Furthermore, positive emotions tend to alter a consumer’s perception of a brand or product, while negative emotions alternatively persuade consumers to begin, change, or eliminate certain behaviors (Lee & Heere, 2018).

This research aims to investigate the role of burnout and its effects on consumers’ perceptions of informational versus emotional advertisements, as well as the subsequent results on consumer behavior and purchase intent. By looking at informational and socially orientated advertisements, versus a combination of their alternatives, there can subsequently be knowledge found about which types of advertisements are most successful in reaching burnt out consumers during and following the global COVID-19 pandemic. The methodology by which these outcomes will be investigated involves the creation and distribution of a survey to United States citizens experiencing burnout as a result of the pandemic. Survey questions will gauge participants’ consumer behavior measures as a result of their reactions to each form of advertisement. The survey will also feature a two by two design, with combinations of emotional versus informational advertisements...
and socially versus non-socially oriented advertisements. The combination of presented advertisements and subsequent survey questions will provide information regarding participants’ reactions and the impact that burnout may have on their responses based off of the various combinations of advertisements.

This study provides several key contributions that can be used to advance further research in both a theoretical and managerial context. First, this study addresses and advances both the Conservation of Resources (COR) and burnout theories. Originally when examining burnout theory, research focused on only one facet of burnout, but more recent studies have proven that burnout is instead a multi-faceted construct (Anaza et al, 2020). This study therefore focuses on three elements of consumer burnout - exhaustion, depersonalization, and inefficacy - and classifies each of these as mandatory characteristics of the consumer burnout phenomenon as a whole, making this study’s results invaluable to the advancement of burnout theory. Furthermore, previous research has utilized a resource-based approach using COR theory to understand the relationships between burnout and other forms of consumer responses (Han et al, 2016). This study aims to advance the understanding of COR theory by applying this same approach specifically to consumer burnout and its relationship to consumer behavior, which has not previously been investigated.

References


SESSION 13D: MAKE THINGS RIGHT: MARKETING ETHICS & CSR

CHAIR

Mer Huang
Summary Brief

Why does ethical leadership matter? Exploration and future direction for sales research

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Jennifer Henderson (PhD candidate), The University of South Alabama, USA

The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of the relationship between ethical leadership and an employee’s work-related attitudes about, and behaviors for, their company. Using social learning theory, the authors examine how a manager’s ethical leadership influences the relationship between an employee’s job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This research uses structural equation modeling (SEM) to investigate the direct and moderated relationships among these variables using data from 250-employees working in United States-based companies. Results suggest that an employee’s perceptions of ethical leadership moderate the relationship between their job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Implications for managers and directions for future research are provided.

Keywords: ethical leadership, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, sales management
Full Paper
A model to explain the ethical consumer behavior of a cohort of South African managers

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This study analyzes the consumer ethics behavior of South African managers when they make business decisions in their personal capacity. This means the decisions directly impact the manager who bears the consequences of their decisions and not the company they work for. The population consists of graduate managers with at least three years of management experience. The results show that both the ethical attitudes and ethical behavior are well below the midpoint of 3.5; this signifies acceptable ethical attitudes and behaviors. However, closer scrutiny shows that in nine of the 14 scenarios, the managers’ behavior is statistically significantly less ethical than their attitude profile. The three originally identified factors are misleading behavior, dishonesty, and price benefit; they are confirmed in the structural equation model. The study also shows that although the managers know better, they are pushing the boundaries and behave less ethically than their attitudes indicate.

Introduction
A myriad of studies on business and ethics exist; however, most of these studies focus on attitudes or ethical predispositions rather than investigating the ethical behavior or target populations. The well-proven relationship, where attitudes act as a strong driver of behavior (Brügger and Höchli, 2019), logically dictates that improved ethical attitudes should lead to better ethical behavior (Bisschoff, 2021). However, is this also the case with consumer ethics where the manager takes the brunt or reward of his decisions regarding consumer ethics? In business, managers are strongly guided in ethical decision-making by company manifestos, guidelines, and disciplinary actions, but none of these exists in their personal life. Could it be that ethically behaved managers (at work) do not follow suit in their personal lives? Years ago, Nel, Pitt and Watson (1989) had already established that this is a plausible course of behavior among South African managers. Bisschoff and Fullerton (2014:19) more recently confirmed this finding of South African managers. Various studies across 12 countries, spread over six continents, as summarized by Fullerton and Bisschoff (2013), also investigated both consumer and business ethics and concluded that it is common that discrepancies exist between business and consumer ethics. These, and other authors, confirmed this discrepancy in South Africa (Craven and Bisschoff, 2011; Bisschoff, 2018, 2020, 2021; Rapule, 2011). This study, therefore, investigates the ethical behavior of managers regarding consumer ethics (that is, in their personal capacity where they are guided only by their attitudes, and not influenced by any work-related guidelines).

Literature Study
The literature study focuses on three areas of relevance to the analysis. Firstly, because of South Africa’s troubled past, a historic overview of the country provides insight into the ethical behavior of managers. Secondly, as this study deals specifically with behaviors, the rationalization of behavior is highlighted, while thirdly, reference is made to the influence of demographic variables on ethical behavior.

South Africa: A troubled past
The country's history is still relevant to this study because the mistakes of the past continue to play a role in the modern behavior of South Africans; this includes ethical attitudes and ethical behaviors (Bisschoff and Paul, 2021). Before the first free and democratic election in 1994 (SA, History 2018), South Africa was strictly governed by the apartheid regime and the so-called Apartheid Acts such as the Promotion of Black Self-Government Act (1958), the Bantu Investment Corporation Act (1959), the Extension of University Education Act (1959), and the Physical Planning and Utilization of Resources Act (1967). As a political opposition party, the African National Congress (ANC) was banned and its members were prosecuted. Eventually, widespread unrest, militarization by the ANC, a costly South African Border War in the then-mandated state of Namibia (South-West Africa), and world economic sanctions followed (Levy, 1999; SAHistory, 2018). These combined circumstances eventually forced the Nationalist Party to release Nelson Mandela from jail and declare the first free and democratic election in 1994 (Levy 1999:9).

These historical developments shaped the ethical behavior of managers and leaders; many have acted as mentors for managers today, while some are still in senior positions. Many of the jailed ANC leaders today serve as managers in the public sector, others in political decision-making positions, while some pursued a career as successful entrepreneurs. The relationships with former comrades now serving in government, politics, and entrepreneurs sharpen the focus on ethical behavior, especially where state contracts and tenders are awarded. Nationalist businesses managers, on the other
hand, had to operate under stringent economic sanctions. It was impossible to import or export products, machinery, equipment, and spare parts directly from suppliers; military hardware and parts in dire need to keep the border war going were particularly difficult. As a result, managers had to adapt and exercise a laissez-faire stance where everything goes to keep the economy going. This included dubious methods and third-party dealings to obtain whatever was needed. Managers, therefore, learned to operate with the end-goal in mind, and ethics played second fiddle to results. This line of behavior was formalized by the Institute of Security Studies (ISS) (Gould 2014), who reported that before 1994, South African managers had little reason to respect the law and no reason to believe in the rule of law. Unfortunately, a second finding by the ISS indicates that South Africans continue to display disrespectful attitudes towards the law even after 20 years of democracy. Most South Africans daily transgress laws by, for example, not wearing seat belts, administering corporal punishment to children, driving under the influence of alcohol (Gould; Bischoff and Paul, 2021), or strictly adhering to Covid-19 restrictions (Ramaphosa, 2021). Even police officers are frequently breaking traffic rules such as running red lights or ignoring stop signs. They just do not regard these acts to be unlawful conduct. Chutell (2017) links the high crime rate of South Africa to historically transferred values such as a disregard for life, law and property.

The country, however, initiated several interventions to improve ethical knowledge, attitudes and behavior. This includes the King, I, II, III and IV Reports (IoDSA, 2018), a new Companies Act (no. 71 of 2008) (SA, 2008), and promoted acceptable business practices and aims to instill ethical values and behavior “even if no-one is looking”. Unfortunately, unethical and corrupt behaviors have resulted in South Africa dropping several positions on the Corruption Perception Index (CPI) (a scientific index that compares countries annually). The CPI is calculated by scoring a country’s perceived levels of corruption by businesses and analysts globally. The index uses three perceptions, namely the police, business, and unethical political behavior (GCR 2018). South Africa ranked 45th in 2010, where after the country steadily dropped to the 64th position (2016), 71st (2018), now slightly better at 69th position (2020) among the participating 159 countries (GCR, 2018; GCR, 2021).

A final remark about the history and its influence on the behavior of managers is that Their past must influence South African managers. This can be influenced by mentors from the previous era, the history itself, or the current circumstances in the country. It is against this backdrop that this study investigates why ethics are questionable and corruption rife. Be that as it may, this study draws up a balance sheet at a point in time when behavioral ethics are of the utmost importance for the economic recovery from a Ba2 status and to avoid the looming junk status grading at all costs (Old Mutual, 2021)

Neutralization and normalization

Sykes and Matza (1957) identified neutralization back in 1957 as a way the criminals resort to rationalizing their non-normative behavior. Consumers are less critical than criminals (because of lower stakes) about questionable behavior. This is even more so if there are no apparent victims of the questionable behavior (Kvalnes, 2019:119). In this regard, Grove, Vitell and Strutton (1989) used the concept to construct a rationalization framework that is fit for use to evaluate the questionable behavior of consumers. According to this framework, questionable behavior is rationalized by consumers by using one or more of the following techniques:

1) No victim falls prey to questionable behavior: As a result, the questionable behavior is less severe, or even acceptable (Kaptein and Van Helvoort, 2019:1261).

2) Denial of responsibility: In this case, according to Smith et al. (2007:8), there is no responsibility, and as such, questionable behavior did not occur. The reasoning may include denials that the behavior was not part of the perpetrator’s functions or role, the behavior was inevitable because of limited possibilities in the situation (another behavior would probably have been worse), or that the pressure or temptation was just too much to resist behaving questionable (Kaptein and Van Helvoort, 2019:1268). These rationalizations typically point to an external locus of control exercised by the unethical consumer (Ogoun and Odogwu, 2020:6).

3) Denial of damage: In this case, the reasoning is that if there is no damage as a result of the questionable behavior, no harm is done, and as a result, nullifies the behavior (Kvalnes and Nordal, 2018:5).

Normalization is another technique used to rationalize questionable behavior to be acceptable. Semantically, the term expresses the technique well. The behavior was “normal” because “that is how it works”, or “everybody does it like that here”. The seminal work by Vaughn (1980) describes the normalization of business behavior as the behavior that is common in the organization; this behavior is so common that it is regarded as acceptable although it may be in contrast with rules and regulations and even safety standards. Ethical borders are shifted and soon the unethical or questionable behavior becomes accepted as the norm.
A typical example is the tragic demise of the space shuttle Challenger on 28th of January 1986. Despite, or rather because of, NASA’s knowledge of imminent cracks on the O-rings, an alternative remedy was developed. A special putty was developed to seal the leak rather than doing the right thing, namely to replace O-rings. This behavior became a normal cause of action, and therefore the questionable behavior was normalized (Vaughn, 1986 in The Growth Nation, 2021).

Neale and Fullerton (2010) finally mentioned that questionable behavior is judged by consumers to be ethical or not according to the following: 1) Did the consumer actively attempt to gain an advantage from the behavior? 2) Was this behavior legal or not? 3) Did the business where the questionable behavior happened suffer damage or a loss as a result?

Demographic variables in consumer ethics
The role of demographic variables is a popular topic in consumer and consumer ethics research, and many studies have attempted to identify relationships between demographics and unethical behavior (Chatzidakis and Maclaran, 2020). Age is probably the most popular variable, followed closely by gender. In fact, many studies indicate a relationship between more ethical behavior as consumers age (Rawwas and Singhapakdi, 1998; Fullerton et al., 1996; Chatzidakis and Maclaran, 2020). However, an interesting study by Accenture showed that more than 60% of Gen Z and millennial generation consumers (under the age of 30 years old) in the United Kingdom strongly consider the ethical values of dealers before they decide to buy this specific supplier’s products (Schaverien, 2018).

Regarding the variable gender, Fullerton et al. (1996) found that women are more ethically inclined than men, specifically where there are financial losses at stake for the victim of unethical behavior. However, Bossuyt and Van Kenhove (2018:727) disagree completely and show that their research indicated that women act less ethically than their male counterparts. Women specifically tend to keep quiet when they receive too much change or an incorrect invoice. The authors, however, admit that the women’s non-action is not directly linked to the financial benefit but rather to an unwillingness to engage the cashier in conversation. If the error is not in their favor, the researchers found that women are even less responsive; they do not engage because they want to avoid confrontation. Regarding age and gender, it is interesting to note that older women are regarded as better-informed consumers (Niinimaki, 2017). Another interesting finding from a study by Fisher et al. (2002:1024) indicates that a strong significant positive correlation exists between the demographic variable level of education and ethical behavior. More educated consumers regard questionable behavior more critically, and as such, behave more ethically (Bossuyt and Van Kenhove, 2018:729). These researchers found a significant, but weak, correlation between income levels and ethical behavior.

Most studies agree that there is value in analyzing the relationships between the demographic variables and ethical behavior, especially regarding the variables age and gender. However, to be fair, few researchers attempt to identify relationships between income levels, marital status, work environment, neighborhood, and other demographics. However, the contradiction in the results between different studies that try to identify these relationships is a function of the specific population. While one population might have significant relationships on a demographic variable, the next population may not show similar relationships. It consequently makes logical sense to include the identification of demographic relationships in studies where a relatively unique population is targeted. This study falls in that category, and therefore any attempt to identify relationships between ethical behavior and the demographic variables is made.

Problem statement
Questionable behavior or unethical behavior does not need to be unlawful to initiate critique (Neale and Fullerton, 2010:1). The nature of ethical behavior is to behave correctly, not only to stay within the law. As such, legal behavior can also be questionable or unethical (Di Meglio, 2020). The target population in this study is business managers who make several business decisions for their companies. Most of these decisions are more integrated and substantial than their decisions in their personal capacity. Furthermore, these managers have the assistance of the organization’s ethical policy and other guidelines (i.e. the King I, II, III and IV Reports, and the Company Act, among others). The decision also does not have a direct influence on their personal situation; with good business decisions the rewards are repeated by the organization, and vice versa in the case of poor business decisions. However, how do these managers behave when they must make decisions about their situation, i.e. as a consumer? Is their ethical behavior at work transferred to the personal life as a consumer? Furthermore, as an individual, the company and other guiding documentation are not in play. This study aims to investigate these aspects to better understand the ethical behavior of the South African manager as a consumer.

Aims of the study
1. Develop and confirm a model to understand the ethical consumer behavior of managers.
2. Compare the managers’ ethical behavior with their ethical attitudes.
3. Identify relationships between ethical behavior and demographic variables.
Ethical clearance

The Ethics Committee at the North-West University’s Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences approved the study and issued an ethics certificate (no. NWU-00337-18-A4).

Research methodology

Measuring ethical behavior is challenging because no consumer will openly admit that they conduct unethical behavior. If they have behaved unethically, then rationalization (as discussed above) will diminish the judgment of their behavior (Kvalnes, 2019:2). Therefore, it is more effective to request the respondent to report on his or her colleagues and their behavior (Nel, 1987; Bisschoff, 2021; Bisschoff and Fullerton, 2014:19).

