Choosing the Right Tools for the Job: Educators Providing Good Options

2017 Annual Spring Conference Proceedings

Editors
Lisa Lindgren, College of St. Benedict / St. John's University
Susan Geringer, California State University, Fresno

Dear MMA Friends:

Thank you so much for your interest in, and attendance at, the Spring 2017 MMA Conference in Chicago, Illinois. Your presence is much appreciated by myself and the MMA Board of Directors.

MMA conferences are an excellent venue for the presentation of the latest marketing-related research, panels and teaching methods. We pride ourselves in the collegiality and friendliness of our MMA conferences, which have led to the formation of close friendships, research colleagues and continuous attendance by individuals from around the globe.

I am truly grateful and humbled by the tremendous support of our MMA Board of Directors and the track chairs, all who did not hesitate to help wherever needed. I would be remiss to not include a very heartfelt thank you to President, Pam Kennett-Hensel, who is always there and willing to help whenever I needed her support!! A conference such as this cannot happen without the tremendous support of our numerous reviewers and conference session chairs. I thank each of these above-mentioned individuals in helping make this conference a success!

In addition, a huge amount of gratitude to Lisa Lindgren, for her continuing help for serving as our proceedings editor. Lisa is such a pleasure to work with and does a very difficult job with much grace and professionalism. As always, a heartfelt thank you to Lyle Wetsch, for all he does for MMA on a continuous basis, and for posting the conference information online.

Congratulations to Linda Ferrell, the recipient of the 2017 MMA Marketing Innovator Award. As a frequent attendee and presenter at MMA conferences, as well as her service as a previous MMA President, Linda has been extremely supportive of the organization as well as a valuable researcher in the field of marketing, particularly in the category of marketing ethics.

It is very exciting to offer the first annual competition for MMA Master Scholar competition. Thank you to those individuals who proposed and developed this competition, as well as those participating as competitors. The competition is planned to become a staple of each Spring MMA conference.

Please take the opportunity to visit with the exhibitors who support the conference. They help to keep the price of MMA conferences a tremendous value for everyone, as well as offering attendees many resources that assist with marketing education. I look forward to seeing everyone again at the 2017 MMA Fall Educators' Conference, September 20-22, 2017 in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania!!

Sincerely,

Susan D. Geringer, Program Chair

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Donald Sawyer Best Paper in Branding, Strategy & Research Award Winner
Retweeting Brand Experiences: Factors Motivating Receivers to Proliferate Brand Image Descriptions
Jennifer Barhorst and Alan Wilson

Firooz Hekmat Best Paper in Consumer and B2B Behavior
Exploring the Limits of Arbitrary Coherence
Michael Mattei and Stephan Hellebusch

Sports, Events and Recreation Marketing
Fan-Based Brand Equity for the National Football League: Antecedents and the Measurement Scale
Gokhan Karaatlil, Serdar Turedi and Musa Pinar

Social Media and Digital Marketing
Brand Marketing via Facebook: An Investigation of the Marketing Mix, Consumer-based Brand Equity, and Purchase Intention in the Fitness Industry
Benjamin K. Wright

Cross-Cultural, Ethics and Social Responsibilities
Game Theory, Ethical Decision Making and Sustainable Development
Wei Min, Maxwell Hsu and Dennis Kopf

McGraw-Hill/Irwin Distinguished Best MMA Conference Paper Award Winner
Brand Marketing via Facebook: An Investigation of the Marketing Mix, Consumer-Based Brand Equity and Purchase Intention in the Fitness Industry
Benjamin K. Wright

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USING GOAL SETTING THEORY TO DRIVE TASK COMPLETION AND STUDENT SUCCESS IN ONLINE MARKETING COURSES

Gina L. Miller, Stetson School of Business and Economics / Mercer University

ABSTRACT

As universities have increased online course offerings, disproportionally less effort has been devoted to research around creating student success in online classrooms. A key factor associated with online student success, self-planning is a multidimensional construct which includes goal setting. This working paper focuses on goal setting as it impacts task completion and student success in an online learning environment. Selected research is examined to explore how goal setting theory might be leveraged in an online teaching environment to increase goal setting behaviors, leading to increased task completion and student success in online courses. A plan for preliminary research is presented.

INTRODUCTION

The number of courses taught online at institutions of higher education has continued to grow; yet educators' understanding of how to best deliver online courses to increase student success has not kept pace with the number of online course offerings (Mims & Daspit, 2015). Research on student indicators of success in online courses has identified a number of underlying constructs. In particular, the literature asserts that metacognition, how students 'think about thinking' is a predictor of student outcomes and performance. Therefore, it is worthwhile to explore metacognition as it relates to student success in online courses. To this end, Mims and Daspit (2015) propose there are four metacognition constructs: self-knowledge, self-planning, self-evaluation, and self-regulation.

Since the four metacognition constructs identified above encompass a wide array of behaviors, in order to narrow the scope to a more manageable level, this paper focuses on one aspect of self-planning—the time management activity of goal setting. Examining this topic is important because the construct of self-planning is key to online course success, since it recognizes the ability of the student to set learning and planning goals in an online course.

More particularly, the time management activity of goal setting might be leveraged in online marketing courses to drive task (i.e., assignment) completion and increase student success or performance. Consequently, selected research on goal setting theory is examined with regard to how this knowledge could be operationalized to encourage and/or increase student goal setting in online courses, including ways to measure if goal setting behaviors are taking place and to identify instructor strategies for using goal setting as a moderator of task completion to drive student success. Finally, future directions for research, including a plan for a preliminary research study and a long-term research perspective are presented.

GOAL SETTING AND TASK COMPLETION

Lawanto et al. (2014) found that higher performing students in online courses engaged in more goal setting behaviors, accessed course materials more frequently, and were more prompt in submitting assignments (i.e., task completion) than lower performing students. The positive relationship of student goal setting to higher course performance was also demonstrated by Cazan (2014), Jo, Kim, and Yoon (2015), and You (2015).

Therefore, it seems appropriate to look more closely at goal setting theory as means to drive task completion and, thus student success. One key research paper in goal setting is the meta- analysis of the relevant literature by Locke and Latham (2002). In their paper, they identify the essential elements of goal-setting theory, which include, but are not limited to, core findings and moderators. The core findings in goal setting are detailed first, followed by an overview of the moderators of goal setting.

Core Findings in Goal Setting

Core findings in goal setting literature revolve around two constructs: goal specificity and goal

difficulty. With regard to the core finding of goal difficulty, Locke and Latham (2002) found that the most difficult goals produced the highest levels of effort and performance, with performance only leveling off when limits of ability were reached. Examples of difficult goals in an online marketing course might be earning an A on every assignment in the course or completing all course assignments a week ahead of time. Goal specificity also led to high performance because specificity reduces variation in performance by reducing ambiguity about what must be accomplished. For example, earning an A in an online course is a specific goal versus "doing the best I can". Knowing this information can assist instructors in developing strategies and course guidelines for online courses that encourage students to develop specific course goals and to set course goals that are sufficiently difficult or challenging to produce the appropriate level of student effort for student success in the course.

Moderators of Goal Setting

Moderators of goal setting are: goal commitment, goal importance, self-efficacy, feedback, and task complexity. The four moderators are interrelated and discussed below.

According to Locke and Latham (2002), the goal-performance relationship is strongest when people are committed to their goals. Goal commitment, in turn, is determined by perceived goal importance and belief that they can attain the goal (i.e., self-efficacy). Of course, the moderator of goal commitment in online courses is automatically tied to goal importance by virtue of course grading. And, by setting a definitive late policy for assignments, as well as laying out course grading structures and grading rubrics, instructors can help emphasize goal importance as it relates to course performance.

In an online course environment, where success is tied to time management activities like goal setting and task completion, allowing students to have access to all or most of the course assignments from the beginning of the course helps aid in planning activities and increases goal commitment through self-efficacy. Additionally, multiple instructional strategies to cover different student learning styles and creating an online support learning community (Flynn, 2016) can also promote self-efficacy. Also, not surprisingly, students with previous experience in an online learning environment tend to have greater motivation which increases self-efficacy and course satisfaction (Wang, Shannon, & Ross, 2013). However, it is worth noting that students who have difficulty with self-planning activities such as goal setting and thus task completion, may find that planning reduces their sense of self-efficacy since those students who feel they are in poor goal standing exert themselves less with regard to planning because this creates emotional distress due to perceived inability to meet the set goals (Townsend & Liu, 2012).

However, the literature has also demonstrated that the core finding of goal specificity raises the moderating factor of goal commitment (Wright & Kacmar, 1994) and goal commitment moderates perceived task (not goal) difficulty on task performance (Martin & Manning, 1995). To this end, instructors can provide goal specificity by clearly defining course expectations, such as providing assignments that are clearly explained and which detail necessary components, and providing example assignments to illustrate the format of desirable submissions and/or sample assignments for students to practice on. Specific assignment deadlines that are clearly communicated at the beginning of the course also eliminate ambiguity and increase student opportunity for self-planning. Additionally, assisting students to meet assignment deadlines via use of a generalized assignment checklist to increase student self-monitoring has been suggested by Cavanaugh, Lamkin, and Hu (2012). Flynn (2016) exhorts helping students learn time management skills as a strategy for online course success.

With regard to the moderating variable of feedback, it is needed for goals to be effective since to achieve goals, individuals must be able to determine their progress in relation to the goal. Feedback in online courses can be provided via grading and assignment comments from instructors (both written and recorded) and further enhanced through increasing instructor/student interaction via individual videoconference interviews (Flynn, 2016).

The final moderator of goal effects is task complexity. More complexity requires higher level skills and the ability to use different and variable effective strategies to achieve goals. For many students, online course delivery adds a new level of complexity to a course. Consequently, instructors should employ strategies to reduce the complexity posed by the online environment by offering well-structured and organized courses that make it easy for student to locate important and pertinent course information and navigate the learning management system being utilized. One strategy to reduce this type of complexity is via a course orientation video that is an instructor narrated course overview and walk through via a video screen capture navigation of the course. This appeals to multiple student learning modalities and gives the student a more concrete and easier way to understand how the course is structured and where to find, as well as how to complete, online course assignments and activities.

Last, current measures of goal setting behavior in online courses have been predominantly tied to examining learning management system (LMS) data. Time management or goal setting behaviors in online

courses have been measured on the variables of: total login time by a student, login frequency, late submission of assignments, proof of reading course information packets, and regularity of login intervals (Jo, Kim, & Yoon, 2015; You, 2015). It would improve the quality of online course performance research in relation to goal setting theory if more comprehensive measures of goal setting were developed for better data collection and research in this area.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study could be further developed by formulating an empirical design to more comprehensively test the goal setting measures and strategies laid out earlier in this paper, via operationalization in an online marketing course(s). To this end, the author proposes a plan for a preliminary study and then discusses a long-term perspective for expanding the research.

Plan for Preliminary Study

Two different sections of the same online marketing course taught in parallel will be employed to operationalize the pilot study. Both sections will have the same course content, basic structure, and assignments. However, one section will be designated as the treatment section with specific goal setting activities presented, and the other section as the control. At the end of the term, student performance measures will be compared between the two sections to determine if the goal setting treatments resulted in improved student performance.

In the treatment course section, students will be provided with a contract for the course which will specify course goals and encourage or require specific goal setting exercises/behaviors/tools. This contract and required associated exercises/behaviors/tools will not be presented in the control section.

Unlike a traditional course (such as the control section) where all the course elements are required and course grades are determined based on a weighted average, the contract for the treatment course section will require different numbers and types of assignments to be completed based on the grade the student wishes to earn. For example, to earn an "A", all of the possible course assignments would have to be completed and a minimum number of points earned in those assignments to receive a grade of "A". A grade of "B" would require the student to complete a subset of the assignments required for an "A", also with a minimum point expectation and so forth for each letter grade with the number of assignments and/or minimum points required reduced for each subsequent letter grade.

Second, the treatment section would have more and shorter/earlier deadlines for the various course elements and a definitive late policy to encourage planning and accountability. Third, tools such as grading rubrics to be used by the instructor when grading assignments, and course checklists that encourage early and correct completion of assignments would be provided to the treatment section. Finally, a system to require and record when a student reviews required online course materials (lectures, syllabus, course policies/directions and orientation/help videos for the course and videos to further illustrate/clarify course assignment expectations) could be utilized in the treatment course section to encourage understanding of course requirement expectations and reduce ambiguity, hopefully leading to stronger student performance in the course.

Student performance measures that will be examined include: total login time by a student, login frequency, late/early submission of assignments, proof of reading course information packets, regularity of login intervals, final course grades and overall g.p.a. Additionally, student self-assessment measures employing Likert ratings of statements regarding goal setting tendencies will be collected at the beginning of the course in each section to gain insight into the level of motivation for enrolled students.

Long-Term Research Perspective

Finally, over the long-term, a more complete research framework for increasing student success in online courses could be developed by capturing more dimensions of the construct of self-planning by incorporating additional components of time management beyond goal setting. For example, goal studies have also looked at the effect of proximal versus distal goals on performance and found that proximal goals are correlated with higher performance than distal goals (Locke & Latham, 2002). This points to a natural relationship between the time management activities of goal setting which can then be linked not only to task completion; but also, task initiation which is a function of proximal goal framing. Such relationships could and should be explored further in an expanded framework of self-planning as it relates to student success in online courses.

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For further information contact:
Gina L. Miller
Stetson School of Business and Economics/Mercer University
(678) 547-6169
miller_gl@mercer.edu

RETWEETING BRAND EXPERIENCES: FACTORS MOTIVATING RECEIVERS TO PROLIFERATE BRAND IMAGE DISRUPTIONS

Jennifer B. Barhorst, Lander University College of Business
Alan Wilson, University of Strathclyde Business School

ABSTRACT

As social network site users increasingly use microblogs to share their positive and negative experiences with brands, there is a surprising dearth of research on the receivers of MeWOM brand image disruptions (electronic word-of-mouth brand image disruptions that take place in a microblog) to determine the factors that motivate them to re-share them. 372 Twitter users in the United States were exposed to six positive and negative MeWOM brand image disruptions in an online experiment which replicated the Twitter environment. Two PLS Structural Equation Models were created to determine the factors which motivated receivers to retweet the MeWOM brand image disruptions. The results demonstrated that 'relevance' and 'issue involvement' were significant positive predictors of receivers' retweeting both positive and negative valence MeWOM brand image disruptions.

INTRODUCTION

The advent of customers sharing their positive and negative experiences of brands within social media, and the viral nature of these shared experiences, has received a tremendous amount of media coverage over the last few years. For example, a tech blogger, Casey Neistat, shared a positive experience of being upgraded and flying in first class with Emirates in 2016. His video went viral and achieved over 20 million views and received media coverage (Sharman, 2016). Another example, in the negative context, is the violin group, Time for Three, who were denied boarding a US Airways flight, and shared their negative experience with US Airways. Their negative experience went viral and received media coverage and a hashtag named #violingate (Ng, 2014). These are just a couple of examples of the types of eWOM (electronic word-of-mouth) that either enhance or detract from a corporate image through the proliferation of eWOM brand image disruptions. eWOM brand image disruptions have been defined as disruptions to a corporate image that either positively promote the course, progress or transmission of a corporate image, or eWOM that interrupts the course, progress, or transmission of a corporate image (Barhorst, 2017). Through the use of mobile technology such as smart phones and the platforms that host social network sites, consumers share their daily positive and negative experiences about organizations just as they would tell a close friend or next door neighbor in the past. Only now, they can tell the world about their experiences and do so through the use of a range of formats including text, photographs and videos.

Receivers of eWOM about brands within social network sites are important actors with regard to the potential virality of eWOM brand image disruptions as they have the option to re-share eWOM brand image disruptions and to proliferate them further. Given the increasing focus on the potential virality of positive and negative eWOM shared within social media in the last few years, it is surprising that there has been a dearth of research on receivers in particular. For example, little is empirically known regarding the receivers of eWOM brand image disruptions and the factors that motivate them to re-share and proliferate them further.

The overall purpose of this study is to understand the factors that motivate receivers of eWOM brand image disruptions shared in microblogs, termed MeWOM brand image disruptions, to re-share them. Two positive and negative valence structural equation models using Smart-PLS were created to demonstrate which variables motivated receivers to retweet the Twitter post after exposure to a MeWOM brand image disruption.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Although there is a dearth of research on the receivers of eWOM brand image disruptions and the factors that influence receivers to re-share them, the literature within the eWOM domain has provided some pertinent research on the factors that influence eWOM outcomes.

Information Source

The information source, or the giver of eWOM, and the information source's characteristics have been demonstrated to influence the effectiveness of eWOM outcomes. This includes whether the information source is perceived to be an expert, or to have a degree of expertise on a topic, whether they are viewed as credible and trustworthy and their degree of objectivity as perceived by the receiver of eWOM (Cheung & Thadani, 2012; Luo and Zhong, 2015).

Relevance and Personal Involvement

The level of involvement with a product, service, message or topic can impact the effectiveness of word-of-mouth (WOM). Issue involvement has been defined as "an individual level, internal state variable that indicates the amount of arousal, interest or drive evoked by a particular stimulus or situation" (Mitchell, 1979). It has been noted that "substantial research suggests that variations in people's involvement with an issue can affect how they process and respond to it" (Maheswaran & Levy, 1990, pg. 361-362). In the eWOM domain, the level of involvement and the usefulness of the message being received have also been demonstrated to have an impact on eWOM outcomes (Park & Lee, 2007; Lee et al., 2008; Doh & Hwang, 2009; Cheung et al., 2009).

Credibility

Credibility is another factor that has been researched in the traditional WOM and eWOM domains and found to have an impact on eWOM outcomes. Two types of credibility have been discussed within the literature and it is useful to delineate between the two. There is 'source credibility' which pertains to the perception of credibility the receiver has of a giver of eWOM and there is message credibility, which is concerned with the credibility of the message itself. Cheung and Thadani (2012) call out the dearth of research on message credibility with the main focus so far being on source credibility within the eWOM literature, which is surprising due to the sometimes anonymous nature of the online environment. Unlike traditional WOM where the receiver is acquainted with the giver of WOM, receivers of eWOM may have difficulty in establishing credibility with regard to the giver of eWOM due to the anonymous nature of the online environment (Park and Lee, 2009).

Valence

The valence of eWOM has also been found to have an impact on eWOM outcomes. Research has demonstrated that negative valence eWOM can have a stronger impact on eWOM outcomes than positive eWOM (Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006; Chakravarty et al., 2009), yet an improvement in positive valence reviews can lead to an increase in relative sales (Chevalier and Mayzlin, 2006). In addition, research has shown that consumers paid more attention to negative eWOM content and negative eWOM stimuli in one study (Daugherty and Hoffman, 2013).

Emotions

The emotional aspect of eWOM is an area that has very little empirically from researchers, yet has been acknowledged to require further exploration (Kim and Gupta, 2012) with regard to the impact they can have on eWOM outcomes. Barhorst (2017) found that emotions played a key role in a change in the corporate image of firms upon exposure to eWOM brand image disruptions that took place in microblogs.

Volume of eWOM

The amount, or volume of eWOM, can have an impact on its effectiveness through what has been termed an 'awareness effect' (Cheung & Thadani, 2012). Although not researched in the receiver context specifically, researchers have demonstrated a link between the volume of eWOM and sales (Liu, 2006; Duan et al., 2009).

VARIABLES TESTED IN THE MODEL

In the context of eWOM brand image disruptions that take place in a microblog environment, and any influence they have on whether receivers would re-share them, 11 different variables were created for the model based on the literature review on variables which influence eWOM outcomes - message credibility, message involvement, issue involvement and emotions. As the eWOM literature did not specifically call out any emotions in particular, a lightly modified version of Plutchik's (2001) eight basic emotions were used. The emotions used included: joy, sadness, anger, approval, disgust, fear, surprise and not surprised.

Although demonstrated as being relevant to eWOM outcomes within the literature, the variables 'source characteristics' and 'volume of eWOM' were excluded from the study. The variable 'source characteristics' was not an appropriate variable for this study as the microblogging environment is one where the identity of a source is often unknown and therefore their characteristics would also be unknown. The volume of eWOM was excluded as this study sought to understand the specific instances of individuals re-sharing eWOM brand image disruptions before they become viral.

METHODOLOGY

Experiment and Industry Selection

To achieve the objectives of the study, quantitative research in the form of an online experiment with a questionnaire was operationalized. 372 Twitter users in the United States were exposed to positive and negative MeWOM brand image disruptions about users' experiences with airlines in an experiment setting. The online experiment was created to replicate a microblog environment where respondents were exposed to six actual positive and negative valence MeWOM brand image disruptions about airlines.

The airline industry was chosen as an industry of focus as customers are increasingly using social media to air their grievances with airlines. According to one article, "customers displeased with unhelpful airline representatives behind desks in airports, or long waits on customer service phone lines are finding Twitter a far more effective forum in which to air grievances, an accessible panic button in times of trouble, or at least serious frustration (Hobica, 2013).

Measures

To measure receivers' beliefs in relation to the credibility and message involvement, four, five-point Likert scale agree/disagree questions were asked based on the literature review and modified scales utilized from the research (Zaichkowsky, 1994; Park et al. 2011). Issue involvement was measured with two, five-point agree/disagree questions to assess how likely respondents were to read a response from the organization and how likely they were to read a response from others. To measure emotions, the researchers employed Plutchik's (2001) eight basic emotion categories.

Data Analysis

To achieve the objectives of the study, two PLS-SEM models were created. PLS-SEM was chosen due to its flexibility with regard to the type of data used (Likert), the sample size and the exploratory nature of the study. In addition, the PLS-SEM statistical method has become popular for the analysis of questionnaire data in marketing, business, and management research and has been hailed as "indeed a silver bullet" for this purpose (Hair et al., 2011, p.139). Finally, over 100 studies have been published in the top marketing journals using PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2011).

RESULTS

Two PLS-SEM models were created to determine the 'retweet' predictors for the positive and negative valence MeWOM brand image disruptions. 11 different variables were tested in the model based on the literature review on variables which influence eWOM outcomes - message credibility, message involvement, issue involvement and a lightly modified version of Plutchik's (2001) eight basic emotions were used - joy, sadness, anger, approval, disgust, fear, surprise, not surprised. Both models produced the same results in terms of the variables that were significant predictors of whether the receiver would retweet the MeWOM brand image disruption and are identified in this section.

Validation of the Measurement Model

In order to assess the validity of the measurement model, the methods detailed by Wong (2013) and Hair et al. (2014) were utilized. Discriminant validity was established when the factor loading coefficients for the items that constituted each latent variable were greater than their cross-loadings on alternative latent variables (Chin, 1998; Gotz et al., 2009). The cross loadings for both models were assessed and both fit the criteria.

Convergent validity was established when the average variance explained by the multiple indicators of each latent variable was > 50%. Internal consistency reliability was established when the composite reliability coefficient was > .6. For both models, Tables 1 and 2 demonstrate that convergent validity was established as the average variance explained (AVE) by the multiple indicators of each latent variable was > 0.50. Tables 1 and 2 also demonstrate that internal consistency reliability was established as all of the composite reliability coefficients for the latent variables were > 0.6.

Table 1 - Negative Valence Model Validation

Indicator	Composite Reliability	AVE
Anger_	0.845	0.645
Approval	0.795	0.568
Disgust	0.843	0.642
Fear	0.874	0.699
Joy	0.800	0.573
MeWOM Issue Involvement	0.887	0.568
MeWOM Message Credibility	0.891	0.511

MeWOM Message Involvement	0.843	0.522
Not Surprised	0.753	0.623
Retweet	0.833	0.626
Sadness	0.842	0.643
Surprise	0.781	0.547

Table 2 - Positive Valence Model Validation

Indicator	Composite Reliability	AVE
Anger	0.869	0.772
Approval	0.85	0.655
Disgust	0.823	0.708
Fear	0.872	0.698
Joy	0.866	0.682
MeWOM Issue Involvement	0.908	0.621
MeWOM Message Credibility	0.817	0.53
MeWOM Message Involvement	0.893	0.514
Not Surprised	0.731	0.505
Retweet	0.834	0.627
Sadness	0.784	0.566
Surprise	0.762	0.521

Evaluation of the structural model

The effect size (R^2) indicated the proportion of the variance explained in the outcome variable by the predictor variables. The interpretation of R^2 was 67% = "substantial", 33% = "moderate", or 19% = "weak" (Hair et al., 2014). The statistical significance of each path coefficient (β) was estimated by bootstrapping. In order to bootstrap, the raw data were randomly sampled 5,000 times and the mean of each β coefficient was computed. Two-tailed t-tests were subsequently conducted to determine if the mean of each β coefficient was significantly different from zero at $p < .05$.

Negative and Positive Valence Models

Figure 1 in Appendix 1 displays the negative valence PLS-SEM path diagram with the β coefficients for the structural model based on the data for the three negative valence MeWOM brand image disruptions. A relatively moderate proportion of the likelihood to retweet (R^2 = 41%) was explained by eleven predictors with 'MeWOM Message Involvement' (β = 0.42, t = 6.07, p

<.001) and 'MeWOM Issue Involvement' being significant predictors (β = 0.15, t = 3.19, p <.001)

Figure 2 in Appendix 2 displays the positive valence PLS-SEM path diagram with the β coefficients for the structural model based on the data for the positive valence MeWOM brand image disruptions. Again, a relatively moderate proportion of the likelihood to retweet (R^2 = 42%) was explained by eleven predictors with 'MeWOM Message Involvement' (β = 0.30, t = 3,80, p <.001) and 'MeWOM Issue Involvement' being significant predictors (β = 0.34., t =5.43, p <.001)

DISCUSSION

In the context of eWOM effectiveness, the literature called out four different variables which could potentially have an impact on its effectiveness from a receivers' perspective including message credibility, message relevance, issue involvement and emotions. Two of them, message relevance and issue involvement were significant positive predictors of retweeting MeWOM brand image disruptions (eWOM brand image disruptions that take place in a microblog).

The extent to which the receivers of a MeWOM brand image disruption found the MeWOM brand image disruptions to be relevant was found to be a positive predictor of retweeting the MeWOM brand image disruptions when receivers were exposed to both positive and negative valence Tweets – indicating that an increase in message relevance significantly predicted how likely respondents would be to retweet the message after exposure to the MeWOM brand image disruption. With regard to what makes WOM and eWOM effective, researchers highlighted that the importance and usefulness of the information in messages influenced WOM/eWOM outcomes (Sweeney et al., 2008; Park & Lee, 2007; Park & Lee, 2008; Lee et al., 2008; Doh & Hwang, 2009; Cheung et al., 2009). The relevance of both the positive and negative valence Tweets in the study proved to be significant in the eWOM outcome of retweeting a MeWOM brand image disruption.

The extent to which the receiver of a MeWOM brand image disruption was involved in the issue being highlighted in the brand image disruption was also found to be a significant positive predictor of retweeting the MeWOM brand image disruptions for both the positive and negative valence Tweets. As noted previously, it has been highlighted in previous research that variations in people's involvement with an issue can affect how they respond to it (Maheswaran & Levy, 1990, pg. 361-362). In the context of this study, the degree of issue involvement predicted how likely receivers were to pass the message on, or retweet it.

The two results above, in and of themselves, are not surprising. From a practical perspective, one could easily posit that the level of involvement with a message and the issue highlighted, would predict how likely receivers were to share the MeWOM brand image disruption further by retweeting it. What is more surprising in the findings is a lack of significance of message credibility and the emotions experienced by the receivers of the MeWOM brand image disruptions.

With regard to message credibility, it would be plausible that the credibility of an eWOM brand image disruption could influence message spreading behaviors as the literature repeatedly calls out the importance of credibility with regard to WOM and eWOM outcomes (McKnight & Kacmar, 2006; Zhang and Watts, 2008; Cheung et al., 2008; Cheung et al., 2009). This study demonstrates that the credibility of the message, or how believable and trustworthy the recipient found the message to be, was not an influencing factor in sharing the message further.

It was also surprising that the emotions experienced by the receivers of the MeWOM brand image disruptions were not predictors of whether a receiver retweeted the message. For example, Barhorst (2017) found that emotions were key predictors in whether a change in corporate image occurred after receivers were exposed to positive and negative valence MeWOM brand image disruptions. In fact, in her analysis of positive valence MeWOM brand image disruptions, emotions were the only predictors of a change in perception of a corporate image after receivers were exposed to positive valence Tweets. It is therefore surprising that emotions played no role whatsoever in whether receivers would retweet the message.

This study provides important theoretical and managerial implications. From a theoretical perspective, the clarification of the variables which predict whether receivers re-share eWOM brand image disruptions within a microblog adds to the growing body of literature within the corporate image, reputation and eWOM domains. For practitioners, the findings demonstrate that the relevance and interest peaked by both the positive and negative valence MeWOM brand image disruptions predict how likely receivers are to re-share them – rather than whether they believe them or not, or whether they felt any emotions as a result of being exposed to them. The implications from this study are that receivers will share the good and bad brand experiences of others if the message is relevant to them and they are motivated to find out more about the issue highlighted in a Tweet.

LIMITATIONS

There are limitations associated with this study which pave the way for future research to take place. A key limitation is that the research was focused on the airline industry. The airline industry was chosen as it was recognized as one that was at the epicenter of microblog members sharing their positive and negative eWOM and offered a wealth of data for the researchers to use. Although the use of the airline industry was a practical one in terms of the execution of the study, it would be interesting to undertake a similar study with another industry, or indeed a range of industries, to determine whether similar outcomes would occur. Another limitation is the location of the experiment, the United States. With social network site users sharing their experiences of brands around the world, it would be interesting to undertake a similar analysis with receivers in other countries. Finally, the study was focused on one social media platform, Twitter. It would be of interest to undertake a similar study utilizing other social media platforms to determine if similar results occurred.
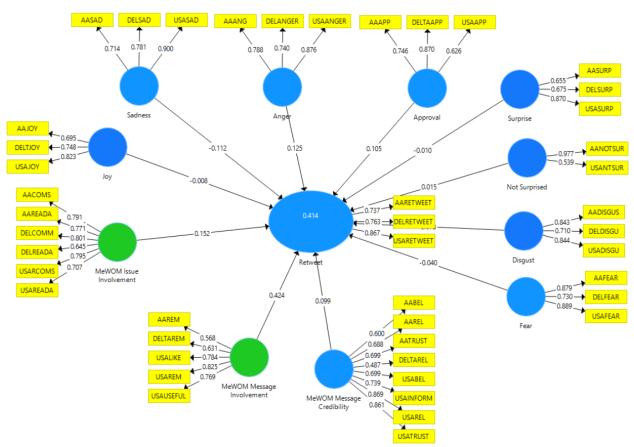
Figure 1 - Negative Valence MeWOM Brand Image Disruption Retweet Model
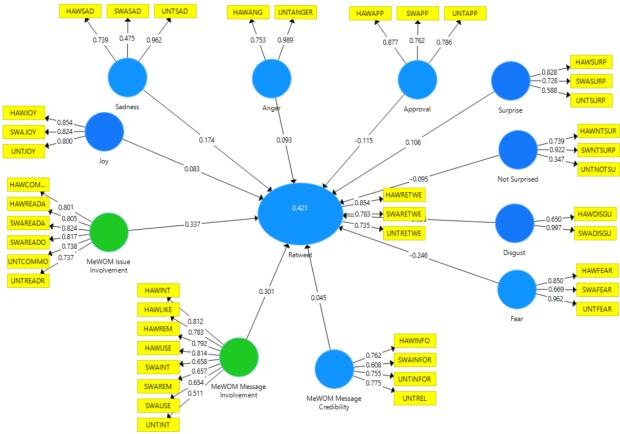
Figure 2 - Positive Valence MeWOM Brand Image Disruption Retweet Model

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For further information contact:
Jennifer B. Barhorst
College of Business, Lander University
(864) 388-8355
jbarhorst@lander.edu

MASS CUSTOMIZATION - ITS PRACTICE IN THE ACADEMIC ENVIRONMENT

Barton Jennings, Western Illinois University
Honey Zimmerman, Western Illinois University

ABSTRACT

Numerous reports indicate that supply chain managers generally find it difficult to recruit new personnel who possess the qualifications required to contribute immediately to enhancing supply chain performance. A major challenge is that supply chain management (SCM) is seeing significant growth at the academic level, but many companies report that the curriculum offerings of SCM programs do not always match up well with the requirements of their business clientele. This is often due to the narrow focus of many programs, created by limited faculty and classroom subject matter. This paper describes the efforts of one SCM program to use the business practice of mass customization to produce graduates with skill sets attractive to the relevant practitioners: The companies actually recruiting students for employment.

INTRODUCTION

A major issue in the supply chain management (SCM) field is that there is little agreement as to what the field includes and does not include. Degree programs are located in marketing, management, operations management, information technology, engineering, economics, and many other departments, often based upon the faculty creating the program and the supply chain theories supported by the program (Cope et al., 2009). This theory development creates a challenge in academia and business as programs vary significantly and many are not entirely attractive to the companies recruiting SCM talent (Bearth, 2010).

The challenge of covering all possible SCM-related topics is impossible for all but the largest degree programs. And even here, Mangan and Christopher (2005) report that there is a tendency to overemphasizing academic subject matter at the expense of pragmatic content. Numerous presentations and reports have documented this challenge, and direct contact with recruiters has also exposed this issue. It is clear that a program that fits the needs of one business is often not suitable for another business. Melnyk, Stank, and Close (2000) may have said it best that supply chain programs must maintain close contacts with industry and change as industry does. This is a major challenge for any academic program and this paper describes the use of mass customization to meet the needs of multiple companies, a process that can be replicated by all disciplines facing the same challenge.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A challenge with defining a supply chain management degree program is that there is not a universal agreement on what exactly constitutes SCM. Because of this, which courses are necessary for a SCM program are open to interpretation across both academia and business (Cope et al., 2009). This has led to varying SCM curriculums at different institutions, many not fully aligned with emerging business paradigms or industry needs (Ellis, 2011; Neureuther and O'Neill, 2011). A common comment reported on curriculum surveys for this study was that many schools do not teach the specific skills needed by the business answering the survey.

While most programs produce a similar core of general SCM skills such as procurement, logistics, and network development, the customization of graduates for specific jobs at specific companies is still a goal not reached by many programs. It has been suggested that this is due to many factors including the interests and viewpoints of the faculty involved, the resources available (e.g., instructor and class time, courses offered), and the willingness of faculty to work with industry. Finding ways to overcome these challenges is essential for mass customization of education to exist and to provide the benefits the concept promises.

The concept of "mass customization" concerns having a core manufacturing process with the ability to customize the product as it is made. For manufacturing, custom products are often an essential strategy. A report released by Bain & Company in 2013 stated that customization can tie a customer closer to a business by

providing them product that meets their needs specifically, and allows the manufacturer to stay current with industry trends. A key for many companies is knowing what level of customization is needed (Inc., 2013).

The same principals can be applied to education. Mawhinney (2009) reported that while SCM leaders agree that a fundamental set of topics crucial to SCM career success generally exists, there is little conformity as to the degree of expertise thought to be needed across them. He then continues by stating that programs should reflect their regional business clientele's requirements to make their graduates most suitable as employees.

METHODOLOGY

As stated, a key component of mass customization is to understand the needs of the consumer. In this case, this involves the companies that actively recruit and hire undergraduate students to fill internship and full-time SCM-related positions. To move beyond the faculty's academic interests, a survey was initiated to gather information from industry participants. The goal of the survey was to determine educational needs that are outside of the 33 hours of core business classes, and supply chain courses that all students are required to take for the Bachelor of Business in Supply Chain Management. These program specific courses include a general SCM survey course, plus courses in Transportation Management, Global Supply Chain Management, Operations Management, Supply Chain Negotiation, Supply Management, Spreadsheet and Database Applications, and an internship.

The process began with a review of existing electives and comments from members of the advisory board about additional courses and subjects of potential interest. From this initial program review, a list of courses from numerous fields across the university was created for a more formalized survey. The participants in this survey were from organizations of all sizes ranging from multinational large equipment manufacturers and agribusiness companies, to national insurance firms and food distributors, to regional transportation providers and medium-sized production companies. Since this survey reflected the regional bias of the university, the survey results are not necessarily generalizable to SCM programs as a whole, but the process can certainly be used by other programs, SCM or otherwise.

The courses included on the survey were drawn from previous discussions with companies, but an opportunity to comment upon other subjects was made available. This latter part of the survey was essential as the number of topics related to SCM is large, with Mawhinney (2009) stating that there are seventy-eight core SCM concepts fundamental to career success, and

there have been significant changes in the field since then. The survey included seventeen electives, including courses in supply chain management, engineering, agriculture, management, business law, marketing and sales. Surveys were originally distributed to approximately 20 companies by e-mail and face-to-face during the program's SCM Day, an on-campus recruiting/networking event. More than a dozen companies responded to the initial survey. A second survey with a larger business sampling is underway during Fall 2016.

SURVEY RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Scoring of the results was conducted using a 10-8-6-5-3-1 ranking, reflecting that students can take up to six electives from this list and that some companies recommended more than six. Additionally, it places additional weighting on those recommended highest. The ranking was based upon the system used in international track and field, a system designed to benefit those who place higher disproportionately more than those who place lower.

The result of the surveys showed clear trends with significant differences in the needs of different companies and for different job titles. It also clearly showed the need for several courses whose need was being questioned. In particular, the survey showed a need by many recruiting companies for a semester-long undergraduate class in Warehousing and Material Handling and another in Inventory Strategies, although some SCM programs do not offer them. Additionally, the surveys indicated a need to strengthen multi-disciplinary relationships with the fields of engineering and agriculture. The high rating of the Managerial Decision Making course was also a significant finding as the Management program had not offered the course in several years. To make the course available, the SCM program provided the faculty necessary to update the course's materials and to offer the course at least once a year.

The survey results were analyzed and reported in three primary manners. The first simply compared the courses across all companies, providing a general recommendation for students, faculty, and advisors. This analysis impacted course scheduling, including the number of offerings per year and the course timings to avoid conflicts with highly rated courses in other departments. The second analysis of the survey results was by job category, a challenge since many companies use different titles for positions with similar responsibilities. For many of these positions, follow-up interviews were often required with the companies to determine the responsibilities of the position. The third analysis conducted was company specific. This ranking provided students a listing that would direct them to

employment with a specific company. The results of all of these findings were then shared with academic advising and students to assist them in career planning.

General Ranking Results

This ranking evaluated the courses and their role in a general SCM career. This general ranking of electives showed a clear differentiation, with six courses having substantially higher results, indicating a common need among the companies. An interesting note is that three of these courses - Supply Chain Risk Management, Project Management, and Inventory Strategies - had been created over the previous five years due to company suggestions. A fourth highly rated course - Managerial Decision Making - had not been offered in several years by the university with no future offerings planned by the management program. These findings alone provided benefit to the program and indicated a change in the needs of industry. Table 1 displays the ranking of the current 17 electives.

Several important changes have been made in the program as a result of this survey. In addition to the SCM program assuming responsibility for the Managerial Decision Making course, the program has been able to schedule and staff the other courses at least once a year. Additionally, based upon the survey results and additional industry comments, the Supply Chain Risk Management course was converted to an online format so that distance-learning students and graduate students could also take the course.

Other changes have occurred due to the survey. Course schedules have been altered to reduce time conflicts with highly rated electives in other programs. This has also enabled non-majors to take SCM courses, and for other degree programs to promote their course offerings and minors, enlarging the course offerings without additional faculty or course sections.

Career Track Ranking Results

The second evaluation of the survey data was designed to determine the relative importance of the program's entire list of electives to a specific career track within the supply chain field, as displayed in Table 2. An interesting finding was that there are only small differences in courses suggested for each field with four courses found on all lists, but with significant differences in their priority. It should be noted that several courses with relatively high rankings fail to show on this list. This appears to be due to interest in all fields, but at a relatively low level.

Of the career tracks, only agricultural business saw a substantial difference in course recommendations. This is most likely due to the nature of the companies surveyed, with several whose core business is

agriculture, while most participating in the survey being in the manufacturing or transportation service sectors. Based upon comments from other industries, future surveys will likely break the data down for more tracks such as manufacturing operations and construction management. These additional career tracks will also support SCM minors from these related fields, enhancing the career attractiveness of students from other academic departments.

Table 1. General Elective Ranking Results

Rank	Course	Title	Total Points
1	SCM 465	Supply Chain Risk Management	467
2	MGT 425	Managerial Decision Making	383
3	SCM 457	Project Management	361
4	SCM 470	Inventory Strategies	330
5	SCM 330	Warehouse Management	276
6	MGT 455	Total Quality Management	252
7	BL 431	The Law of Commercial Transactions	128
8	ET 344	Cost Reduction Practices in Manufacturing	113
9	MKTG 317	International Business	98
10	HRM 353	Human Resource Management	86
11	MKTG 441	Customer Relationship Management	75
12	AGEC 349	Agribusiness Management	75
13	MKTG 335	Professional Selling	52
14	ET 241	Manufacturing Processes	31
15	AGEC 333	Agricultural Marketing	29
16	ET 345	Quality Engineering	21
17	MKTG 497	Marketing Management	3

Table 2. Ranking of Available Electives by Career Track

Electives	Super./Manager	Gen. SC Admin.	Inbound Transport	Outbound Transport	Warehouse Manager	Purchase Manager	Inventory Manager	Ag. Business
SCM 330	6		6	3	1		5	
SCM 457	2	2	3	4	3	3	4	5
SCM 465	3	1	1	1	5	2	2	6
SCM 470	6	3			4	1	1	
AGEC 333								2
AGEC 349								1
BL 431				6				
ET 241								
ET 344		4				6		
ET 345								
HRM 353	4							
MGT 425	1	6	4	5	2	5	3	3
MGT 455	5	5	2	2	6	4	6	6
MKTG 317			5					
MKTG 335								
MKTG 441								4
MKTG 497								

KEY: 1 = most desired, 2 = second most, 3 = third most, etc. (ties included)

Specific Company Results

An important part of the survey's results looks at the rankings by each organization with a long-term consistent relationship with the program. These initial rankings looked at firms that year after year recruited from the program, generally for interns and full-time positions. For a number of students, this was the most important ranking as it allows them to customize their electives to the specific company that they wish to work for.

Examples from some of these companies are shown in Table 3. These examples are from various types of businesses, including major agricultural companies, a major retailer, and a heavy equipment manufacturer. It should be noted that while two courses (SCM 465 and MGT 425) are listed at the top of all of these companies' listings, there are significant differences in the other courses, particularly at the middle and lower course rankings.

It should be noted that a number of these companies employ SCM majors and minors in various career tracks, including transportation, procurement, and inventory management. Where possible, information for each company is also presented by career track, allowing students with specific track interests to see the career opportunities with those firms.

UTILIZING THE RESULTS FOR COMPANY AND STUDENT BENEFITS

The main objective in conducting the survey was to obtain feedback from organizations actively recruiting a particular program's SCM students as to the set of skills that would make them most appealing. Previous surveys had looked at the program's core courses and their content (Tracey et al., 2012), so this survey was designed to add the customization that would set students apart from their peers and to add a set of skills that may not otherwise be obtained. The survey also provided a number of surprising results, including some significant differences in the focus of national and international firms. For example, the interest in courses covering international issues varied by a company's level of international activity, with some perceiving these courses to be highly important while others did not.

As previously stated, providing adequate coverage of all possible SCM-related topics is a challenge to any program. The survey provided information that enabled the program to evaluate resources and set priorities for course offerings. It also has been used to support course offerings in other programs, ensuring the

Table 3. Elective Course Rankings by Firm (Example)

Specific Firm Industry Category	Course Ranking					
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Multinational Agribusiness	SCM 465	AGEC 333	MKTG 441	MGT 425	SCM 457	BL 431
Multinational Farm Equipment Manufacturer	SMC 330	SCM 465	AGEC 349	BL 431	MGT 425	MGT 455
Multinational Heavy Equipment Manufacturer	SCM 465	SCM 470	MGT 425	SCM 330	MGT 455	ET 241
Multinational Steel Parts Manufacturer	SCM 465	MGT 425	SCM 470	SCM 457	SCM 330	ET 344
Multinational Retailer	SCM 465	HRM 353	MGT 425	SCM 330	SCM 470	SCM 457
National Food Distributor	MGT 425	SCM 457	MGT 455	SCM 465	SCM 470	MKTG 441

availability of electives for the SCM program. Academic advising has also been able to use this process in several ways, but in particular by scheduling student coursework based upon the regularity of course offerings. In some cases, the priorities established by the survey has allowed students to accelerate their graduation or perform better in their internships as relevant and desired courses are offered on a more regular basis.

For the students and academic advisors, an additional advantage provided by the surveys are the yearly reports distributed by the programs. These reports provide detailed information about industry interest in the courses and are used to create degree plans for students in the SCM program. For the companies, these students are now better prepared for the positions that they are recruited for. Additionally, the input from the companies has served to make them partners in the program and many now take a more active role in program support and subject presentations.

IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Based upon the success of the survey, the SCM program has continued to refine and conduct the survey on an ongoing basis. This has enabled new companies to participate and existing recruiters to respond to industry changes. While not perfect, the survey has enabled the program to evaluate its course offerings and make adjustments to benefit the students and the companies that recruit from the program. As the mission statement of the U.S. Department of Education reads, education should "promote student achievement and preparation for global competitiveness," and there is little better way than to link educational programs to those organizations already in the field.

The same methodology can be employed by other programs regardless of academic discipline to evaluate their ability to meet industry needs. The basic process of an initial survey to find organizational needs, a survey of available courses across the university that support

that education, and then a survey to find specific company interests, is a task that can be achieved by most programs.

It should also be stated that the results of this project would not have been possible without the participation and time of the companies involved. Many were not only willing to be involved, but seemed pleasantly surprised to be given the chance to contribute to curriculum development. These growing relationships also benefit the program and its students, leading to more opportunities for both.

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For further information contact:
Barton Jennings
College of Business & Technology
Department of Management and Marketing
Western Illinois University
1 University Circle
Macomb, IL, 61455-1390
Phone: (309) 298-1540
BE-Jennings@wiu.edu

THE VW DIESEL SCANDAL: DECEIT FOUNDED IN CORPORATE CULTURE

Timothy W. Aurand/Northern Illinois University
Wayne Finley/Northern Illinois University
Vijaykumar Krishnan/Northern Illinois University
Ursula Y. Sullivan/Northern Illinois University
NIU Students: Jordyn Bowen, Michael Rackauskas, Rage Thomas, Jakob Willkomm

ABSTRACT

Numerous corporate scandals have rocked the automotive industry over the past decades. With unprecedented hubris, VW sold 11 million vehicles worldwide and equipped each one with an emissions defeat device programmed to make a vehicle perform differently while being tested for emissions than when operating on the road (Hotten, 2015). While the full extent of the VW Diesel Scandal (VWDS) has yet to be determined, the damage inflicted upon the VW brand, consumers, and the environment is unprecedented. What will become apparent is the hypocrisy of VW's Think Blue program and how a honest and sincere adherence to Sustainability and Triple Bottom Line reporting would have avoided the scandal that has cost so many so dearly (Willard, 2002).

INTRODUCTION

The following paper is the culmination of research performed by a select group of students from a large Midwestern university under the guidance of a team of Marketing and Library faculty. The university's Volkswagen Diesel Scandal Research Team (VWDSRT) formed in the spring of 2016 with the goal of researching the VW diesel scandal, writing academic cases, and making presentations to university students. Faculty members of the team presented a paper detailing the VWDSRT project at the 2016 Fall MMA Educators' Conference. The following paper provides the reader with the VWDSRT's findings, including a case background and an explanation as to how such corporate misconduct could have transpired.

While blame for the VWDS can be traced back and attributed to the upper echelons of VW Management – a management team which fostered a corporate culture of deceit and a bottom-line-first mentality – its origins stem from a host of disparate factors including market pressures and management style.

DISCOVERY

Questionable ethical behavior is nothing new to the auto industry, domestic or foreign. Memories of the Chevrolet Corvair and its poorly engineered handling dynamics remain fresh in the minds of many auto enthusiasts. Ralph Nadar's book, *Unsafe at Any Speed*, (1965) was instrumental in bringing light to the ethical issues facing US auto manufacturers and consumers who suffered from the poorly designed products coming out of Detroit.

In the early 1980s, Ford Motor Company had a record 21 million vehicles under investigation because of transmission issues that would allow the vehicle to slip out of park and into reverse. The final number of deaths, injuries, and the amount of damage caused due to this problem is unknown, but this along with noteworthy issues surrounding exploding Ford Pintos and Ford vehicles equipped with Firestone exploding tires, faulty Ford ignition switches exemplifies the calamity of Ford has faced over the past few decades (Wallace, 2014).

Even automotive brands well-known for their quality are not immune to questionable ethical behavior. In 2009, Toyota became entangled in a recall surrounding a "Sticky Pedal" that caused vehicles to accelerate out of control when a pedal became trapped by the floor mat. The drama lasted two years while Toyota recalled their vehicles suffered the pains of a $1.3 Billion class action law suit (National Highway Traffic Safety Association, 2011).

Even more recently, General Motors has been the center of a recall surrounding ignition switch issues that would cause many of their vehicles to turn off and lead to a loss of control. As a result, GM offered over $1 million to families of deceased drivers or passengers who suffered from the firm's oversight, and eventually GM agreed to pay $35 million fine to settle a federal probe into the ignition switch recall (Valdes-Dapena, Yellin, 2014).

Vehicles manufactured by 14 different automakers have been recalled to replace front airbags

in what the National Highway Traffic Safety Association has called "the largest and most complex safety recall in U.S. history". The Takata airbag recall involves airbags detonating at impromptu times and affects cars manufactured between 2002 and 2015 and have already resulted in 10 deaths and over 100 injuries (Takata Airbag Recall, 2016).

To understand the consequences of the VWDS scandal, one must first examine the rise of VW's presence in the diesel automobile market. In 2005, VW CEO Ferdinand Piëch set his sights on the the US market. Volkswagen had a comfortable 19% market share in Western Europe, compared to a dismal 2% in the US. With rising gas prices and public concern regarding climate change, VW was poised to take a significant stake in the world's largest auto market. To fulfill this vision, VW would need to produce a vehicle that features performance, with both an attractive price tag and environmentally conscious image (Smith & Parloff, 2016). During 2007, in an attempt to create a greener image in the European market and to promote the sales of its diesel automobiles, VW launched an advertising campaign with the slogan, "Those who drive cars carry a great responsibility, but those that make them even more so" (VW Touts…, 2007). Later that year, VW began its foray into the US diesel market with its *Dieselution Tour,* a campaign intended to publicize its new line of high-efficiency diesel automobiles and to educate the public on the environmental advantages of diesel technology (Bernstein, 2007). Soon, VW gained a strong reputation among both consumers and auto industry insiders as a leader in producing environmentally-friendly, high miles-per-gallon, diesel vehicles. By 2009, diesel vehicles made up 20 percent of VW's US sales (Peckham, 2010). As both sales and a greener reputation increased, VW was able to drive smoothly down the environmentally-friendly highway—that is, until their vehicles came under increased scrutiny.

In early 2014, John German and Peter Mock of the International Council on Clean Transportation (ICCT) detected incongruities in the emissions of diesel powered VWs when operating in "very ordinary" on-the-road conditions, as opposed to typical, laboratory test conditions. Although German and Mock reported their findings to VW and the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), they received no response from either organization (Patra, 2016). Curiously, after German and Mock had sent their results to VW, VW recalled approximately 500,000 diesel powered cars in December, 2014 to address software and emissions issues. According to Patra (2016) Volkswagen still did not take the steps necessary to resolve the emissions problems.

Shortly after German and Mock made their discovery, a team of West Virginia University scientists were employed by the ICCT to conduct independent emissions tests on VW diesel powered vehicles (Glinton, 2015). With the use of a portable emissions measurement system (PEMS) which measures carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, oxides of nitrogen and hydrocarbons, etc. from the tailpipes of vehicles while operating on the road (West Virginia University, 2015), the West Virginia University found that certain VW diesel powered vehicles exceeded nitrogen oxide emissions by 40 times the EPA's allowed standard (United States Environmental Protection Agency, 2016). Yet, this same line of vehicles produced emissions well below EPA limits when tested prior to sale. These results would later be attributed to a "defeat device," which allowed VW to alter the emissions of their diesel vehicles while being tested.

Since the discovery of the defeat device, the ramifications for VW have been dramatic. Approximately 500,000 cars sold in the US and 11 million vehicles sold worldwide, including those sold by VW, Porsche, Audi, (along with Skoda, and SEAT vehicles sold in Europe), were discovered to have the used the defeat device (Hotten, 2015). In addition to a massive recall, a buy-back program, class-action lawsuits, and multi-billion dollar settlements are taking hold. And while the consequences of the VWDS are of significant importance, understanding the underlying causes of the scandal are of equal consequence.

MANAGERIAL DOCTRINE AND SALES GOALS: WHERE INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL PRESSURES MEET

The world is now well aware of VW's deceitful manipulation of its diesel engine's software and hardware to meet stringent emissions standards. But it is an examination of the firm's very culture and management style that explains how such fraud could have transpired in the first place.

At the time VW attempted to penetrate the US diesel market, it met an unforeseen hurdle in the US EPA's rigid NOx emission regulations (Smith & Parloff, 2016). In 2009, the U.S. announced the maximum allowable emissions level was 44 mg NOx/km, compared to the 180 mg NOx/km that was permitted in Europe. Volkswagen, accustomed to working within European parameters, faced a huge challenge in living up to their brand image and world renowned performance reputation. VW had to reduce the emissions of its diesel engines by a full 75%. Struggling to meet these expectations, VW place undo pressure on their teams and demanded they meet nearly impossible expectations (Smith & Parloff, 2016).

According to a whistleblower who spoke to German newspaper *Süddeutsche Zeitung,* it was not,

"…acceptable to admit anything is impossible. Instead of telling management that they could not meet the parameters, the decision was made to manipulate vehicle performance. No one at VW had the courage to admit failure; moreover, the engine developers felt secure because there was no way of detecting the deceit with the testing technology that existed at the time" (Smith & Parloff, 2016).

It was, as the whistleblower said, "an act of desperation" (Smith & Parloff, 2016).

In 2006, engineer James Liang and his team were unable to meet consumer expectations, internal expectations, and emissions standards for the new diesel engine (Viswanatha & Rogers, 2016). Liang operated in an environment in which dealings with top management were handled with a "distance, a fear and respect". If VW employees, "…presented bad news, those were the moments that it could become quite unpleasant and loud and quite demanding" (Hoffman, 2016).

After failing to meet both EPA emission standards and internal design parameters, VW received assistance from Robert Bosch GmbH—the world's largest supplier of automotive parts and a frequent collaborator with VW (Boston, 2016). Consequently, Bosch is responsible for many of the components directly involved in the VW diesel scandal including the engine control software which fraudulently alters emission test results. An examination of communications between Bosch and VW suggests both companies were preparing for the consequences of their deceit. In 2008, Bosch requested compensation for anticipated liability from the devices supplied by Bosch, which VW subsequently denied. What's more, an email from a Bosch employee on June 23, 2008, indicates Bosch was concerned with being identified in the case but suggested they could help VW modify their diesel engines to recognize when they were being tested (Boston & Dauer, 2015).

The pressure placed upon engineers, and even the loyalty displayed by Bosch, is of little surprise given VW's corporate culture which places employees under the scrutiny of a highly centralized hierarchy that expects them to perform, regardless of the demands. But this is not done through explicit orders. For example, Ferdinand Dudenhöffer, director of the Center for Automotive Research at the University of Duisburg-Essen, Germany suggests that VW's top management may have never directly instructed employees to install the cheat software (Goodman, 2015). Instead, the company's work environment discourages debate and dissenting opinions. "Sometimes you can do things without explicitly

ordering them," said Dudenhöffer . "At Volkswagen, the management might say, 'Please think again on that, and if you don't find a solution, we may need to find another engineer.' You may find yourself in a situation where, if you want to keep your job, you have no escape." Volkswagen's labor leader, Bernd Osterloh, addressed a letter to employees in September, 2015, acknowledging that the company needed to change its workplace culture and create "a climate in which problems aren't hidden but can be openly communicated to superiors, [and where] it's possible and permissible to argue with your superior about the best way to go."

THE VOLKSWAGEN CULTURE

Although VW's management may not have made outright demands on employees to participate in the scandal, the pressure to perform manifested from the apex of the organization and is clearly reinforced by top management initiatives. For example, Ferdinand Piëch, Chairman and CEO of VW from 1993-2002 (McHugh, 2015), was known for his demanding management style which, when implemented, could drive his subordinates to extreme measures. On one occasion, when questioned regarding the mystery behind the VW Golf's remarkable body fit, Piëch explained,

"I'll give you the recipe. I called all the body engineers, stamping people, manufacturing, and executives into my conference room. And I said, 'I am tired of all these lousy body fits. You have six weeks to achieve world-class body fits. I have all your names. If we do not have good body fits in six weeks, I will replace all of you. Thank you for your time today " (Bob Lutz, 2015).

It was later learned that after the six week time allotment the Golf body fit did not meet Piëch's demands, and in an act of desperation, photos of the Golf were touched up to make them merely make the Golf appear to have tighter body fits (Smith & Parloff, 2016).

Martin Winterkorn, VW CEO from 2007-September, 2015 maintained a management style that mirrored Ferdinand Piëch's. Winterkorn was known to demand perfection and excellence in all things VW, and set corporate goals of launching VW to the top of the automobile industry by 2018 (Hoffman, 2016). Winterkorn's intense ambition was notoriously intimidating and demanding. At VW, "…sometimes you can do things without explicitly ordering them (employees). When Winterkorn was CEO, there simply was no such thing as job security (Goodman, 2015), and ironically, even at the helm. So, on September 23, 2015, 8 days after the scandal became public, Martin Winterkorn, CEO of VW, resigned for

the "…interests of the company even though I (Winterkorn) am not aware of any wrongdoing on my part." (Thompson & Liakos, 2015).