Population and sample

The population targeted consists of business managers with at least three years of managerial experience and a university degree. The rationale of the sample is that this study wants experienced business managers on a middle management level. Three years of experience as a manager should place a manager in a middle management position. Furthermore, these managers need to be comfortable to make business decisions, and middle management-level managers do make these types of decisions. Regarding the university degree, the population is required to have some formal training or exposure to ethical behavior. All public universities and many private ones in South Africa require that all first-degree students complete a module dealing with ethical behavior, honesty, proper behavior, plagiarism, and so forth as a compulsory module. By having a degree, these managers would have been exposed to this kind of ethical training and the background to the right behaviour.

A sample was drawn using a stratified and snowball sampling technique. All the business managers on the database of the business school, stratified as per study requirements, were target by email. The email contained a letter of invitation to participate and the link to the online questionnaire. Managers were also requested to invite their counterpart managers at other organizations to participate by sharing the link and invitation letter. This snowball technique continued up to a specific date when the survey was closed. A total of 102 questionnaires were collected.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire, developed initially by Fullerton (1993:317-323), was used. The questionnaire was validated and tested globally in more than 12 countries. The scenarios were also updated as circumstances change to ensure the scenarios were still valid. The questionnaire consists of two sections, namely 1) Section A: Demographics, 2) Section B: A list of 14 questionable scenarios that measure both attitude and behavior respectively on separate six-point balanced scales.

On the six-point balanced scale (midpoint = 3.5), a value of 1 represents a totally unacceptable response, and 6 represents totally acceptable. This means that if respondents responded with any value above the midpoint, they perceive the questionable scenario to be acceptable (which indicates that their attitude or behavior is unacceptable). The inverse is also true. If the respondents reject the scenario with a lower than the midpoint response, it means that they have more acceptable ethical attitudes. The questionnaire stood the test of time and was initially validated by Fullerton himself (1993) for use in America. Thereafter, Fullerton, Bisschoff and Moore (2008:3) used it in South Africa and China, while Fullerton and Neale revalidated it in America and Australia (Neale and Fullerton, 2008:7; Fullerton and Neale, 2010:115). In South Africa, the questionnaire was used by Craven and Bisschoff (2011), Rapule (2011), and Bisschoff and Lotriet (2012:10745-7); the latter formally revalidated the questionnaire again for South African use. The last time the questionnaire was validated for use in South Africa was in 2020 (Bisschoff, 2020)

Statistical analysis and interpretation

Descriptive statistics are used to analyze both the demographic and ethical scenarios. The demographic profile is described by frequency tables, while the ethical profiles employ mean and standard deviations. Significant differences are calculated using inferential statistics; here the two-tailed t-test at 99%, 95%, and 90% confidence intervals (Field, 2013:82) and Cohen’s effect size are used (Cohen, 1992:155; Ellis and Steyn, 2003:52). For this study, large practical differences (d≥0.80) and medium differences (0.50≤d≤0.80) are noteworthy (Ellis and Steyn, 2003:54; Cohen, 1992:155). Significant medium Pearson correlations (p≤0.10; r≥0.30) are worth reporting in this study (Field, 2013:349).

The scenarios are also subjected to exploratory factor analysis. In this case, an adequate sample and sphericity are required, and the Kaiser, Meyer and Olkin test (KMO≥0.70), and Bartlett’s test are used to ensure the data is suitable for analysis. Reliability is determined by Cronbach’s alpha (α≥0.70) (Field, 2013:668; Pallant, 2010).
Results

Demographic profile

The demographic profile suggests that most of the respondents are men (63.4%). Regarding age, the category 26 to 45 years old, expectedly, dominates (70.3%). The majority (47.1%) have more than 10 years of working experience, and only 15.1% of them have more than 10 years of management experience. Half of the respondents (50.0%) have three to 10 years of management experience. The detailed demographic profile is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>63.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age in years</td>
<td>&lt; 23</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23-25</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>28.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 50</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work experience in years</td>
<td>&lt; 3 years</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-5 years</td>
<td>22.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 10 years</td>
<td>47.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management experience</td>
<td>&lt; 3 years</td>
<td>41.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-5 years</td>
<td>25.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 10 years</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pearson correlation coefficients indicate no significant strong positive relationships ($r \geq 0.30; p \leq 0.05, 0.10$) between the demographic variables and the individual ethical scenarios at either the 90% or 95% confidence intervals. Regarding correlations to the three factors (see Figure 1) (misleading behavior, dishonesty and price benefit), the demographic variable the work experience has a positive but weak significant correlation with misleading behavior ($r=0.227; p \leq 0.05$) and dishonesty ($r=0.250; p \leq 0.05$). A similar correlation exists between age and scenario A1: Keep the extra change ($r=0.216; p \leq 0.05$). The variable age has a significant weak positive correlation with scenario A10: False reference pricing ($r=0.267; p \leq 0.10$), but a significant weak negative correlation with A6: Collect information in-store, then buy elsewhere ($r=0.218; p \leq 0.05$). There are also some weak significant correlations between the different scenarios; however, none is worth discussing.

Comparative analysis: Ethical attitudes versus behavior

Table 2 compares the ethical attitudes with the ethical behavior of the cohort of managers. The different scenarios and their respective mean values appear in Table 2. Mean values higher than the midpoint (3.5) are deemed undesirable because they reflect an unethical inclination to behavior. The table also shows the statistically significant (as per 2-tailed t-test) and the practically significant differences (as per the effect size and Cohen’s d-value).
Table 2: Significant statistical and practical differences between attitudes and behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenario</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethical attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1: Keep extra change when cashier faults</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2: Submit false or inflated insurance claim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3: Lie about age to obtain discount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4: Lie about children’s age to obtain discount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A5: Buy incorrectly priced goods at bargain price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A6: Collect product information at dealer, but then buy elsewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A7: Revisit shop repeatedly to cash in on limited offer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A8: Transgress travel ticket rules to own benefit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A9: Try to trade in or swop product although it is against rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A10: Create a fictitious reference price to bargain and get a cheaper price at the shop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A11: Try to cash in expired goods at the supermarket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A12: Exaggerate product quality at neighborhood garage sale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A13: Dishonest in market research survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A14: Buy clothes, wear it and return to shop next day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer ethics mean value</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Practical significance: * d ≥ 0.8 (large effect); ++ 0.5 ≤ d <0.8 (medium effect)
Statistical significance: * p≤0.01; ** p≤0.05; *** p≤0.10

Source: Adapted from Bisschoff (2021)
Most of the scenarios (on attitudes and behavior) have mean values below the midpoint of 3.5. Only scenario A6: *Collect info in-store, but then buy the product elsewhere* is regarded to be acceptable practice. A typical example here would be to use the expertise of the golf pro shop to assist in selecting a new driver, but then to order it from an online supplier. Both the managers’ attitudes (4.75) and behavior (4.62) score high above the midpoint; this indicates that this type of questionable behavior is acceptable. The standard deviations roam around 1.5 or higher, indicating that there are discrepancies within the group on how they feel and act about questionable attitudes and behaviors. The managers seem to be unsure about two scenarios, namely scenarios A5: *Buy incorrectly priced goods at a bargain price* and A7: *Revisit shop repeatedly to cash in on the limited offer*. In both cases, the scenarios have attitude and behavior scores close to the midpoint. Figure 1 graphically summarizes the mean values concerning the midpoint.

![Figure 1: Mean values of attitudes and behavior](source: Adopted from Bisschoff (2021))

The two-tailed t-test (in Table 2) also shows that nine of the 14 scenarios show significant statistical differences. Five do so on the 99% confidence interval (p≤0.01), one at the 95% confidence interval (p≤0.05), and three more at the 90% confidence interval (p≤0.10). On closer inspection, these significant differences all represent scenarios where attitudes score lower than behaviors. The grand means of all 14 ethical scenarios are 2.47 (attitudes) and 2.94 (behavior). Noteworthy is that both values are well below the midpoint of 3.5, falling in the acceptable ethics range. However, it is also noteworthy (refer back to Figure 1) that throughout all the scenarios, behavior is less acceptable than attitudes. This means that although the attitudes on these scenarios signify perceived acceptable behavior, the managers feel that their colleagues behave more unacceptably. Regarding the secondary measure, the effect size showed a medium practical significant difference (d=0.58), namely scenario A1: *Keep extra change when cashier faults*.

### Confirming the factors of ethical behavior

An analysis on the quality of the data (See Table 3) showed that an adequate sample (as per Kaiser, Meyer and Olkin’s test; (KMO=0.790)) without sphericity concerns (χ² (91) = 396.550, p<0.05) exist (as per Bartlett’s test of sphericity) (Laerd Statistics, 2020). The data also shows suitable reliability and internal consistency as determined by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (α=0.853) (Field, 2013).
In his study, Bisschoff (2021) identified three factors of ethical behavior among managers, using exploratory factor analysis. These factors and the explained variance are misleading behavior (37.0%), dishonesty (13.7%), and price benefit (9.8%). This study, therefore, aims to confirm these factors. The confirmatory model of managerial ethics behavior appears in Figure 2.
Testing the model for validity and reliability

A structural model should possess composite reliability (reliability of each of the measured models within the structural model) and construct validity to be fit for use (Kumar, 2019). Construct validity consists of both discriminant and convergent validity. Convergent validity tests whether constructs that are expected to be related, are in fact, related. Discriminant validity (also referred to as divergent validity) tests whether constructs that should have no relationship do have no relationship (Shuttleworth 2019). Table 4 shows the convergent and discriminant validity of the model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator variable</th>
<th>Regression weights</th>
<th>(Regression weights)²</th>
<th>Σ (Regression weights)²</th>
<th>No. of indicators</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>Sqrt AVE</th>
<th>Correlations (r)</th>
<th>Convergent validity</th>
<th>Discriminant validity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mislead 1</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.7744</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mislead 2</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.7744</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mislead 3</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.3364</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mislead 4</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>2.154</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>0.734</td>
<td>0.561</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dishonest 1</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.4225</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dishonest 2</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.2601</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dishonest 3</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.4096</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dishonest 4</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.4761</td>
<td>1.568</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.393</td>
<td>0.626</td>
<td>0.406</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price 1</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.3844</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price 2</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.6400</td>
<td>1.024</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.512</td>
<td>0.716</td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>YES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Convergent validity is reached when the AVE value is equal to or exceeds 0.5. From Table 4, both misleading behavior (AVE=0.539) and price benefit (AVE=0.512) achieve convergent validity. Dishonesty does not achieve convergent validity. Regarding the test for discriminant validity, the square roots of AVE for each category (misleading behavior=0.734; dishonesty=0.626; and price benefit=0.716) all exceed the correlations between the three latent variables (r²=0.561; r²=0.406; and r²=0.456). The results, therefore, show that the model does have discriminant validity. It can therefore be concluded that, overall, strong indications of construct validity exist. The composite reliability of the model, as measured by Cronbach’s coefficient alpha, considers the reliability of each of the decision models. One of the decision models, namely misleading behavior (α=0.827), shows a very good reliability coefficient (α≥0.70), while the other two decision models, dishonesty (α=0.630) and price benefit (α=0.584), have only acceptable reliability coefficients (α≥0.57) (Cortina 1993:100).

Model fit analysis

This study used five goodness-of-model-fit indices. These indices were chosen because they include incremental fit, non-normed fit, and absolute fit indices (Kumar, 2019). They are the degrees of freedom (CMIN/df), the goodness of fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) (Kumar 2019). The indices, CFI, GFI and TLI, measure the incremental fit of the model compared to the fit of the hypothesized model to the fit of the baseline model (a baseline model is a model with the worst fit) (Xia and Yang, 2019). The TLI is a non-normed index (NNFI) (Kumar 2019), while the RMSEA is an absolute fit index that determines whether the deviation of the hypothesized model differs from a perfect model (DiStefano and Morgan, 2014). The decision rules and the results of the model fit analysis are shown in Table 5.
Table 5: Goodness of fit indices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Decision rule (preferred; minimum)</th>
<th>Model score</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CMIN/df</td>
<td>≤ 5</td>
<td>2.121</td>
<td>Good fit</td>
<td>Kumar (2019)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>≥ 0.95; ≥ 0.85</td>
<td>0.903</td>
<td>Fair fit</td>
<td>Bentler (1990)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>≥ 0.90; ≥ 0.80</td>
<td>0.836</td>
<td>Fair fit</td>
<td>Kumar (2019)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLI</td>
<td>≥ 0.95; ≥ 0.85</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>Fair fit</td>
<td>Xia and Yang (2019)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>≤ 0.08; ≤ 0.10</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>Not a good fit</td>
<td>DiStefano and Morgan (2014); Brown and Cudeck (1997)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All but one of the model fit results are satisfactory and fall well above the required values as stipulated by the decision rules in the table. Three of the indices (CFI, GFI and TLI) show fair fit indices with values that exceed only the lower margins of good model fit. In this model, the CFI (0.903) serves as the primary fit index, and it is supported by fair fit indices from the GFI (0.836) and CMIN/df (2.121). The CMIN/df index shows a very good fit (Kumar 2019). These indicators signify a fair model fit. The RMSEA could have had a better model fit, and it indicates that the model deviates 12% from an ideal model, which is more than the acceptable 10% deviation; this indicates a “not-so-good fit” (Xia and Yang, 2019).

On the other hand, however, in its defence, this is an exploratory model. It is optimistic to expect that the model will fit superbly on all the indices (Moolla and Bisschoff 2013:5). The model is exploratory and developmental and not yet a final, fully operationalized model.

Summary

The primary aim of this paper was to develop a model that can explain the ethical behavior of a cohort of middle managers in South Africa. In the process, their demographics and ethical attitudes were analyzed to shed light on the behavior of the managers. This was important because the attitudes would indicate whether the managers are just behaving unethically (or ethically) as part of their normal behavior, or whether it is influenced by their ethical attitudes. The results show that they have good ethical attitudes; however, they tend to stray and do not behave accordingly. In their defense, it is also noteworthy that although the managers behave less ethically than their attitudes would lead us to believe, the behavior is well below the midpoint of 3.5. This means that they still do behave ethically. It is also encouraging that the three factors, misleading behavior, dishonesty and price benefit, could be confirmed in a fair fitting structural model.

References


South Africa (2008), The Companies Act (no. 71 of 2008), Pretoria: State printers.


Summary Brief
What do these Tweets mean for us? How analysis of consumer tweets sheds light on consumers CSR beliefs and firm confidence

Kristina Harrison, University of Southern Mississippi, USA
Lei Huang, The State University of New York at Fredonia, USA

Through an experimental design and using the theoretical lens of categorization and cognitive appraisal theories, this research examines how tweets evaluated based on tone (valence and character) coupled with the CSR type (Corporate Operating Performance vs. Corporate Social Performance) and the related CSR fraud can subsequently impact their CSR beliefs and confidence in the firm. CSR beliefs are the extent that an individual feels a firm should be engaging in CSR activities. It was found that the valence of the tweets moderated by the tweet’s character or tone impacts the consumer’s belief in firms engaging in CSR activities. Tweet valence increases confidence in firms while tweet valence moderated by the fraud type (CSP fraud vs. COP fraud) decreases confidence in firms. Negative utilitarian tweets lead to less confidence in firms while positive utilitarian tweets lead to more confidence in firms, which can be explained through cognitive appraisal theory.