VOLKSWAGEN'S RESPONSE

Despite the root causes of the VWDS, VW's response, and consumers acceptance or rejection of that response, will determine VWs survival. As is the case with countless scandals involving multi-million or billion dollar companies misleading the public, VW must make amends with consumers and attempt to rebuild and reposition its much tarnished brand.

Over 500 lawsuits have already been filed against VW (Beene & Hetnzner, 2016). Three collective settlements have also been reached between Volkswagen and vehicle owners/lessees, the Department of Justice, the Environmental Protection Agency, and the State of California through the California Air Resources Board (Volkswagen Group of America America, 2016). Thus far, VW has not only agreed to recall more than half a million defeat device equipped vehicles sold in the US and over 11 million vehicles worldwide, it has also halted the sale of all VW diesel equipped vehicles in the US (David, 2015). But questions still remain regarding effected vehicles. Volkswagen has yet to announce hardware and software modifications for US diesel powered cars, while in Germany, the Federal Motor Vehicle Agency gave preliminary approval to a repair procedure for engines not sold in the US where emissions standards are much stricter than in Europe (Boston & Dauer 2015).

To address the harm caused to the environment VW will pay $2.7 billion into a trust over the next 3 years ($900 million annually) to support environmental programs that will reduce the NOx in the atmosphere. Volkswagen also agreed to spend $2 billion over the next 10 years ($200 million annually) to promote non-polluting cars and Zero Emission Vehicle technology, including battery-electric vehicles, fuel-cell vehicles and light and heavy-duty plug-in hybrid vehicles (Volkswagen Group of America, 2016).

Further, in an attempt to win back the brand loyalty of its customers, VW has constructed a program for VW owners that include both buyback and approved emissions modifications, once such modifications have been approved. While complex, the settlement incorporates substantial cash payments of $5,100-$10,000 per vehicle and a vehicle buy back price based upon the vehicles value in September, 2015. Lessees are also entitled to a Lessee Restitution Payment program (Volkswagen Group of America, 2016).

Occasionally overlooked in a scandal such as this is the harm done to the dealers which by no fault of their own have suffered dramatic losses in vehicle, service, and parts sales, as well as dealer brand equity. Ultimately, 652 US dealerships have been affected by the scandal and VW is responding with total compensation of $1.2 billion, or roughly $1.84 million per dealership (Beene & Hetzner, 2016). Unfortunately, this recompense does not adequately address the potential decline in sales from loss in brand attraction, and a product line that will lack in fuel efficient options which would compete with hybrids and electric vehicles.

That said, for a company with vast financial resources, recalls, lawsuits, and customer incentives programs, collectively, may not be the biggest obstacle which VW will face. Rather, VW faces the challenge of reengineering an entire corporate management structure which created the corporate culture responsible for scandal. As Bern Osterloh, VW labor leader states, "… [VW] needs a new corporate culture that's more inclusive and avoids a climate in which problems are hidden" (Reiter & Rauwald, 2015).

Immediately after taking over the helm at VW, Muller began restructuring. Initially, VW wanted to allow Muller to become comfortable in his new position; however, Muller did not have the luxury of time (Reiter & Rauwald, 2015). The very day Muller took over as CEO, VW's Supervisory Board passed resolutions for a new organizational structure. Ultimately, "The new structure strengthens the brands and regions, gives the Group Board of Management the necessary leeway for strategy and steering within the company, and lays a focus on the targeted development of future-oriented fields" (Volkswagen, 2015). The board chose to concentrate on major changes including, but not limited to: reorganization of the North American sales region, combining the Porsche brand group with Bentley and Bugatti, upgrading brands and regions, designing new group functions for efficiency and future-oriented fields, streamlining the Group Board of Management, and making further Board of Management changes (Volkswagen, 2015). "Volkswagen said that more authority will be given to individual brands and regions, a departure from the centralized structures that kept key decisions in Wolfsburg and the chief executive officer's inner circle" (Reiter & Rauwald 2015).

THE MARKET'S REACTION

One would think that consumers' reactions to such brazen deception would be overwhelming and lead any company to quick ruin. But it appears that

customers in the auto industry have either short memories or forgiving natures; or, VW possesses brand equity that makes it impervious to scandal. Media coverage was initially quite critical of VW, and owners of recalled VWs seemed incensed. And while domestic sales of VWs are down substantially since the scandal broke, global sales have fared far better. In August of 2016, nearly one year since the scandal had gone public, VW sales in the US were down 9.1% (month-over-month), but were up 4.7% globally. This follows about one year of negative month-over-month global sales (Beene & Hetzner, 2016).

European consumers, in particular, appear quite forgiving towards VW despite the scandal. Sixty-five percent of respondents in a recent poll by the management consulting firm, Prophet, thought the scandal had been exaggerated and that VW still built excellent cars. The same survey, which surveyed 1,000 Germans only two weeks after news of the scandal broke, found that 91% of respondents believed other carmakers were also manipulating emissions tests and that VW was just the first one caught. Three quarters of study participants stated they would still buy a VW if they liked the vehicle and the price, and 63% expected the affair to be largely forgotten within a year. Sixty percent did not expect any long-term damage to the "made in Germany" brand (Löhr, 2016).

CONCLUSION

In May of 2011, Volkswagen rolled out its "Think Blue." marketing campaign in the US to coincide with the inauguration of its manufacturing facility in Chattanooga, Tennessee, at the time, one of the world's "greenest" automobile factories. The VW plant complied with the U.S. LEED (Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design) standards which had set new benchmarks for environmentally-friendly and resource efficient plant structures and production processes. The purpose of the "Think Blue." campaign was to "…encourage eco-friendly mobility and progressive ideas for responsible action in everyday life". "Think Blue." was to bear witness to VW's "…holistic understanding of sustainability (Volkswagen Press Release, 2011).

How hypocritical was it of VW develop and install "defeat devices" aimed at deceiving customers and polluting the atmosphere while simultaneously promoting a totally contradictory position on sustainability -

"At Volkswagen, we not only have a responsibility to our customers - we have a responsibility to the environment. Sustainability is a corporate objective that we take very seriously; it is embodied by Think Blue. It's about less talk and more action, every day. The best part is that you can join us on this journey. Think Blue is about being more responsible on the road and more environmentally conscious - not just in our cars, but everywhere. For us, building low-emission vehicles is just the beginning. Maximizing their fuel efficiency potential and further reducing fuel consumption across the board are the next challenges we'll face." (Think Blue)

Based upon what has transpired over the course of the past year, Volkswagen is left with no option but to reengineer the managerial culture which conspired in one of the most devious scandals in automotive history, if it hopes to prevent such a scandal from being repeated. While much of the consumer market seems to have forgiven VW for its actions, one cannot assume that consumers will grant a second reprieve should VW elect to deceive once again. And although the billions of dollars in legal fines, payments to dealers and customers, as well as a severely tarnished brand, will inflict serious damage to VW's ability to compete in both the near and short term, a dramatic change remains necessary.

Despite the knowledge one has garnered on the makings of the scandal, what remains to be seen is if the necessary changes can be developed and implemented by management from within. Volkswagen may also need to recruit new top level managers from outside the organization. However, should VW go down this path, the new management may face resistance from current VW employees already entrenched in the established corporate culture.

To its advantage, VW has an extremely powerful, albeit tarnished, brand upon which to build, a surprisingly loyal customer base, and a gifted workforce. And while the chances appear good that VW will eventually recover from diesel scandal, what remains to be seen is if the firm is willing, and able, to implement the dramatic changes necessary to prevent such an egregious scandal from happening in the future.

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For further information contact:
Timothy W. Aurand
Northern Illinois University
(815) 764-9642
taurand@niu.edu

VIDEO MARKETING - MEETING PROGRAM NEEDS THROUGH INTERDISCIPLINARY OUTREACH - A CASE EXAMPLE

Barton Jennings, Western Illinois University
Shanna Bruer, Western Illinois University

ABSTRACT

Marketing efforts that include the use of social media as a communication channel have proliferated, and video is now an expected and necessary competency. In particular, education heavily uses video marketing to promote programs and schools to prospective students. The challenge for many programs is a lack of knowledge and ability in this area, thus the question of how to get involved with video marketing. The solution is often a partnership with programs that teach practices related to video marketing. This paper examines an example of such an outreach whereby a supply chain management (SCM) degree program reached out to a marketing program to jointly produce marketing materials for the video world.

INTRODUCTION

Whether defined as a product by Kotler and Fox (1985) or a service (Mazzarol, 1998), marketing of higher education has become an area of increasing importance and study by researchers and academic institutions (Hemsley-Brown, et al, 2006). The competitive nature of the industry has led to a nearly 50% increase in marketing spend since 2000, with the average four-year institution spending nearly $1,200 per student in terms of acquisition cost (Hanover Research, 2014).

The competitiveness of the industry has led to a variety of universities expanding their marketing strategies to include Chief Marketing Officers to aid in the brand development for entire institutions and individual programs. According to Northwestern University's CMO, "There is a growing interest and belief in the importance of defining and articulating your university brand, because it's important to be differentiating and compelling – not unlike a product in the consumer space" (Morrison, 2013).

The importance of such efforts increases for little known programs, disciplines, or even schools. Supply chain management (SCM) remains an emerging discipline with limited coverage at universities (Harland et al., 2006), curriculums that vary greatly across institutions (Bearth, 2010), with even the basic theories open to interpretation across both academia and business (Cope et al., 2009). This creates the situation where most prospective students do not know what the field is, and if they do, are often confused about the offerings of different programs. Situations like this call for marketing efforts to attract and educate prospective students. However, many educational programs and institutions lack the knowledge and finances necessary to conduct such campaigns.

Additionally, marketing efforts towards college-aged students are different than marketing programs towards the general public. According to Attention Era Media, an upper Midwest youth-oriented marketing firm, video marketing is an essential tool as "54% of all teens are on YouTube", "nothing tells a story like a powerful video", and "young people often make big decisions based on emotions" (Attention Era Media, 2016). Others support this belief with Murabayashi (2015) stating that "with incredibly high engagement numbers, video will continue to play an increasingly big role in the content marketing plans for universities." With this evidence, education heavily uses video marketing to promote programs and schools to prospective students (see Ripp, 2015, and Murabayashi, 2015).

The first challenge with this need to conduct video marketing is to gain an understanding of its practices. Video marketing is very broadly defined as any video content generated and placed within a firm's marketing campaign to engage consumers or potential consumers with a company, product, or service. A variety of techniques including testimonials, event footage, and history can be used in this effort. A second challenge is that programs like SCM do not teach video marketing and are often unable to afford the cost of professional marketing efforts. The same can be said for

most degree programs, thus this is a common situation in education, as well as in private business. This then requires alternative ideas, with many attempting to use student videos and traditional university marketing tools. However, at some locations, a further alternative exists - the marketing program faculty and students.

This paper describes a specific example of a supply chain management degree program teaming with a marketing program to produce video marketing materials, providing the SCM program needed materials, and the marketing program an opportunity to teach video marketing principles in a real market situation. While this research and example is specific to an SCM program, its application appears to be unlimited where appropriate marketing program resources are available.

DEFINING THE MARKET

In meetings between the faculty of the supply chain and marketing programs, it was determined to focus the efforts on three primary markets. These were: 1) prospective students/parents; 2) industry; and 3) alumni. The choice to focus on students and their parents was a natural market, and the one to which the students could most relate. The second market focused on attracting and retaining companies that recruit supply chain management interns and graduates. This required some research into what such companies typically looked for in students and a program. The third market was selected as a way to maintain contact with alumni as a way to track program success, and to potentially attract additional funding. More about the impacts of these markets on the marketing video content is presented elsewhere.

THE PROCESS

As stated, supply chain management is a field little known to most prospective students, even though recruiting demand far exceeds the number of graduating students. Many inside the field feel that there is much to tell, but few have the expertise to conduct a public recruitment program. This is particularly true for smaller programs at less well-known schools such as supply chain management at Western Illinois University (WIU). With the support of an advisory board and a number of recruiting companies, a decision was made to conduct a marketing program that would feature a mix of traditional materials and promotional videos.

An important reason that video marketing was considered to be a key part of the effort was the international nature of many of the companies that recruit supply chain students at Western Illinois University, and thus the need to attract students from many locations and varied backgrounds. As stated by Murabayashi (2015), "Even though college scouting trips are fairly common nowadays, there will always be a percentage of students who cannot travel to view a campus. And even those who have visited might have lingering questions about the school that can't be answered through traditional written materials."

Previous research on the topic has determined that "the most effective college promotional videos offer a mix of information about the lives of current students and the school's offerings that demonstrate the character and culture of the school and what it's students and life there might be like (Ripp 2015)." However, the challenge was the ability to produce such a video and to create the marketing materials needed that would be relevant to the appropriate market. Recognizing that a limited budget would require most of the work to be done internally, a decision was made to reach out to other programs for assistance.

Examining various fields, the course Marketing 421 - Seminar in Marketing Technologies, was identified as a possible source of video marketing resources. The course has a catalog description of "a seminar course on the latest technological advances being deployed by marketers. Students will learn to understand and evaluate the impact of potential technologies on marketing strategy using industry and organizational examples." Communications with the instructor of the course determined that the class included group projects related to the needs of the SCM program and that a joint project could be designed to produce the needed materials and to provide an educational opportunity for the students in the class.

SCM Program Opportunity

During the semester chosen to create the marketing materials, the SCM program was holding their SCM Day, an annual networking and recruitment event where recruiters, alumni, and current students all meet and participate. For this event, there would be more than 300 participants with the opportunity to interview current students and faculty, alumni, and representatives of companies that recruit students in that program. From the conducted research, there was a decision to focus interviews on three topics: 1) student experiences and stories, 2) alumni success stories, and 3) recruiter stories about the reasons they recruit at this program.

To assist in the effort, a number of individuals from these groups (students, alumni, recruiters and faculty) were chosen in advance for interviews. This planning allowed the interviews to include a mix of interests and perspectives. Additionally, in several cases, advance questions or topics to discuss were provided to ensure that certain unique events or stories were captured. However, most interviews were designed

to be spontaneous to gain the real and unrehearsed feel recommended for such marketing videos.

Organization of the Class

Given the course description, the curriculum is open to those trends and technologies that are relevant at the time of the offering and most compelling to the industry and students involved each semester. Such freedom empowers the course to quickly adapt to trends within areas such as social media, virtual reality, search engine optimization, and content marketing. This rapid adaptation helps students understand the dynamic nature of the industry and increases their job placement and marketability.

For the specific classes involved, the students had no advance information about the course project involving SCM video marketing. Therefore, there was a mix of students with high technology interests and experiences, as well as those new to the subject. This provided a great deal of team learning as students learned from each other as well from the faculty and classroom materials.

Organization of the Project

While the course was not initially focused on video content generation, the opportunity to collect and create material for the Supply Chain Management program, identified in the class project as the "client," was added as the first module for the semester. To clearly define the project and the educational efforts required, the course module was broken into five phases:

Phase 1: Research. The initial research task of students was to understand the need of their "client" through internal and external research of the industry, as well as interviews of the SCM faculty. This assisted in determining the goal(s) of the video. Simultaneously, students needed to learn about the aesthetic requirements associated with video production from the perspective of sound, visual, lighting, and scripting. Finally, the students had to learn to use equipment and adapt to the filming environments presented each day.

Phase 2: Content Collection. Video was collected through three different methods – face-to-face interviews, drone video, and GoPro footage. This phase of the project required students to learn about the video process, including handling equipment and how to collect images in a working environment.

Phase 3: Content Modification. With over thirty hours of video available, students had to work on modification/editing through the platform of their choice to create a total of four videos to engage the three target markets (students/parents, recruiters, and alumni) defined by the client (the supply chain management program).

Phase 4: Content Placement. While generation of video is important, students also needed to ensure integrated marketing communication of the SCM message through a minimum of three locations (e.g. Facebook, YouTube, Vimeo, University website, and LinkedIn). A challenge for many students was the different focus of the various outlets, requiring further research about the different social markets.

Phase 5: Content Examination and Monitoring. The goal of all marketing content is to engage consumers and drive them to the "call to action" designed by the client. In some cases, the goal is to simply engage and then inform, while in others, it is to have them act by scheduling a program visit, contacting a faulty member, or applying to the program. The final stage for students was to apply their analytical skills and make changes/recommendations of how their message could be adapted to see better results.

THE VIDEO CONTENT – SEGMENTING THE MARKET

One of the tasks in creating the marketing materials was to focus on the need to promote to various groups such as students, parents, recruiters, and alumni. One of the critical aspects associated with the project was clearly segmenting the market and determining which prospective consumers/decision-makers would be targeted with each video. Distinctions among targets enabled the students to collect information from sources most influential to each group and present the knowledge in such a way as to compel viewers to convert with the "call to action" defined for each video. As previously stated, the three targets mutually defined by the Marketing and Supply Chain Management faculty and students included: 1) prospective students/parents; 2) industry; and 3) alumni.

Segment 1: Prospective Students and Parents

With rampant growth in technology, students have more higher education alternatives and are better informed of their options than ever before. Educators must therefore understand why it is that students choose (or do not choose) to pursue various options. According to survey research from Eduventures (2014), the four factors having the greatest influence on the enrollment decisions of prospective students are 1) perceived value of an institution; 2) student conversations with key influencers; 3) student research and information gathering; and 4) communication timing throughout the application process. It was the ambition of the videos to help students feel confidence in choosing the Western Illinois University Supply Chain Management Program through development of the first three through interaction with faculty, industry, and alumni.

While the prospective student is of great importance when defining the target market and message strategy, the decision-making impact of the "family" was also considered when defining the communication and content. Research from Pugsley and Coffey (2002) found that while students have a level of input in terms of their university decision, parents as consumers are of equal or greater value and should be treated as crucial in the decision-making process. The goal for this segment was to inform students/parents about the SCM industry as a whole, job growth and future, and the WIU program in particular. Specific desired conversions included visits to the SCM homepage, inquiry for visit or faculty interaction, and program application.

Segment 2: Industry

Gone are the days in which a curriculum can function strictly from a textbook, or program funding can be exclusively generated by the government. Now, industry leaders and innovative programs must work hand-in-hand to develop student learning and ensure opportunities for both students and employers. This dual-sided need led to the development of a second target market – industry. The goal for this segment was to inform industry of the program and promote current relationships to develop additional associations. The desired and measurable conversion is industry inquiry regarding the program in general, inquiries about hiring students, and attendance at career fairs and other events.

Segment 3: Alumni

The final market targeted by the project was alumni. Graduates of the program offer three specific areas of value for SCM and thus need a constant level of engagement – 1) strong stories of program success are the best advertisement for prospective students and employers; 2) their contacts and connections are "our" contacts and connections; and 3) potential for funding/donations. The greatest asset a degree program can have is strong and loyal graduates, thus the corresponding goal for this segment was to engage, emotionally connect, and ultimately drive loyalty and affection for "their" program. Specific measurable results will be additions to the SCM Facebook and LinkedIn groups. Increased campus interaction and visits are a goal of the effort as well.

GOALS AND RESULTS

The goals of this effort combined the need for supply chain management marketing videos and materials, and educational and experience opportunities for marketing students. The Supply Chain Management

program will be using the videos for the purpose for which they are designed - as a marketing tool to attract students and companies to the program and to retain alumni support. These videos have become promotional tools not previously available to the program.

For the Marketing program, the project had three primary goals: 1) create a real-world marketing assignment in which students had to serve the distinct needs of a client by developing a product that met their specifications; 2) understand the steps associated with video content creation, manipulation, and monitoring; and 3) generate a strong portfolio for students as they enter the workforce and seek social media-based careers.

For a pilot program, the results were strong. The students were quick to absorb the project at hand, their roles, and then work according to a timeline. The largest hurdle came from mastering the technology. As videography and editing was something new for both the instructor and the students, a great learning curve was encountered. The plan for future interaction involves integration of the Broadcasting and Graphic Communications departments to help with more efficient product development.

While student feedback was strong in the course in terms of overall quality and content, specific feedback provided by Marketing students was especially positive:

> "The Videography project was useful in class for learning how to operate computer editing programs, high tech cameras, and also it taught me how to interview successfully. This also allowed me to work side by side with my classmates and collaborate before giving interviews, getting the best footage, and deciding what editing needed to be made. Throughout this process I learned how important it was to be getting the right footage and optimizing the resources that were available, just as all great marketers must do while preparing their work."

> "I've interned in social media marketing positions for two years now and had already learned the value of video content to consumers. The videography project allowed me to learn how content is created to reach those consumers… it is a difficult task."

> "From your Promotions course I learned about IMC (Integrated Marketing Communications), the videography project helped me understand how IMC is used in the digital platform to deliver the same marketing message to consumers through another engagement tool."

"The videography project was fun and useful, but would have been more exciting if given the entire semester and more 'clients' to work with."

From the success of this venture, the Marketing program has already received inquiries about working with other programs on campus, certainly a note of success. As the videos are released to the public, further information about their success will become available through the Supply Chain Management program.

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For further information contact:
Shanna Bruer
College of Business & Technology
Department of Management and Marketing
Western Illinois University
1 University Circle
Macomb, IL 61415-1390
Phone: (309) 298-1535
S-Bruerhess@wiu.edu

USING IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS AND A SINGLE-SUBJECT DESIGN TO IDENTIFY *"THE ONE"*: A FEASIBILITY STUDY FOR SERVICES AND RETAIL MARKETING RESEARCH

Oscar McKnight, Ashland University
Ronald Paugh, Ashland University
Elena Kirkbride, Ashland University
Emily Sycks, Ashland University

ABSTRACT

This study merged the process of in-depth interviews within an experimental single-subject design to determine if an individual participant could be identified who would predict future group aggregate responses. Findings suggest the feasibility of identifying one individual who would predict group responses in terms of both content and relative rank-order value of concepts. The process of identifying 'The One' is offered as a viable alternative for marketers engaged in services and retail marketing research. Outcomes suggest appreciable cost and time benefits when employing this process in strategic marketing research.

INTRODUCTION

Marketing research is a critical function in business. It is vital that as the complexity of business and consumer dynamics increases, assessing the development and feasibility of alternative strategies in marketing research is paramount. A majority of marketing researchers use large samples and operationally segment by age, SES, education, etc. in order to gain consumer insight (Bailey et al., 2009). Although the use of qualitative methods like in-depth interviewing is not uncommon in marketing research, it is often criticized because it lacks the statistical rigor demanded by quantitative researchers (see Krefting, 1991). Therefore, the strategy of merging in-depth interviews within an experimental single-subject design is the focus of this alternative form of research. Specifically, is it realistic and efficient to build predictive forecasting into the single-subject design using in-depth interviewing? Ultimately, the goal of this research is to suggest a viable technique for services and retail marketers to use in research that utilizes qualitative and quantitative methodology when N = 1.

LITERATURE REVIEW

An in-depth interview is an established interdisciplinary qualitative research technique employed for data collection and analysis; it is designed to elicit information from a participant in order to achieve a holistic understanding of a specific point of view, or to explore areas of interest for further investigation (Berry, 1999). However, this is not to imply that there is a singular, standardized method of the in-depth interview or a population of best fit. In fact, more than 25 years ago, Hitchcock and Hughes (1989) enumerated various types of interviewing procedures like: structured; survey; counseling; diary; life; ethnographic; informal; and conversational interviews, depending on the population and the researcher's question(s) of interest. For clarification, in-depth interviewing is acknowledged as the most frequently utilized approach in qualitative research in the field of business (Yin, 2003). Moreover, Jamshed (2014) acknowledged that across all disciplines engaged in qualitative research, in-depth interviewing is the most frequently employed.

For a structural guide and detailed understanding of in-depth interviewing, Granot et al. (2012) contrasted the three stage approach (three-interviews, 90 minutes each) offered by Schuman (1982) with a single in-depth interview (one-interview) maintaining a focus on the three main issues or themes. The researcher's goal was to propose a method that addressed the pragmatic concerns of participant accessibility and time constraints. Regardless of the approach, Granot et al. highlighted the assumptions and procedures of in-depth interviews, which briefly include the following: listen more and talk less; follow-up and clarify points of interest; not ask leading questions; maintain open-ended queries; go with the ebb

and flow of a conversation; reconstruct events; and use silence as an interviewing tool. As a result, a researcher using in-depth interviewing will have the ability to fine-tune hypotheses, as well as generalize any thought process from participants to the general population (Jamshed, 2014). However, it is recognized that research generalizability must be tested and validated with quantitative statistical techniques.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This research is not intended to limn the literature of in-depth interviewing techniques or processes. Moreover, it is not suggesting that in-depth interviewing is without criticism or weakness. A comprehensive overview of such limitations can be found in Hammersley (2007), where the researcher highlights the necessity for a common set of practice guidelines like: research design; process methodology; and a serious need for scientific rigor that bridges the qualitative-quantitative divide. Therefore, in phase two of this study, the research methodology calls for turning the single-subject design upside down by employing in-depth interviewing in an innovative manner that allows for predictive validation.

Single-subject designs are not new, in fact, the methodology was operationalized over 50 years ago by Sidman (1960). As an overview, Horner et al. (2005) discussed how single-subject research is a rigorous, scientific methodology used to define basic principles of behavior and establish evidence-based practices. The researchers further explain how single-subject research is experimental rather than correlational or descriptive, and its purpose is to document causal, or functional, relationships between independent and dependent variables (p. 166). In most cases, single-subject designs require a logical visual comparison across conditions (Parsonson & Baer, 1978). However, single-subject research can be interpreted using statistical analyses (Todman & Dugard, 2001), yet the research design, validity and generalizability must be considered.

For a complete overview of the theory, process and traditional assessment options, the interested reader should refer to Kazdin (2011). Moreover, Kazdin (1978) had previously pointed out that one of the primary weaknesses with the single-subject analysis is the problem of visual inspection. This is the principal reason that Gentile, Roden, and Klein (1974) recommended incorporating the use of statistical tests with any single-subject design. It also should be stressed, that as a general rule, in-depth interviews are focused on insights derived from an individual, whereas, single-subject designs typically focus on an individual's internal dynamics given an identified stimulus.

Lillie et al. (2011) suggested that the ultimate goal of an n-of-1 trial is to determine the optimal intervention or solution to a problem using objective data-driven criteria. The researchers were specifically focused on medical applications. However, a general application of this goal across disciplines was discussed and is consistent with theory. In the end, Lillie et al. argue that n-of-1 trials demand serious attention among researchers. Nikles et al. (2006) agree with the practice of using the n-of-1 or single-subject design in research. However, the researchers stress combining n-of-1 trials in order to assess the utility and feasibility of applying outcomes. In short, coordinated n-of-1 studies have the potential to change evidence-based research; and may result in an optimal solution that will allow for stratification of future reference groups (Lillie et al., 2011).

RESEARCH PURPOSE AND QUESTIONS OF INTEREST

The purpose of this research is to merge the process of in-depth interviewing with the practice of single-subject design for predictive purpose; therefore, bridging the qualitative-quantitative divide. The two questions of interest are: (1) Can one individual be identified from in-depth interviews who best reflects the sentiments, ideas and concept formulation of a group? (2) Is it feasible to apply the results from one identified individual, given in-depth interview results to predict future group behavior?

METHODOLOGY

This research utilized a convenience sample of 30 subjects who had previously volunteered to participate in marketing research for a proprietary research organization, although never selected. This group of participants was randomly selected from a regional normative pool in order to control for selection bias (segmented according to SES and Education). Limiting participants to a zip-code region was a pragmatic function necessary to complete the in-depth interviews. All interviews were conducted by one trained Ph.D. facilitator with more than 25 years of professional experience.

THE PROCESS

All participants agreed to view envelopes and read a sales solicitation letter from legal firms and openly discuss their thoughts and feelings about the marketing literature. The prompt given to participants was: "Legal firms often send out solicitation letters to potential clients. If you were a potential client, please discuss your thoughts and feelings about the following envelopes; specifically, with respect to if you would open the envelope." This process included nine types of envelopes and twenty assorted solicitation letters; all envelopes and letters were sampled

from actual law firms from the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania (see Table 1).

Table 1. Sample Envelopes and Solicitation Letter

In phase one of this research, in-depth interviews with participants focused on what was visually appealing or held a tactile preference for envelopes. Individual participants then discussed and listed all the envelope features that they believed would lead a potential client to open the solicitation letter. Within 72 hours, each participant received an email of key group findings highlighted by bullet points obtained from all the in-depth interviews. Participants were asked to select the top 10 findings (out of 18). This same process ensued for the solicitation letter (out of 30).

Within twenty-four hours, individual participants received another (second) email requesting that they now rank-order the cumulative top-10 list obtained from all thirty participants (rank-ordered from most to least important). Researchers collected the data, and individual ranks were summed for each participant; then rank-ordered again according to a cumulative group mean score for both the envelope and solicitation letter. Table 2 is a sample format of the process.

Table 2. Sample Format of Data Entry

Area	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	M	R
Copy	1	3	2	1	7	9	3	3.7	1
Logo	8	9	10	7	2	10	5	7.2	4
Stamp	2	2	4	6	5	2	10	4.4	2
UR	9	5	7	2	9	1	6	5.5	3

In Table 2, Area reflects the concept being assessed by rank (i.e. only 4 used in this sample); for example, Copy (professional copy); Logo (professional logo) Stamp (USA Icon Postage Stamp); UR (Urgent Call to action). Participant identification is symbolized by P2, P3, etc. (only 7 of 30 used for this sample) and their rank-order assignment of each area is recorded in the column entries. The abbreviated M in the table represents the Group Mean scores (given the sum of individual ranks for the group); and R is the new functional rank-order of the Group Means.

As a validity measure, a small expert panel (N = 3), each with more than 10 years of experience in their respective field (Communication Design; Graphic Design; and Market Research) agreed to participate and simply rank-order the same lists/concept areas (envelope and solicitation letter) as the participants. Again, their rank-orders were handled the same as the participants described earlier. The expert panel did not assess the envelope or solicitation letter; they merely rank-ordered the concepts that emerged from the in-depth interviews.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Individual ranks were correlated with the Group Mean (reflected group consensus) using the bivariate correlation process, Spearman Rank-Order. Correlational analysis and resulting coefficients were graphed for both visual and statistical comparison. Alpha levels were set at .10 given the exploratory nature of this research. In addition, this same process was applied to the expert panel.

The qualitative analysis utilized proportional analysis. Specifically, each participant response(s) was/were assessed by dividing the number of hits (agreement with a group key point) by the total number of key points. Therefore, if an individual participant had discussed and listed 4 key points, but the group offered 20, this participant had a Concept Score of .20.
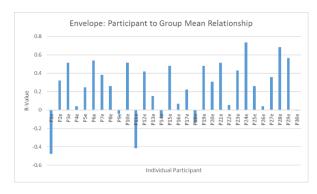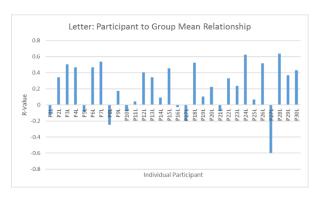
RESEARCH FINDINGS

Table 3 highlights the correlation coefficients (R-values) between individual participant rank-order and the cumulative group rank-order mean with respect to the envelope evaluation. Participant P24e has the highest correlation weight .733; p = .016 with the group mean. Participant P28e has a correlation weight of .685; p = .029. No other participant had a significant relationship with the cumulative group mean. P24e had a concept score of .77, and P28e concept score was .72. The relationship between participant R-value and Concept Score was .82, p <.01 (two-tailed). No significant relationship was found between the Expert Panel and rank-ordered group mean responses; although by anecdote, the trend was a negative relationship.

Table 3. Envelope: Participant to Group Mean Relationship

Table 4 highlights the correlation coefficients (R-values) between individual participant rank-order and the cumulative group rank-order mean with respect to the solicitation letter. Participant P24e has a correlation weight of .624; p = .05 with the group mean. Participant P28e has a correlation weight of .636; p = .04. No other participant had a significant relationship with the cumulative group mean. P24e had a concept score of .76, and P28e Concept Score was .70. The relationship between participant R-value and Concept Score was .579, p <.001 (two-tailed). No significant relationship was found between the Expert Panel and rank-ordered group mean responses; although by anecdote, again the trend was a negative relationship.

Table 4. Letter: Participant to Group Mean Relationship

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Results suggest that a single participant could have been identified (P24) that would have given researchers a very strong indication of what other group participants were feeling and thinking in phase two of this study, without facilitating 30 additional in-depth interviews. This finding has pragmatic implications, specifically, financial and time-related.

For clarification, each participant received a small stipend for participation, however, more important than the economic factor is the time-related factor. The Envelope phase of this research required 50 + hours to conduct the in-depth interviews. The Solicitation Letter phase required an additional 75 hours. If there would have been further iterations, the time-related factor becomes exponential and costly.

It is interesting to note that the Expert Panel's rank-order of relevant factors for both the envelopes and solicitation letters was not significantly related to the cumulative group mean scores of the participants. This suggests that an expert consultant acting independently may not be valid or effective in assessing or developing a strategic marketing strategy as when conducting multiple in-depth interviews. In theory, an expert consultant is assumed to be "The One" most likely to articulate points of differentiation that resonate with any identified niche or population. However, perhaps that is why many market researchers employ in-depth interviews, focus groups and administer field surveys.

The findings of this research suggest that it is feasible to identify a single-subject who theoretically and in practice predicts and proffers relevant information previously only available from cumulative group interviews. In addition, results suggest approximately 75% of the pertinent information was obtained from "The One" identified in analysis. For marketers using a single-subject design followed by an empirical analysis of multiple in-depth interviews, this process suggests another method for retail and service marketers to use in consumer research. The research findings can be depicted by the acronym "THE ONE" as presented in Table 5.

Table 5. "THE ONE"

T argeting or identifying a single-subject from multiple in-depth interviews to predict future responses is feasible.
H aving a single-subject design is pragmatic, reducing financial and time-related factors (iterations) in research.
E very participant response is important. However, one participant may possess a communal value.
O nly an empirical analysis of in-depth interviews using a single-subject design addresses the issue of qulaitative rigor in research.
N umerical assignment of rank-ordered concepts appears to have both pragmatic and predictive value; the ranks allow for determining the relative value of concepts and the ranks appear to have predictive validity.
E very marketer can benefit from having an additional research tool and process; findings offer another research design format for assessing conceptual areas related to marketing and for testing the model itself.

One final discussion point involves the qualitative-quantitative distinction as introduced in this research. The research design outcomes suggest that this division between the qualitative and quantitative models may not be warranted given the designed used in this research. In fact, perhaps the qualitative-quantitative distinction is perhaps more of a continuum, therefore, permitting descriptive responses to be empirically manipulated and tested. The process allows for qualitative data to be categorized and quantified for empirical analysis; therefore, this process of in-depth interviewing of the single-subject allows for both the development and testing of predictive hypotheses.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE STUDY

Several caveats must be noted. Participants in this study were segmented proportionally according to known demographics, such as gender, age and race. However, complete psycho-demographic profiles, such as a clinical IQ and psychometric personality assessment data, were available and utilized in the normative segmentation process. Therefore, this group of participants was unique.

A marketer typically uses basic segmentation rules and may apply a random selection model. In this study, very specific information was known about each participant prior to selection and outcome results may be more reflective of IQ and psychological segmentation versus demographic variables; and most market researchers would not be privy to such information. Two additional limitations should be noted. First, this study examined barristers' solicitation efforts; therefore, generalizability beyond this content area must be tested. Second, the research design tested conceptual areas and not actual sales results. Further study must determine if increased sales result from implementing the outcomes of this type of research.

Future study warrants an examination of other statistical techniques for identifying "The One" – for example employing factor analytic models. Furthermore, data in this study suggested a significant relationship between the participant's individual R-value (i.e. with the cumulative group mean) and the operationally defined Concept Score. This anecdotal finding and process merits further investigation.

Finally, findings mandate that "The One" hypothesis be empirically replicated before general acceptance of the technique to be considered a viable or feasible marketing research technique. Future study perhaps could find that N may have to exceed one (n > 1); however, that exact number is unknown at this point. Likewise, population, brand or concept application, as well as participant psycho-demographics is unclear;

hence the limits of application or generalization must be established. Similarly, since this study had no ability to control for personal attribute vectors, such as, traits, personality descriptors, morals, etc. future study is warranted; as is the testing of if Likert scaling would yield the same results as rank-order analysis.

CONCLUSION

Study findings suggest that merging in-depth interviews within an experimental single-subject design with empirical analysis is a viable research option for services and retail marketing research warranting further investigation. Outcomes in this research found it was possible to find "The One" participant that is representative of cumulative responses; therefore, if further iterations were required, it is conceptually feasible to interview only "The One" if time or financial constraints warrant such an action. However, it is clear, generalizability of this research model must be tested with multiple populations, brands and include psycho-demographics. In a nutshell, model replication is needed for this promising research tool.

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For Further information, contact:
Oscar McKnight
Ashland University (330) 687-1553
omcknigh@gmail.com

CONNECTING WITH BRANDS:
BRAND PERSONALITY AND BRAND OUTCOME
VALUING PERSONS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS (PSN)

Dawn DiSefano, Division of Business / Molloy College
Pradeep Gopalakrishna, Lubin School of Business / Pace University

ABSTRACT

There are many individuals with physical and developmental disabilities who have the capability to make every day purchases and who frequent particular brands. Studies on buying trends of individuals with physical disabilities is available; however, there is a need for academic study to explore how individuals with developmental disabilities connect to various brands via brand personality.

The proposed embryo case study will investigate how individuals with developmental disabilities associate with particular brands utilizing the Brand Personality scale (Aaker 1997) to predict brand outcome (e.g. brand connection, purchase likelihood, and brand choice) as well as promote inclusive marketing methods for the above-mentioned population.

INTRODUCTION

Prior literature speaks to consumer welfare (a.k.a. consumer well-being) and how marketing scholars have written in various areas of public policy, macromarketing, social marketing, transformative consumer research, etc. The literature states that these areas of research are constantly growing. Moreover, these areas of study suggest how marketing plays a role in either solving social problems or how they create social problems with the focus of sustainable business.

The literature focuses on those living in the U.S. who have a disability 'of some sort' and speaks to the constraints of this consumer population and how it applies to this area of study (Baker, 2009).

Persons With Special Needs

Business owners and/or top management should take into account a number of considerations when marketing to those with special needs. The extended abstract identifies a number of these considerations in the following paragraphs.

Consideration should also be given to families of those who have a family member(s) with a disability living within the same household. Sometimes this population is overlooked and by marketing to family members, including said population, marketers may benefit from increased positive consumer behavior among those with PSN (Mason & Pavia, 2006).

In addition, a more robust study (which would be conducted in phases) would be to explore the responses of those who are educators of individuals with special needs as well as the vendors and/or business partners of those who service persons with special needs.

However, for the purposes for the aforementioned study, academic researchers need to focus on ways that marketers can effectively and sustainably implement viable marketing strategies toward those with PSN. They need to be cognizant of diverse consumer vulnerabilities such as powerlessness and dependence on external factors including marketers (Andreasen & Manning, 1990; Baker, Gentry, & Rittenburg, 2005). When put into diverse consumption contexts, the interaction between developmentally challenged individuals and their environmental factors (e.g. barriers that do not permit control or freedom of choice) can be compromised as this population might not have access to marketplace resources (Downey & Catterall, 2007; Mason & Pavia, 2006). Further, researchers need to be mindful of this population's lives (e.g. the overshadowing of uncertainty, perhaps immobility, and social exclusion). This type of research should enable both marketers and researchers alike to shift their mindset from standardized marketing practices to a more humanistic approach which will better cater to the diverse needs of this consumer population (Peñaloza & Venkatesh, 2006).
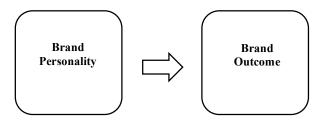
While this context of research is growing in recent years, difficulties remain. Recent literature illustrates how various research implications could hinder knowledge generation in this marketing domain. They can take shape substantially in the form of

emotional, psychological, or physical anxiety because the research represents an array of human challenges which can ultimately influence the researcher directly as well as the research process (Lee & Renzetti, 1993; Hill, 1995). Some researchers may embrace this type of sensitive research and others avoid it which can positively or negatively impact the engagement with and understanding of research phenomena. Further it can influence the production and dissemination of knowledge. (Jafari, Dunnett, Hamilton, & Downey, 2013).This study will illustrate the potential growth of this consumer population via brand personality (e.g. using existing scales) and its impact on brand outcome (e.g. brand income will be represented in the form of brand connection, purchase likelihood, and brand choice).

Furthermore, after researching several articles that focused on the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) (Fleischer & Zames, 2011) and learning that there are an estimated 43 million persons who have some type of disability, the hypothesis is in support of this target market being a beneficial one for both marketing practitioners and their consumer population provided there is deeper insight via brand personality on said population and how it impacts overall brand outcome.

However, future researchers need to be mindful of additional literature that speaks to this population as an expense rather than a promising market segment; further implicating impending research. The idea is that further study could prove a win-win scenario if marketers can transform their understanding of this population and market accordingly (Burnett & Paul, 1996).

More formerly, this case study will examine the relationship between brand personality in the following contexts: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness and brand outcome in the context of brand connection, purchase likelihood, and brand choice to resolve current marketing limitations; thereby, increasing this target market's appeal through humanistic and inclusive marketing efforts (Wilcox, 2005).

ACLD

Adults and Children with Learning and Developmental Disabilities (ACLD) is a Long Island not-for-profit agency that serves the needs of over 3000 individuals with developmental disabilities. Their mission includes providing opportunities for both children and adults with autism, learning and developmental disabilities to lead person-centered, fulfilled, and productive lives while promoting positive relationships within the community. To carry out its mission, ACLD employs more than 1100 people and operates 77 different program sites including group homes and apartment programs across Nassau and Suffolk counties. Service programs include Children's Early Intervention and Preschool Programs; Respite; Family Support Services; Medicaid Service Coordination; Occupational, Speech, and Physical Therapy; and Social Work Services. (Anonymous, 2016)

Ongoing collaboration with senior administration of ACLD will be fundamental to fulfill the requirements that will further academic research among this beneficial population. The research will include interviews with individuals with developmental disabilities, their families/caregivers, and ACLD personnel to identify brand personalities based on Aaker's Brand Personality scale.

Brand Personality

Humanizing a brand can serve as a self-expressive meaning beyond the practical function of product-related attributes. Brand personality is multidimensional including: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness where some dimensions may be more relevant and expressive of particular brands than others (Aaker, 1997). This study will explore several of these dimensions to determine if they systematically influence brand outcome among the above-mentioned population. The appropriate scales are in place and further development with the aforementioned partners will continue to commence over the next several months and are in progress.

Resulting Framework

The ultimate goal of this research is to illustrate that Brand Personality influences Brand Outcome. The preliminary framework is presented here. In addition, the framework will be expanded upon as development endures:

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Again, a potential Phase II might be to conduct interviews among vendors who service individuals with developmental disabilities and/or who are affiliated with ACLD. Future research would incorporate the Market Orientation scale (Kohli & Kumar 1993) as a tool to

further explore the relationship between the vendors (market orientation) as a moderator to the brand personality of their consumer population.

Consequently, Phase III may include interviewing or surveying the family members and/or caregivers which would further investigate the relationship of brand personality on brand outcome of this consumer population.

Lastly, Phase IV might be to conduct interviews and/or surveys among those that are professionals in the area of Education among individuals with developmental disabilities. Understanding brand personality among those that are directly in the profession of educating this population would guide future research pertaining to the brands they advocate for.

Collectively, these additional areas of exploration could make the overall case study more robust.

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For further information contact:
Dawn DiStefano
Division of Business / Molloy College
(516) 323-3096
ddistefano@molloy.edu
Pradeep Gopalakrishna
Lubin School of Business / Pace University
(212) 618-6456
pgopalakrishna@pace.edu

THE EFFECT OF THE PERCEIVED SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE ON BRAND CONTENT MARKETING

Hyeong-Gyu Choi, Augustana College
Eric T. Brey, University of Wisconsin-Stout

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ABSTRACT

Brand-driven content marketing is a significantly developing area of digital marketing, aiming to gain the audience's attention by disseminating noteworthy digital content via social networking sites (SNSs). The aim of this study is to examine the effects of perceived social acceptance, an individuals' perception that they are included and valued in their social groups and relationships, on individual users' intentions to continue content sharing, self-esteem, and attitude toward the brand. The authors postulate that the success of brand content marketing can be significantly influenced by the extent to which SNSs users develop a sense of belonging via SNSs interactions.
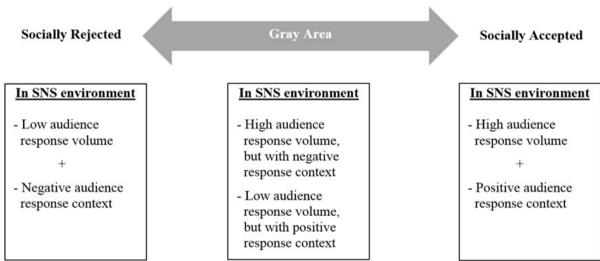
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INTRODUCTION

Brand content marketing via social networking sites (SNSs)—YouTube, Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, blogs, etc. — is a recent development in brand marketing strategies. The aim of brand content marketing is to gain the audience's attention with interesting, entertaining, and noteworthy digital media, such as YouTube videos, interactive games, product images, videos, articles, and user-generated content, as a means of popularizing their brand names. Noticeable brand content often earns the attention of prospective customers and likely to generate customer traffic to businesses. Owing to the growing popularity of digital communication technologies and the Internet, customers are becoming a vital part of the marketing sphere and many are often assuming roles of brand ambassadors for their beloved brands (Ritzer et al., 2012). As customers are increasingly participating in content creation and dissemination (Halliday, 2016), more frequent content sharing results in greater exposure to prospective consumers. In exchange, customers will engage with the content via consumption, sharing, and production, such as creation of parody works. As a result, content enthusiasts can potentially become repeating high-margin customers (Halligan, et al., 2009).

Consequently, companies often engage in social media advertising campaigns, encouraging consumers to disseminate content in the hope that their content is shared among prospective customers who eventually become high-value patrons (Baird & Parasnis, 2011). In practice, the emergence of social networking sites (SNSs) enables firms to engage with their target audience in a timely and interactive manner at a relatively low cost and a higher degree of efficiency than conventional communication tools (Ngai, et al., 2015). The increasingly popular SNSs present vast potential for firms to connect with those who are genuinely interested in their products and services, and can thus potentially influence revenue growth, reduce cost, and improve efficiency (Baird & Parasnis, 2011). Nevertheless, much brand content fails to capture the audience's attention, making it difficult to justify considerable investment that many firms dedicate to content marketing (Satell, 2014). Only a few companies manage to entice customers' attention, while most of the brand content remains unnoticed (Lampel & Bhalla, 2007; Fournier & Avery, 2011) because many firms overlook the value of audience engagement by interacting with SNSs users. Nonetheless, as social media becomes a more socially acceptable communication medium, social media practice increases the value of public recognition via audience interactions—something that was not possible before the Internet became widely accessible. As a result, the audience's interactions on brand content have become the most desirable commodity for contemporary marketers.

The unique contribution of this study is that the authors provide a new perspective on the use of brand content marketing. Overall, the ultimate goal of brand content marketing is to attract significant numbers of audience members with noteworthy content, as this allows marketers to increase awareness of their brands, as well as build memorable brand images. The authors argue that, as such logic only considers SNSs users' content consumption, it fails to fully account for the effect of such noteworthy content on individual users. Individuals not only consume brand content, but also

Figure 1. The Perceived Social Acceptance and Rejection Continuum

receive intrinsic benefits by associating with brand content. When an SNSs user delivers brand content that generates a high level of interest from his/her SNSs audience and/or gains attention from a particular audience that he/she highly values due to the perceived status of the responders, he/she will be portrayed as a successful SNSs user in the public domain. In other words, brand content can potentially assist individual users in enhancing their virtual standing by generating a high level of audience reactions. Such positive feedback signals a high level of social acceptance and/or allows SNSs users to gain virtual recognition from others who matter greatly to them, providing a sense of belonging. Brand content marketing can be the most influential strategy for cultivating groups of brand ambassadors who will continue to disseminate brand content. Moreover, they will hold a highly favorable attitude toward brands because notable brand content can enhance their virtual standing while benefitting marketers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The authors postulate that individuals' brand content sharing mechanisms can be explained by their innate desire to seek relational value— defined as "the degree to which a person regards his or her relationship with another individual as valuable or important" (Leary 2005, p82). Sociometer theory suggests that individuals have a pervasive drive to maintain significant interpersonal relationships. Such psychological mechanisms—the sociometer—constantly urge individuals to monitor their social environments for cues regarding their level of social acceptance or rejection by others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). When a person detects evidence of changing relational value, the sociometer evokes his/her conscious attention and

motivates the individual to respond to the perceived threats to social acceptance (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). According to sociometer theory, the affect-oriented self-appraisal of the individual constitutes the output of the sociometer. In particular, self-esteem is postulated to function as a barometer for perceived relational value (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Murray, et al., 2000). The theory further postulates that self-esteem serves as an internal barometer of an individual's level of social belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), moving away from the long-standing assumption that individuals seek to attain self-evaluated worth for its own sake. Sociometer theory proposes that individuals are inclined to preserve their self-esteem because it reflects their relational value in a public domain (Leary, 2005). In particular, one's sociometer monitors the social acceptance (vs. rejection) into groups and relationships. An instance of social acceptance or rejection was posited to cause significant changes in an individual's self-esteem level (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Leary, 2006). More recently, sociometer theory researchers have shifted their focus to exploring the concept of relational value because it permits more accurate adjustments (not limited to acceptance vs. rejection only) and provides more applicable conceptualization in social occasions by framing relational value in the context of feelings of rejection vs. objective acceptance (Leary, 2006).

PERCEIVED SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE

Social acceptance is an individual's perception that he/she is included in his/her groups and relationships. When an individual feels that he/she is socially accepted, that person would perceive that other people wish to include him/her in their groups and relationships. On the other hand, social rejection

indicates that others have little desire to include the person in their groups and relationships (DeWall & Bushman, 2011; Leary, 2006). Even though the concepts of "acceptance" and "rejection" are frequently treated as dichotomous (i.e., a person is either accepted or rejected), in practice, the levels of acceptance/rejection lie along a continuum (Leary, 2001). According to this view, the extreme end of acceptance would reflect active pursuit of strong relational interactions, whereas moderate levels of acceptance may involve welcoming attitude only, with minimal acceptance indicating mere tolerance of the individual's presence (Leary, 2006). Likewise, rejection can also be viewed along the continuum, with the extreme end pertaining to overtly ignoring and excluding a person or groups by other person or group (William, 2001) and implicitly ignoring people to avoid or not include them (Leary, 2006), respectively (Figure 1).

As individuals increasingly interact with others via SNSs, they experience social acceptance in this environment. For example, an individual's self-esteem can be enhanced when he/she succeeds (e.g., achieves mini-celebrity status by gaining a significant number of followers or acquires virtual cues of likability and attractiveness) or is praised (e.g., receives public praise for one's digital contribution). Similarly, failed attempts to receive adulation, such as showing off achievements or demonstrating expertise for social approval without being noticed by others, can significantly undermine one's appraisal of self-esteem. Empirical evidence indicates that an individual's self-esteem can be negatively affected when a person feels that he/she is only being accepted inadequately or the interacting party maintains a neutral or ambivalent state (Anthony, et al., 2007; Leary & Baumeister, 2000). When an individual receives no reaction to the online communication after posting brand content, he/she may interpret the absence of a response as a neutral or ambivalent state of the audience, equivalent to social rejection. This unsatisfactory feedback lowers his/her self-esteem and likely undermines user's attitude toward the posted brand content.

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

SNSs users determine their perceived social acceptance level based on social cues, which they discern by observing their SNSs audience's reaction on their posted content. When individuals transmit digital content, it typically evokes reactions from their audience members. Empirical evidence indicates that Facebook users seem to derive greater satisfaction from receiving a larger number of likes (Rosen, 2012), as social media users often enjoy "micro-celebrity" status from their sizable fan bases. In the case of Twitter, a popular micro-

blogging service, the extent of user influence is conveniently translated to the number of followers. In a recent study, Jin and Phua (2014) experimentally showed that the sheer size of one's personal network—as determined by the number of followers and friends in SNSs environments—can substantially influence audience perceptions of that individual. Facebook's "like", and Twitter's "retweet" and "favorite" are the examples of social media metrics that allow participants to measure their virtual reputation. Therefore, they function as a significant determinant of their self-assessment of virtual standing (Huberman, et al., 2004; Lampel & Bhalla, 2007), serving as the barometer for participants' perceived social acceptance.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 of this study pertain to a single effect of audience response volume and audience response context on SNSs users' intentions to continue brand content sharing and self-esteem. The two elements of social acceptance—audience response volume and audience response context—are hypothesized to signal the level of acceptance that SNSs users gain by disseminating content, or more specifically:

> *H₁: Those that received high volume of SNSs audience responses after posting brand content experience (a) improved self-esteem (b) more positive attitude toward the brand, and (c) greater intentions to continue brand content sharing than those that received low volume of SNSs audience responses.*

> *H₂: Those that received positive SNSs audience messages after posting brand content experience (a) improved self-esteem (b) more positive attitude toward the brand, and (c) greater intentions to continue brand content sharing than those that received negative SNSs audience messages.*

SNSs metrics permit users to assess their perceived level of social acceptance by gauging the reactions of their audience, while immediately informing contributors that their content has gained superior (socially accepted), gray area (shades of acceptance/rejection that falls along a continuum), or no acceptance (socially rejected). Based on the premise that social acceptance and rejection lie on a continuum, it is hypothesized that, when an SNSs user's content is socially accepted, his/her self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing will be greater than when the content is evaluted in the gray area or in the socially rejected segment. The authors of this study postulate that audience interactions help SNSs users gain sense of validation, which can provide intrinsic satisfaction. SNSs users will favor less ideal

audience attention (gray area) more than being ignored (social rejection), although the most ideal audience attention (social acceptance) is the most preferred one. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> *H₃: SNSs users' individual evaluations of (a) self-esteem, (b) attitude toward the brand, and (c) intentions to continue content sharing, will be greater when their content receives the level of social acceptance in a gray area than it is perceived to be socially rejected.*

In SNSs environment, when an SNSs user posts marketing content, he/she gains a sense of validation via recognition by other users' and pertinent brands', such as Facebook's likes and Twitter's RTs, and public communication that is meaningul to the user. This not only makes SNS users feel comfortable expressing their emotions and attitudes toward the brand in the future, but also nurtures emotional bonding that eventually culminates in the emergence of brand advocates. Digital interactions are often brief and instantaneous. However, they may be sufficient for individuals to form impressions of brands based on those interactions. People are highly attuned social observers; thus, they can form meaningful and lasting impressions of others based on minimal information (Gosling, et al., 2002). In the SNSs domain, this indicates that the virtual recognition of customers' brand content holds the key to fostering brand advocates and cultivating the foundation for convincing customers that brand content sharing is a socially acceptable and rewarding activity. Hence, SNSs users' perceived validation by other users based on their posted brand-related content will likely enhance their self-esteem, motivating them to continue brand content sharing. Such intrinsic satisfaction will function as a social reward, subsequently strengthening individuals' intentions to continue content sharing. Consequently, such individuals will likely become strongly motivated to repeat a socially rewarded behavior, which is to post marketing brand content that generates a high level of SNSs audience attention. Based on this premise, the authors hypothesize:

> *H₄: SNSs users' self-esteem is positively associated with their intentions to continue brand content sharing.*

Lastly, the implication of the perceived social acceptance is that initially elevated self-esteem will be carried over to the source of the elevation, namely interactions with brands. Consequently, it is posited that an SNSs user's improved self-esteem will be positively associated with his/her attitude toward the brand. Hence, it is hypothesized:

> *H₅: SNSs users' self-esteem is positively associated with their attitudes toward a brand to which the content pertains.*

METHODOLOGY

The 400 participants were recruited using an online panel service, Amazon's Mechanical Turk. In all conditions, study participants were asked to envisage engaging in daily Twitter activities based on written scripts and visual stimuli that were relevant to their randomly assigned scenario. Considering the visually oriented nature of Twitter operation, such visual stimuli not only provided sense of realism to participants, but it also strengthened the intended manipulations. When answering survey items, participants were instructed to do so in reference to a randomly assigned scenario in which the manipulations for the two factors were embedded.

Manipulation Checks

Results yielded by analysis of variance (ANOVA) of group comparisons indicated that the audience response volume significantly affected participants' self-esteem ($F (1, 398) = 10.22$, $p = .002$), attitude toward the brand ($F (1, 398) = 4.71$, $p = .031$), and intentions to continue content sharing ($F (1, 398) = 7.85$, $p = .005$). Tests of means indicated that, relative to the low response volume ($M = 4.86$, $M = 4.85$, and $M = 4.2$ obtained for self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing, respectively), the high volume manipulation influenced respondents more positively ($M = 5.22$, $M = 5.15$, and $M = 4.69$ obtained for self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing, respectively).

In addition, audience response context significantly affected participants' self-esteem ($F (1, 398) = 23.30$, $p < .000$), attitude toward the brand ($F (1, 398) = 35.22$, $p < .000$), and intentions to continue content sharing ($F (1, 398) = 8.01$, $p = .005$). Tests of means indicated that, relative to the negative response context ($M = 4.76$, $M = 4.60$, and $M = 4.20$ obtained for self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing, respectively), the positive context manipulation influenced respondents more positively ($M = 5.32$, $M = 5.40$, and $M = 4.69$ obtained for self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing, respectively). In line with the above, the tests of means showed that two manipulations were successful.