Introduction
In the dawn of the social media, video live streaming, and snapchat story world, consumers are constantly inundated with instantaneous information about both the good and bad things businesses carry out (Castronovo and Huang 2012). News of a corporate scandal or wrongdoing can go viral quickly (Zhang and Huang 2018). In this information-rich world, firms will not be able to hide anything and must be prepared to engage in positive publicity to counteract negative news and consumers often react quickly to firm’s announcements and behaviors via social media platforms such as Twitter. The types of tweets that individuals make about firms vary based on the valence of the tone, such as positive or negative, and the character of the tone, such as more hedonic or emotional statements vs. utilitarian or more rational statements (Huang, Clarke, Heldsinger, and Tian 2019). One only has to look at what’s trending on Twitter on a daily basis to understand what’s going on in the news that day – consumers pick up and react to information, including business news, almost instantaneously whether it be a positive or negative events (Gomez-Carrasco and Michelon 2017). Most firms announce their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities to consumers via shareholder statements, announcements, and/or over social media, which is increasingly the most popular method of communication, by describing their CSR plan and who will benefit.

There are generally thought to be two main types of CSR activities, CSR that assists those closes to the firm such as employees or suppliers and CSR that assists those out in the community and are less likely to impact those within the firm or firm functions – these CSR activities are respectively called Corporate Operating Performance (COP) and Corporate Social Performance (Huang 2015). It is believed that consumers will have different reactions to the firm based on the type of CSR used and their orientation and belief in CSR (Harrison and Huang 2020). Additionally, firms may not be able to uphold their planned-for CSR activities and mismanagement, or fraud can occur (Janney and Gove 2011; Harrison and Huang 2020). When there is fraud related to CSR, consumers are likely to negatively evaluate a firm (Harrison and Huang 2020) and may react by tweeting out their opinions. Through an experimental design and using the theoretical lens of categorization and cognitive appraisal theories, this research examines how tweets evaluated based on tone (valence and character) coupled with the CSR type and the related CSR fraud can subsequently impact their CSR beliefs and confidence in the firm. CSR beliefs are the extent that an individual feels a firm should be engaging in CSR activities. These findings can assist firms in monitoring their presence on social media and altering their messages based on the tone of the tweets (Huang et al., 2019).

Hypotheses and Methods
The following hypotheses were offered:

H1: The relationship between the valence of tweet on CSR and the strength of CSR beliefs is moderated by the character of tweet.
H2: The relationship between the valence of tweet on CSR and the strength of CSR beliefs is moderated by the type of CSR activities.
H3: The relationship between the valence of tweet on CSR and the confidence in a firm is moderated by the character of tweet.
H4: The relationship between the valence of tweet on CSR and the confidence in a firm is moderated by the type of CSR frauds.

One thousand one hundred and fifty-four participants (46.9% males; Mage = 30.7 years, SD=13.01) were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). To trigger a tweet, each participant (PP) was randomly presented by a scenario description about a fictional financial institution, ABC Firm, who promised to engage in different types of CSR activities (COP vs. CSP) (Harrison and Huang 2020). After that, the PP was asked to write a simulated tweet about his opinions on the ABC Firm’s CSR activities followed by rating his overall CSR beliefs. Then, the PP read the second part of the scenario description where ABC Firm turned out failing to keep their words that led to CSR frauds to the public (Harrison and Huang 2020) followed by writing a simulated tweet about his opinions on the ABC Firm’s wrongdoing (or fraud). Finally, the PP was asked to assign a numeric point (between 0 and 100) to indicate his confidence on ABC Firm in the market.

**Findings and Discussion**

All but H2 was supported. This research demonstrated how tweets evaluated based on tone (valence and character) coupled with the CSR type and the related CSR fraud can subsequently impact their CSR beliefs and confidence in the firm. Largely, we found that tweet valence (positive or negative) impacts the beliefs that firms should engage in CSR. If potential consumers are tweeting very positive things about a firm’s CSR activities and then there is a subsequent related fraud that has to do with the CSR, we find that there is a stronger belief by individuals that firms should not be engaging in CSR activities. Additionally, we found that the valence of the tweets moderated by the tweet’s character or tone impacts the consumer’s belief in firms engaging in CSR activities. Utilitarian and negative tweets lead to a higher belief that the firm should not engage in CSR compared to utilitarian and positive valence tweets. This finding both supports the ranking of importance of business responsibility as well as cognitive appraisal theory – individuals rationally evaluated the CSR fraud, appraised the cause as potentially the fault or negligence of the firm, and then determined that the firm is unable to meet basic business responsibility requirements and subsequently had higher beliefs that the firm should not be engaging in CSR activities. Therefore, in some situations, especially after a fraud and related negative buzz, firms may want to back off of broadcasting their CSR activities. Also, tweet valence increases confidence in firms while tweet valence moderated by the fraud type (CSP fraud vs. COP fraud) decreases confidence in firms. Negative utilitarian tweets lead to less confidence in firms while positive utilitarian tweets lead to more confidence in firms, which can be explained through cognitive appraisal theory. Negative tweets with CSP fraud lead to less confidence in firms and positive tweets with CSP fraud leads to more confidence in firms. CSP appears to be a strong moderator possibly because of the “heinous” nature of CSP frauds but if an individual had already made a positive tweet, they may really believe in the firm’s ability to recover. CSP is seen as the more “genuine” and “sincere” of the CSR types and individuals may categorize firms engaging in this as more sincere than other firms (Harrison and Huang 2020).

**References (Selected)**


Reactions to firm choices in the stock option backdating scandal. *Journal of Management Studies, 48*(7), 1562-1585.
Summary Brief

Be True to You: How Firm Corporation Social Responsibility Signals can Backfire

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Through signaling theory and the lens of authenticity/inauthenticity, this research aims to examine what roles authenticity plays in consumers’ perception of a firm’s CSR. It is expected that consumers have high expectations when they perceive genuine intent through the firm’s CSR actions – their perceptions are formed by what the firm signals it will do through certain types of CSR activities and how much it benefits from these activities. When these genuine intentions are proven false, firms will be worse off than if they had not signaled “genuine” intent to begin with through their expected payoffs. Another focus of this research is to provide empirical evidence in that firms are worse off if they are seen as hypocritical or inauthentic via frauds relating to their CSR activities than if they had not signaled genuine intent in the first place.

Introduction and Literature Review

Firms that publicize doing good to benefit society and demonstrating how little they will get out of it are often valued by consumers, at least in the beginning, even when such firms donate to social causes that have little to do with their direct operations (Lasuertmer, 2020). However, when there is fraud, wrongdoing, or a scandal that is made known, consumers often strongly turn their backs on these firms, and sometimes these firms seem to become even more unpopular than firms that had also experienced fraud or scandal but had never signaled "authenticity" to begin with. We thus question whether or not these falling-from-grace firms would have been better off not signaling “goodness” in the first place if they cannot consistently be “good.” This research aims to examine what roles that authenticity plays in consumers’ perception of a firm’s CSR. We expect that consumers have high expectations when they perceive genuine intent through the firm’s CSR actions – their perceptions are formed by what the firm signals it will do through certain types of CSR activities and how much it benefits from these activities. When these genuine intentions are proven false, firms will be worse off than if they had not signaled “genuine” intent to begin with through their expected payoffs. Another focus of this research is to provide empirical evidence in that firms are worse off if they are seen as hypocritical or inauthentic via frauds relating to their CSR activities than if they had not signaled genuine intent in the first place.

Authenticity implies positive utility, emotions, and possibly rewards (Silver, Newman, and Small, 2020). Corporate social responsibility (CSR) involves behaviors where a firm participates for a social good that is more than what is required by law and, furthermore, is more than what appears to be in the best economic benefits for the firm (Heal, 2005). Consequently, the perceptions of CSR authenticity positively increase consumer attitudes and intentions towards a firm (Joo, Miller, and Fink 2019). Inauthenticity, however does not necessarily imply the opposite of authenticity. Inauthenticity denotes a misrepresentation in that actions do not match communicated messages, which is more than not being authentic, it usually involves a wrongdoing of sorts (Silver et al., 2020). When there is perceived inauthenticity, an individual goes through a judgement process where he perceives and condemns inauthenticity resulting in an “inauthenticity aversion” effect (Silver et al., 2020). Responses to inauthenticity occur due to norm-violations leading to moral indignation (Newman & Cain, 2014; Silver & Silverman, 2020; Zhang et al., 2019). Inauthenticity is likely to have a stronger response than authenticity due to its negative nature of violating norms and expectations. Yet, inauthenticity differs from other wrongdoings in that for something to be inauthentic, it must involve a lack of consistency or a type of contradiction (Silver et al., 2020). Consumers experience an aversive effect or moral indignation when they perceive a firm as behaving in an inauthentic way, such as dishonesty, moral violation, or a misrepresentation between a firm’s actions and firm statements (Silver, Newman, and Small, 2020). Judgements of inauthenticity result in “inauthenticity aversion,” which can be categorized into certain types – deception, ulterior motives, and adulterations (Silver et al, 2020).

Hypotheses and Methods

The following hypotheses were offered:

H1: CSR fraud perceptions impact CSR beliefs
H2: CSR type moderates the relationship between CSR Fraud Perceptions and CSR Beliefs
H3: CSR Payoff moderates the moderation effect of CSR Type on CSR Fraud Perceptions and CSR Beliefs
H4: CSR Beliefs mediate the relationship between CSR Fraud Perception on Purchase Intention

Nine hundred and ninety-nine participants (52.4% women; Mage = 30.3 years, S.D.=12.67) were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). All participants (PPs) were first asked about their overall beliefs on CSR. Then each PP was randomly assigned to one of the four manipulated conditions that were presented in a scenario description about a fictional financial institution, ABC Firm, who promised to engaged in different types of CSR activities (COP vs. CSP) with a low vs. high expected payoff but turned out failing to keep their words that led to CSR frauds to the public. Refer to Appendix I. After reading the scenario, the PPs were asked to rate their perceptions of ABC Firm frauds on a five-point scale anchored by 1 = very negative and 5 = very positive. Finally, the PP’s intention on patronizing ABC Firm was measured by a five-point scale: 1 = not very likely and 5 = very likely.

Findings and Discussion

Our results suggest that the expected CSR payoffs moderate the moderation of the indirect effect of CSR fraud perceptions on the purchase intention through ethical CSR beliefs by the type of CSR activities, especially when such CSR activities are dominated by CSP in nature with low expected payoffs. CSR that is seen as greenwashing is viewed by consumers as deceptive manipulation and greatly harms purchase intent – this type of greenwashing occurs when firm CSR behaviors are unsustainable and cannot match communicated promises (Harrison and Huang, 2020). To the best of our knowledge, this current research of the moderated moderation of low versus high expected payoffs by CSP versus COP events has extended congruence theory and categorization theory (Fiske and Pavelchak,1986) to a new domain of CSR literature. Consumers perceive a firm that expects low benefits from its CSR activates more genuine beliefs than those with high expected returns . Also, a firm’s CSP events are categorized to carry sincere motivations compared with its self-serving COP events (Huang, 2015; Harrison and Huang, 2020). Consequently, consumers view a firm that focuses on CSP events with low expected benefits from these activities as more consistent with their ethical CSR beliefs than the other inconsistent situations, such as CSP or COP events with high expected returns. When the negative information from CSR frauds presents, not surprisingly, firms that have CSP activities with low expected payoffs would suffer more from backfiring and subsequent lower purchase intentions than other situations. These findings suggest that when there is the highest congruence between CSR ethical values and a firm’s CSR motivations, consumers may feel deceived, resulting in a backlash effect which will lead to worse outcomes for the firm.

References (Selected)


SESSION 13E: SOCIAL MEDIA & BEYOND PUBLIC SENTIMENT

CHAIR

Alisha Horky
Summary Brief

Watch You’re Grammar: Grammar Error Patterns on Public Social Media Accounts

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In the world of traditional print or television advertising, grammatical errors are nearly unheard of, yet they are abundant in public social media marketing accounts, whether these are large brand accounts or those of public figures or influencers. The current work uses a qualitative textual analysis to uncover the patterns of grammar errors in posts by public accounts popular among 16- to 22-year-olds. Findings indicate that posts can be placed in one of three categories—snubbers, hasties, and try-hards—based on the presumed intent regarding the errors and the nature of the errors.

Background and Introduction

Social media agencies have written about the importance of spelling and grammar on social media (e.g., Maxtech, 2014; Walton, 2021). To some extent, it seems intuitive that grammar, especially in outward-facing communication, matters. How will audiences understand what is being said if it isn’t written correctly? However, there is little evidence of the importance of grammar in the marketing literature (for an exception in specific contexts, see Mozafari, El-Alayli, Kunemund, et al 2019). Despite this intuitive importance of grammatical correctness, errors abound in public social media posts. Are social media marketers deliberately ignoring grammatical correctness and following the lead of the youth in loosening strict grammar rules? Have they taken the approach of descriptivism, as opposed to prescriptivism, by adopting the current casual conventions rather than insisting on “correct” ones (Wolfram and Schilling-Estes, 2016)? The current exploratory work aims to uncover some of the patterns of grammar errors in social media posts as a first step in answering these questions.

Context and Methodology

We used Instagram, a social media platform with over one billion monthly active users (Statista, 2021). Posts on the platform are image- or video-based, but often use captions. Even a posted image may be an infographic that integrates text within it. The study used a qualitative approach involving a textual analysis of posts made by popular public accounts. In keeping with Drenten and colleagues’ methodology in the qualitative analysis of social media content (e.g., Drenten and Gurrieri, 2020), the Instagram profiles in our study were selected by first identifying public accounts that members of a convenience sample of 16- to 22-year-olds followed. Snowball sampling was then employed by clicking on suggested profiles and mutual hashtags. The final sample consisted of 28 English-language accounts that included profiles of actors, singers, athletes, well-known brands, technology experts, and meme creators with 12,600 to 262 million followers.

We began with an immersion and observation period, to gain familiarity with the nature of the profiles and their posting patterns. Next, data were collected by downloading post elements for the last twenty posts from June 10, 2021. Downloaded data for each post included date and time stamp, image(s) and/or video(s) (to capture text that may be included within an image, such as in infographics), and caption. Posts that included no text were eliminated, and the total data set included 556 posts. Data were tabulated for systematic qualitative analysis, and were analyzed using a hermeneutical, iterative approach (Thompson, 1997) that aimed to uncover patterns. As the analysis proceeded, the data indeed revealed patterns regarding how popular public accounts use grammar rules.

Key Findings

The data analysis revealed a pattern of grammar errors that range from a deliberate disregard for simple conventions such as capitalization and punctuation, to an occasional “advanced,” more complex error made in good faith. In the middle lie posts containing mistakes that are likely due to a simple lack of proofreading or perhaps an ignorance of the grammar rule. This framework allowed us to classify posts into three categories: the snubbers, the hasties, and the try-hards (Figure 1).

Snubbers are posts that deliberately disregard grammar rules, presumably as a chosen style or to fit the post’s tone. A caption by a singer-songwriter account with 3.5 million followers reads: “although grief is ever-present and our relationship to it is evolving and expressing itself in different ways every day year round, i know that this anniversary will never be an easy one...” Another post, by an account that posts nature scenes (27,500 followers), reads “When theres a will theres a way!” These posts ignore basic conventions of capitalization and/or punctuation, seemingly as a deliberate style choice. They have chosen to adopt the casual English of texting (Clark and Araki, 2011). A food-related account
with 40 million followers conformed to the rules of grammar and mechanics in most of its posts, but made one post that included “Let @[redacted] learn ya something today.” This text contains deliberate writing errors to match a particular conversational style.

Figure 1: Categories of Social Media Posts by Grammar Error Patterns

We dub posts that contain rampant, basic grammar mistakes, seemingly in error, “hasties.” For example, two posts by a celebrity spouse account with 312,000 followers read “This day means more to me then there are words!” and “You’ve taught me…how important to beach is.” A lifestyle influencer account with 59,800 followers posted captions reading “An super easy modern art DIY!” and “It’s not even that warm and the Danes outside in droves.” Yet another post, by an entrepreneur’s account with 169 million followers, reads “what an incredible experience i have had thus far, learning about this beautiful place, it’s beautiful culture, and the beautiful people!” Posts like these appear to be the result of a lack of proofreading or simply giving low priority to correct grammar and mechanics.

Finally, posts that contain more complex grammar errors, ones that might be caught by the most attentive scrollers or true grammar fanatics, are the “try-hards.” One post by a technology news account with 25,200 followers reads “Google’s Pixel phone are our favorite Android phones here at [redacted], and they have been for a few years.” This is an account whose post captions are longer and almost always error-free. A post by a fitness account with 31,200 users reads “Don’t get disappointed if lbs are not dropping off, trust the process and results WILL come!” A post by a vacation destination account with 12,600 followers reads “It’s all fun and games until the glass brakes.” A meme account with 8.7 million followers posted an image with the text “having a peace of mind is more important than making a point.” These mistakes—noun-verb disagreement, run-on sentence, incorrect word usage, and superfluous article—are more complex than others in the data set and likely made despite the best effort of the posters.

Conclusions and Future Directions

Posts by large, public social media accounts appear to have an array of takes on how much they prioritize grammatical correctness. While none of the 28 accounts we analyzed had posts that were completely free of grammar errors, our analysis indicates that social media marketers heed (or choose not to heed) the rules and conventions of grammar to varying degrees. Future research could examine the differences in grammar usage on social media in different contexts, comparing for example, Instagram stories to feed posts, various other platforms, accounts according to audience, and others. In addition, researchers could investigate the effects of grammar errors on different audience’s attitude toward the post and on their behavior in engaging with and supporting the posting account.

References


Summary Brief
Exploring the Impact of Social Media Emoji Use on Brand Perceptions

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Emoji are continuing to rise in popularity, not only with consumers, but also in brand communications. In one recent study, up to 30% of select brands’ social media communications contain textual paralanguage, including emoji (Luangrath et al. 2020). However, while emoji use is becoming common in email and social media marketing communications, there is still much that marketers can learn regarding their effectiveness and impact, specifically for different types of products. The purpose of this study is to better understand how emoji use in social media marketing communications impacts consumers’ brand perceptions. Findings suggest that the use of emoji in firm social media posts do impact quality, price, and brand personality perceptions, but it is the type and number of emoji used, rather than presence or absence of emoji, that has the larger impact.

Introduction

An emoji is a form of paratextual language (Luangrath et al 2020) and is typically a single picture that is used in place of text (Rodriguex-Hidalgo et al 2019). While traditional emoji are typically a variation of a smiling or frowning face (with their provenance in the emoticon), as of Fall 2020, Unicode lists over 2500 emoji (Unicode 2020). The official emoji list contains such images as balloons, biohazard symbols, and people getting haircuts (Unicode 2020). Though emoji have been widely used for over a decade, and many practitioner websites tout the power of emoji to increase engagement (ex: Hootsuite, Hubspot), to this point there has been little academic focus on the use of emoji in marketing communications, especially in the realm of social media. In fact, there is still limited research regarding the role of emoji in influencing consumers’ attitudes and intentions toward brands and their products.

Background

Recent studies regarding the use of emoji in marketing communications support industry sources regarding the effectiveness of emoji. For example, Derks et al (2008) explores perceptions related to the use of emoticons (precursors of the modern emoji) and finds that the use of these symbols may strengthen the intensity of messages, make communications seem more personable and express humor. Emoji can also foster consumer engagement with brands via social media. Jaakonmaki (2017) finds that emoji, along with other social media content elements, can positively impact social media engagement.

Though emoji may generally increase engagement, some recent studies have explored the varying impact of emoji use across different marketing scenarios. The usefulness of emoji can depend on product involvement and category, audience, and message valence (Luangrath 2020). For example, a recent study regarding consumer attitudes and emoji use finds that the use of emoji can result in positive affect and increased purchase intentions for consumers, but that this result is moderated by product types and is only present in the case of hedonic products (Das, Wiener, & Kareklas 2019). Hill (2016) also notes that emoji effectiveness can differ based on product categories, and suggests that emoji use is most appropriate for communications related to low involvement products.

While previous research suggests that the impact of emoji use may differ based on product type, less is known about the impact of emoji use on brand perceptions. Some recent studies show that emoji use has the potential to impact perceptions of brand personality (Luangrath et al. 2020). For example, Derks et al. (2008) states that emoticons can make communications seem more personable and express humor. However, the overall impact of emoji use on brand personality has not yet been explored. Similarly, the impact of emoji use on other components of brand perception such as quality and value, has yet to be explored in-depth.

Quality is of great importance to most consumers. While there are multiple definitions of quality, this research looks to the eight dimensions of quality as presented by Garvin (1984). These dimensions include: performance, features, reliability, conformance, durability, serviceability, aesthetics and perceived quality. For the purpose of this study we will focus on perceived quality. According to Garvin (1984), “because consumers do not always possess complete information about a product’s attributes, they must frequently rely on indirect measures when comparing brands (Cox 1967). In these circumstances, products will be evaluated less on their objective characteristics than on their images, advertising, or brand...
names.” Perceived quality is subjective in nature and can be influenced by images. This indicates that emoji may impact perceived quality either positively or negatively.

Another important component of branding is the perception of value associated with the brand. While value perceptions are not always related to price, in the social media environment, where consumers will potentially see posts and ads for products and services without knowing the price of the items, consumer price perceptions may impact their overall quality perceptions of the brand. The price-quality heuristic is characterized by consumer perception that higher priced products are of higher quality (Gneezy, Gneezy and Lauga 2014). If consumers believe that brands that use emoji are of lower quality, this may also influence their perceptions of the brands’ pricing strategies. Consumers may be unwilling to pay premium prices for a brand that uses emoji based on their perception of the brand being of low quality.

**Research Methods**

Due to the limited nature of existing emoji research in the area of branding, a qualitative study was conducted to understand how the use of emoji in brand communications impact consumers’ brand perceptions as a precursor for future studies. A survey comprised of six open-ended and demographic questions was distributed to marketing and non-marketing majors at a midsize, regional university located in the Southeastern United States. These students also had the option to recruit one friend or family member to complete the survey. This resulted in 82 usable responses.

The survey included four screenshots of real social media posts made by existing brands. All branding information was removed from the posts. Respondents were asked to think of these examples and other social media posts using emoji that they could recall in answering the open-ended questions regarding their perception of brand personality, quality, and price in the presence of emoji use.

**Key Findings**

This research provides insight into the ways in which emoji use can impact brand perceptions. Many respondents noted the impact of emoji on their brand perceptions, although the impact was inconsistent across the sample. Some respondents noted that the use of emoji made a brand seem more relatable and fun, while others noted that emoji use made a brand seem cheaper and less professional. Many respondents also noted (unprompted) that it is the number and type of emoji used that impacts their brand perceptions, not simply the presence or absence of emoji. These findings provide a framework for future research on the impact of emoji use in social media.

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Examining Messaging Appeals in Anti-Domestic Violence Messages: A Comparison between Public Service Announcements and Social Media Influencers Posts

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With the Coronavirus Pandemic striking in many countries such as the United States in early 2020, Domestic Violence cases have skyrocketed because of Stay-at-Home restrictions, allowing abusive relationships to occur behind closed doors. Public Service Announcements have been prominent in various social justice issues, including Domestic Violence (DV) within society. However, advocating through traditional sources of media such as magazines and television ads varies as it focuses more on the organizer’s representation and intent. In this paper, we aim to explore and compare the effectiveness of selected anti-DV Public Service Announcements and advocacy social media posts by examining the message post and viewer commentary from both victims and bystanders.

Introduction

Domestic violence PSA campaigns promoted on traditional media such as television and magazines utilized common tactics like fear appeal to gain the public’s attention on this issue. While at the same time, organizations provided helpful information regarding local resources and warning signs to look out for (Keller, Wilkenson, & Otjen, 2010). Studies have demonstrated the usage of characters and dramatic structures in narratives to draw viewers’ attention, and engage them through stories and/or scenarios, and evoke empathetic feelings towards the victim (Deighton et al., 1989; Slater and Rouner, 2002; Kim and Muralidran, 2020). However, when reporting DV cases, many cultural taboos come into play, causing an increased rate of guilt and shame to the victim. In many Asian countries, communities see domestic violence as a private manner and should be handled privately with no public authority (Pan et al., 2006). This results in hesitation in reporting in avoidance of retaliation or disownment for the victim. With social media being the catalyst for activists and businesses, Social Media Influencers (SMI’s) have effectively played an educational role that allows users to discuss and collaborate based on their values (McConnell & Huba, 2007; Li, 2015). Influencers who raise awareness about social issues like bullying and sexual violence are effective as they successfully create a domino effect for their viewers by visualizing their thoughts and feelings, resulting in empathy and a deeper connection (Escalas and Stern, 2003; Kim and Muralidran, 2020).

Background

Psychological Empowerment

The research examines messaging appeals such as prevention and promotion messaging that influence psychological empowerment in bystanders/victims. Zimmerman (1995) looks at Interpersonal empowerment as it involves individuals finding their motivation to take control of the situation. Interactional empowerment investigates the available options, such as online resources, to better achieve their goals of societal norms and values. Both components are imperative as they are crucial for engagement in psychological empowerment in bystanders and victims.

Regulatory Focus Theory and Promotion v. Prevention Messaging

Through the adoption of the Regulatory Focus Theory, Higgins (1998) suggested that promotion messaging looks in the hopes and aspirations of the victim, and prevention messaging examines the calls to action and further voicing their concerns. Examples of promotion messaging include social media influencers talking about their traumatic experiences on their social media platforms and advocacy organizations utilizing fear tactics to gain the public’s attention. While examples of prevention messaging include advocacy organizations listing online resources for victims and bystanders.

Methodologies for Content Analysis

An internet search of the most recent anti-DV advertisements posts was conducted starting from the 2010s. About 15 international PSA campaigns from six different countries were included in the content analysis. Various social media influencer posts were collected through a search using the following popular hashtags: #DomesticViolence, #DomesticViolenceAwareness, #DomesticAbuse on Instagram, resulting in a total of 7 social media influencers from Instagram. Two independent trained coders coded these ads and posts based on the promotion/preventative orientation of the message, type of emotional appeals, and image appeal. We also analyzed the online reviews of these ad campaigns as a source of viewer response.
Key Findings

When comparing PSA ads and SMI posts, we find that both traditional and modern media use a combination of promotion/prevention messaging strategies. Taking a closer look at user responses to the PSA campaign ads, people had feelings of shock and anger towards the social issue. Ad analysis revealed a generally negative impression in image portrayal. Four PSA ads represented hardship that the victim faced by the perpetrator through appalling and agonizing scenes. Negative emotions that were expressed in PSA campaigns included fear, unsettling, shock, etc. While ten ads utilized promotional messaging and five ads utilized preventative messaging, both coders also agreed that anti-DV organizations focus more on promotional messaging towards the bystander/victim. Upon analyzing the online reviews, viewers from different countries where the campaign was released often denied the severity of DV, spinning the story to where they blame the female victim.

SMI’s who shared their experiences and stories of DV to viewers were given positive feedback and encouragement for exhibiting empowered actions-- leaving the abusive relationship. In the seven SMI posts, five out of seven posts used promotional messaging to convey emotions in their stories. While two out of seven posts also included preventative measures towards their audience, suggesting that social media influencers generally utilize promotional messaging to gain the attention of both the bystander/victim. From analyzing the viewer comments, the audience showed empathy for the SMI in response to their posts. And often, in turn, shared their own experiences, creating a domino effect that resulted in the creation of a positive online support group.

References


SESSION 13F SPECIAL SESSION: FRONTLINE SERVICE ROBOTS – TO WOW! & BEYOND

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SESSION 13G: MARKETING EDUCATION IS EVOLVING

CHAIR

Nusser Raajpoot
Reducing the Negative Effects of Uncontrollable Factors When Designing New Courses

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This paper seeks to introduce a novel course design method in academic literature. It uses advanced experimental designs to capture student preferences. It also makes a distinction between controllable and uncontrollable design factors and seeks to minimize the negative impact of uncontrollable design factors, ensuring a successful course introduction. We propose and test a design method that combines Taguchi experimental designs with discrete choice estimation where choice probabilities are used as input data for Taguchi's inner and outer arrays. Design efficiency is measured by calculating signal to noise (S/N) ratio, which accounts for both mean and variance of choice probabilities. Using the S/N ratio, designers were able to choose the most robust design. Test results show grading and attendance policies and experiential learning as the three most factors in students' selection of an undergraduate elective course at a business school.

Introduction

A steady decline in state and federal funding to the universities (Pew, 2019) has resulted in a strong push for administrators' to increase enrollment and improve student retention as a countermeasure for the lost funding. In reality, the problem of low enrollment is only going to worsen in the near future. A decline of up to 15% is estimated between the years 2025-2029, primarily due to the demographic shift towards decreased birth rates that was triggered by the financial crisis of 2008. (Grawe, 2018, Conley, 2019). Designing and offering new courses deemed attractive by students has been seen as one of the many possible strategies to improve enrollment and retention (Graham et al., 2020).

Consistently delivering a high-quality course, semester after semester, is a challenge. Since an academic course can be considered a service encounter involving humans - both faculty and students - performance variation is deemed normal and unavoidable. Course quality varies from instructor to instructor and from semester to semester. In most cases, this variation is caused by factors that are beyond the instructor's control. Students' varied academic ability or the energy/enthusiasm in evening classes for working students are examples of such uncontrollable factors. Even when faculty consistently delivers high-quality content and assessment, the end quality may be negatively impacted by factors outside their control. As a consequence of this variation, many courses suffer from low enrollment and are dropped, resulting in wasted effort and discouragement for faculty innovation.

The issue of performance variation is not new and has been addressed extensively in academic literature where the focus is on improving controllable factors. Weakening the negative impact of uncontrollable factors is not emphasized much. The potential of uncontrollable factors to cause serious performance problems is often underestimated and as a result we notice no strategy to counter the negative effect of these factors. Recently, however, we have seen the introduction of robust design in the manufacturing sector that expressly focuses on weakening the negative impact of uncontrollable factors first before strengthening controllable factors. It is not to suggest that controllable factors are less important, but focusing on controllable factors alone can make service performance vulnerable to high variation.

One of the design methods that explicitly considers the active management of failure factors ahead of success factors is the Taguchi Design method, named after a famous Japanese engineer. This method helped produce high-quality products despite environmental fluctuations. It can easily be adapted to design services such as an academic course. The primary concept underlying Taguchi methods is that while variation can't be eliminated, it can indeed be managed. Since the complete elimination of variability due to noise factors is often impossible, Taguchi methods seek to at least minimize such adverse effects. Reducing the impact of uncontrollable factors by selecting optimum controllable factors forces desirable quality characteristics to stay close to the target value.