RESULTS

The authors tested the proposed hypotheses using a 2×2 (audience response volume × response context) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with

three dependent measures— self-esteem of SNSs users, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue

Table 1. Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Manipulation	HYP	Dependent Variable	F	P	Partial η2	Mean		Conclusion
Audience response volume (High vs. Low)	H1a	Users' Self-Esteem	10.22	.002	.025	High: 5.22	Low: 4.85	Supported
	H1b	Attitude toward the Brand	9.20	.031	.012	High: 5.15	Low: 4.85	Supported
	H1c	Intentions to continue Content Sharing	7.85	.005	.019	High: 4.69	Low: 4.20	Supported
Audience response context (Positive vs. Negative)	H2a	Users' Self-Esteem	23.3	<.000	.055	Po: 5.32	Ne: 4.76	Supported
	H2b	Attitude toward the Brand	35.22	<.000	.081	Po: 5.40	Ne: 4.60	Supported
	H2c	Intentions to continue Content Sharing	8.01	.005	.02	Po: 4.69	Ne: 4.20	Supported
Social Acceptance Level (Socially accepted vs. Gray area vs. Socially rejected)	H3a	Users' Self-Esteem	17.98	<.000	.108	Socially Accepted: 5.56 Gray: 4.9 Socially Rejected: 4.63		Supported
	H3b	Attitude toward the Brand	9.25	<.000	.105	Socially Accepted: 5.53 Gray: 4.94 Socially Rejected: 4.43		Supported
	H3c	Intentions to continue Content Sharing	9.25	<.000	.059	Socially Accepted: 5.01 Gray: 4.31 Socially Rejected: 4.02		Supported

HYP	Effect	Dependent Variable	df	r	P	Conclusion
H4	Intentions to continue Content Sharing	Users' Self-Esteem	398	0.486	<.000	Supported
H5	Attitude toward the Brand	Users' Self-Esteem	398	0.428	<.000	Supported

brand content sharing. In addition, ANOVA was also utilized to identify manipulations responsible for any significant multivariate effect (Table 1).

H_1 postulated that audience response volume (high vs. low) influences SNSs users' self-esteem as well as their intentions to continue brand content sharing and attitude toward the brand. Response volume manipulation resulted in a significant multivariate effect on SNSs users' intentions to continue content sharing and self-esteem for the response volume manipulation (Wilks' Lambda = .97, F (3, 396) = 4.10, p = .007, partial η^2 = .030). In addition, univariate analyses indicated that users' self-esteem (F (1, 398) = 10.22, p = .002, partial η^2 = .025), attitude toward the brand (F (1, 398) = 9.20, p = .031, partial η^2 = .012), and intentions to continue content sharing (F (1, 398) = 7.85, p =.005,

partial η^2 = .019) contributed significantly to the overall multivariate effect. Mean comparisons further revealed that the group that received high audience response volume exhibited a higher self-esteem (M = 5.22), a more positive attitude toward the brand (M = 5.15), and greater intentions to continue content sharing (M = 4.69) than the group that received low audience response volume (M = 4.85, M = 4.85, and M = 4.2 obtained for self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing, respectively). Hence, the aforementioned findings provided support for H_1, which was thus accepted.

H_2 postulated that audience response context (positive vs. negative) would exhibit influence on SNSs users' intentions to continue brand content sharing as well as self-esteem and attitude toward the brand. When testing this hypothesis, a significant multivariate effect

was noted for the response context manipulation (Pillai's Trace = .11, $F(3, 396) = 15.73$, $p < .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .106$). Univariate analyses further indicated that users' self-esteem ($F(1, 398) = 23.30$, $p < .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .055$), attitude toward the brand ($F(1, 398) = 35.22$, $p < .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .081$), and intentions to continue content sharing ($F(1, 398) = 8.01$, $p = .005$, partial $\eta^2 = .020$) contributed significantly to the overall multivariate effect. Mean comparisons further revealed that the group that received positive response context exhibited a higher self-esteem ($M = 5.32$), a more positive attitude toward the brand ($M = 5.40$), and greater intentions to continue content sharing ($M = 4.69$) than the group that received negative response context ($M = 4.76$, M = 4.60, and $M = 4.2$ obtained for self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing, respectively). Hence, H_2 was supported by these findings and was accepted.

H_3 postulated that when an SNSs user's content is socially accepted, his/her self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing will be greater than when the content is evaluted in the gray area or socially rejected. When testing this hypothesis, a significant multivariate effect on SNSs users' self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intention to continue content sharing a group was noted for the level of perceived social acceptance (Pillai's Trace = .155, $F(6, 592) = 8.267$, $p < .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .077$). Univariate analyses further demonstrated that SNSs users' self-esteem ($F(2, 297) = 17.98$, $p < .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .108$), attitude toward the brand ($F(2, 297) = 17.40$, $p < .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .105$), and intentions to continue content sharing ($F(2, 297) = 9.25$, $p < .000$, partial $\eta^2 = .059$) contributed significantly to the overall multivariate effect. Mean comparisons further indicated that the group that perceived social acceptance showed higher self-esteem of SNSs users ($M = 5.56$), more positive attitude toward the brand ($M = 5.53$), and greater intentions to continue content sharing ($M = 5.01$) as compared to the group that received acceptance in gray area ($M = 4.90$, $M = 4.94$, and $M = 4.31$ obtained for self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing, respectively) and the group that received social rejection ($M = 4.63$, $M = 4.43$, and $M = 4.02$ obtained for self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing, respectively). Hence, the aforementioned findings provided support for H_3.

H_4 stipulated that SNSs users' self-esteem is positively associated with their intentions to continue brand content sharing, while H_5 suggested that SNSs users' self-esteem is positively associated with their attitudes toward a brand to which the content pertains as well. Analyses performed when testing these hypotheses revealed significant positive relationships between SNSs users' self-esteem and their intentions to continue

brand content sharing ($r(398) = .486$, $p < .000$), and their attitudes toward the brand, to which their content pertains ($r(398) = .428$, $p < .000$). Hence, both H_4 and H_5 were supported by the findings and were accepted.

DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to examine the effects of SNSs user interactions with their audience on their self-esteem, attitude toward the brand, and intentions to continue content sharing under the premise that their relevant brand content was shared with audience. Findings yielded by the present investigation provide theoretical support for the relevance of sociometer theory to the understanding of SNSs users' behavior. Similarly, it revealed that the influence of perceived social acceptance and SNSs users' self-esteem may be among the most effective ways to influence brand attitudes as well as intentions of SNSs users to continue content sharing. More specifically, perceived social acceptance was revealed as the primary force that brand marketers can exploit in their attempts to disseminate noteworthy content to critical mass of audience. The findings yielded by the present study suggest that, when brand content assists SNSs users in attaining perceived social acceptance, those users evaluate the brand, to which the content pertains, more positively. As a result, they will be likely to continue sharing content that has a similar context, thus implicitly assisting marketers in disseminating their content beyond being viral.

Furthermore, the analyses conducted as part of this study revealed that high audience interaction volume improved SNSs users' attitudes toward the brand, which is in line with the concepts underpinning content marketing efforts (Baird & Parasnis, 2011; Halligan, et al., 2009). Companies are constantly attempting to develop innovative and original marketing approaches as a means of attracting audience. The present study revealed that this can be done by engaging with SNSs users who post interesting and noteworthy brand content. The benefit of this approach stems from its two-faceted effect. Noticeable content attracts others to the brand, and its authors also benefit from sharing the content due to their enhanced self-esteem. This phenomenon is known as Tom Sawyer's effect—turning play into work with rewards, or work into play with intrinsic motivation (Pink 2011). Moreover, the influence of intrinsic motivation is applicable to SNSs arena, whereby SNSs users attain intrinsic benefits from engaging with great content that will likely generate attention from others. Such attention will not only improve users' self-evaluation of their worth and increase their intentions to continue sharing content on similar subjects, but it also improves their attitudes toward the brand. In the present study, the fact that

attractive content helped users obtain attention from others was sufficient to improve their attitudes toward the brand. This and other findings reported in this study demonstrated that content marketing could be the most effective approach to enhancing customers' general attitudes toward certain brands without strong intentions to sell or financial motivation.

The findings reported in this study suggests that brand content marketers must be conscious of intrinsic rewards that content disseminators derive from acquiring more attention from their audience after sharing content that provides them with social capital. As the findings of this study revealed, given that modern consumers are fully aware that brands are driven by profits, content marketing can be a highly effective means of improving customers' ability to gain attention from others, which is the most important determinant of their potential brand content patronization

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For further information, contact:
Hyeong-Gyu Choi
Business Administration
Augustana College
639 38th Street
Rock Island, Illinois 61201

Phone: 309-794-7480
E-Mail: hyeong-gyuchoi@augustana.edu

THE EFFECT OF UNIVERSITY MARKETING EFFORTS ON STUDENTS' ACADEMIC DECISION MAKING: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

Connor Chase, California State University, Fresno
Susan D. Geringer, California State University, Fresno
Andreas Stratemeyer, California State University, Fresno

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This study examined the influence that university marketing tools have over students' academic decision-making. The Marketing students sampled rated how influential each tool was in the their decision-making process in regards to university selection, selection of a Business Administration major, and option within that Business Administration major.

The findings indicate that university marketing efforts are somewhat not influential; however, prior to the current study there appeared a lack of research addressing how those tools guide students' decision-making once they are enrolled and choosing a major and option. Refined university outreaches are necessary to better inform and direct students' post-enrollment decision-making.

For further information contact:
Susan D. Geringer
California State University, Fresno
(559) 278-7830
sgeringer@csufresno.edu

"WHO ARE YOU?: USING A THREE QUESTION FRAMEWORK TO DEVELOP INTERVIEW SKILLS

Alex Milovic, Marquette University
Rebecca Dingus, Central Michigan University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The mystique of acing an interview is one that has been discussed in mass media (Goldman, 2013) and academic research (Pelczarski, 2012) for those with much experience and those preparing for their first professional interview. In this paper, we propose three exercises that can be incorporated into collegiate courses by focusing on three questions that most interviews hinge on – why you, why the job, and why the company. These questions can help students develop a proper strategy for doing well in an interview, while also understanding how these questions – and questions like them – help a potential employer determine if the student is a good fit for the position and the organization.

Interviews continue to be the predominant method for determining whether a candidate will be a strong fit for a role. According to Selingo (2015), the lack of interview preparation – or perceived lack of preparation – is seen by employers as a gap universities must close as students look toward internship and job placement (Morse, 2013). To complement the surge in funding for campus-wide career services centers (Dey, 2014), interview preparation is a skillset that can be incorporated in marketing courses to benefit students entering a competitive workforce. The most important goal of an interview is for the interviewer to get to know the candidate, to determine their skills, and to see if they would be a fit to work for the company. Increasing student familiarity with these three questions provides a foundation for understanding this goal from the prospective employer's point of view.

Why You? This first question helps students to understand their fit and to develop an individual value proposition that helps them clearly explain why they are the right person and why they should be selected over other candidates.

Why the role? After value propositions have been developed, students should build a bridge from their skills to the specific requirements found in a job description. This ties in nicely with a features-advantages-benefits module.

Why the company? The importance of company culture fit cannot be underestimated (Vandenberghe, 1999). Among millennials, culture stands as one of the most important criteria used when selecting an internship or career (Dannar, 2013).

More than any other major in the business school, marketing develops concepts that are most likely to be beneficial to interviewing. Courses in professional selling, integrated marketing communication, advertising, and branding focus on developing value propositions, delivering effective communication, asking effective questions, and negotiating beneficial contracts. Each of these subject areas can help students develop confidence in selling themselves to prospective employers. In order to assist educators in incorporating the above concepts into a course framework, we propose exercises for each of these three questions, which can help students with their pre-interview preparation.

References available upon request.

For further information contact:
Alex Milovic
Marquette University
(414) 288-8052
alexander.milovic@marquette.edu

ATTITUDES TOWARD FASHION COUNTERFEIT PURCHASING
AMONG CHINESE AND US COLLEGE STUDENTS

Seung-Hee Lee, Southern Illinois University, USA
Jane E. Workman, Southern Illinois University, USA
Kwangho Jung, Seoul National University, Korea

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

An attitude, that is, a positive or negative judgment about something, is a realistic predictor of behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The S-O-R model proposes that attitudes have an effect on intentions and intentions have an effect on behavior (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Attitudes toward counterfeits may be a key predictor of counterfeit purchase.

According to Kay (1990), counterfeits are "reproduced copies that are identical to the legitimate articles including packaging, trademarks, and labeling." Counterfeit products are a global problem growing at a rate of 1700% over the past decade and accounting for 18% of world trade worth an estimated $653.77 billion annually (Havoscope.com, 2016). Most counterfeited fashion products are made in Far East Asia, including China.

Three types of variables influence consumers' decisions to purchase counterfeits.

(1) Product variables such as price or quality may appeal to consumers who seek enhanced social status through ownership of visible luxury goods (e.g., Penz & Stottinger, 2005). Consumers may believe that counterfeits provide greater value for the money (Gentry, Putrevu, & Communi, 2001). Purchase intention for counterfeits rises as perceived price-advantage over original products increases and as perceived product quality (Wagner & Lee, 2007).

(2) Individual variables such as moral attitudes may curb counterfeit purchase (e.g., Wagner & Lee, 2007). Muncy and Vitell (1992) described consumer ethics as a set of moral principles regarding consumer behavior. Consumers' ethical concerns are negatively correlated with counterfeit buying (e.g., Penz & Stottinger, 2005). Consumers who have purchased counterfeits tend to feel less guilty about counterfeits than non-buyers (Yoo & Lee, 2004).

(3) Cultural variables, such as collectivism and individualism, influence consumers' attitudes about purchasing counterfeits. In collectivist cultures such as China, consumers may purchase counterfeits to enhance their social status but may not reveal to others that the products are counterfeit in fear of social rejection; consumers in individualist cultures such as the US are more likely to brag about purchasing quality counterfeits for a much lower price than the genuine product (Lee & Workman, 2011). Different attitudes exist both within and among different cultures concerning counterfeits. Some consumers may believe selling and purchasing counterfeits is not illegal; others have a double standard in their beliefs that selling counterfeits is illegal while purchasing counterfeits is legal. Further, in the Chinese culture, copying is considered important to the good aspects of all things (Lai & Zaichkowsky, 1999).

Understanding what attitudes influence consumers in different cultures to purchase counterfeits remains unclear. Examination of cultural differences is necessary when researching motivations for purchasing counterfeits.

US and Chinese university students were considered an important sample for an investigation of counterfeit purchasing. Chinese students are an appropriate market for a comparison with US students about counterfeit products because Chinese consumers can freely choose from both genuine products and their counterfeits. Early adulthood is a significant period in life in evolution of attitudes and values and use of these attitudes and values in consumer choices—decisions that have a long-term influence on consumer behavior. Thus, there are likely to be differences in consumer behavior, attitudes, and values between Chinese and US consumers.

Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to examine attitudes toward fashion counterfeit purchasing among a sample of Chinese and US college student consumers. The following hypotheses were proposed:

H1: Chinese and US students will differ in counterfeit purchasing.

H2-5: Chinese and US students will differ in moral acceptability of counterfeit purchase, general attitudes toward counterfeits, price/quality as good reasons to purchase counterfeits, and availability of counterfeits.

H6-9: Counterfeit purchasers will differ from non-purchasers in moral acceptability of counterfeit purchase, price/quality as good reasons to purchase counterfeits, and availability of counterfeits.

H10: Chinese and US students will differ in the significance of the determinants of counterfeit purchasing intention.

Method

A questionnaire contained demographic items and measures of counterfeit purchasing (How often did you buy counterfeit fashion and clothing products in the last 5 years? Never/1-2 times/3-5 times/6-10 times/more than 10 times). These categories were collapsed into two categories for MANOVA/ANOVA analysis: 1= never; 2 = once or more. Participants selected a number on a 5-point scale (5=strongly agree; 1=strongly disagree) to indicate degree of agreement with each of the following items: purchasing counterfeit goods is morally acceptable (moral acceptability); it is not a problem that people purchase counterfeit fashion and clothing (general attitude); it is reasonable to purchase fashion and clothing counterfeit products because of their good price or quality (price/quality); counterfeit fashion and clothing products are easily available when I want to buy them (availability). Purchasing intention was measured by a single item "In the future I would like to purchase fashion and clothing counterfeits, if possible." Higher scores indicated more positive attitudes toward purchasing counterfeits. The questionnaire was pretested after being translated into Chinese by the widely used back translation method (Green *et al.*, 1980). Data were collected in large lecture classes from US and Chinese university students who took about 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, chi square, MANOVA/ANOVA, and regression.

Results

Participants in this study were 209 US and 193 Chinese university students. There were 185 females and 215 males with a mean age of 21.13 (range 17-32) from a variety of majors (e.g., engineering, sports management, fashion, architecture, business).

First, a crosstabs analysis with country (China, US) and counterfeit purchasing (Never/1-2 times/3-5 times/6-10 times/more than 10 times) as variables showed that Chinese and US college students differed significantly in counterfeit purchasing, Pearson's chi-square (5 df) = 11.51, $p < .05$. Among Chinese students, 53.1% had purchased fashion counterfeits in the last five years compared with 46.3% of US students. H1 was supported.

Second, MANOVA/ANOVA was conducted with country (China, US) and counterfeit purchase (never, once or more) as the independent variables and scores on moral acceptability, general attitude toward purchasing counterfeits, price/quality, and availability as the dependent variables. MANOVA was significant for both country, $F(4,388) = 8.23$, $p < .000$ and counterfeit purchase, $F(4,388) = 14.63$, $p < .000$.

ANOVA results showed that Chinese and US students differed significantly in three of the four variables: moral acceptability of counterfeit purchase, $F(1,391) = 13.97$, $p < .000$; general attitudes toward purchasing counterfeits $F(1,391) = .13$, $p < .72$; price/quality as good reason to purchase counterfeits $F(1,391) = 5.63$, $p < .02$; and availability of counterfeits $F(1,391) = 14.42$, $p < .000$. Chinese students rated three variables higher than US students indicating more positive attitudes toward purchasing counterfeits. H2, 4, and 5 were supported; H3 was not supported.

Third, ANOVA results showed that purchasers (versus non-purchasers) of counterfeits differed significantly in all four variables: moral acceptability of counterfeit purchase, $F(1,391) = 28.97$, $p < .000$; general attitudes toward purchasing counterfeits $F(1,391) = 22.83$, $p < .000$; price/quality as good reason to purchase counterfeits $F(1,391) = 47.68$, $p < .000$; and availability of counterfeits $F(1,391) = 13.56$, $p < .000$. Those who had

purchased counterfeits rated all four variables higher than non-purchasers indicating more positive attitudes toward purchasing counterfeits. H6-9 were supported.

To identify the relative importance of the determinant variables on counterfeit purchase intention for US students, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted using purchase intention as a dependent variable. For independent variables, moral acceptability of counterfeit purchase, general attitudes toward purchasing counterfeits, price/quality as good reason to purchase counterfeits, and availability of counterfeits were used for testing. All the variables together explained approximately 54% of the variance in purchase intention. With respect to the relative importance, price/quality as good reason to purchase counterfeits showed the largest standardized regression coefficient (ß = .587, p < .001) followed by availability of counterfeits (ß = .135, p < .008), and general attitudes toward purchasing counterfeits (ß = .142, p < .026).

For Chinese students, an identical stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted. All the variables together explained approximately 32.9% of the variance in purchase intention. With respect to the relative importance, price/quality as good reason to purchase counterfeits showed the largest standardized regression coefficient (ß = .400, p < .000) followed by general attitudes toward purchasing counterfeits (ß = .257, p < .000). H10 was supported.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Counterfeiting is a growing problem and actions are being taken to reduce counterfeit trade on both national and international levels. One strategy to combat counterfeiting is to reduce consumer demand, thus reducing incentives to produce counterfeits.

Results of the current study revealed that counterfeit purchasers had more positive attitudes toward counterfeits than non-purchasers. One attitude that may be a key to strategies to reduce demand for counterfeits is the notion that it is reasonable to buy counterfeits because of price or quality. This attitude showed the strongest influence on intention to purchase counterfeits for both Chinese and US students.

A similar attitude which was common to both Chinese and US students was that it is not a problem for people to purchase counterfeits. This attitude reveals ignorance on the part of consumers about the true effects of counterfeiting. Also, Chinese students indicated more positive attitudes toward purchasing counterfeits than US students. Specifically, Chinese students were more positive that it is morally acceptable to purchase counterfeits, that price/quality are good reasons to purchase counterfeits, and that counterfeits are readily available. These attitudes are not surprising considering that copying is regarded as a good thing in Chinese culture. Consumer educators might create lessons to address the negative effects of counterfeits and the consumers' role in ethical consumption, containing a discussion of cultural differences in consumer behaviors.

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For further information contact:
Seung-Hee Lee
Southern Illinois University
875 S. Normal Ave., Carbondale, IL 62901
(618) 453-1981
shlee@siu.edu

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TYPES OF PATRIOTISM AND CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM

Vivek Madupu, University of Wisconsin-Green Bay

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and patriotism has not been consistent. Some studies have found a positive relationship, while some others have found either no relationship or a country specific effect. In many studies, patriotism was measured with different scales and different number of items and there is not much commonality among the items. Further, these studies treated patriotism construct as unidimensional. For instance, Kosterman and Feshbach (1989) considered patriotism as a one-dimensional construct and defined it as an overall dedication to or love of one's country.

However, Schatz et al (1999) have identified different conceptualizations of patriotism, viz: "military" and a "civic" form of patriotism (Curti, 1946); patriotism of imitation and obedience with a patriotism of innovation and disobedience (Morray,1959); patriotism of ignorance and irrationality and a patriotism of reason and dissent (Sommerville,1981); "pseudo" patriotism and "genuine" patriotism (Adorno et al. (1950). According to Schatz et al (1999), two key issues underlie these distinctions. One is, if the patriotism is linked to militarism and hostility towards out groups, and the other is if the patriotism is linked to uncritical loyalty. Based on the later distinction, Schatz et al (1999), and Staub (1997) have conceptualized two types of patriotism: blind or uncritical patriotism and constructive patriotism.

Blind or uncritical patriotism is defined as "*an attachment to country characterized by unquestioning positive evaluation, staunch allegiance, and intolerance of criticism*" (Schatz et al 1999, p. 151). Blind patriotism discourages diversity and seeks greater group unity (Staub 1997). Such sentiments also give rise to 'us-versus-them' feelings and a sense of in-group superiority (Staub 1997). On the other hand, constructive patriotism is defined as "*an attachment to country characterized by support for questioning and criticism of current group practices that are intended to result in positive change*" (Schatz et al 1999, p.151). Constructive patriots oppose government policies and actions if they believe that such actions and policies are morally incorrect and affect their country's long-term interests (Spry and Hornsey, 2007).

We suggest that the inconsistent relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and patriotism due to how the patriotism construct is measured. Specifically, in this study we propose that Blind patriotism is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism while constructive patriotism is negatively related. Further, we suggest that blind and constructive patriotism are negatively related.

For further information, contact:
Vivek Madupu
University of Wisconsin-Green Bay
Austin E. Cofrin School of Business
2420 Nicolet Dr., Green Bay, WI 54311-7001,
madupuv@uwgb.edu, (920) 465-2313.

POTENTIAL BRANDING STRATEGIES FOR THE ASIAN ELECTRONICS INDUSTRY

Glen H Brodowsky, California State University San Marcos
Camille P. Schuster, California State University San Marcos
Beverlee B. Anderson, California State University San Marcos

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This study explores brand recognition and positioning in the electronics industry of four Asian countries and their associated brands, including Taiwan Japan, South Korea, and China. It considers how companies from the four countries can develop brand strategies to leverage their perceived strengths and distinguish their brands and overcome any misperceptions and negative beliefs about products Made-in ____. While some authors suggest that the electronics product category has minimal cultural associations. Nevertheless, the industry is somewhat dominated by brands associated with Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and China. Regardless of their brand names, all laptop computers and smart phones are at least partially manufactured and assembled in Chinese factories.

This study builds upon the long history of country-brand image research concerning Asia's electronics industry. The study does not focus on country of manufacturing as most of these branded goods trace their common origins to Chinese factories. Rather, it examines the strength of brand-country associations for Japan, South Korea, China, and Taiwan and beliefs about the country brands. The study examines how these country/brand associations are related to consumer perceptions of each country's ability to produce high quality electronics, and thus, their brand positioning in western markets.

Non-Asian consumers were surveyed concerning their opinions about branded electronic products from Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and China. Consumer electronics was chosen as the product category because the four Asian countries studied are major players in this industry with recognizable brands from each. While Japan has been a dominant player in the industry for decades, Korea has recently caught up to, and surpassed Japan in terms of brand strength, particularly Samsung and LG in the flat-panel display category. Taiwan's Acer and Asus have gained major market share in the notebook PC industry and China, with its own less-powerful brands, also manufactures many of the electronic brands of the other three countries.

The brands used were selected by taking the most common consumer electronic brands on online shopping websites such as amazon.com, amazon.co.uk, bestbuy.com etc. for each country. The countries and brands used in the study are as follows:

Japan	Korea	Taiwan	China
Sony	Samsung	Acer	Hwawei
Canon	LG	Asus	Haier
Toshiba		HTC	Lenovo

The survey instrument began by asking respondents to identify the country of origin of each of the brands by choosing one of four countries (Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and China). An "I don't know" option was included to reduce guessing. Respondents then rated the images of electronics brands associated with each country. The scale used the 13 multi-item semantic differential scale Johansson and Nebenzahi (1986) adapted from Nagashima's (1970, 1977) scale labels.

Respondents were solicited among graduate business students at two universities – one located in the Southwestern United States, the other in the Netherlands. The respondents' countries of citizenship varied across and within the two samples, as there were international students in both programs. Initially, 176 surveys were returned of which 168 were usable. However, respondents indicating Asian citizenship (China, Korea, or Japan) were excluded as they were thought to be more likely familiar with brands from their local and neighboring countries. Thus, 153 responses were retained for analysis.

Analysis of the first part of the survey found that the majority of respondents knew which brands were associated with Japan. They were more than three times as likely to correctly identify Japanese brands as Japanese (65%) than they were to correctly identify Taiwanese and Chinese Brands (both less than 20%). Respondents were somewhat better at identifying the Korean brands (26%) but this was less than half the rate of correct classification rate of Japanese brands. While Korean brands were correctly identified as Korean 26 % of the time, further analysis shows that when they were misclassified, they were likely to be misidentified as Japanese.

One of the most striking findings concerns Japan. For eleven of the twelve items, the ratings of Japan's electronic products were significantly different – and superior to – the ratings of all three remaining countries. These items included reliability, stylishness, cost of running, cost of service, performance, durability, exclusivity, pride of ownership, workmanship, and innovation. The remaining item – on which Japan was deemed less desirable, was on price. The Korean products were rated significantly lower than the Japanese products on all areas except price. The ratings for Taiwan's electronics were lower than the Japanese on all eleven dimensions except price, Taiwanese electronics measured favorably with the Korean products on stylishness and service costs. While the Chinese products seem to have a significant price advantage over the Taiwanese (as well as Korea and Japan) products, the rating of Taiwanese workmanship was significantly higher (p<. 05) than the Chinese.

The findings also suggest strong positive country/brand associations for Japanese electronic products that may bolster their strength in the global marketplace. Japan has long been a dominant force in consumer electronics and it is not surprising that Sony, Canon, and Toshiba are strongly associated with a high quality "Made in Japan" image. South Korea seems to have taken a page out of the Japanese playbook and invested heavily in building its brands and national brand equity brands in the minds of US consumers. Korean brands appeared to be favorably positioned relative to strong Japanese brands and distinctly superior to Taiwanese and Chinese brands. This provides evidence that, through strong marketing efforts and brand building, it is possible to reposition a country's brand equity.

Chinese brands have not yet strongly positioned themselves against dominant brands in the US and European markets (or for that matter, against high end western brands that target China's large segment of elite consumers). Rather, local brands like Xiaomi and Lenovo seem well poised to meet the needs of an even larger market of low-to-middle income consumers. Taiwan, however, seems to be caught somewhere in the middle. Taiwanese firms seem to have focused on the research and development link of the value chain. While it produces some major world brands, such as ASUS, ACER, and HTC, Taiwan's brands do not seem to be clearly identifiable as Taiwanese in the minds of consumers. Among all four countries studied, it had the weakest country/brand association. The results suggest that the made-in-Taiwan image seems indistinguishable from low-quality Made-in-China image. These brands may intentionally avoid calling attention to their true country-of-origin to avoid negative stereotyping. However, if these brands continue to compete successfully over the next few years, Taiwan might just have an opportunity to engage in a national branding strategy that borrows from these brands' successes and begin building a positive halo effect for the Made-in-Taiwan franchise. Japanese and Korean companies have demonstrated that, with concerted marketing and brand-building efforts, accompanied by healthy marketing budgets, it is possible to establish strong Asian brand and country-brand images in western markets.

For further information contact:
Glen H. Brodowsky
California State University San Marcos
(760) 750-4261
glenbrod@csusm.edu

DIVIDING THE CROWD: MARKET SEGMENTATION FOR CROWDSOURCING VENTURES

Ivan Fedorenko, Bentley University
Pierre Berthon, Bentley University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Crowdsourcing is becoming an ever more important creator of value for firms across the globe. Initially attracting individuals to participate in such crowdsourcing ventures was easy – consumer interest and demand easily outpaced the supply of such initiatives. However, as the number of such ventures increases, managers need to consider what different groups of consumers get out of participating in such ventures. In this paper we address the question: how can managers differentiate the online crowd so as to target different types of participants so as to maximize total value creation? In exploring this question we take the following steps. First, we look at crowdsourcing from the perspective of the service-dominant logic (SDL) paradigm, where crowdsourcing can be seen as value co-creation. Second, the principles of market segmentation are briefly reviewed. Third, different approaches to segmenting online crowds are explored, and their relative advantages and disadvantages discussed. Finally, directions for future research are delineated.