This paper attempts to introduce Taguchi experimental designs in (academic) course design literature to reduce variation in course quality by determining the optimal combination of factors that minimize the effects of uncontrollable design factors.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. First, we introduce the concepts of Taguchi design and discrete choice analysis. Second, present a literature review of the course design selected for the study. Later, we detail the methodology, results, and discussions.
Taguchi Robust Designs and Discrete Choice Analysis

Taguchi methods, also known as robust design methods, have been used to develop products that can achieve high-quality standards despite environmental fluctuations. These methods are usually considered a superior alternative to relatively expensive process control methods. Taguchi (1984, 1985, 1986, 1993) recommends the signal-noise ratio (S/N ratio) where the term signal represents the controllable factors and noise represents uncontrollable factors. The S/N ratio's objective is to determine an optimum set of operating combinations of controllable and uncontrollable factors.

Orthogonal arrays (OA), linear graphs, and signal to noise ratio are three basic concepts Taguchi designs. Orthogonal arrays are a unique set of Latin square designs in which rows represent experimental runs and columns represent factors or variables. Factors in these designs are considered orthogonal to each other, where orthogonality refers to the property that these designs are balanced and not mixed. Linear graphs help the experimenter easily assign factors and their interactions to appropriate columns in an OA without confounding interactions with main effects. The third significant contribution of Taguchi methods is using a single measure of performance, i.e., signal to noise (S/N) ratio, where again, the term signal represents the controllable component. In contrast, the term noise represents the uncontrollable component.

The idea of Discrete Choice Analysis (DCA), introduced initially by McFadden (1974) in economics, is now well established in the areas of marketing (Louviere et al., 2000), transport economics (Hensher, 1994), and sociology (Finch and Mason, 1990). It refers to a variety of experimental design techniques, data collection, and statistical procedures that analyze the consumer choice process. In choice experiments, customers, in our case the students, choose among the available courses by obtaining information about salient course attributes. They make value judgments through a trade-off process that involves assigning relative weights to course attributes, forming an overall impression, and developing a choice set by eliminating less attractive alternatives. To run a DCA experiment, we need to compile a list of explanatory variables, design factors in our case, that could explain the students' choices.

This list needs to be as exhaustive as possible. However, the final number of explanatory variables included in the DCA experiment should balance completeness with complexity. DCA is well suited to provide this required balance. It can accommodate many explanatory variables without becoming too complicated for understanding the trade-off process among various alternatives in a choice set. Many models are available for analyses within DCA. Of these, the Multinomial Logit Model (MNL) is the most popular among practitioners and academicians (Manski and Mcfaden, 1981; Louviere and Woodworth, 1983).

Course Design Factors

Extensive research in student evaluation of teacher (SEP) or student ratings of teaching (SRT) provided the best leads for identifying course design factors. The variables deemed important in SRTs and SEPs essentially represent student expectations from their courses and can therefore serve as ideal course design factors. A majority of studies in this area have shown a positive relationship between course selection, SRTs, and student satisfaction. In one of the more critical studies in this area, Babad, Darley, and Kaplowitz, 1999, content analyzed the Princeton Course Guide that included information on instructor and course characteristics and subject matter descriptors. Authors found that different course guide variables accurately predicted course selections. In a subsequent study, Babad, 200, expanded the list of course selection factors to include student consideration such as contribution to the future occupation, day, hour, and the number of credits.

Other studies documented significant relationships between instructors' characteristics (expertise, style, humor, enthusiasm), class policies (workload, grading, class size, scheduling), and SETs. Using hierarchical regression, Radmacher & Martin, 2001, found teachers' extraversion to be a strong predictor of student evaluations. Similarly, Marks, 2000, using structural equation modeling, found that instructor liking and concern loaded significantly on student evaluations. Related factors that only weakly to moderately related to SETs were instructors’ gender and expertise.

In terms of class policies, most researchers report a weak relationship between workload difficulty and SETs, while some have reported a strong relationship between the two (Bacon & Novotny, 2002). Other class policies such as grade leniency is strongly related to SET (Bacon & Novotny, 2002). Tarasewich and Nair 2000, included the laboratory work, homework frequency, use of paper or project, presence or absence of case studies, participation grade, class topics, and computer software as factors important in designing a well-rounded course.

In addition to incorporating student and instructor preferences, research has also focused on incorporating employer preferences. Tracy et al., 2014, used a survey instrument to collect data on both business students' and employers' preferences. It alerted them to the faculty’s tendency to predominantly design courses that reflect student preference and
ignore student employability. Their research included 14 variables in the survey relating to content, delivery mode, grading policies, and assessment types. They found significant differences between the emphasis placed on these factors by students and employers. It was important to note that there were some consensus factors, but faculty should consider both stakeholders when designing the course.

In summary, many courses related variables are linked to SETs. In selecting design factors for our study, we ran a small focus group of students and instructors. This group picked pedagogy (case method vs. simulation), scheduling (once or twice a week), grading (absolute vs. curved), assessment (single vs. multi-instrument), workload difficulty (high vs. low), instructor's availability outside class (yes, no), class attendance (mandatory vs. voluntary), student heterogeneity (high vs. low) as important in designing a well-rounded course. Below we include a brief discussion on each of these factors.

**Case Method vs. Simulation**

Teaching learning concepts with the case study method (made famous by Harvard Business School) remains one of the most widely used pedagogical tools (Lapoule and Lynch, 2018). It requires active student participation in discussing a specific marketing situation and providing recommendations (Mesny 2013). A case study is meant to be engaging and allows students to investigate organizations in detail and search for patterns that may result in the development of both theory and practice (Gawel, 2012). It helps students develop a reflective and critical approach to understanding complex marketing concepts and techniques (Gill, 2011).

Instructors have increasingly deployed marketing simulations in their classrooms as an experiential learning tool. They allow students to make business decisions that mimic the real organizational environment (Tiwari et al., 2014). Simulations deliver the most comprehensive experiential learning by forcing students to think critically, take risks, and make decisions focusing on problem solutions (Salas et al., 2009).

In terms of experiential learning, marketing instructors have used both the case study method and simulation with good results. Extant research has not answered questions about these tools' relative effectiveness (Lapoule and Lynch, 2018). Both of these tools are effective in teaching marketing, particularly in teaching multidimensional and inter-temporal concepts.

The effect of scheduling on student's performance has received limited attention in educational research. Consideration to attention span and spacing effects are critical when deciding class scheduling (once, twice, or thrice a week). During uninterrupted long lectures, for example once a week meeting for two hours and forty five minutes, students have been shown to experience a series of attention lapses with increasing frequency. (Johnstone and Percival 1976, Goss Lucas & Bernstein, 2005). Researchers have, therefore, recommended embedding class activities after very 15-20 minutes (Chaney, 2005; Olmsted, 1999).

Based on the encoding variability theory, the spacing effect implies that learning is more effective when studying in sessions are separated from each other rather than being crammed together (Dempster, 1988, Ewer et al, 2002). This theory also posits that information is stored in small chunks in different parts of the brain when learning in paced sessions, making memory retrieval much faster and more comfortable (Bray et al., 1976; Glenberg,1979).

Research in this area is not conclusive. Some studies show a significant difference in learning between once, twice, and thrice-weekly schedules. Three days a weekly schedule produces better learning outcomes (Trout, 2018; Carrington, 2010; Gallo and Odu, 2009). However, different session durations of 55 and 75 minutes each didn't produce significantly different learning outcomes (Schultz and Sharp, 2008).

**Absolute Vs. Curved Grading**

There are two grading systems currently in use; absolute and relative. Absolute grading has three unique characteristics. One, students are graded solely on individual performances, independent of their peers' performance. Two, every student can either excel or perform poorly. Three, grade distribution can take on any shape. Opposed to absolute grading, relative grading, aka "curved grading," is based on the student performance relative to their peers. Relative grading is more prevalent in the United States than in continental Europe (Karran, 2004).

One can find more than one rationale for implementing relative grading. It has been used to make a correction for lower than expected class grades, to provide incentives for encouraging competition among students, and as a mechanism to control grade inflation. It has mostly been used to adjust the low class scores in an overly difficult class where students may not fully understand the content and hence may perform poorly on examination. In this case curved grading is more beneficial for students at the bottom of the class. The rationale of increased competition among students.
is based on the hypothesis that relative grading creates an environment similar to a sports tournament (Lazear & Rosen, 1981) where students fight herd to get few spots reserved for the best students. Most law schools in the USA use relative grading. The response to incentives under relative grading, however, has not been universal. Research on the impact of curved grading on student performance is equivocal and varies in terms of ability and gender (Czibor et al., 2016). The effort level from high ability students increases while it decreased for the student of low ability (Brownback, 2018). It has also been reported the relative grading does not work very well with small sample sizes (Andreoni and Brownback, 2017). Protection against grade inflation has been cited as another advantage of relative grading as it limits the number of "A" grades in the class.

There are many different ways to curve the grade; in some cases, grades may go up while in some cases grades may actually come down. The general perception of curved grading among students, however, is that curve make their scores go up and it serves as a safeguard against failing a difficult class.

**Assessment Methods-Single vs. Multi-instrument**

Instructors in marketing classes have adopted multiple assessment tools, including MCQs, essays, individual/group projects, etc. These tools measure different aspects of a student's learning. Answering MCQ's does not require deep learning as opposed to essay questions that delve into deeper understanding. Therefore, MCQ's are considered reasonable for measuring subject knowledge, whereas essay type better measures the critical thinking aspect of student learning (Scouller, 1998). The majority of students prefer MCQ over short answer questions (Holzinger et al., 2020). Projects measure the application part of learning objectives.

Measurement theory, in general, encourages a multidimensional assessment strategy. The rationale behind multiple measurements is the assumption that various measures would improve deconstruct validity. It means that the assessment scores based on multi-measures provide a more comprehensive view of students' progress. To decide whether a student is doing a good job, we need to consider several different achievement measures.

**Workload Difficulty**

There is no consensus in the literature on the relationship between workload difficulty and student satisfaction and the resulting faculty evaluation. Results range from negative relationship between two (Marsh, 1987, Greenwald 1997; Greenwald & Gillmore, 1997, Babad 2003, Pritchard, & Potter 2011) to no relationship (Thornton et al., 2010) to some positive relationship (Marsh & Roche, 2000). Results from March & Roche should be interpreted carefully as the student's favorable evaluation of teaching increases as workload increases to a certain optimal level while declining with excessive workload.

Now, suppose the workload difficulty influences the students' post-course evaluations, both positive and negative, to such an extent. In that case, we can deduce that workload difficulty will also figure prominently among the factors influential in original course selection (Babad 2003). It is also well known that students expressly seek information about course difficulty before making selecting a course.

**Instructor's Availability Outside Class**

While student-faculty interaction outside class is considered one of the most desired elements of a student's college experience (Cox and Orehovec, 2007), it is the least practiced among the five significant benchmarks of effective educational practice as reported by the national survey of student engagement. The student-faculty interaction outside the classroom is also strongly related to student satisfaction (Astin, 1977). The desired level of these Interactions, however, remains elusive (Cox and Orehovec 2007).

Students appreciate access to instructors and mention it as a contributor to a positive learning environment. The mere perception of instructor availability outside the classroom has also been shown to have a statistically significant positive relationship with student evaluation of class instructions (Reynolds & Ludlow 2020). This means that instructors can improve students' satisfaction with increased availability to students outside of class. Although five major types of interactions have been delineated, including disengagement, incidental, functional, personal, and mentoring, our focus in this study is limited to the functional Interaction, which is directly or indirectly related to academic activities and concerns.

**Mandatory Class Attendance**

Research on the relationship between mandatory class attendance and various performance measures and evaluation has produced contradictory results (Burns and Ludlow, 2006). Lack of relationship between attendance and students performance and acquisition of knowledge has been reported (Hyde & Flournoy, 1986; Berenson et al.,1992). On the other hand, Davidovitch & Soen, 2006 found a positive relationship between class attendance and students' evaluation of instructors while Marburger, 2006, found that mandatory attendance policy significantly improves exam performance.
Street, 1975 and Kooker, 1976 had also reported negative relationship absenteeism and student performance. Despite the lack of clarity about the relationship between attendance and several performance indicators, instructors have to make the decision whether to require mandatory attendance or not and therefore remains a crucial design factor.

**Student Heterogeneity**

College instructors frequently deal with the high variability of academic preparation on the students' part. This heterogeneity in the academic preparation impacts the student learning and presents a challenge for the instructor in setting the rigor level. Research has shown that students with extensive K-12 academic preparation are likely to achieve high academic success (Kurlaender and Howell, 2012), while learning is hindered for those with faulty foundations or inaccurate knowledge (Ambrose, et al. 2010). This disparity can further lead to friction between students in the course required group work.

**Methodology**

In this paper, we report the combined use of two different but related techniques of DCA and Taguchi experimental designs for collecting and analyzing the data. An L8 Taguchi design was used to develop the experimental stimulus for students' to make choices among eight different versions of a hypothetical course. A predictive MNL model was estimated based on choice responses. We then used the choice probabilities obtained from DCA analysis as an input to calculate Taguchi’s S/N ratio.

The first step in this experiment was to design a choice stimulus. As mentioned earlier, we included seven controllable and two uncontrollable factors in our experiment. Table 1(a) lists the factors and their levels. In constructing the choice stimulus, we used the Taguchi design that requires the combined use of inner and outer arrays. The controllable factors were arranged in the inner array. We used an L8 arrangement where an inner array is in $2^7$ format, and the outer array is in $2^2$ arrangement.

Table 1(b) shows the design matrix and description of factors and their levels. The factor levels were evenly spaced and described in detail to the respondents. Each student was presented with four sets of eight alternative choices. These choices were designed so that each row of controllable factors, taken at a time, was combined with every single row of uncontrollable factors. The idea was to test each combination of noise factors with all combinations of signal factors and determine a combination of controllable and uncontrollable factors that give maximum S/N ratio.

**Table 1(a)**

| Factor Level Description
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Controllable Factors</strong></td>
<td><strong>Test Factors</strong></td>
<td><strong>Level (1)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Experiential learning</td>
<td>Case Method</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Assessment methods</td>
<td>Single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Grading</td>
<td>Absolute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Workload difficulty</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Meeting frequency</td>
<td>twice a week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Class attendance</td>
<td>Mandatory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Instructor's availability</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Noise Factors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>H</th>
<th>Student heterogeneity</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Class scheduling</td>
<td>Any Time</td>
<td>9.00 a.m.- 4.00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1 (b)**

| Design Matrix |
|---|---|---|---|
| **L_8(2^7)** Inner Array | **Heterogeneity** | High | Low | High | Low |
| **Schedule** | Any time | Any time | 9am-4pm | 9am-4pm |
| **2^2 Outer Array** | | |

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No. | Experiential Learning | Workload | Grading | Assessment | Frequency | Attendance | Availability |
--- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
1 | Case | Low | Absolute | Single | Once | Mandatory | No |
2 | Case | Low | Absolute | Multiple | More than Once | Optional | Yes |
3 | Case | High | Curved | Single | Once | Mandatory | Yes |
4 | Case | High | Curved | Multiple | More than Once | Optional | No |
5 | Simulation | Low | Curved | Single | Once | Mandatory | Yes |
6 | Simulation | Low | Curved | Multiple | More than Once | Optional | No |
7 | Simulation | High | Absolute | Single | Once | Mandatory | No |
8 | Simulation | High | Absolute | Multiple | More than Once | Optional | Yes |

Data were collected from 218 students who responded to a course choice survey. Multistage Stratified Random Sampling was used for selecting respondents from different business majors in the school of business. Each business major was taken to represent a stratum. Student listings for five business majors were used as the basis for the random selection of students.