The approach to solving complex managerial problems by "outsourcing" it to an online crowd, generally called "crowdsourcing," now attracts growing recognition from managers not only in e-business and hi-tech industries but across the whole economy. In crowdsourcing, customers' skills and knowledge are leveraged in online collaboration with the focal firm to co-create value (Malone et al. 2010). Crowdsourcing entails a reciprocal exchange of knowledge and thus can be viewed as a case of service-dominant logic (Vargo and Lusch, 2004).

Online crowd can be heterogeneous, indeed to an extent far exceeding an offline customer base. This is due to the absence of geographical borders and the unbounded variety of virtual identities engaged. The crowdsourcing participants are likely to have different views about what is valuable, based on their idiosyncratic goals, experiential knowledge, and context. Therefore, maximizing the value created through collaboration with diverse customers suggests the necessity for market segmentation.

Customers perceive and discover the value created in online collaboration through a myriad of individual and group lenses. Therefore, the key maximizing value for all parties, is to divide the online crowd into segments and match those segments with the activities that generate most value for the participants and the firm. The adjustment of the company offerings to fit the needs of the diverse customers and maximize their positive response is the kind of a problem that marketers have explored for decades.

Segmentation is a venerable procedure in the field of marketing strategy. However, most of the research on the topic has focused on the segmentation methodology rather than strategic implementation (Thoeni et al. 2016). The contribution of our study is the exploration of the implementation of segmentation in crowdsourcing. We now evaluate some of the segmentation approaches suggested recently for crowdsourcing-based businesses.

Typically the variables used as bases for and descriptors of segments can be divided into two types — general (demographic, psychological) and the situation-specific (behavioral) customer characteristics such as product usage and purchase patterns. Analyzing the different approaches to segmentation, we emphasize the distinction between the general approach as a "segmentation to develop the emotional connection" and the behavioral-based as a "segmentation to discover a customer whose needs are not being met" (Yankelovich and Meer, 2006).

Kozinets et al. (2008) approach the segmentation of online communities by the degree of members' engagement and contribution, dividing the market into segments named Crowds, Hives. Mobs and Swarms. This approach to segmentation integrates both the motivational and behavioral dimensions, and provides a valuable insight into the planning of new communities. However, it lacks the actionability, and may blur the vision of the customer segments as it focuses on the communities as a whole rather than on the specific customer subsets.

Füller (2010) draws on social exchange and self-determination theories to analyze participants' expectations regarding virtual co-creation projects and links these expectations to the types of motivation. Four groups were identified: the reward-oriented, the need-driven, the curiosity-driven, and the intrinsically interested.

In an alternative approach Malhotra and Majchrzak (2014) identified "sub-crowds" through their role in innovation communities and knowledge-sharing habits: Drive-by Posters - post their idea suggestion as a top level post only and do not comment on others' knowledge. Convenience Generatives - post their ideas as top-level posts and comment on others' knowledge threads, provide examples, and solutions. Knowledge Benefactors - do not start their own knowledge threads, but post ideas and examples in others' knowledge threads. Cheerleaders - do not post their own ideas and only comment on others' in unproductive manner. That is a kind of usage-pattern-based segmentation has potential, however, the inclusion of posthoc analysis limits its predictive value.

Berthon et al. (2015) identity types of "creative consumers" voluntarily modifying a product for a special purpose and/or for pleasure, based on their sharing habits. Sharing categories comprise: not sharing, openly announcing and giving the invention away for free; publicly marketing and selling their inventions; privately announcing and sharing within a closed community. Integrating this typology with the valence (positive or negative) of consumer ideas as perceived by the company, they suggested a framework allowing the firm to choose the appropriate legal and media strategies towards the modified product and it is authors. The advantage of this typology is that it offers clear suggestions for managerial actions. However, the framework focuses less on the proactive possibilities that firms can take towards creative crowds.

Our review reveals that the prevalent approaches to the segmentation of the online crowd are mostly behavioral, or usage pattern-based, while the relational and experiential nature of the value created in online collaboration appears to invite the approach based on values, identities and psychometric foundations (Claffey and Brady, 2014).

Such approaches are just starting to emerge in the marketing literature. Thus the need for comprehensive empirical testing and comparison represent opportunities for future research. We suggest that the future developments in the field of the online crowd segmentation be focused on the psychological variables relevant to assess the foundations and motivations of online consumer behavior and build a customer-centric strategy enhancing value co-creation.

The explicit connection to a firm's strategic goals (e.g. customer-brand connection, life-long relationship or maximizing the contribution) is the ultimate requirement for further segmentation schemes, since the lack of fit with corporate strategy is reported to be one of the strongest implementation barriers the effective implementation of strategic segmentation (Quinn and Dibb, 2010).

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For further information contact:
Ivan Fedorenko, Bentley University
(617) 959-6236, ifedorenko@bentley.edu

NEUTRALIZATION EFFECTS ON ETHICAL INTENTIONS AND ETHICAL BEHAVIOR AMONG FOR-PROFIT COLLEGE RECRUITERS

Kenyatta N. Barber, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater
Dennis Kopf, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The profession of sales has been criticized for the pressure that salespersons feel resulting in unethical practices (Vitell and Grove 1987). This paper is written in response to the recent recruiting scandals plaguing the for-profit higher education industry. These scandals have resulted in a number of class-action lawsuits and government interventions in the industry (Jones et al. 2005). The most recent for-profit higher education marketing scandal was settled less than six months ago for $95.5 million for deceptive marketing practices (Justice News, 2016). This is concerning given that for-profit institutions spend 22.49% of their revenue on marketing and recruiting activities. Given the extensive and pervasive nature of marketing to prospective students, it is crucial to discover the underlying reasons that for-profit salespeople are able to participate, justify and initiate unethical behavior in this industry. The following manuscript will explore what role neutralization techniques have on unethical intentions and marketing practices.

Previous studies have focused on marketing and the role of unethical salespeople. But no study to date has looked at the unethical intentions and deviant behavior of the unique complexity that is the for-profit higher education marketing practices. For-profits are unique because there are specific outlined regulations listing unethical and illegal practices within the industry that these institutions must follow. Despite these strict regulations, the for-profit higher education industry continues to be indicted for violating marketing regulations (Surowiecki, 2015).

The for-profit college recruiting industry has been the topic of unethical behavior for decades (Surowiecki, 2015). Therefore, analyzing the issue at the micro level helps to develop a better insight into the for-profit higher education recruiting industry. The study tests ethical judgment through three areas of sales behavior: sales promoting, customer relationship building, and sales organization. Studies have concluded that the three areas of sales behavior were recognized to be susceptible to the effects of neutralization theory. Accordingly, the previous studies of neutralization show that specific techniques are relevant to the three areas of behavior (Serviere-Munoz & Mallin, 2013).

This study will adopt the hypothesis and theoretical framework from the following key areas of literature on neutralization techniques (Serviere-Munoz & Mallin, 2013). The four hypothesis are separated into ethical judgment and three areas of sales behavior.

The method indirectly questioned the subjects about ethical intentions related to the college-recruiting field. Also there is concurrent evidence from a practitioner perspective through legal cases that these ethical and illegal behaviors are occurring within the for-profit higher education industry. This study offers an opportunity to analyze at the micro level how unethical behavior is being justified. This opportunity opens a dialogue for continued research focusing on the specific industry and also the opportunity to apply this framework to other industries plagued by scandals. The findings of this study also offer a chance to analyze where there is a breakdown of societal norms within the higher education industry. There is an effort proposed with this literature and this study to reveal problems with societal norms that lead to unethical behavior within the industry and the effect that behavior has on society. Future research may be proposed from this study to further understand the behaviors and intentions and therefore offer possibilities to rectify the behavior.

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For further information contact:
Kenyatta Barber
University of Wisconsin-Whitewater
(262) 472-1206
barberkn12@uww.edu

ANTHROPOMORPHISM AND SOCIAL CAUSE: THE ROLE OF SOCIAL PROOF

Monika Rawal, Southern Illinois University- Carbondale, USA
Jose Luis Saavedra, Southern Illinois University- Carbondale, USA
Ramin Bagherzadeh, Southern Illinois University- Carbondale, USA

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

In the year 2014, $391 billion were invested worldwide for low-carbon and climate-resilient infrastructure with a hope to contribute to environment, but still does not seem to be sufficient to save the environment (The Huffington Post 2015). According to The International Energy Agency (2015), in order to avoid any major environmental changes, a spending of $359 trillion is estimated worldwide between 2015 and 2050 for the social causes. Social causes are generally in the interest of communities as a whole and not separately for individuals. Overall, social causes do expand their benefits to everyone at individual levels, but are not generally visible to a lay person. The fact that there seems as if there are no benefits to individuals by complying to social causes prevents people from performing those behaviors. Also, since consumers have to bear some costs, monetary or non-monetary (for example, time and efforts), to comply with social causes, they show resistance for such behaviors. Ahn, Kim, and Aggarwal (2014) suggest a way to increase consumers' compliance toward social cause, and suggest that the cause itself should be anthropomorphized. Anthropomorphism is defined by Merriam-Webster dictionary as "an interpretation of what is not human or personal in terms of human or personal characteristics". Anthropomorphizing a social cause gives an intrinsic incentive to consumers to act, as they feel guilty if they do not comply with it, because they think of the object as a human and feel as if they are harming the person by their action or inactions (Ahn, Kim, and Aggarwal 2014).

Though anthropomorphism can lead to compliance with a social cause, but there is an another factor that may increase consumers' compliance toward social causes is social proof. Social proof is defined as a strategy having an impact on one's perceptions of specific actions as ''correct in a given situation to the degree that we see others performing it" (Cialdini 2001, p.100). Although, research has been conducted, in the past, on the relationship between anthropomorphism and compliance toward social cause (Ahn, Kim, and Aggarwal 2014), the role of social proof in this context has remained unexamined and untested. Researchers have shown how social proof influences consumers' decision process, like the effect of electronic word of mouth on sales (Amblee and Bui 2011), where consumers buy certain products based on online reviews by other consumers. Shearman and Yoo (2007) show that social proof leads to high consumers' compliance to donation to a charitable organization. Social proof has been shown as an important way to achieve compliance in standardizing behaviors (Cialdini, Wosinska, Barrett, Butner, and Gornik 1999). On the basis of above discussion, the current research has two objectives: 1) to replicate the relationship between anthropomorphism and compliance for social cause, and 2) to examine the role of social proof as a moderator between anthropomorphism and compliance toward social cause. This research can be managerially useful. It can be of help to find a way to persuade consumers to comply with social causes in the situations where anthropomorphism is not possible. Priming consumers with social proof can influence them to go along with others and comply with the social causes.

Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Anthropomorphism refers to the treating of non-human objects as if they are human in appearance, character, or behavior. Research has shown that human judgment can be permeated by anthropomorphism (Guthrie 1993). Anthropomorphism can occur even when a person is not conscious about it (Hume 1957), and people's brains process them similar to how they would process a human being (Gazzola, Rizzolatti, Wicker, and Keysers, 2007). Morewedge, Preston, and Wegner (2007) observed that objects with human features and/or characteristics make people construe the mental states of those objects similar to humans.

Ahn, Kim, and Aggarwal (2014) show how anthropomorphism also increases one's compliance with a social cause. In their study, participants who were exposed to an anthropomorphized message consented more to comply

with the social message as compared to the ones who were exposed to a non-anthropomorphized message related to social cause. In a similar study, Tam, Lee, and Chao (2013) showed anthropomorphizing nature encourages people toward conservation behavior. They argue that anthropomorphizing nature makes people more connected to it, and hence leads to their compliance with conservation behavior. Based on the above discussion, and in line with Ahn, Kim, and Aggarwal (2014), this study also proposes that anthropomorphizing a social cause will increase the compliance toward it. Hence the following is hypothesized:

H1: Anthropomorphism increases consumers' compliance with a social cause.

Social proof is a marketing strategy that creates an impact on consumers' perceptions of specific behaviors (Cialdini 2001). Cialdini (1993) explains social proof by arguing that people decide about their required appropriate behavior by observing and considering behavior of others. The concept of social proof is based on Festinger's (1954) social comparison theory, which explains that people confirm whether their actions are appropriate or not, by comparing themselves with others in their social groups, which in turn influences their decision making. Researchers have shown in the past how social proof impacts people's behaviors in various situations, like littering (Cialdini, Reno, and Kallgren 1990) and giving donations (Reingen 1982).

In a not so old study, Amblee and Bui (2011) show how social proof influences online shopping. Consumers rely on others' reviews for reputation of the product and brand, as well as complementary goods when buying products online (Amblee and Bui 2011). Due to the perception that others' behavior is correct, consumers tend to follow their behavior in order to simplify their own decisions. Similarly, when consumers have to take decisions (consciously or unconsciously) about adhering to social causes, they might follow their peers' behaviors and might act accordingly. Hence, consumers' compliance toward social causes can be presumed to be high if "others" also comply to those causes. Therefore, the following is hypothesized:

H2: Social proof moderates the relationship between anthropomorphism and compliance with social cause such that non-anthropomorphized social cause will lead to compliance in the presence of social proof.

Methodology

A 2 (anthropomorphism: yes vs. no) X 2 (social proof: yes vs. no) between subject design will be adopted. A sample of 150 undergraduate students will be selected to participate in the study, and will be randomly assigned to one of the four experimental conditions.

Participants will be informed that a leading recycling company is developing a poster for a new environment-conservation campaign, and wants them to evaluate it. In this study, anthropomorphism will be manipulated, inspired from Ahn, Kim, and Aggarwal (2014), by showing participants a poster of recycling bin having eyes, nose, and mouth, and a message reading: "Please feed me plastic bottles!", and for non-anthropomorphism, participants will be shown a poster of recycling bin without any humanlike features, and a message reading: "Please put plastic bottles inside!". Social proof will be manipulated by informing participants that 80% of the respondents agreed to comply with this campaign. No such information will be provided in no social proof condition. Compliance will be measured, following Ahn, Kim, and Aggarwal (2014), by asking participants: "If the campaign is implemented, how likely would you be to participate in energy conservation?". A seven point Likert scale will be used to measure their response from 1 (very unlikely) to 7 (very likely). Data will be analyzed using ANOVA and Regression.

For further information contact:
Monika Rawal
Southern Illinois University-Carbondale
(618) 453-7778
monikarawal@siu.edu

UNCOVERING CONSUMERS' PSYCHOLOGICAL PROCESSES OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY EVALUATIONS

Xiaoye Chen, North Central College

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Over the last decade, companies have engaged in a wide range of Corporate Social Responsibilities (CSR) endeavors. Many previous studies have found that different CSR activities can contribute to a favourable overall corporate image (e.g., Brown & Dacin, 1997; Klein & Dawar, 2004). Given these previous findings, an important question arises as to: what are the underlying consumer psychological processes that channel or mediate the effects of CSR activities on consumer corporate evaluations? Even though numerous studies have tried to establish links between corporate evaluations and CSR performance (Margolis and Walsh 2003), researchers, however, agree that much study remains to be conducted on the mediating mechanism between CSR and corporate evaluations (e.g., Margolis and Walsh 2003; Rowley and Berman 2000).

This study aims to cover potential mediators between CSR and consumers' corporate brand evaluations. An experimental study with 232 undergraduate students was utilized to test the study hypotheses. The subjects were randomly assigned to 4 conditions of CSR activities that are widely practices in the marketplace.

The results of the study show that, on the ethical/moral side of consumers' corporate brand evaluations (i.e., consumers' perceived CSR image), three mediating factors channel the effect between CSR activities and CSR image. These are consumers' perceived 1) commitment (i.e., the perceived commitment of the firm to help the cause); 2) values-driven motive (i.e., the perceived sincerity of the firm to help the cause); and 3) customer orientation (i.e., the extent to which the CSR is oriented towards meeting customer needs and wellbeing). On the competence side of consumers' assessments (i.e., consumers' perceived CA image), only one mediator is discovered (i.e., customer orientation), namely, the extent to which the CSR is oriented towards meeting customer needs and wellbeing.

The study represents one of the first attempts to uncover mediators between various CSR activities and corporate brand image. The findings help companies design their CSR initiatives with clearer consumer-oriented goals in mind and increase the effectiveness of CSR in realizing corporate strategic objectives.

For further information contact:
Xiaoye Chen
Department of Management and Marketing
North Central College
30 N. Brainard Street, Naperville
Illinois, 60540
(630) 637-5239
xchen@noctrl.edu

GAME THEORY, ETHICAL DECISION MAKING, AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Wei Min, Xiamen University
Maxwell Hsu, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater
Dennis Kopf, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

There is often a conflict between tourism/economic development and environment protection. Since tourism destinations (specifically those that feature a pristine natural environment) have strong incentives to preserve the natural environment (Williams and Ponsford, 2009), sustainable tourism has a chance to flourish through stakeholder cooperation. In fact, there is evidence that sustainable and ethical consumption (Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008) is expanding beyond the niche market phase. It is also observed that individuals are increasingly more concerned about the effect of business development activities on the environment (Kopf et al., 2009; Manaktola and Jauhari, 2007). Although sustainable tourism as a percentage of tourism expenditures is growing, this segment accounts for only a small fraction of traditional mass tourism. As such, a vision for sustainable tourism development could make significant inroads in one of the largest sectors of the economy.

Indeed, sustainability is becoming a driving force and a common theme across disciplines. It is likely that the importance of sustainability in business ethics will continue to increase. However, there is often a conflict between tourism/economic development and environment protection/preservation. In this study, we seek to balance stakeholders' interests for profit and improved social conditions through economic development while also maintaining ecological integrity in tourism development with the help of game theory. Our findings indicate that two likely equilibria can be reached. One equilibrium focuses on high short-term profits, but with ecological damage leading to less cumulative profits. The second equilibrium requires ecological maintenance costs (thus less short-term profits) yet yields greater cumulative profits. The comparison of equilibria concludes that communities using an ethically-guided decision process are theorized to be more successful in achieving greater long-term benefits for all stakeholders.

As the push and pull of economic growth versus sustainability continues, we theorize that many tourism destinations are likely to experience a partial loss of the environmental quality as the destination becomes more popular. Once the critical juncture is reached such that the ecosystem is damaged and there is a noticeable decrease in tourism, all stakeholders are likely to see the wisdom in investing collectively in the ecosystem.

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For further information contact:
Dr. Dennis Kopf
University of Wisconsin-Whitewater
+1.262.472.6948
kopfd@uww.edu

LET'S (NOT?) TALK ABOUT CLIMATE CHANGE: AMERICAN CONSUMERS AND GLOBAL WARMING

Héctor R. Lozada, Seton Hall University
Gary H. Kritz, Seton Hall University
Alma Mintu-Wimsatt< Texas A&M-Commerce

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Maibach et al. (2016) assert that while their surveys have shown that most Americans are interested in the issue of global warming and consider it personally important, their surveys also show that for most Americans global warming is not a common, or even daily, topic of conversation. To supplement this, and contextualize it in the current presidential campaign, Leiserowitz et al. (2016), state that an increasing number of American registered voters believe global warming is happening (73%, up from 66% in 2014).

Given these numbers you would expect global warming to be an issue of relevance during the current presidential campaign. Yet, somewhat consistent with Maibach et al., Pew Research reported in June 2016 that the environment ranks 12th out of 14th top issues relevant to registered voters. While 69% of Clinton supporters stated that the environment is very important, only 32% of Trump supported said the same, not surprisingly given that Trump has provided conflicting arguments regarding the veracity of global warming.
But beyond the presidential campaign, should the government set policy to require businesses to do their part in preventing further global warming? Do consumers know what to ask for? Do marketers have a commitment to act in the face of climate change? Better yet, do marketers have a role in educating consumers about what to ask from government?

In this article we review how some of the smartest minds in consumer marketing have learned how to sell green products. Marketers have told consumers that shifting their buying and consumption habits, including the promotion of recycling, they are helping to diminish climate change. But, is this enough?

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For further information contact:
Héctor R. Lozada
Seton Hall University
973-761-9259
lozadahe@shu.edu

VARIETY SEEKING AT THE BRAND LEVEL: UNIDENTIFIED STRATEGY BY LUXURY BRAND SHOPPERS

Omar S. Itani, College of Business / University of Texas at Arlington/ Lebanese American University
Hayam Alnakhli, College of Business / University of Texas at Arlington
Ma Han, College of Business / University of Texas at Arlington
Siji Sun, College of Business / University of Texas at Arlington

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine variety seeking behavior at the brand level while at the same time taking into consideration the identification of two mechanisms through which luxury brands affect variety seeking behavior. Based on social identity theory and luxury/variety seeking research, we propose that luxury brands compared to non-luxury ones will have positive impact on variety seeking behavior of shoppers.

The inherent need of individuals to affirm to their social group while simultaneously trying to distinguish themselves to assert their individual identity within their respective group can lead luxury shoppers to engage more in variety seeking behavior knowing that luxury brands help satisfy the need of uniqueness or distinctiveness.

Past research shows that positive affect is associated with the need for prestige, a need triggered by shoppers' experiences with the luxury brands. Variety seeking research found positive-affect to increase variety seeking behavior. In our study, we propose that luxury brands can evoke one's need for uniqueness and lead to positive affect, which, both, in turn influence variety seeking behavior.

For further information contact:
Omar Itani
College of Business / University of Texas at Arlington
omar.itani@mavs.uta.edu

MARRIED OR SINGLE: IMPACT OF MARITAL STATUS OF CEO ON MARKETING OUTCOMES

Prachi Gala, University of Mississippi
Franklin Tillman, University of Mississippi
Derek Ezell, University of Mississippi

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

As the strategic decision-making process is by its very nature ambiguous, complex, and unstructured, the perceptions and interpretations of a top management team's members critically influence strategic decisions (Dutton & Duncan, 1987). A team's decision to initiate changes in strategy will be based on members' perceptions of opportunities and constraints (Tushman & Romanelli, 1985). Thus, to predict the firm performance and intermediate outcomes, it is important to know, what the CEO thinks and how he behaves. The demographics of the CEO, such as age (Agrawal and Knoeber 1996), tenure (Simsek 2007), education (Bhagat et al 2010), gender (Khan et al. 2013) etc. have been given extreme importance to predict the various outcomes of the firm. Not only that, along with demographics, the personality traits of the CEO, like narcissism (Wales, Patel and Lumkin 2013), locus of control (Boone et al. 1996), hubris (Hayward and Hambrick 1997) etc. have been studied to predict the behavior and attitude of CEO towards various investments and outcomes. In this manner, multiple research provides evidence on how individual CEO characteristics impact corporate policies (Bertrand and Schoar 2003, Malmendier and Tate 2005). After looking at the above literature, one question that arises is – are only the characteristics and personalities of CEO which are permanent, important to the firms' outcomes or do they vary with their life cycle? One important change in the life cycle of an individual, including CEO, is his marital status.

In a recent study, Nikolai Roussanov and Pavel Savor, found that single CEOs are associated with firms exhibiting higher stock return volatility, pursue more aggressive investment policies, and do not respond to increases in idiosyncratic risk. This study came up with a very interesting finding, that investors should check the marital status of the CEO before investing in that firm. Another study by Nicolosi and Yore found that corporate deal making activity and firm riskiness, both increase with the changes that take place in the marital status of the CEO during his tenure. Not many studies at organizational level, other than these, have studies the importance of marital status in the life of CEO. Thus, it increases the need to look deeper into the marital status of the CEO and how that can have impact on various intermediate outcomes at a firm level, ultimately impacting firm performance. This article looks into the impact of marital status on certain intermediate outcomes of the firm. Due to the scope of a paper, the articles limits its study to the marketing variables, like, advertising etc. Thus it studies how the strategic decisions of the firm, specifically marketing, are impacted when the CEO of the firm is married compared to those firms whose CEO is not married (single, widowed or divorced). The next section provides the theoretical framework and proposes the hypotheses.

The upper echelon theory provides the framework for this article. The upper echelon theory (UET), according to Hambrick and Mason (1984), states that strategic choices are determined and shaped by the values and cognitive bases of dominant/powerful coalition/actors of the organization, particularly top managers (TM). In other words, organizations are a reflection of the upper management. Thus, the top management plays a major role in driving the firm. These include decisions like investments and strategic choices, including investment in advertising and research and development. Since these decisions are driven by the upper management, and that CEO is the driver of this team, CEO plays a vital role in such decision making.

Along with various characteristics studied in the past, one vital change that plays a role in CEO's life is his marital status. Past research has done variety of studies on married individuals and how that affects their health, happiness and financial status (Waite et al. 2002; Robles 2003). Along with this, past research has been done on the amount of risk one takes, based on their marital status. The model by Nikolai Roussanov and Pavel Savor predicts that single individuals, should have a greater tolerance for risk than married ones, and consequently undertake riskier investments.

When the firm, invests in advertising, the outcomes of this investments are uncertain and unknown at times. These investments can take days, months or even years to reap the fruit, since the impact of advertising is not immediate, unlike alliances or new products. Thus, it is considered very risky to invest in advertising. Looking at the past research, since single CEOs are ready to take more risks than married CEOs (Nikolai Roussanov and Pavel Savor 2016), it is expected that, the firms with single CEOs will invest more in advertising compared to firms with married CEOs. Thus, based on upper echelon theory, following hypotheses are proposed:

H$_1$: The firms with single CEOs have higher advertising intensity compared to firms with married CEOs

As with advertising, the outcomes of the investment in research and development is uncertain and unknown. Not only that, it can take years to do the expected research and develop the products as planned. To add further, different degrees of uncertainty in technologies and markets can cause failures of R&D projects (Doctor et al. 2001; Razetal 2002; Leetal 2010). Thus, R&D investment is a risky decision to make at any given point in time. Since the single CEOs are willing to take more risks than married CEOs, it is expected that firms with single CEOs invest more in R&D compared to firms with married CEOs. Thus,

H$_2$: The firms with single CEOs have higher R&D intensity compared to firms with married CEOs

If the firm faces a product harm crisis, it risks to lose the current customer base. Along with losing current customers, the future customers, the brand value of the firm, and the other chain of brands along with the harmed product, all are at risk. Thus, the firms strive to avoid the product harm crisis as much as possible. Unfortunately, due the risk taking nature of the single CEO, the firms are more prone to face product harm crisis, although unintentional, compared to firms with married CEOs. Thus:

H$_3$: The firms with single CEOs have higher risk of facing product harm crisis compared to firms with married CEOs

One of the biggest challenges for this paper was to collected the marital status data for the CEO. Majority of the CEOs did not have their marital status available publicly or could not be found in any database. Thus, we had to make certain assumptions following Nikolai Roussanov and Pavel Savor. More specifically, first, for those CEOs for whom we can find no dates, we start with the assumption that they are single, and then change their status if we find information indicating the opposite. Second, any CEO who is ever mentioned as being married but the exact dates of marriage are not available is coded as married throughout his or her tenure. This means that some CEOs who are divorced or whose spouses are deceased will be wrongly counted as married. Third, since we require evidence to classify a CEO as married, those CEOs who are not prominent enough to warrant mentioning our sources (or those who are very private with regards to their personal information) will appear in the data as single even if they are actually married. Fourth, while we perform a comprehensive search for all CEOs, it is inevitable that we miss some. Fifth, some CEOs may be involved in marriage-like relationships but not be formally married, and their status for our purposes should be classified as married but will not be.

For further information contact:
Prachi Gala
University of Mississippi
326 Holman Hall
University, MS 38677-1848
(662) 202-6060
pgala@bus.olemiss.edu

IT NEVER HURTS TO ASK? GRADE GRUBBING AS A FORM OF STUDENT CHEATING

Courtney Cox, Morehead State University
Kasia Williams, Morehead State University
Johnathan Nelson, Morehead State University
Kenneth Henderson, Morehead State University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Numerous studies have noted the increase in cheating practices among college students to gain an unfair advantage. However, one practice has been largely overlooked in educational literature, namely grade grubbing. In the pluralistic study reported in this paper we focus on grade grubbing because it opens up additional cheating behaviors beyond those that might have been traditionally considered. We define grade grubbing as actions students take to influence an instructor to receive a higher grade or some other unfair advantage beyond what they would have otherwise received on an assignment or in a class. While this type of behavior has largely been missing from inventories of cheating behaviors, we argue it is important to understand as it is an effort to gain an unfair advantage and still poses the same threat to academic integrity that other cheating behaviors do; that is, assessments of student performance impacted by grade grubbing are inaccurate in nature. Focus groups and an online survey will yield results reported in the final paper that will be completed before the March conference.

Cheating is common at all levels of academic institutions; beginning in elementary school, and continuing through undergraduate and graduate studies (Anderman & Murdock, 2007; McCabe, Butterfield, & Treviño, 2006; Yardley, Domenech-Rodriguez, Bates, & Nelson, 2009). While particular types of cheating are believed to be on the rise, cheating is not a new phenomenon, and has been of interest (and concern) for educators and researchers for some time (Bowers, 1964; Brownell, 1928; Whitley, 1998). Cheating is an issue of concern for educators largely because it undermines the accuracy of assessment data used in academic institutions including written assignments and exams (Anderman & Murdock, 2007). Indeed cheating is viewed by many students as a necessary way of "leveling the playing field" in order to gain admission to college, or in preparation for entering the workforce (McCabe, Trevino, & Butterfield, 2001; Whitley, 1998).

McCabe, Butterfield, and Treviño (2012) argued that it is important to address cheating because among other reasons, cheating is increasing in frequency, there is significant pressure for students to cheat, and that integrity is the cornerstone of academic institutions. They also note that college years are an important formative period of ethical development for students and that these students are the leaders of the future. These last two points are particularly salient as those same individuals who have behaved dishonestly in an obtaining their education and training in order to obtain employment may continue to behave in a dishonest and unethical manner upon entering the workforce (Arvidson, 2005; Crown & Spiller, 1998; Nonis & Swift, 2001). Thus, addressing cheating in higher education appears to have implications for ethical behavior in professional settings.

Cheating has generally been defined in terms of concrete behaviors (e.g., McCabe et al., 2012). Research on cheating has most often presented students with a list of specific behaviors (e.g., using cheat sheets) that they then report their frequency in having engaged in (Barnhardt, 2016). However, Barnhardt (2016) argues that this definition of cheating is problematic in that it ignores whether students are intentionally engaging in these acts and that it ignores the seriousness of different forms of cheating. He argues for conceptualizing cheating behaviors based on their underlying definitional properties such as their use to gain an unfair advantage.

In this paper we focus on defining cheating as those behaviors that are engaged in to gain an unfair advantage. One reason for doing so is that it opens up additional cheating behaviors beyond those that might have been traditionally considered, namely grade grubbing. We define grade grubbing as actions students take to influence an instructor to receive a higher grade or some other unfair advantage beyond what they would have otherwise received on an assignment or in a class. While this type of behavior has largely been missing from inventories of cheating behaviors, we argue it is important to understand as it is an effort to gain an unfair advantage and still poses the

same threat to academic integrity that other cheating behaviors do; that is, assessments of student performance impacted by grade grubbing are inaccurate in nature.

Principles of influence have been identified that individuals use to change the behavior, attitudes, or beliefs of others (Cialdini, 2001; Yukl, 2007). These tactics are regularly used by influence professionals because they rely on principles that people typically use as shortcuts for good decisions (Cialdini, Sagarin, & Rice, 2001). For example, it is typically beneficial to follow experts' advice in their area of expertise. However, these same principles can be misapplied and abused to influence outcomes in contexts where these principles are not relevant (Cialdini et al., 2001; Cialdini, 2013). For example, one can also abuse the principle of expertise if an individual presents themselves as an expert in an area where they do not possess expertise.

Thus, grade grubbing involves the misapplication of principles of influence to gain an unfair advantage either in terms of assignment details (e.g., getting an extension that other students may not have received) or assessment outcomes (e.g., a higher grade than what was merited). We argue that grade grubbing is important to understand for two primary reasons. First, as it can provide an unfair advantage and threaten the integrity of educational assessments it is a form of cheating that has largely been ignored. Secondly, it is possible that students who would not cheat in other ways may be perfectly willing to grade grub. They are simply making a request that the instructor then has to decide and accept moral responsibility for that decision.

In this paper we first describe principles of influence and how they can be inappropriately applied in the form of grade grubbing. We then define grade grubbing in greater detail and describe why we believe it is appropriate to consider grade grubbing a form of cheating. We also highlight reasons why grade grubbing is important to understand and reduce in educational settings. We then describe a series of studies assessing the frequency of a range of grade grubbing behaviors. We close with a discussion of issues associated with grade grubbing and recommendations for reducing grade grubbing in educational settings.

Although many studies have dealt with cheating in academic environments, insights into the mindsets of students and faculty when discussing grade grubbing are lacking. To examine whether a correlation exists between perceived cheating and grade grubbing behaviors, the authors will conduct an exploratory pre-study. A series of focus groups will be administered. The following sectors will be represented: business faculty, students across four years of study, varsity athletes, and members of fraternal and Panhellenic social organizations. The focus group discussions will address the types, frequency and perceived fairness of student requests to professors to inflate earned grades, allow make-up or re-submitted assignments, provide due date extensions, and glean insights to future exams.

Based on the results of this exploratory study, an online survey will sample the viewpoints of students and faculty. The survey will consist of items derived from the focus group discussions and adapted from the influence behavior constructs proposed by Yukl et al. (2008). These influence behavior items include rational influence, exchange, consultation, ingratiation, collaboration, pressure, apprising, legitimating, and inspirational appeals.

Combined, these qualitative and quantitative studies will offer an initial exploration into an aspect of cheating that comprises an everyday occurrence in academic life. Recommendations for how grade grubbing should be addressed in future cheating research and educational practice will be provided.

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For further information contact:
Kenneth Henderson
College of Business & Technology/Morehead State University
(606)783-2753
k.henderson@moreheadstate.edu

THE CEMENT NUMBER GAME: A TEACHING CASE

Israel Kpekpena, Earl G. Graves School of Business and Management, Morgan State University
Haiyan Hu, Earl G. Graves School of Business and Management, Morgan State University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This case exposes undergraduate students to real life marketing situation in a developing world setting. The company is Ghana's first manufacturer of cement and has enjoyed a monopoly for almost 40 years. As the case is in most monopoly markets, the company offered a homogeneous product to an undifferentiated market for years until competition begun to set in. The company has done its bid to respond to challenges with changes in its cost structure and accompanying consequences in all other aspects of its market offering. After seemingly fending off the initial competition, new competitors continue to enter the market with products offerings that are perceived to be giving a better value in the exchange process.

The protagonist is the Head of Sales and Distribution of the company. His task is to suggest an appropriate marketing response strategy, which his company can implement to remain on top of the competition. To do this, he is required to identify the various factors in the marketing environment which impact the company's market offering, as well as conduct a SWOT analysis on the company - GHACEM. He is also required to identify the consumer decision-making process to purchase cement and the factors that influence the choice of the cement consumer. He also needs to use one of the two methods (Business Portfolio Analysis and Diversification Analysis) to discuss ways that the company can grow its business. The case puts out the protagonist's view of how the company has coped with the competition so far, and how it might surmount the current challenge.

The case is presented as medium-length and organized, with relevant information, not so obvious red herrings, and with data coming from multiple sources and in different forms. Both primary and secondary data were sued. Primary data was collected via an in-depth personal interview with the protagonist. The interview was done to collect firsthand information on his experiences and requirements in his current role, as well as the challenges the company faced. Secondary data was also collected mostly from the various relevant databases on the internet.

The case aims to help students to attain the following specific objectives: identify the various environmental factors that affect a company's marketing offer; identify the various options available to a company in responding to changes in its competitive environment; prescribe appropriate marketing response strategy to change in competitive environment of a company; and analyze the components of the consumer decision making process of cement buyers.

Regarding approach to the use of the case, the case is developed for undergraduate students who are taking Principles of Marketing course. There is no prior knowledge in marketing required, but students are required to have registered for the Principles of Marketing course. For a 50-minute class discussion on the case, it is recommended that the case is given out to students before the discussion for them to familiarize themselves with its content.

Four broad discussion questions are provided corresponding to the four learning objectives of the case to facilitate the classroom discussion of the case. The case comes with complete teaching notes with suggested answers to discussion questions.

For further information contact:
Israel Kpekpena
Earl G. Graves School of Business and Management, Morgan State University
443-379-1290 (voice)
iskpe1@morgan.edu

EPITOMAX NUTRITION:
READY-TO-DRINK PROTEIN WATER

Jonathan Ochoa, Purdue University Northwest
Matthew Shell, Purdue University Northwest
Claudia C. Mich, Purdue University Northwest

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The use of case analysis in marketing strategy allows students to sit in the seat of managers making very difficult decisions with limited data. Building skills such as problem identification, critical thinking and analysis, decision-making, problem solving, and realistic implementation is essential for students to successfully compete in a challenging, ever-changing business environment. The following case analysis is most applicable to the study of marketing strategy, particularly as it applies to new product introduction, and can be used in both undergraduate marketing capstone or MBA courses.

Innovation is key to a growing economy, but also a challenging area in which to think strategically. In the introduction phase of the product life cycle, companies require strategic thinking when assessing challenges and strengths, building compelling competitive positions in the shadow of existing, more established brands, and keeping costs and initial price balanced such that margins are effective. This particular case allows students to think strategically about product innovation in an established industry by a) assessing market conditions and the competitive landscape, b) identifying the target market(s) and distinct competitive position necessary for success, c) identifying the main challenge or hurdle that needs to be overcome, d) identifying viable strategic alternatives to addressing the main challenge, e) analyzing relevant data to determine an appropriate course of action, f) deciding upon and defending a winning strategic solution, and g) clearly laying out a marketing mix that logically implements the chosen solution.

The current case focuses on a rather mature industry, sports nutrition, which could make new product introduction either extremely challenging or a strategic opportunity. Names and data for the case have been changed, but are based on actual product introduction processes within the industry. The remainder of the abstract will give a background to the content of the case.

Epitomax Nutrition holds a premium position as one of the most highly regarded sports nutrition brands in the world. It commands premium pricing, utilizes high quality ingredients, and has over 25 years of proven trust and quality. Owned by parent company Global Sports Nutrition Group (GSNG), Epitomax now seeks to increase its presence in over 24 countries and grow its 20% market share lead in the sports nutrition market.

Water-based protein beverages (no need to mix up the powder), in a convenient ready-to-drink bottle, are a rapidly growing product category ($23.2 million in retail sales) that Epitomax now has the opportunity to pursue. An independent research group estimates 9.4% in annual volume growth each year for the next two years. The GSNG leadership team has issued a directive that all new innovations collectively generate $20 million in net revenue in 2017, with the company's leadership expecting a 18% profit margin on each new product. As a worldwide leader in the sports nutrition, Epitomax is confident that a new product in the ready-to-drink market will effectively capture share and contribute at least $4 million to the $20 million revenue goal. However, a number of details need to be ironed out.

The Epitomax R&D team has formulated four different product options for launch, each tailored to needs specific to certain market segments. The main decision-maker on this product launch, Jonathan Shell, must determine the best market to target, the strategic position of the new product in light of existing brands (including sister company brands), and the best product formulation to match the chosen market and positioning. All of these decisions must also be made in light of the revenue expectations set by the leadership team. In addition to the decisions relating to the product itself, Jonathan is responsible for maximizing distribution and return on promotion, while minimizing cannibalization of products produced by both Epitomax and its sister brands.

In order to make an optimal decision, Jonathan is tasked with a complete analysis of competitive brands, consumer target markets, existing and alternative distribution channels, and promotion strategies that maximize return. Based on his analysis, Jonathan must make a number of recommendations. First, Epitomax currently targets the Bodybuilder and Competitive Recreational markets, which combined make up 80% of the sports nutrition market. Jonathan must determine is the new product should target these same markets, alternate markets not currently targeted, or one of the two original markets. Second, Epitomax traditionally sells its products through high-end sports nutrition shops. However, the ready-to-drink market provides an opportunity to other channels like online retailers, big box stores, and others that cater to a larger market base. Third, Epitomax must determine the best marketing promotions for the target market and product formula chosen (i.e. online promotions through social media, in-store demonstrations, etc.). All of these decisions must be made in light of the product life cycle: introductory phase (goals: awareness and trial) of the new product that is being introduced into a growth market (goals: brand differentiation and gain in share).

At a time when protecting and growing current market position are critical, Epitomax faces numerous marketing decisions that require a thorough assessment of all relevant factors as well as a clearly established strategic position. After investing weeks of strategic thought and working thoroughly with a cross-functional team to prepare for his recommendation at the leadership team, Jonathan takes a deep breath as he prepares to answer a the concerns posed by the leadership team.

For further information contact:
Claudia C. Mich
Purdue University Northwest
(219) 989-2776
cmich@pnw.edu

BRAND MARKETING VIA FACEBOOK: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE MARKETING MIX, CONSUMER-BASED BRAND EQUITY, AND PURCHASE INTENTION IN THE FITNESS INDUSTRY

Benjamin K. Wright, Ball State University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Traditional marketing efforts have become costly and vary in effectiveness for businesses. In response, many organizations have begun turning to inexpensive marketing practices such as e-mail blasts and social media marketing, but the effectiveness of these practices is unclear. Compared to traditional media, social media allows users to connect in real-time at lower costs and achieve a much wider reach. Unsurprisingly, social media has seen a rapid increase in popularity. There also has been a call to improve the fitness industry's business practices regarding the rising number of health club brands and lack of consumption of the services provided by the industry. Therefore, the present study was designed to fill gaps in the literature to better understand the development of consumer-based brand equity via marketing mix efforts in a social media environment in an industry that struggles to attract a consistent consumer base.

An initial pretest (i.e., qualitative content analysis) was conducted to examine the types of social media messages used by fitness clubs on Facebook. Facebook posts (N = 1,856) were placed into seven marketing mix categories (i.e., product, price, place, promotion, people, physical evidence, and process) by two trained coders. The product dimension was overwhelmingly the most popular category (889 messages, 47.9%), suggesting that selected fitness clubs preferred to use Facebook posts that focus on offerings from the fitness club to consumers that might satisfy a want or need (e.g., fitness club services, personal training, etc.).

The current study targeted individuals over 18 years old that live in the United States with no prior knowledge of the fitness club brand used in the experiment, which helped participants be relatively free of biases and opinions of the brand. The sample, which was collected using Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), consisted of 393 (N = 393) participants. Social media messages (i.e., Facebook posts) for each marketing mix element (i.e., product, price, place, promotion, people, physical evidence, and process) were presented at the beginning of the questionnaire on Qualtrics (linked from MTurk), and participants were instructed to review the posts before they completed the questionnaire. The same social media usage, demographic, brand equity, and purchase intention questions were presented to each participant. The only difference among experimental groups was the type of marketing mix-related social media messages presented before participants responded to the questionnaire. Participants could view the Facebook posts as they completed the questionnaire using the scroll function on Qualtrics.

A comprehensive review of literature was utilized to develop measurement items that include a total of 16 items under three constructs (i.e., marketing mix-related social media communications, brand equity, and purchase intention). Three items were used to measure social media communication and 10 items were used to assess brand equity. Specifically, the number of items associated with the three brand equity dimensions are as follows: social image (four items), value (three items), and commitment (three items). Lastly, three items were used to measure purchase intention. All items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Based on the results of the one-way between subjects ANOVA conducted, there was not a significant effect of exposure to the various marketing mix element-related Facebook stimuli on brand equity at the p < .05 level for any of the eight conditions $F(7, 385) = 0.860$, $p = .539$. Following two-step modeling, a CFA using maximum likelihood estimation was employed to assess the measurement model. The fit indices suggested that the model

showed an acceptable fit for the data ($\chi2$ = 224.171; $\chi2/df$ = 2.385; CFI = .978; TLI = .971; RMSEA = .059). Prior to estimating the structural model, overall model fit of the model was examined. Result indicated that the model satisfactorily fit the data ($\chi2$ = 276.451; $\chi2/df$ = 2.821; CFI = .969; TLI = .962; RMSEA = .068). With respect to the hypotheses, organization-generated social media communications positively impacted social image (β = .965, p < .05), providing support for Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 predicting a positive relationship between organization-generated social media communications and value was supported (β = .901, p < .05). SEM result indicated that there was a positive association of organization-generated social media communications with commitment (β = .965, p < .05), supporting for Hypothesis 3. Results of SEM revealed that the influence of social image (β = .488, p < .05), value (β = .327, p < .05), and commitment (β = .156, p < .05) on purchase intention was positive and statistically significant, respectively. This result provided support for hypotheses 4, 5, and 6.

Previous research has suggested that a positive relationship exists between the marketing mix and consumer-based brand equity, and our results support this relationship in a social media and fitness setting. The current study also found support for the relationship between brand equity and purchase intention for fitness club prospects, which is in line with existing marketing and social media-related research. Although marketing mix theory indicates it is advantageous for organizations to use a combination of marketing mix dimensions, our results suggest that prospective fitness club consumers may be indifferent to the specific elements of the marketing mix (e.g., product, price, place, promotion, people, physical evidence, and process) being presented via social media communications. The apparent indifference shown by prospective consumers to marketing mix dimensions extends marketing mix theory, and suggests that future research is needed regarding the implementation of marketing mix dimensions via Facebook to better understand why prospective consumers are not responding to any of these dimensions differently.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 stated that the marketing mix-related social media communications would have a positive relationship with the social image, value, and commitment dimensions of brand equity, and our findings support this claim with a positive and significant relationship. The social image construct is similar to user imagery, so the ability of an organization to control the presented social imagery via Facebook posts that embrace the social aspects of a fitness club may lead to the development of social image-based brand equity for fitness club prospects. Based on the marketing mix-related Facebook posts presented to participants, they may have been given the impression that the fitness club was valuable. However, the value-related items employed in the current study focused on the price and benefits received for the fitness club brand. While it was possible for individuals to feel that the benefits they would receive from the fitness club were valuable, not all participants saw price-specific Facebook posts, which limits this finding. Lastly, the positive relationship between marketing mix-related posts and the commitment dimension of brand equity suggest that it was possible for the fitness club to develop a level of commitment among prospects via organization-generated social media communications. Since a fictitious brand was used, this level of commitment appears to be perceptual rather than behavior.

Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 stated that the social image, value, and commitment brand equity dimensions would have a positive relationship with purchase intention, and the results provide positive and significant support for our claim. Therefore, it is likely that the social image of a fitness club plays a role in the decision-making process when fitness club prospects are choosing which club to join. Prospective members will likely choose to join a fitness club brand with a social image that best fits the consumer and the social group that the consumer aligns with or desires to align with. The positive and significant relationship between value and purchase intention found in the present study suggests that if a prospective consumer perceives the fitness club to have value-driven equity, they are more likely to purchase a membership from that fitness club, thus exhibiting success of the brand. Lastly, because it was impossible for the sample to have prior experience and/or knowledge with the fictitious brand, the positive relationship between commitment-related brand equity and purchase intention may be based on individuals having a commitment to the product itself (i.e., fitness/exercise), not the fitness club brand. Thus, future research should address the relationship between commitment and purchase intention by using an actual brand that prospective consumers are familiar with so that the potential commitment to the individual brand is realistic.

For further information contact:
Benjamin K. Wright

Ball State University
(303) 579-6648
bkwright@bsu.edu

MEDIATED VOYUERISM AND NARCISSISTIC INDULGENCE ON FACEBOOK

Rajendran S. Murthy, School of Business / Rochester Institute of Technology
Monica A. Hodis, College of Business / St. John Fisher College
Hemant C. Sashittal, College of Business / St. John Fisher College

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Facebook is a structured social networking site that provides users the ability to create customized profiles and connect, share and interact with others on the platform. Understandably, one of the strongest motivations for social media usage is the individuals desire to connect to others. Facebook users may use the platform to satisfy their need for validation (i.e., seeking attention and acceptance), self-expression (i.e., disclosing personal opinions, stories, and complaints), communication (i.e., corresponding and connecting), and sharing impersonal information (e.g., current events). Individual tendencies such as narcissism and voyeurism have received less attention thus far. The few scant studies reveal inconsistent results and leave a gap in the literature. This empirical study identifies the drivers of narcissistic indulgence and mediated voyeurism on Facebook using a motivation lens.

In more recent research, there has been a significant interest surrounding the issue of narcissism. Communities such as Facebook have been found to be a particularly fertile ground for narcissists to self-regulate for a number of reasons. First, this setting offers a gateway for hundreds of shallow relationships (i.e., virtual friends), and emotionally detached communication (i.e., wall posts, comments). Second, social-networking Web pages are highly structured environments that allow owners complete power over self-presentations. Facebook offers its users a great forum and set of tools for taking control of one's online image, and developing a distinctive personal brand. Further, the motivation to develop and maintain an image may also encourage voyeuristic tendencies. In the late twentieth-century, the phenomenon of the expansive category of acceptable voyeurism has developed, and it is now seen as "a common personal trait enjoyed by all 'normal' individuals to different degrees" (Metzl, 2004; Baruh, 2010, p.203). It is a behavior which is non-sexual, unaware, and personal in the world of multi-media. This has given rise to the term "mediated voyeurism" Calvert (2000), and in the context of this study, the term gives us a glimpse at the behaviors as well as the vehicle for doing it. For simplicity, we use the term voyeurism in this article to refer to moderated voyeurism.

Few studies exist that explore the relationship between voyeurism and Facebook. A reason for the paucity of research could be attributed to the lack of a measure for the construct. Further, the negative connotation associated with traditional voyeurism may not necessarily transfer to mediated voyeurism. Indeed, mediated voyeurism may even be seen as an acceptable behavior on SNS. Niedzviecki (2009) suggests that as a society we have moved from 'pop' culture to 'peep' culture, from watching the lives of celebrities, and performers to watching ourselves, our neighbors and even complete strangers in search of entertainment and attention.

The survey data for the main study was collected using an online survey (Qualtrics.com) and a sample of undergraduate students (n=437) enrolled at two different schools located in the north-east region of the United States. The two-step approach recommended by Anderson & Gerbing (1998) for model building and testing was used and the analysis was conducted using EQS 6.1. Using a revised measurement model, the theoretical model was tested with good results. The refined model showed excellent fit, CFI= .937, RMSEA= .044, with all hypothesized paths achieving significance. Specifically, we find that the use of Facebook as an identity crafting platform leads to narcissistic indulgences whereas using Facebook as a means connection seeking may lead to more voyeuristic behavior.

This research was but a first step in clarifying the relationships between self-expression and self-presentation on Facebook and its impact on narcissistic and voyeuristic tendencies. Out study is not without limitations. First, we acknowledge that findings presented here are limited to only Facebook and are not generalizable to other SNS such as LinkedIn. Second, our methodology did not include an analysis of the actual posts and updates of individuals and instead relied on self-reported data. Future studies should focus on the content

creation aspect of those who tend toward voyeurism as it is yet unclear how Facebook serves as a self-expression platform for users who motivated by connectivity. Further, with continued usage of SNS and the continued growth of computer mediated communication, the lines between online self and offline self are fast disappearing. This phenomenon warrants further research.

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For further information contact:
Rajendran S. Murthy
Saunders College of Business / Rochester Institute of Technology
585-475-5383
rmurthy@saunders.rit.edu

ANTECEDENTS OF INTENTION TO USE GREEN BANKING IN GERMANY

Glyn Atwal, Burgundy School of Business, France
Douglas Bryson, Rennes School of Business, France

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

There is evidence to suggest that the general public is becoming increasingly aware of environmental issues and the benefits of sustainable economic practices. As a result, corporate stakeholders are expected to take a greater responsibility in sustainable business practices. For example, the leading 100 listed companies in India are required by the Securities Exchange Board to report on Corporate Responsibility activities in their annual reporting.

Critically, public and private bank in both developing and established markets are developing green banking as an increasingly important strategic instrument. There is no universally accepted definition of 'green banking' but can be conceptualized as a general term that "considers all the social and environmental/ecological factors with an aim to protect the environment and conserve natural resources" (NBLBD, 2014, p.4).

The objective of the research study is to predict intention to use green banking services in Germany in order to guide practitioners to develop an effective green banking marketing strategy.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) developed by Azjen (1991) provides a robust model to investigate "an individual's performance of certain behaviours is determined by his or her intent to perform that behaviour" (George, 2004, p.199). The TPB has been used as a conceptual framework in numerous studies within the banking and financial sector (e.g. Bryson and Atwal, 2013) and critically to predict pro-environmental behaviour (e.g. Kalafatis et al., 1999).

Consistent with Bryson et al. (2016), it is hypothesized that the intention to use green banking services are: (1) perceived environmental integrity; (2) attitude towards green banking; (3) environmental concern; and (4) collectivism.

Bank clients in Germany will complete a questionnaire to measure the constructs identified in the initial model. As recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), it is planned to conduct a two stage method for the data analysis. The analysis should predict a percentage of the variance of the sample respondents' intention to use green banking services.

The research findings will have important implications for the marketing of green banking in Germany. The findings will determine if green banking can be regarded as part of an overall proactive CSR strategy. It will also guide marketers to position green banking products and services in order to ensure a relevant and compelling proposition.

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For further information contact:
Glyn Atwal
Burgundy School of Business, France
glyn.atwal@bsb-education.com

DO PILOTS LIKE MARKETING? IMPACT OF PILOT CEOS ON MARKETING IN THE FIRM

Prachi Gala, University of Mississippi

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Generally, firms are keen to expose their managers to various risk taking activities (Coles et al. 2004), so much so, that certain management compensation policies are structured to promote risk taking (Houston and James 1995). Financial economists have confirmed that firm risk-taking is related to various aspects of the firm's operating environment including stock market volatility and firm performance. A better opportunity for a firm here would be, if the firm is being led by a CEO who is himself a risk taker by personality. In this case, it would reduce the effort, the firm has to put in, to train the CEO to become a risk taker or to compensate him more for taking risks while investing in various options. The question here would be – how can the firm identify the CEOs who are innate risk takers? This paper tries to solve this puzzle by identifying one personality of CEO which makes him a risk taker – sensation seeking.

Sensation seeking is defined as "the seeking of varied, novel, complex and intense sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical, social, legal, and financial risk for the sake of such experience" (Zuckerman 1994, p. 27). It has usually been related to risky behavior (Arnett 1994). For certain entities, the accolades of the sensation surpass any probable punishments from engaging in the activity and there is a willingness to take risks for the sake of the experience (Roberti 2003). Prior research has tried to capture this personality by introducing various scales as a primary means of measuring the sensation seeking (Zukerman 1971). Interestingly, researchers have also come up with a novel idea of measuring sensation seeking secondarily by finding out if the individual has a pilot license (Cain and Mckeon 2016; Sunder and Zhang 2016).

Flying an aircraft is considered to be one of the high – risk sports. Prior research has found personal/business flying over 30 times more dangerous than driving (Cain and Mckeon 2011). Sensation Seeking Scale - widely used in the psychology literature has ranked the phrase "I would like to learn to fly an airplane" as the fourth highest loading on the thrill and adventure seeking factor in the study of 113 such phrases (Zuckerman 1971). Thus, individuals bearing pilot licenses are known to be sensation seekers by personality. Literature review shows that in the context of business, one study examined relation of pilot CEO with higher firm leverage and greater stock return volatility (Cain and Mckeon 2011) whereas another found a positive relation between the pilot CEO and high innovation of that firm (Sunder and Zhang 2016). In spite of the importance and such wide arena of literature that exists on the personality of sensation seeking, the impact of this personality at firm level, its impact on marketing has scantly been researched on the personality of sensation seeking, the impact of this personality at firm level, its impact on marketing has scantly been researched on. .

This study incorporates the personality of sensation seeking of a CEO (whether he is a pilot or not) and the impact on the marketing outcomes – advertising, CSR and new product introductions. Although this personality is predicted to have positive impact on the firm, it also has some negative outcomes. Thus the study also measures the impact of this personality of CEO on product harm crisis and corporate social irresponsibility.

Among a firm's senior executives, the CEO occupies the most powerful decision-making position, giving way for the CEO's personal characteristics to have a significant impact on organizational strategies, structure, and subsequent performance (Cannella et al. 2008). Behavioral consistency theory (Abelson 1968) suggests that individuals tend to exhibit consistent behaviors across comparable situations. In other words, the behavior of CEOs outside the firm can be correlated with actions inside the firm (Arnett 1994). Further, the upper echelon theory (UET) (Hambrick and Mason 1984) suggests that top executives of the firm impact the performance of their firms by enforcing their values, personalities, motivations, and experiences of themselves into the functioning of the firm. In this manner, the firm becomes a reflection of the CEO and other senior executives (Wallace et al. 2010). Although UET has been used to explore various CEO characteristics (age, tenure, education, personalities like

narcissism, extraversion etc.), the impact of a CEO's sensation seeking personality on the marketing outcomes of the firm is yet to be studied.