For calculating choice probabilities, we followed Kuhfeld's (1996) recommendations. In the conditional logit model, the probability that an individual \( j \) chooses the alternative \( i \) from all possible alternatives, \( k \), is given by:

\[
P(y_{ij}) = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \exp[\beta + \gamma(z_{ij})]} \text{, } i=1,2,\ldots,g \text{ and } j=1,2,\ldots,n
\]

Where \( z_{ij} = (z_{ij1}, z_{ij2}, \ldots, z_{ijt}) \) represents \( t \) explanatory variables, and beta and gamma are unknown constants. The following choice model was used for calculating choice probabilities for different combinations of service design:

\[
P_i = \frac{e^{v_i}}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} e^{v_i}},
\]

where \( P_i = \text{Probability of choosing alternative } I, v_i = \text{Utility of alternative } I \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{k} e^{v_i} = \text{Combined utility of all alternatives in the experiment.}

It is important to note that in this discrete choice experiment, the dichotomous response variable was expressed on a nominal scale and was subsequently converted into a choice probability so that the parameters could be interpreted. The choice probabilities were used in Taguchi design when the larger, the better (maximizing choice probabilities) were considered appropriate. The following formula was used for calculating the "larger the better" S/N ratio:

\[
S/N = -10 \log \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( \frac{1}{y_i^2} \right) \right]
\]

where \( y_i \) is the response variable, which in our case is the choice probability, and \( n \) is the number of choice sets.

Results

Table 2(a) presents the goodness-of-fit statistics (GOF) and parameter estimates from conditional logit regression. The GOF results include the likelihood ratios and McFadden's \( \sigma^2 \) (pseudo R\(^2\)) for aggregate and individual level choice. The likelihood ratio is a test similar to the F-test for linear regression. It tests the null hypothesis of no relation
between choice and design factors. Its value represents the difference between a model with no explanatory variables and a model with all explanatory variables. Likelihood ratio, $\chi^2$ distributed with seven degrees of freedom, for the four sets were estimated at 44.19, 48.20, 71.32, and 88.19 ($p<.05$), respectively. These values suggested that design factors in the model were significant predictors of customer choice at the .05 level. McFadden's $\sigma^2$ is a transformation of the likelihood ratio, which mimics an $R^2$. Typically, $\sigma^2$ values tend to be much lower than $R^2$. A low $\sigma^2$ value, however, does not necessarily imply a poor fit (Hensher and Johnson, 1981). The aggregate and individual level $\sigma^2$ values for the four models were 0.81, 0.75, 0.79, 0.76, and 0.26, 0.23, 0.28, 0.26, respectively. This indicated that multinomial models correctly predicted between 75 and 81 percent of aggregate and 23 to 28 percent of individual choice.

Table 2(a)  
Goodness of Fit Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model $\chi^2$</th>
<th>-2 Log L</th>
<th>Model $\chi^2$</th>
<th>-2 Log L</th>
<th>Model $\chi^2$</th>
<th>-2 Log L</th>
<th>Model $\chi^2$</th>
<th>-2 Log L</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Set 1</td>
<td>44.91</td>
<td></td>
<td>48.20</td>
<td></td>
<td>71.32</td>
<td></td>
<td>88.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\sigma^2$ Aggregate level</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>$\sigma^2$ Aggregate level</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>$\sigma^2$ Aggregate level</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>$\sigma^2$ Aggregate level</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\sigma^2$ Individual level</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>$\sigma^2$ Individual level</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>$\sigma^2$ Individual level</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>$\sigma^2$ Individual level</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2(b) presents the logit model's parametric results for all four sets of experiments. The regression coefficients ($\beta$) indicate which design factors significantly discriminate between choice or otherwise. Class policies on grading, attendance, workload difficulty, and scheduling contributed significantly to course choice in all four experiment sets. Coefficients for all controllable factors carried positive signs, which means that students preferred higher factor levels. High mean values for grading and class attendance policies (0.55 and 0.53) were not surprising. Preference for grading, attendance, workload difficulty, and scheduling contributed significantly to course choice in all four experiment sets. Coefficients for all controllable factors carried positive signs, which means that students preferred higher factor levels. It is important to note that coefficients for both uncontrollable factors carried negative signs. A negative parameter sign suggests that the probability of choice will decrease with a corresponding increase in factor value. In this experiment, student heterogeneity refers to the difference in academic and professional preparation level before the student takes the course. Its factor levels one and two refer to low and high student heterogeneity, respectively. Similarly, levels one and two of class scheduling refer to classes during regular hours (9:00 am-4:00 pm) and outside these hours, respectively. This means that the probability of selecting courses decreases with high student heterogeneity and with classes being scheduled outside the regular time. It is also worth noting student heterogeneity had the highest absolute coefficient value in addition to its negative sign. This suggests that this uncontrollable factor weighed heavily on student's minds when making course selection.

Table 2(b)  
Parametric DCA Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Design Factors</th>
<th>Set 1</th>
<th>Set 2</th>
<th>Set 3</th>
<th>Set 4</th>
<th>Mean $\beta$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>Mean $\beta$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grading</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workload difficulty</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential learning</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment methods</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting frequency</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class attendance</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructor’s availability</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student heterogeneity</td>
<td>-0.64</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 2(c) lists the choice probabilities calculated from odd ratios for all eight alternatives in four sets of experiments. These probabilities are outcomes of a trade-off process that involves making sacrifices by diminishing or losing an attribute in return for gains in other attributes. For students making course choices this process involves obtaining information about dominant course attributes, comparing various available options, and making a holistic choice. In our case, alternatives # 6 and # 1 have the highest and lowest choice probabilities, respectively. The lowest mean probability for alternative # 1 was expected as it had low levels for all factors.

Table 2(c)
Choice Probabilities for Alternatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Set 1</th>
<th>Set 2</th>
<th>Set 3</th>
<th>Set 4</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% Choice Probabilities</td>
<td>% Choice Probabilities</td>
<td>% Choice Probabilities</td>
<td>% Choice Probabilities</td>
<td>% Choice Probabilities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>10.20</td>
<td>7.30</td>
<td>11.90</td>
<td>10.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.40</td>
<td>7.81</td>
<td>10.20</td>
<td>7.98</td>
<td>9.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.67</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>18.62</td>
<td>17.30</td>
<td>14.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>18.70</td>
<td>17.31</td>
<td>17.72</td>
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<td>17.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>15.43</td>
<td>16.28</td>
<td>22.45</td>
<td>18.20</td>
<td>18.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.65</td>
<td>9.64</td>
<td>9.63</td>
<td>7.01</td>
<td>8.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.40</td>
<td>17.30</td>
<td>10.23</td>
<td>15.50</td>
<td>14.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3(a) presents the design and resultant S/N ratios. In selecting a design alternative, we will consider the choice probabilities and the variance of these probabilities across four sets of experiments. An alternative with lower choice probabilities and low variation may be preferred over an alternative with relatively higher choice probabilities with greater variation. Comparing the choice results DCA experiments and S/N ratio, we find that the S/N ratio is a better predictor of students choice as it considers both mean and standard deviation in choosing the best alternative. We can see that based on S/N ratio, alternative # 5 was ranked ahead of alternative #6 even though alternative # 6 had the higher mean choice probability than alternative # 5 i.e., 18.09 vs. 17.61. This was so because alternative # 5 had a lower standard deviation of 0.84 as compared to 3.13 in alternate # 6. The use of the S/N ratio helped us to improve the predictive power of DCA.

Table 3(a)
Taguchi S/N Ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L8(2^7) Inner Array</th>
<th>2^2 Outer Array</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>Set1</th>
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Table 3(b) presents the relative importance of seven controllable factors based on the S/N ratio. The factor importance is indicated by the difference in combined S/N ratio scores for two design levels. For example, in calculating the relative importance of experiential learning, we first look at the experimental design. Experiential learning occurs equally, i.e., four times each for eight alternatives. We sum up the S/N ratio scores for all four instances when the lower level (1 in the design…case study) is indicated in the design. We got a combined score of 68.54, i.e., 7.9+19.86+19.19+21.6. We repeated the same process for the higher design level (2 in design…simulation) and got a combined score of 90.85. Finally, we subtract 68.54 from 90.85 to get a difference of 22.31. This, incidentally, was the largest difference among all factors. We also rank the design factors for their importance.

Table 3(b) Relative Factor Importance Based on S/N Ratio

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experiential Learning</th>
<th>Workload</th>
<th>Grading</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Attendance</th>
<th>Availability</th>
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<td>Low</td>
<td>68.54</td>
<td>77.53</td>
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<td>High</td>
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<td>81.86</td>
<td>90.57</td>
<td>88.82</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results provide us with two operational guidelines. First, the S/N ratio for different factor levels can be used to segregate more important factors from those deemed not very important. In most cases, increasing course selection probability does not necessarily require simultaneously addressing all design factors. Instead, faculty can focus on a vital few. In our case, we can concentrate on the three most important factors: experiential learning, grading policy, and assessment methods. For example, using simulation, curved grading, and multiple assessment methods can increase course selection probability. Although student heterogeneity was treated as an uncontrollable factor in this study, instituting standardized admission tests can help reduce student preparation variation.

Second, it alerts us about the adverse impact of uncontrollable factors such as class scheduling on customer choice probabilities. In this case, the strategy would be to minimize the effect of these seemingly uncontrollable factors by adopting policies to make them more controllable. For example, separate classes can be arranged for working and full time students in the evening or very early morning.

Contributions

In this paper, we make important methodological and operational contributions to the course design literature.

Methodology: First, we report the use of advanced, efficient experimental design. Although basic experimental designs for use in the conjoint analysis are not new to academic course design literature yet, it has been reported sparsely. Even when reporting these experiments, researchers hardly discuss the need to employ advanced, efficient, orthogonal designs.

This paper introduces the use of orthogonal arrays, a unique set of Latin square designs, in which rows represent experimental runs and columns represent factors or variables. Factors in these designs are considered orthogonal to each other, where orthogonality refers to the property that these designs are balanced and not mixed. In a balanced design, each factor is supposed to have an equal number of levels; in our example two, and each column, each factor level occurs four times, but the sequence of their occurrence varies from factor to factor. This unique sequence of occurrences results in a design where the relationship between factors is such that the factor levels remain the same in half of the experiments when comparing any two factors. In contrast, in the other half, they contrast each other.

Second, we report a design that arranges the controllable (signal) and uncontrollable (noise) factors into inner and outer Taguchi arrays. The use of robust design to detect and minimize noise factors' effect on performance variation has not been previously reported. The use of Taguchi's inner and outer arrays in our study resulted in a better understanding of the sources of variation resulting in a significant reduction of performance variation. It improved the predictive power of DCA by making it less sensitive to noise factors.

Third, the S/N ratio -- a single, composite measure of design robustness -- has been incorporated in course design. It is used as the sole selection criterion when comparing alternatives. Previously, only mean choice probabilities have been
used as the criterion for selecting the best design in a DCA experiment. In contrast, the S/N ratio considers both mean and variation in measuring robustness. With the S/N ratio's help, we selected the design that simultaneously maximized the choice probabilities and minimized performance variation.

Course Design Guidelines: One should be careful in drawing straight forward inferences based on the trade-off process. A design experiment can only be explained in terms of factors/levels included. We recognize that no single design experiment can include all possible factors. So, the results will have a generalizability problem. Having said that, we note that experiential learning is the most important factor in course selection. That importance can easily be understood as business students want college experiences as close to the real world as possible. Internships provide the best hands-on real-world experience, while business simulations are the next best solution. Simulations let students make a business decision and see their impacts in real-time. While case studies also provide some understanding of how the business world operates, students can't see the results of their recommendations. Simulations are known to achieve the best student engagement, a prized goal for any course. Prado et al., 2019, find the simulation more effective experiential learning tool than case studies. Faculty should consider including simulation in their courses whenever possible.

Grading policy was the second most important factor with a shown preference for curved grading. Although not directly related to learning outcomes, grading policy can determine students’ chances of completing a challenging course. Curved grading is seen as a protective backup against failing challenging courses. Under absolute grading, a student will fail the class even when everyone in the class performs poorly because either the content was too hard to grasp or was not taught properly. Curved grading provides some protection against this situation. Although students perceive curved grading to be fairer compared to absolute grading, it might not be accurate. A curve may be fair for students with poor performance but maybe discriminatory to students with better performance. There is nothing worse than a hardworking student who has become demotivated because of the perceived inability to receive a decent grade as some very high achieving peers move the curve upwards. This unfairness in curved grading intensifies further if a class has a high level heterogeneity in academic preparation. Important factors of class difficulty and student heterogeneity must be considered while deciding on grading policy.

Class attendance policy was ranked third most important factor. Its ranking can easily be explained by the peculiar nature of the student sample. Majority of the students in the sample were working full time and with increased time constraints would like flexibility in terms of learning on their own schedule. Even when they are not working full time, students like to be in control of their time. They argue that there are many ways to learn materials teachers want them to learn and that a lot of learning happens outside the classroom. Students usually make a distinction between “physically present” and “mentally present.” Mandatory attendance will not contribute to learning if the student is not engaged in the classroom. Students believe they should be allowed to make their own attendance decisions and not punished for non-attendance. Some courses at business school such as data analytics or basic accounting might work better with mandatory attendance but for most other courses, faculty is advised to be flexible in attendance policy.

One needs to remember that in choosing a course, students make a holistic decision while simultaneously considering many course characteristics. In our experiment, the winning alternative used a business simulation, curved grading, low workload, once a week schedule, single assessment method, non-mandatory attendance, and no access to the instructor outside class. Based on the literature review, we know that instructor's access outside class is highly desired, but students were willing to make the trade-off. Students are willing to put up with less desirable characteristics such as lack of instructor's access or being assessed with a single assessment instrument as long as the course uses business simulation and curved grading. The implication for course designers is that if they just focus on few of the most important factors, students will choose their course even when it has some less favorable characteristics.

Further research should involve two principal areas. One, replicating this method across various services and situations can help us assess its generalizability. Second, it would be interesting to study the interaction between design factors. An improved understanding of the Interaction between controllable and uncontrollable factors can help us improve service robustness. To study interactions, more complicated designs may have to be used.

References


Summary Brief

**Digital Marketing Education: A 25 Year Review of the Literature**

Janna Parker, James Madison University, USA
Kevin James, The University of Texas at Tyler, USA
Britton Leggett, University of South Alabama, USA
William Faranda, James Madison University, USA

The first research article focused on a topic in digital marketing education was published in 1996. A 25-year review of the digital marketing education literature since this publication was conducted. Nine topic categories were analyzed revealing gaps in the literature. A keyword assessment revealed that authors need to select keywords specific to their research rather than broad categories such as undergraduate research and marketing education.

**Introduction**

As a research field develops, a periodic review of the existing literature helps uncover areas under-researched and guide future research. This concept is applicable for both practitioner-focused research as well as for education research. The American Marketing Association (AMA) and the Digital Marketing Institute (DMI) provide categories of skill sets and competencies related to digital learning needed in the workforce (Digital Marketing Institute and American Marketing Association Digital Marketing Pro, 2021). Universities offering digital preparation must provide learning opportunities in these areas to prepare students for success in a rapidly changing technological environment (Zahay, Altounian, Pollitte & James, 2019; Fang, Wei, Huang, 2019). For those who teach digital marketing, it can be quite challenging due to the dynamic nature of the discipline. Marketing education journals are a resource that can assist those looking for the appropriate pedagogical approach to teaching in this dynamic sub-discipline.

**Background**

To date, a comprehensive assessment of the information available to educators and professors has been unavailable. This work examines the number of articles on topics related to the AMA/DMI competencies published in marketing education journals. Next, we will examine the topical areas to assess the availability of information on each subject.

The AMA and DMI have created Modules of Capabilities with nine topics needed in the industry for digital marketers (Digital Marketing Institute and American Marketing Association Digital Marketing Pro, 2021). The topical areas include content marketing, social media marketing, digital marketing strategy, email marketing, search engine optimization, website optimization, YouTube and display ads, paid search, and analytics.

Two questions guide this research:

RQ1: Which topical areas have been the focus of marketing education research and are there significant gaps?
RQ2: Are authors selecting relevant keywords since this impacts the dissemination of their research?

Each author reviewed marketing education journals to identify relevant articles related to teaching digital or preparing students for an aspect of digital marketing. The journals included are *Marketing Education Review* (MER), *Journal of Advertising Education* (JAE), *Journal of Advancement of Marketing Education* (JAME), and *Journal of Marketing Education* (JME). These journals were chosen because of their focus on education in marketing. Each journal was examined article by article to ensure a systematic assessment and was included if an article contained information about one of the nine topical areas. If so, the article information was collected include author, year, method, summary, and more. *Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing* (JRIM) had one special issue on digital marketing education and was included. *Journal of Interactive Marketing* (JIM) was found to not contain education articles after reviewing two years of issues and performing a keyword search.

To answer research question one, we examined the data for papers related to digital marketing in the journals mentioned above. We counted the number of articles published in the area by each journal. Since our goal was to review all digital marketing education articles, the time covers 1996, the date of the first article we could find published on the topic through the end of 2020 for a total of 25 years. To answer research question two, we looked at the keywords provided with the publications.
Key Findings
We found 128 articles that mentioned some aspect of digital marketing, with 25 in MER, 48 in JME, 43 in JAE, 6 in JAME, and 6 in JRIM. A few articles did not fit within the AMA categories but did incorporate a digital marketing characteristic which is why the numbers are slightly different than our total counts. In these categories, there are 39 social media, 27 digital marketing strategy, 18 content marketing, 6 YouTube and display ads, 4 paid search, 4 Google Analytics, 3 website optimization, 1 search engine optimization, and 0 email marketing articles.

Assessing the use of keywords was not comprehensive due to some journals not using keywords until recently. For example, JAE did not begin publishing keywords until 2018, so it is unknown if keywords were used in the databases. A total of 223 different keywords or keyword groups were provided by either the author or editors, and 173 appeared only once in any journal. Additionally, many articles did not have a single keyword related to digital marketing despite the topic being digital marketing. Social media was the top keyword and corresponded with the topic areas. Of the nine topic areas, eight were researched at least once, but only social media (16) and search engine optimization (2) appeared as keywords.

In addition to the findings regarding the topical areas, we found that JAE, JME, and MER have published numerous articles on social media marketing. JME has published numerous articles that relate to strategy for teaching and conducting digital marketing. Content creation can be found in MER, JAE, and JME. Under researched topics such as email marketing and paid search presents an opportunity for marketing researchers and journal editors. This lack of information can be addressed through both basic research and special issues.

The selection of keywords does not appear to match the topics of the papers. Many of the digital articles published did not have any digital marketing keywords provided for publication. The most frequently used was social media (16), and that was in less than half of the papers on social media. Content marketing and digital marketing strategy never appeared as keywords, although digital marketing (6) and marketing strategy (3) were found. Some databases still rely on keywords; thus, an educator searching for relevant literature may not find the articles that can help them to improve their courses. We did find several cases of overly complicated keyword combinations such as teamwork/projects/issues. We also discovered that learning theories were not used, and even Bloom’s Taxonomy only appeared one time.

This review indicates that there are many under-researched areas in digital marketing education. Therefore, we suggest that those within the discipline work to fill in the gaps.

References


Summary Brief

Teaching Sustainability: A Preliminary Study Based on Construal Level and Political Affiliation

Matthew Lunde, Pittsburg State University, USA
Cristian Sepulveda, Fort Lewis College, USA

Introduction & Theoretical Background

Thousands of marketing students take university classes every year. A growing area of interest for many business schools is to incorporate sustainability lessons and/or classes into their curriculum (Christensen et al., 2007; MacVaugh, & Norton, 2012; Shapiro et al., 2020). As more universities adopt sustainability lessons, classes, and projects into their curriculums, we ask what is the most effective way for instructors to teach marketing (and business) students about sustainability? Using construal level theory (CLT) (Trope & Liberman, 2003; 2010) as a theoretical framework, with psychological and geographical distance vs. psychological and geographical proximity as sub-areas of analysis. However, not every university is the same. One area that has come to influence sustainability dramatically in recent years is political affiliation. Universities across the United States are in states that may identify as more politically conservative, liberal, or independent. Therefore, as political affiliation can have great influence on students’ grasp and learning of sustainability (Wals & Jickling, 2002), this preliminary study asks the question: Using CRT (high-level vs. low-level construal), what is the most effective way instructors should teach university marketing students about sustainability in the classroom, based on political affiliation?

Sustainability is "meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987, p. 27). Young consumers tend to be more sustainable in their consumption practices (Perera, Auger, & Klein, 2018). Knowing how students successfully learn about sustainability and sustainable decision-making (and how instructors can teach sustainability effectively) is essential to student learning, business leaders, policymakers, business education, and the sustainable future of the world (Borin & Metcalf, 2010; Cullen, 2017; Shapiro et al., 2020). If taught wrong, instructors run the risk of coming off as "tree huggers," "liberals," "movement-pushers," or "too conservative," among others, turning students away from the sustainability message (Shirani et al., 2015). Political affiliation (i.e., identifying as conservative (Republican), liberal (Democrat), or Independent) can influence how students learn and are taught about sustainability (Orr, 2020).

Construal level can also influence how sustainability is taught. Trope and Liberman (2003) defined CLT in their seminal work as people using temporal distance to comprehend an event, object, or idea, as either high-level or low-level construal mental representations. In high-level construal, people use more abstract, simple, structured, distant, and superordinate mental representations; however, in low-level construal, people use more concrete, complex, unstructured, close-proximity, and subordinate mental representations (Trope & Liberman, 2010). This distance can be real (i.e. geographically spatial) or abstract (psychologically temporal) (Zhang & Wang, 2009). An instructor can frame sustainability examples as either psychologically or geographically distant (i.e. high-level construal) or psychologically or geographically near (i.e. low-level construal). Psychological and spatial distance have the strongest impacts on sustainable decision-making (Spence, Poortinga, & Pidgeon, 2012). Related to green advertising, Chang, Zhang, and Xie (2015) found that sustainable messages formed as high level (low-level) construal will result in more positive (negative) consumer attitudes and purchase intentions. Relating to education, Tabachnick, Miller, and Relyea (2008), found that college students are more "future-oriented" than non-college students are with distal-future goals. Kidwell, Farmer, & Hardesty (2013) found that liberals tend to have greater intentions to be more sustainable than conservatives. Based on CRT, political affiliation, and education research, we question if this phenomenon extends to sustainable teaching in a marketing business classroom. Therefore, this preliminary study hypothesizes:

H1: Students who lean politically liberal (conservative) will value teaching examples of sustainability that are of high (low) level construal
H2a: Students who lean liberal will value construal level examples that are geographically distant
H2b: Students who lean conservative will value construal level examples that are geographically near
H3a: Students who lean liberal will value teaching examples of construal level that are psychologically distant
H3b: Students who lean conservative will value construal level examples that are psychologically near
Methods

We used quantitative survey methods to test our research hypotheses. Since the population of interest is college students, we developed a survey to measure students’ level of agreement in learning sustainability in the classroom under different scenarios, with examples written with different construal levels (i.e., psychologically distant/near and geographically distant/near), their agreement with sustainability issues, and their political affiliation. The 15 classroom scenarios variables presented in this study were measured using a Likert scale (-3 = strong negative impact to 3 = strong positive impact). Political affiliation was operationalized by a variable with three categories (Democrat, Republican, and Independent) that we will use as the grouping variable. Finally, the survey included demographic variables and general questions about sustainability, such as age, gender, knowledge of sustainability, and sustainability intentions, among others. We chose three US-based universities, one that leaned more conservative (based on local, state, and national 2020 elections), one that leaned more liberal, and one that is classified as independent, as the state has a Republican Congress but a Democratic governor.

Results

A total of 449 students, among the three universities, participated in the study. The paper-based survey of 40 questions contained two attention checks. Concluding the data cleaning process, we ended with 345 usable participant responses, after removing incomplete responses or a failure of one of the attention checks. Of the 345 participants, the mean age was 21 (σ 2.89) years old, and 199 students identified as male while 145 identified as female. Based on political affiliation, 143 self-identified as Republican, 85 as Democrat, and 117 as Independent.

Reliability. The reliability for the items measuring each construal construct (i.e., geographically distant/near and psychologically distant/near) is assessed using Cronbach’s α (0.48-0.90). Two out of four alpha coefficients are below 0.7 (see Table 1). However, it is important to note that the number of items measuring each construct is less than five. This can affect the reliability since it often increases as the number of items also increases (Hair, 2010).

Principal Components Analysis (PCA) and Discrimination Analysis (DA). The first assessment of how students with different political affiliations (i.e., the grouping variable, as Democrat, Republican, or Independent) answered according to what they perceived as an impactful scenario when learning about sustainability is conducted with a PCA. We present the results in Figure 1, displaying concentration ellipses for each group. The graphical representation of each construct provides insights for ‘psychologically distant’ (76.2% of variance explained on the first PC), ‘psychologically near’ (39.0%), ‘geographically distant’ (67.5%), and ‘geographically near’ (50.7%). For ‘psychologically near’ and ‘geographically near,’ the concentration of Republicans and Independents are ellipses that are similar to each other, which are also the two constructs for which the first PCA component explains 50% of the variance or less. To know if the instructor should employ different examples based on construal level and political affiliation when teaching sustainability, we performed a DA, using political affiliation as the grouping variable, to answer the research question that students will value examples based on different construal levels according to their political views. As such, only 49% of the students can be correctly classified, beyond chance, according to their political affiliation (Wilks’ Λ = .97; \(X^2(3) = 7.89, p = 0.048\)) as presented in Table 2.

MANOVA. When considering the results from the PCA and DA, the next step is to know on which construal levels we need to focus on. For that purpose, we conducted a MANOVA to determine which construal we can observe differences among political affiliations. The only two construal levels with significant differences in means are ‘psychologically distant’ (p < 0.05) and ‘geographically near’ (p < 0.05). The differences partially support H1 and fully support H3a, where students that classify themselves as democrats will value examples presented as psychologically distant. Conversely, results show evidence for the opposite of what we proposed in H2b, where students who identify as Democrats (instead of Republicans), value examples framed as geographically near. Finally, preliminary results did not find significant support for H2a and H3b, since for ‘psychologically near’ and ‘geographically distant,’ there are no significant differences among groups. Moreover, ‘psychologically near’ and ‘geographically distant’ show interactions, which are visible in Figure 3 and Figure 4.

Discussion and Conclusion

It is difficult to tell apart students who identify as Independents from Democrats and Republicans. We encounter this issue when trying to classify each respondent based on their answers to different scenarios (Table 2). The latter is interesting because 79.9% of the students are classified correctly as Democrats or Republicans when Independents are not included as a group (see Table 3), which results in that, according to the Independents’ answers, 81.7% can be classified as Republicans and 18.3% as Democrats. The latter is in line with what we observed in the PCA for each construal dimension. In our sample, students who identify as Independents are similar to those who declare themselves Republicans
when it comes to their level of agreement on which construal level is more relevant for them in being taught about sustainability.

Another finding is that we found significant differences in ‘psychologically distant’ and ‘geographically near,’ among political affiliation, but not for ‘psychologically near’ and ‘geographically distant.’ Those construal levels also present interactions that we cannot explain at this moment. One implication of this finding is that offering examples in the classroom framed as psychologically near or geographically distant will not influence students learning about sustainability, based on political affiliation. Conversely, instructors presenting sustainability examples to students that are psychologically distant or geographically near will be more impactful for Democrats than Republicans (see Figures 2 and 5). Interestingly, based on these preliminary findings, and contrary to what we hypothesized (i.e., H1-H3), we did not find a formula that works better for Republicans, Democrats, and/or Independents. We can conclude that instructors will not have to worry about the marketing students’ political affiliation clouding the sustainability examples being shown in the classroom if they are psychologically near and geographically distant examples. Questioning why this is and why our hypotheses did not lead to significant findings, based on earlier literature, is very interesting and worth exploring in future research.

References


### TABLES & FIGURES

#### Table 1: Reliability of Constructs

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#### Table 2: Classification Summary Table

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#### Table 3: Classification Summary Table when not including Independents

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ungrouped cases</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Figure 1: PCA Graphical Representation for PC1 and PC2

Figure 2 and 3: Profile Plot Psychologically Distant and Near
Figure 4 and 5: Profile Plot Geographically Distant and Near
SESSION 13H PANEL: CONSUMER BEHAVIOR: ADAPTING TO THE NEW NORMAL (POST-COVID PANDEMIC)

PANELISTS

Yana Andonova, Murray State University, USA
Nwamaka Anaza, Southern Illinois University, USA
Fatima Hajjat, Ithaca College, USA
David Agogo, Florida International University, USA
Delaney H.S. Bennett, Clemson University, USA
TEACHING MOMENTS

CHAIRS

Prachi Gala & Parker Woodroof
A Yellowdig Conversation about Diversity and Inclusion in Marketing

Victoria Crittenden, Babson College, USA
Cheryl Gray, Babson College, USA

Social isolation and social unrest are at the forefront of teaching and learning. Yellowdig, a social learning platform, enabled a diversity and inclusion project for students to connect and have meaningful conversations with classmates whom they would normally sit next to in class or talk with in a lounge. The four topics of discussion were marketing’s portrayal of gender, sexual orientation, race, and age. Yellowdig tracked points for posts authored (e.g., Aunt Jemima’s rebranding), comments authored/received, classmate reactions, and faculty accolades. The conversation quickly became the focus of learning. An example student comment: “The conversation changed my perspective on marketing.”

“Green Claims”

Stephen Castleberry, University of Minnesota Duluth, USA

Being “green” can help a company win sales and customer loyalty. But green claims can be, and often have been, overdone. What guidelines should marketers use? And, most importantly, how can students really understand these guidelines? This teaching moment will report on a short in-class exercise proven to help students understand and navigate making green claims.

Harry Potter and the Final Exam in Advertising

Joshua Coleman, Missouri State University, USA

In his third year at Hogwarts, Harry Potter actually enjoyed Professor Lupin’s final exam because he was able to put what he had learned into practice. In my Principles of Advertising classes, students do the same. They spend the semester developing an advertising campaign for a local business. Then, for their final exam, I develop my own campaign for the same local business and ask students to critically evaluate it. Through this exam, I allow them to put into practice everything they have learned through a creative and innovative method. Survey data collected across seven classes demonstrates effectiveness and success.

The Syllabi Peer Review: A Formal Approach to Course Improvement

Jennifer Tatara, University of Memphis, USA
Courtney Peters, University of Memphis, USA
Michael Houston, University of Memphis, USA

When a course is rotated amongst instructors, it tends to become outdated and less relevant as it does not benefit from an instructor’s deep understanding of the material that comes with experience. Thus, a few colleagues decided to approach these courses much like we approach the improvement of our research—through a formal review process. Instead of “reinventing the wheel” every semester, we decided to conduct a friendly peer review. By assigning a reviewer 1 (previous instructor), reviewer 2 (incoming instructor), and reviewer 3 (student evaluations), we were able to optimize our syllabi and improve our students’ educational experience.
“Free Digital Tools”
Ann Springer, BYU-Hawaii, USA

In a fast-paced digital world, the marketing industry is flooded with digital tools. Students, who are generally digital natives, are drawn to these tools but also feel intimidated and overwhelmed by the numerous options available to master. It is equally overwhelming for the instructor to adequately cover emerging digital tools, in addition to regular course material. To offer students exposure to digital tools, while still covering course content, students will complete a 5 minute Loom video, and a one-page white paper in Canva, explaining to their peers how to use a digital tool that allows marketers to use the tool for free.

Utilizing the LEGO® Donut Game to Simulate and Teach Cross-Functional Cooperation in the Classroom
Adam Powell, Shippensburg University, USA

Cross-functional cooperation is difficult to teach effectively because undergraduates often lack real-world experience. The LEGO® donut game simulates cross-functional teams that are collectively tasked with constructing the ideal donut out of LEGO® bricks, while team members are each given their own roles and key performance indicators. As the game unfolds the instructor is asked for consumer insights and teammates have to give-and-take in their own roles in order to build the perfect LEGO® donut together. After two rounds of play the causes and outcomes of cross-functional conflict are revealed and solutions to managing cross-functional teams are discussed.

Sports Event Watch Party
Geraldo Matos, Roger Williams University, USA

This assignment involves having students actively watch at least one hour of a televised sporting event and track the various ways firms engage in sports marketing. Students are required to capture all of the brands that are represented during the hour and categorize, according to specific criteria, the type of sports marketing that is being employed. That includes in stadium signage, on-air announcer reads, branding on uniforms and equipment, advertisements aired during commercial breaks, etc. Students are then required to develop an idea for a related sponsorship opportunity that can be sold to a brand.

Personal Development
Anton Fenik, Grand Valley State University, USA

This assignment gives students complete freedom of the topic, writing style, deliverables type, and any and all formatting of their final product. The topic does not have to be related to the class. The only requirement is that the topic is something the student wanted to explore academically but never got the chance or time to do so. This complete freedom at first confuses students. Ultimately, the passion, commitment, and self-drive to learn comes through. I have weekly email exchanges with students and the “aha” moments are almost in all communications. End of the year presentations are a blast.
The Retail Scavenger Hunt: Experiential Learning in a Retail Setting

Pam Richardson-Greenfield, Radford University, USA

The Retail Scavenger Hunt is a flexible pedagogical tool enables students to experience first-hand what is commonly referred to in the consumer-packaged goods industry as “the store check.” The RSH helps students develop a new perspective, including observation skills, heightened awareness of how marketing influences consumer behavior, and an enhanced understanding of the retail marketplace. It can be adapted either as an instructor-led, or as a self-directed, app-based activity for situations that require social distancing (e.g., national pandemic) or scalability (i.e., large classes).

A "Rolling" Classroom

Richard Easley, Baylor University, USA

I take students on a study abroad each summer throughout Western Europe, where we visit numerous factories and businesses. Since we are a traveling program, we don’t have a “traditional classroom,” so we had to be creative for discussions: we are touring Europe on a luxury coach and I bring a portable PA. Faculty are placed at the front, center, and rear of the coach: any student with discussion can be reached easily with a wireless microphone. We have the richest, most rewarding marketing discussions that I have ever experienced as a professor – much more so than a classroom.

Replacing Online Blogs with Twitter Conversation Assignments

James Blair, Eastern Kentucky University, USA

With higher education shifting to more online courses to meet the wants and needs of, instructors often utilize discussion boards to get students engaged in their classes. Discussion boards have had mixed success in the past and instructors would benefit from an alternative approach. This assignment, “Twitter Conversations,” allow students to engage with one another online, help students build their personal professional brand online, provide the instructors a means to track all student communications, and allow for outside social media users engaged in the conversation.

Developing brand guidelines to build student portfolios in a consumer behavior class

Miles Condon, St. Norbert College, USA

Branding is a major topic in most marketing curriculum, but it’s often difficult to give students the opportunity to actively engage with the content. By developing brand guidelines for a brand of their creation, students are able to apply the content in a meaningful way that can also serve to build their portfolios. To do so, students create a brand (e.g., personal brand, brand for a future entrepreneurial endeavour, fictional brand), develop the brand positioning strategy, and then create brand elements in order to facilitate that desired positioning. Data suggest students value the assignment and have positive perceptions overall.
A Critical-Reasoning Alert for Students Sourcing Newspaper Articles

Mary Mobley, Augusta University, USA

Newspaper assignments are a common tool used in marketing classes. Professors use these articles as a way of staying current with business news and foreign affairs. However, there has been questions of authenticity relative to reporting standards. When using regular news articles and opinion/editorial work, professors should provide an explanation of the differences between op/ed pieces and a regular news articles. It is important to give a critical reasoning alert to inform students that regular articles may interject editorial views and/or leave out material information that would sway the reader’s point-of-view.

Predicting Risk Aversion: An Introduction to Consumer Behavior

Brian A. Vander Schee, Indiana University, Kelley School of Business - Indianapolis, USA

Before class write down the number 3. Ask students to mentally pick a number from 1 to 4. Ask how many picked each number, documenting the results. The most common response will be 3. Reveal your prediction to students. Talk about how consumer behavior uses sociology, psychology, anthropology, and economics to better understand why people do what they do and to predict future behavior. In this case, when given no social cues, people tend to avoid risk – the outside numbers. What do people select when they do not know the answer on a multiple-choice exam question? You guessed it, C.

Integrated Marketing Teaching Moment

Nicole Beachum, University of Alabama at Birmingham, USA

Many students struggle with not feeling prepared for a career in marketing. How can we help them know what to do as they step into their new roles – marketing products/services that are new to them? This teaching innovation centers around a group project in which students choose a publicly-traded company and create a new product/service. Throughout the semester they conduct secondary research, create buyer personas, analyze competitors, and create a product/service launch strategy with example ads, timelines, SMART goals, and measurement tactics, and more.

What! Using Facebook to Teach Marketing

Eric Harvey, Purdue University Fort Wayne, USA

Have you ever considered using Facebook to teach marketing? Yes, with all of the good, bad and ugly, it can present using it as a marketing tool to teach is a valuable resource for students. Consider an interactive project that introduces students to critical functional areas of marketing, branding, social media and analytics. This active approach helps students better understand the practical marketing applications of theoretical concepts. Overall, students can see marketing in action to observe how brand creation works with the social media ecosystem. Students will be deep in the marketing thought process and stay engaged and attentive throughout the semester.
“How I Built This” Resilience Amidst a Pandemic

Shannon McCarthy, University of Central Missouri, USA

The “How I Built This with Guy Raz” podcast developed a series of minisodes called “How I Built Resilience,” in response to the pandemic. Students selected one episode weekly to listen to and reflect on what they learned about how business leaders dealt with the pandemic in real time. The assignment’s purpose was two-fold: one, to provide students an opportunity to learn how businesses specifically and two, provide an opportunity to engage one-on-one in a private journal as a “check in” with faculty during these unprecedented times.

Keeping Marketing Current: In the News Project

Alicia Cooper, Alabama A&M University, USA

Many undergraduate students believe marketing textbooks are outdated and do not reflect what they believe to be relevant to marketing. This is especially true for students from diverse backgrounds. This short project asks students to find a current article that they find interesting and relate it to a concept in the course textbook. Students must also explain why the article caught their interest. This is the most impactful part of the assignment because instructors can learn about things like autonomous 18-wheeler trucks, and Gucci’s collaboration with a young African American t-shirt designer (Gucci -VS- Everybody), in addition to learning about the diverse interests of their students.

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!

Nice to Meet You: Building Report via Three Attributes

Parker Woodroof, University of Alabama at Birmingham, USA

Developing rapport with students should be one of the hallmarks of pedagogy. This ability is achieved easier by some faculty. However, this activity provides all faculty an equitable opportunity to build rapport with students day one. Professors introduce themselves and provide three attributes about their personal brand: 1) one of which they are proud (confidence), 2) one of which they are attaining (goals), and 3) one of which they are eliminating (vulnerability). Students in turn introduce themselves via the three attributes. Letting students profess their confidence, goals, and vulnerability ignites rapport not only with the professor, but also each other.
About class assessments: In person vs. Online vs. Monitored

Luis Torres, Georgia Gwinnett College, USA

Digital classes are more popular than ever before. Besides the difficulties of teaching remotely, virtual evaluations bring their own challenges. Instructors have had three forms of evaluation available to them while conducting assessment and evaluation: in-person, online, and monitored (using technology to proctor an exam electronically). Based on hundreds of students’ test scores from different classes over a period of three semesters, statistical analysis showed less variation in scores for students in the online testing without monitoring mode. As a result, the monetary and training efforts of implementing some monitoring systems might not bring the desired return on such investment.

Student Performance in the Online Learning Environment

Phillip Hartley, Georgia Gwinnett College, USA

College classes delivered via the internet have become increasingly common in recent years. The pandemic only accelerated this trend. While this format is convenient for students and cost-effective for institutions, its lack of personal interaction may cause worry regarding student learning. A comparison of student performance in sections of four marketing courses taught by the same instructor either in the classroom or online indicated no significant difference in exam scores across formats. Online exams utilized a digital proctoring platform. These findings may quell concerns about the efficacy of online classes—the popularity of which seems unlikely to decline.

Slack: An new way to connect with students

Sarah Mittal, St. Edward's University, USA

Slack is an industry standard messaging tool that could be used in any course. Around 638,000 companies worldwide use Slack. So, it’s a great way to get our students exposed to the tool and comfortable using it. I have been using Slack in my undergraduate classes (going on 2 semesters) and believe it creates a more frequent, transparent stream of "announcements" that are more abbreviated and well-timed for both my and the students' sake. The students also use it to ask me direct questions (vs email) and collaborate privately with group members. Additionally, I am playing with an application assignment in Slack this coming semester.

YouTube Marketing Pitch”: An Innovative Alternative to In-Person Group Presentations

Matthew Lunde, Pittsburg State University, USA

Has COVID-19 made it challenging to have in-person group presentations? Do in-person presentations take too many class days? The YouTube Marketing Pitch is an innovative solution for students to create eye-catching marketing presentations, to learn how to present virtually, and to record their group presentations with video-recording software (e.g., Zoom)! After groups submit their video pitches, the presentations are uploaded to YouTube. Then, the students watch each video, give constructive feedback to their colleagues, and rank the quality of the marketing pitches. Finally, extra credit is awarded to the groups whose presentations earned the highest rankings from their colleagues.
I Can Relate to That: An Activity to Illustrate Segmentation and Targeting
Julie Steen, University of South Carolina Aiken, USA

This presentation uses an article that segments college students into six distinct segments. Three potential in-class activities related to segmentation and targeting have been developed based on the information in the article. The first involves students identifying which segmentation bases are being used in each segment. The second involves students identifying marketing mix tactics that can be used to reach each segment. Finally, students are asked (and may debate) which segments are being targeted by their university. Since the topic of the activity is the segmentation of college students, students can easily relate to the subject matter.

Integrating VR into Marketing Teaching
Haithem Zourrig, Kent State University, USA

Despite its popularity and unquestionable appeal to nowadays’ students, little is known about the potential opportunities that VR would offer to marketing educators. From an instructional perspective, VR could simulate a virtual store or a mall environment, which offers flexibility in regard to the design of outlets and atmospherics. VR would afford to bring a shopping environment to the class, instead of bringing students to the mall or stores, which could be sometimes challenging. To illustrate one of many ways of integrating VR into marketing education, I have developed and used a VR simulation in my marketing class. The purpose of the VR simulation is fourfold: (1) increasing student awareness about the capabilities of VR emerging technology, (2) enhancing both learning and applications of marketing concepts (3) introducing students to the capabilities of VR technology in the marketing world and (4) providing students with hands-on experience in using VR for marketing applications.

The Pitch
Michael Peasley, Middle Tennessee State University, USA
Thom Coats, Middle Tennessee State University, USA

What's an elevator pitch, and how can it help you? An elevator pitch is a quick and interesting summary of your professional goals and passion. Your elevator pitch should be short enough to be presented during an elevator ride, and encompass who you serve, how you add value, and why you do it. Use the pitch to introduce yourself to new connections in a memorable and compelling way and it can help you connect with new customers, expand your network, or land a new opportunity.

Creating Custom Group Project Teams
Elliott Manzon, University of Cincinnati, USA

Group projects are a common component of many marketing courses. The projects provide students with valuable team work experience and allow them to share new ideas with their peers. However, forming students into teams is a challenge. Professors often choose between random assignment of teams or the complicated process of allowing students to form their own teams. This presentation demonstrates a better way to form project teams by using a shared Google sheet which students can edit to add themselves to groups. This method allows for students to select topics of interest in an organized and fair method.
Seeking a Balanced Perspective of Marketing

Bailey Bottini, Clemson University, USA
Mike Giebelhausen, Clemson University, USA
Susan Dobscha, Bentley University, USA
Laurel Steinfield, Bentley University, USA
Minita Sanghvi, Skidmore College, USA
Angeline Close Scheinbaum, Clemson University, USA

This teaching moment focuses on an exploratory analysis of the table of contents of thirty marketing textbooks, based on book sales rankings. The timeframe was spring 2020, and data collected included: name of the book, number of chapters dedicated to the bright side of marketing, number of pages covering the bright side, chapters dedicated to the dark side of marketing, and pages dedicated to the bright side. The search revealed that marketing is primarily presented as a force for good, which could give students an unbalanced frame of reference. This finding suggests that marketing textbooks are predominantly one-sided. The teaching moment implication is that educators can go out the way to present a balanced perspective (the good and the bad) of various aspects of marketing.

Storytelling: A Dinosaur Comes to Campus

Cristian Sepulveda, Fort Lewis College, USA

In my institution, we have first-year launch classes, in which we meet once a week for eight weeks with first-semester students. With two colleagues, we are teaching a pre-intro to marketing class in which we discuss, from a hands-on perspective, essential topics of marketing, branding, and social media. As part of the social media module, students will work in storytelling, developing a character (with a background story), creating a conflict, and presenting a resolution. The professor will provide a 3D-printed dinosaur for the students to play around with and tell a story from the dinosaur’s perspective. The goal is to help them apply class concepts at a basic level and tell a story without the pressure of them being the center of attention.