Of the many investment activities done by the firms, advertising (Chauvin 1993; McAlister et al. 2007), Corporate social responsibility (CSR) (McGuire 1988; Godfrey et al. 2009) and New product introductions (Chaney et al. 1991; Smith et al. 2005) are considered to be the riskiest due their uncertain returns and long term payback periods. Also, product harm crisis (Klein and Dawar 2004; Siomkos and Kurzbard 1994) and corporate social irresponsibility (CSiR) (Chatterji et al. 2007), although not predictable, is equally risky if not taken correct measures while manufacturing as the firm may risk on losing the trust and loyalty of customers and may struggle to get new customers. All these five activities have been terms as extremely risky in literature. Thus based on the behavior consistency theory and the upper echelon theory, I propose the following:

P1: Firms with pilot CEOs invest more in advertising than firms with non-pilot CEOs
P2: Firms with pilot CEOs invest more in CSR activities than firms with non-pilot CEOs
P3: Firms with pilot CEOs have higher number of new product introductions than firms with non-pilot CEOs
P4: Firms with pilot CEOs are more involved in product harm crisis than firms with non-pilot CEOs
P5: Firms with pilot CEOs are more involved in corporate social irresponsibility than firms with non-pilot CEOs

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For further information contact:
Prachi Gala
University of Mississippi
326 Holman Hall
University, MS 38677-1848
(662) 202-6060
pgala@bus.olemiss.edu

HEALTHY LIVING AND THE CONSUMER'S USE OF TECHNOLOGY

Rebecca Hochradel, Delta State University
Vicki Webster, Delta State University
Donghyun Kim, Delta State University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

It is a digital world. Consumers communicate, learn, transact business, and transmit information using the connectivity of their digital, or "smart" devices. These devices create a "second nature" behavior that causes consumers to expect technology to provide any and all needed information, creating the expectation that everything should be available at a moment's notice. Consumers no longer need access to a computer to search for information. Products are in the marketplace and allow consumers to access and track information as long as their smart device can be connected to the internet. These products, including wearable devices are readily acceptable by consumers and their usage continues to increase (Nielsen, 2016). According to ABI Research (2013), more than 60% of wearable devices allow consumers to track energy expenditure with relation to sports and movement activities. Previous research focused on the acceptance and use of smart products and smart digital devices (see Choi & Kim, 2016), but none of the research has focused on the use of these smart products with regard to their use in developing and maintaining healthy behaviors, thus questions arise regarding who purchases these devices, the use of this information, and whether or not this information changes a consumer's behavior. This research seeks to determine if these devices simply provide information or contribute to a healthy lifestyle.

Marketers have long been interested in predicting consumer behavior. The theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1991), modified from the previous research of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), espouses that behavior intention, or motive to adopt a particular behavior, is formed by the consumer's attitude toward the behavior, his or her subjective norms, and perceived behaviors control. The consumer's attitude toward a behavior is developed by the consumer's beliefs and values that a particular behavior will produce certain outcomes (Ajzen, 1985). In the context of healthy living, this attitude toward behavior is manifested through perceived nutrition knowledge, health consciousness, and preventive health behaviors.

Knowledge is power and increased information increases knowledge. Although taste influences a consumer's food selection, research indicates the higher the level of personal nutrition knowledge, the greater the likelihood that the person select healthier food products (Moorman & Matulich, 1993). Although there has been much research regarding perceived nutrition knowledge in the choice of healthier foods, this research focuses on the use of the nutrition label on foods and not in the context of smart devices. Health consciousness is defined as the awareness one has toward health concerns and the degree to which these concerns are incorporated into the consumer's daily activities (Jayanti & Burns, 1998). In order to improve or maintain their quality of life, these consumers are proactive and engage in preventative health behaviors. These consumers believe that their actions, or health prevention measures, impact their health status and by engaging in healthful behaviors, their status of health will be at its optimal level. Thus, health consciousness and engagement in health prevention measures can be considered two proxies for attitude toward behavior. However, there is no research that investigates these attitudes toward behavior in conjunction with the use of smart devices.

The second component of the theory of planned behavior is subjective norms or the consumer's perception regarding how others think the consumer should behave. In the development of the Theory of Planned Behavior Scale (TpB), Ajzen (2006) indicates that subjective norms include both injunctive qualities, such as how important it is to obtain the approval of others, and descriptive norms, such as whether the behavior is important to the consumers themselves. This component of the theory has not been investigated regarding the influence within the context of use of smart devices. Thus, this research will investigate this context.

Ajzen (1991) described the third component of his theory, perceived behavioral control, as the consumer's perception regarding the ease or difficulty the consumer has of performing the behavior due to uncertainty, context, and information biases. The strength of the perceived behavior control then influences the consumer's intention to perform a particular behavior. The second modification of this theory of planned behavior is the direct link from the perceived behavioral control and the purchase behavior. Thus, Ajzen (1991) concludes that consumers are more likely to perform the desired behavior when they perceive that they have the necessary resources, knowledge, and opportunities in order to perform the behavior. This theory provides the framework for this research in determining the consumer characteristics in the use of smart products in developing and maintaining healthy behaviors.

Resources that the consumer draws from are those internal and external resources that determine whether or not the consumer believes he or she can make the decision to have a healthy lifestyle. Internal resources, such as self-efficacy, impacts a person's actions. External cues, such as smart devices, allow the consumer to search for information and monitor energy expenditure. As a proxy for perceived behavioral control, this research will measure self-efficacy and TAM to measure the intention to live healthy. The TAM, a framework developed by Davis (1989), seeks to determine the likelihood that a consumer adopts a new technology. This framework consists of two components: 1) perceived usefulness, which is defined as "the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her performance (Davis, 1989, p. 320) and 2) perceived ease of use, which is defined as "the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would be free of effort" (Davis, 1989, p. 320). This research seeks to determine if this positive use will result in healthy living and the perception of healthier lifestyle choices.

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For further information contact:
Rebecca Hochradel
Delta State University
662-846-4427
rhochradel@deltastate.edu

VERSIONS OF THE TRUTH: EXPLORING THE MOTIVATING FACTORS FOR CONSUMERS TO CREATE INACCURATE RATINGS AND REVIEWS

Ravon Bonds, University of Wisconsin, Whitewater
Robert E. Boostrom, Jr., University of Wisconsin, Whitewater

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Consumer-generated ratings and reviews have become a common part of consumers' everyday online shopping experience. Many prominent online retailers and vendors (such as Amazon.com, Overstock.com, and JCPenney.com) allow consumers the chance to provide original ratings and reviews of products and services. These online sites also provide users with a social environment for them to communicate about a certain product or service, as well as to socialize about themselves. Although consumers regularly use reviews, they do not trust them equally. For example, Pan and Zhang (2011) note that the perceived usefulness of a review is impacted by review valence, length, and product type.

The purpose of this paper is to explore what might impact the reliability of user-generated ratings and reviews, and to understand the likelihood that consumers knowingly bias their ratings and reviews to be more positive and/or negative do to specific motivating factors.

With the vast amount of ratings and reviews, it is crucial to understand the motivations that might lead consumers to create posts that have been consciously manipulated as well as to understand how consumers perceive the reliability of the ratings and reviews of others. It is also important to understand ratings and reviews since most consumers rely on them as guides while making purchase decisions (Metzger, et al, 2016). One might hypothesize that the factors that motivate the creation of user-generated ratings and reviews may also motivate consumers to make their responses more positive or negative than they might have based solely on the performance of the product. This paper adapts the motivating factors for creating user-generated ratings and reviews from Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004) and Christodoulides et al. (2012)

Along with the motivating factors that cause consumers to inflate or deflate their ratings or reviews, there are other factors that may cause consumers to feel that their given ratings are not as reflective as they could be. Rating scales, and consumers' interpretations of the rating scales, are additional sources of possible bias in the final rating.

The last topic to be explored is the comparison of the perceived reliability of consumers own reviews and the reviews of others. The authors propose that due to a kind of source credibility, where the consumer sees herself as being more reliable than unknown strangers, most consumers will believe that they are providing more reliable reviews than other consumers on average.

This paper is seen by the authors as a framework for future research regarding consumer generated ratings and reviews. It is our hope that additional research will explore the opportunity to test and develop theories related to these reasons for consumers to provide both knowingly and unknowingly biased information.

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For further information contact:
Robert E. Boostrom, Jr.
University of Wisconsin-Whitewater
(262) 472-6951
boostror@uww.edu

TRUST ME, TRUST ME NOT: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DECEPTION AND DISCLOSURE WITHIN ONLINE DATING SITES

Donnavieve N. Smith, North Central College

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Researchers have explored the manner in which individuals attain self-disclosure goals through Social Networking Sites (SNS) behaviors. Studies have also explored the connection between media affordances and the technical features of SNS. The proliferation of one specific type of SNS, online dating sites, has provided users with a wide range of communication tools through various platforms. Bazarova and Choi (2014) offer that users will adjust their specific type of online communication in order to achieve certain disclosure goals. Individuals participating in online dating may obtain varied disclosure goals due the nature of communication that takes place within these online communities.

Goffman's definition of self-presentation offers that individuals may strategize in order to convey information that creates the best portrayal of their identities (Walther, 2007). Restricted access to dating partners' personal information places SNS users in a quandary as they attempt to reconcile their perceptions of potential partners with reality. "The malleable nature of self-presentational elements in online dating profiles coupled with the medium's ability to support selective self-presentation make deception easy and convenient strategy for image construction" (Toma and Hancock, 2010, p. 338). While popular sites provide users with a wide range of affordances (private messaging, swiping, posting options, etc.), users may still be apprehensive regarding the legitimacy of claims made by prospective partners. The lack of physical cues places greater stress on dating partners as they seek to verify, validate and establish trust with potential partners. As the modes of communication vary across online dating sites, the security concerns associated with each environment will vary as well. Moreover, these concerns can influence how users employ uncertainty reduction strategies to optimize their experiences. This state of tension may be reduced as individuals go beyond the respective site in order to construct a more realistic assessment of potential dating partners. The warranting principle will be used to explore how individuals evaluate the online and offline identities of potential dating partners.

Online daters may obtain a wide range of benefits from exchanges that occur across dating sites and those benefits may be a function of interrelated factors. While studies note the importance of SNS disclosure in the maintenance of relationships, there is still a lack of understanding regarding the underlying processes that facilitate these outcomes (Utz, 2015; Bazarova & Choi, 2014). This research contributes to the stream of literature on functional self-disclosure in online social networks (Bazarova & Choi, 2014; Utz, 2015) by exploring the relationship between media affordances, deception, uncertainty reduction strategies and disclosure goals. This model considers how uncertainty reductions strategies and personal beliefs regarding deception will mediate the relationship between these variables.

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For further information contact:
Donnavieve N. Smith
Associate Professor
Department of Management and Marketing
North Central College
30 N. Brainard
Naperville, IL 60564
630-637-5467
dnsmith@noctrl.edu

ON BEING SOCIAL: HOW SOCIAL IDENTITY
IMPACTS SOCIAL COMMERCE
FOR THE MILLENNIAL SHOPPER

Stephanie Jacobsen, Bridgewater State University
Nora Ganim Barnes, University of Massachusetts Dartmouth

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Social Commerce has been a popular term in online marketing in recent years (Lee et al., 2016; Barnes, 2015; Yadav & Pavlou, 2014; Yadav et al., 2013; Dietz, 2013). Of particular interest is the ability for online shopping to be "social." With the ability to talk and share with others like never before, comes the opportunity to leverage a consumer's personal network in order to increase their purchase likelihood. While researchers have begun to explore the opportunities for social commerce, little work has been done to explore how consumers view and engage in social commerce.

This study contributes to the social commerce literature by concentrating on a group of consumers that are instrumental in the success or failure of social commerce. We also contribute to the Millennials literature, by demonstrating purposefulness to their online usage. We argue that identity formation is being driven by social networking, rather than through purchasing products, contributing to the social identity literature. Managerially, Millennials are not using social commerce in the ways and on the platforms that were originally predicted. This has significant implications for industry.

Researchers are beginning to look at millennials in an online context, however it is important to consider their reasoning for making online purchases and for using social media. People engage in consumption behavior, in part, to construct their self-concepts and to create their personal identity (e.g., Belk, 1988; Richins, 1994; Escalas & Bettman, 2005).

While consumption can influence our identity, social media allows Millennials to not only highlight but also further develop their identity in an online context. Social media sites allow users to interact with others in their social circle (or desired social circle) (Correa, Hinsley, & De Zuniga, 2010). Based on this research, it seems that Millennials use social media for the "social" aspect it provides. Therefore we predict:

H1: Millennials use social media predominantly for identity creation and presentation.

H2: Millennials are more likely to follow or like a brand when on a platform that allows them to easily shape their identity (ie. More identity formation: Facebook and Pinterest. Less identity formation: Twitter).

H3: Millennials are more likely to buy from a brand when on a platform that allows them to easily shape their identity (ie. More identity formation: Facebook and Pinterest. Less identity formation: Twitter.

This study was conducted via a comprehensive survey available in both digital and physical form for distribution. Qualification for participation required the respondent to be a member of the Millennial generation, using the popular demographic for this group of having been born between 1980-2000. The survey was hosted online and the URL was shared by channels including, but not limited to, email, Facebook, Twitter and LinkedIn. All data was collected during the spring of 2016. A total of 421 surveys provide the basis for this report.

While Millennials are spending increasingly large amounts of time and money online, they do have clear

goals for their usage of particular platforms. Overall, Millennials were able to follow, like and pin more easily on Facebook and Pinterest as those sites allow for more outward presentation. Both have "pages" where you can see a multitude of interests all in one place. Twitter only allows for a small description of yourself, and any other information would have to be gathered from any and all 140 character posts. Due to the difficulty in demonstrating an online identity through Twitter, it is the hardest platform to utilize for self-presentation purposes. Millennials are using platforms that enhance their self-presentation (H1 and H2), as well as buying products to enhance their self-presentation (H3). These results highlight the benefits that Millennials are getting from specific platforms that make them better positioned to capitalize on social commerce.

Millennials have embraced social media and use it to gain and share information about companies/brands through reviews, ratings, videos and other referrals. This idea of using social influence and word of mouth through social media is changing the way commerce functions. It is important that businesses attempt to understand and target this generation of tech-savvy, connected, multi-channel shoppers. These Millennials are shaping the future and social influenced purchases are poised to explode over the next several years.

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For further information contact:
Nora Ganim Barnes
University of Massachusetts Dartmouth
(508) 999-8756
nbarnes@umassd.edu

CONCEPTUALIZING AND MEASURING PERCEIVED TRANSFORMATIONAL VALUE IN TRAVEL EXPERIENCES

Chad Milewicz, University of Southern Indiana
Perry Burnett, University of Southern Indiana
Aaron Schibik, University of Southern Indiana

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Extant research shows that many types of perceived value can influence a brand's success (e.g., Park, Jaworski, & MacInnis, 1986). This stream of research frequently examines the perceived value of a brand's utilitarian, hedonic, and symbolic benefits. The current research builds on this stream of research by presenting a conceptual definition and multi-item measure of perceived transformational value in travel experiences. It studies perceived transformational value in a travel context because travel experiences are known to be capable of changing people in lasting, meaningful ways (Lindberg & Ostergaard, 2015) and because brand-related constructs are increasingly valued in place marketing (Zenker & Beckmann, 2013)

Pine and Gilmore (1999) propose that transformational value is the highest level of value that can result from an exchange. This proposition has received interest and support in literature for many years (Pine & Gilmore, 2013); however, a review of extant marketing literature reveals very limited examination of transformational value in a marketing context. This research addresses this important gap and simultaneously contributes to calls for more research examining different forms of perceived value (Boksberger & Melsen, 2011).

Transformational value is characterized by individuals altering who they are as a result of an experience, and the resulting transformation is generally viewed as a new trait (Pine & Gilmore, 1999, 2013). As such, transformational value can be contrasted with functional and hedonic value, which tend to be fulfilled at a point in time but not sustained (Park et al., 1986). We also propose that transformational value is conceptually different from symbolic value. Symbolic value is connected to social meaning (Solomon, 1983), but we conceptualize transformational value as existing beyond the context of specific social meanings.

Pine and Gilmore's work (1999, 2013) and research into transformational relationship events (Harmeling et. al, 2015) inform our proposed definition of perceived transformational value. Research on transformational relationship events suggests that exchanges can lead to the disconfirmation of beliefs about the product or service as well the relationship between the provider and the consumer (Harmeling et al., 2015). Similarly, we propose that exchanges can lead to the disconfirmation of beliefs a consumer holds about their self and their life. We define perceived transformational value in travel experiences as an individual's belief that visiting a specified destination leads to a lasting change in how that individual thinks about their self and their life.

We developed an initial three-item scale to measure perceived transformational value in travel experiences by talking with a small group of stakeholders who help market a small town that relies on tourism as the foundation of its economy. This work resulted in a three-item perceived transformational value measurement. We tested the convergent and discriminate validity of these items relative to existing measures of perceived hedonic value and perceived utilitarian value (Park et al., 1986; Mathews-Lefebvre & Valette-Florence, 2014).

The measurements were administered to two samples, one representing visitors to the focal city and one representing stakeholders in the town's tourism economy. These two samples help us explore the extent to which our proposed measure of perceived transformational value is applicable from both a supply-side and a demand-side in a travel context. This visitor sample consists of 392 respondent. Fifty-three percent of these respondents are male, approximately 48% were between the ages of 18 – 34, and approximately 25% are between the ages of 35 – 54. The stakeholder sample consists of 55 adult respondents who completed the survey instrument.

We use Chronbach's Alpha to assess evidence of each scale's internal consistency (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Nunnally, 1978). The perceived hedonic value scale in each sample has the lowest alpha score ($\alpha_{visitor\ sample}$ = .784; $\alpha_{stakeholder\ sample}$ = .703), and the perceived transformational value scale has an excellent internal consistency measure in each sample ($\alpha_{visitor\ sample}$ = .921; $\alpha_{stakeholder\ sample}$ = .912).

We ran a confirmatory factor analysis using SAS to investigate if our data fits the hypothesized three-factor model. Results show that four fit indexes for the visitor sample meet or exceed the optimal cutoff criteria (Sivo et al., 2006) for various fit indexes (CFI = .968; NNFI = .945; SRMR = .047; RMSEA = .002). In the stakeholder sample, two indexes meet these optimal criteria (CFI = .950; $\chi 2$/df = 1.52).

The t-tests for each of the factor loadings in both samples are statistically significant, providing evidence of convergent validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The discriminant validity of the scales is examined by consulting the average variance extracted (AVE) measures (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The AVE estimates for each scale are above the strictest threshold of .500 in the visitor sample. In the stakeholder sample the AVE for the perceived hedonic value scale is under .500, but it is still greater the squared correlation between this scale and the perceived transformational value scale in this sample. Together these results from two samples provide encouraging support for the reliability and validity of the perceived transformational value construct and its measure.

This research provides a promising first attempt to conceptualize and measure perceived transformational value in travel experiences. Future research will seek to explore the application of the perceived transformational value construct in additional contexts and to further examine the nomological validity of the construct.

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For further information contact:
Chad Milewicz
Romain College of Business
University of Southern Indiana
(812) 464-1937
cmmilewicz@usi.edu

HOUSEHOLD LIFE CYCLE AS A
SEGMENTING APPROACH FOR
MAJOR PROFESSIONAL SPORT TEAMS

Jacob Watkins, Otterbein University
Michael A. Levin, Otterbein University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The entertainment/leisure market remains large. Americans annually spend an average of $2,482 on entertainment (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016a). There has been a 2% decrease on average household spending for entertainment purposes (*Best Customer Demographics of Consumer Demand* 2015). The typical consumers that purchase and attend live sporting events are 45 to 54 years old, married with household income greater than $70,000, and have children older than six years old (*Best Customer Demographics of Consumer Demand* 2015). However, overall attendance at major professional sports leagues events declined by 21% from 2000 to 2013 (*Best Customer Demographics of Consumer Demand* 2015). Some major professional sports leagues report increases in attendance over the last five years. For example, the National Basketball Association and National Hockey League report increases of 3% each, with the NBA being the highest growth in regular season attendance of the four leagues.

In the past three years, streaming-services such as Netflix and Hulu have shown gains in popularity as the number of hours spent on these services. In 2015, individuals streamed 42.5 billion hours of Netflix, which is up 13.5 billion hours from 2014's 29 billion hours that were streamed (Hasting and Wells, 2016). From 2013 to 2014, individuals spent more than 7 hours a month watching a screen including traditional television sets, computer monitors, and mobile devices (Nielsen. n.d. b). Only consumption of live or unrecorded television show a decrease in consumption by consumers.

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2011), people spend an average of 5.54 hours a day on leisure and sports. Leisure and sport includes sports exercise, and recreation; socializing and communicating; and other leisure activities (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011). Of that time, people spent most of it watching television. In 2015, average time spent per day on sport and leisure decreased to 5.21 hours (5 hours, 13 minutes) (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016b). People spend less time on socializing and communication compared to five years ago.

Firms in the leisure market, including major professional sport leagues, compete against each other for consumers' time and income. Attendance at a major professional sport leagues involves the consumer foregoing the time at the event and the money for admission. Hence, the firm compete market segment by market segment to improve or maintain its competitive advantage. Several approaches exist to segmenting the market including the Household Life Cycle, which represents an approach to segment the market (Wilkes, 1995).

The household life cycle has been modified by Wells and Gubar (1966), who focused on using life cycle stages instead of age in a research study on consume behavior because the stages explains

more about consumers than simply relying on age. Gilly and Enis (1982) redefine the Family Life Cycle by disaggregating the stages to three characteristics including: (1) age, (2) marital status, and (3) presence/absence of a child in the home.

By segmenting the market using the household life cycle, a firm such as a major professional sports league team could gain a competitive advantage because it would possess market intelligence not necessarily known by other firms in the market. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to explore the household life cycle variable as an approach to segment the market of live major professional sporting events. Specifically, the paper will look at the relationship between the stages of the household life cycle as described by Wilkes (1995) and purchase of various types of season ticket packages offered by a major professional sports league team. The relationship being analyzed will incorporate 24 stages household life cycle cross tabulated, with a focus on the chi squared analysis, with purchase of three-season ticket packages. The season ticket packages in the analysis include a full season, half season, and a quarter season.

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For further information contact:
Michael A. Levin
Otterbein University
(614) 823-1299
mlevin@otterbein.edu

FAN-BASED BRAND EQUITY FOR THE NATIONAL FOOTBALL LEAGUE: ANTECEDENTS AND THE MEASUREMENT SCALE

Gokhan Karaatli, College of Business/Valparaiso University
Serdar Turedi, College of Business/Purdue University Northwest
Musa Pinar, College of Business/Valparaiso University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

A strong brand provides a competitive advantage and sports industry is no exception. Despite the intangible and unpredictable nature of professional sports, teams have been successful to build strong and loyal fan-bases. According to Plunkett Research, the estimated size of the sports industry in the U.S. was $498.4 billion in 2015. The National Football League (NFL)'s brand value increased in value from $12 billion in 2004 to $24 billion in 2014, and its annual revenues have risen from about $6 billion in 2004 to about $12 billion in 2014 (Anson 2015). These numbers show the importance of branding for sport industry in general, as well for the NFL. Recently, as managing sport teams as brand has received some attention, several studies have examined branding and brand associations related to sport team brand equity. However, besides a few exceptions, prior research on sport brand equity focused on sport teams, and there is a limited research regarding sport league branding. In the sport context, since a sport league (e.g., National Football League) acts as a master (umbrella) brand and provides a platform for the teams to compete against each other, the reputation of the league brand is important for the success of the individual teams as well as for the league against other leagues.

Given the growing importance of the sports industry, increased competition among the sport leagues and the co-dependency between a sports league and its teams, this study is aimed to identify drivers and dimensions of brand equity for a sport league by focusing on the NFL. The specific objectives of the study are to: (a) identify the factors – antecedents or drivers – that are perceived as important by the NFL fans for creating a strong football league and the dimensions of the (NFL) brand equity; (b) provide a conceptual framework for measuring league brand equity holistically from the fans' perspective; (c) develop measurement scales for the antecedents of NFL brand equity and each of the brand equity dimensions in order to examine the consumer/fan-based brand equity for NFL.

The framework proposed for this study includes drivers of brand equity, brand equity dimensions and their proposed relationships with the brand equity and behavioral intention constructs which were developed based on several sport branding and team brand equity studies (Biscaia et al., 2013; Gladden et al., 1998; Gladden and Funk, 2002; Kunkel et al., 2014; Ross et al., 2006; Ross et al., 2008; Pinar et al., 2015). The drivers of sports league brand equity included in the model are players, head coaches, referees, teams, team managers, stadium, concessions, league history, commissioner, internalization and brand identification. Prior sport brand equity studies did not include direct measures for overall brand equity. The brand equity dimensions included in this study are brand awareness, brand loyalty, perceived quality, and brand association. The measurement scales for each of the brand equity dimensions were modified to fit the NFL league brand equity. All these constructs affect fans' sports experiences, and ultimately a sports league's fan-based brand equity. Also, behavioral intentions (e.g. attending NFL games, watching NFL games on TV, purchasing NFL merchandise, recommending NFL games to others) are included as outcome variables for brand equity. We are proposing that antecedents of brand equity through the brand association lead to brand equity. In our model, overall satisfaction with the league also influence brand equity as a separate construct.

The NFL league brand equity scale was developed based on the relevant brand equity and sport team branding the literature (Biscaia et al., 2013; Gladden et al., 1998; Gladden and Funk, 2002; Kunkel et al., 2014; Ross et al., 2006; Ross et al., 2008; Pinar et al., 2015). Initially, multiple football experts, football fans, and academics knowledgeable in scale development were consulted in the process of scale development. After modifying the scale items, a pretest was conducted using a convenience sample of 98 football fans in Midwest United States. Based on the results of exploratory factor analyses, we further modified the surveys and eliminated items with poor factor loadings and/or loaded on multiple factors. The final measurement scales include the brand equity drivers of players, head

coach, stadium, referees, teams, team managers, concessions, internationalization, league history, brand identification, commissioner, and brand equity dimensions of brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality and overall brand equity. All the items are measured with seven-point agreement scale (1= strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree).

In addition, the survey included items to measure satisfaction (with the NFL league) and behavioral intentions (e.g. attending, watching NFL games, purchasing NFL merchandise, recommending NFL games to others). Multi-item scales for satisfaction include a seven-point agreement scale (1= not satisfied at all, 7= extremely satisfied) whereas behavioral intentions items include a seven-point scale that measures the likelihood of future behavior (1= not likely at all, 7= extremely likely). Also, a screening question is included at the beginning of the surveys to screen out those who were not NFL fans or did not have any interest in NFL. The survey also included several demographic questions (e.g., gender, age, level of education, income, state of residence) as well as questions to capture the method the participants use to follow NFL games (e.g., attending game, TV, online) and the number of game attended during regular season. The final survey will be administered to football fans in the United States. Future research objectives include; a) investigating the relationships between the antecedents (drivers) and brand equity dimensions using the scales developed in this study; b) examining the potential impact of fan characteristics on brand antecedent / driver factors and brand equity dimensions; and c) recommending strategies to maintain a strong league brand.

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For further information contact:
Gokhan Karaatli
College of Business/Valparaiso University
Phone: 219-464-5406
gokhan.karaatli@valpo.edu

THE MISSING LINK BETWEEN CEO PAY GAP AND MARKETING OUTCOMES OF THE FIRM

Prachi Gala, University of Mississippi

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Research shows that top management team members earn as low as 40 percent of the CEO's compensation (Conyon, 2006, p. 28). To add to this, the compensation of CEO is increasing further rapidly than that of non-CEO executives (Useem, 2003). For example, in 2012, Elon Musk, the CEO of Tesla Motors, was paid $78,150,010 as total compensation whereas the remainder of the top management team was paid an average of $1,044,749 as total compensation. Thus the CEO was paid almost 75 times more than the remainder of the team (Source: SEC filing, Tesla Motors). But, not all the companies compensate the CEO with a higher pay compared to other members of the team. For example, in 2012, the CEO of Resolute Forest Products was paid $990,549 as total compensation whereas the remainder of the top management team was paid an average of $1,550,642 as total compensation. Thus the CEO was paid only 0.63 times more than the remainder of the team (Source: SEC filing, Resolute forest Products). This shows that the pay package of the CEO and that of his team varies from company to company. In this case, it becomes crucial for the company to know, what would be the possible consequences, if the CEO was paid higher than the team (like the CEO of Tesla) or lower or equivalent to the team (like CEO of Resolute Food Products).

The studies on CEO pay differ from the studies on CEO pay gap. CEO pay studies only focus on how much the CEO is paid and its impact on various outcomes There have been multiple studies across streams which have examined the effect of CEO pay on the various outcomes of the firm (e.g., Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1989; Gomez-Mejia, Tosi, & Hinkin, 1987; Murphy, 1985; Westphal & Zajac, 1994). CEO pay gap, on the other hand, compares the pay of CEO to that of his team and how the difference impacts the firm. The CEO pay gap is defined as "the difference between a CEO's compensation and the average pay of other top management team members" (Henderson and Fredrickson 2001, p.3). Although many studies have looked into the impact of CEO pay, very limited research has tried to focus on CEO pay gap as the construct. Some studies which did look at the pay difference and its impact are mentioned here. Henderson and Fredrickson (2001) studied the impact of CEO pay gap and various outcomes like, the number of vice presidents, firm's capital investment etc. Siegel & Hambrick (1996) found that large pay gaps impact the collaboration of the firm with others and also impacts subsequent performance. Main and his colleagues (1993) found that TMT pay dispersion had a positive relationship with profitability, regardless of executive team interdependence. In contrast, Hambrick and Siegel (1998) found that smaller interrank pay gaps were associated with higher stock returns in industries where executive collaboration was important.

Although scholars suggest that the effects of CEO compensation on firm performance may be indirect through the type of strategic decisions made (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1988), limited research examines how compensation, in general, and the CEO pay gap, in particular, affect more intermediate firm outcomes. The purpose of this study is to address these critical issues by empirically examining the impact of the CEO pay gap on one important intermediate firm outcome—the marketing behavior, specifically advertising and research and development.

Based on upper echelon theory and deprivation theory, the followed hypotheses were generated:
H_1: There will be a negative relationship between the investment in advertising by the firm and the size of the CEO pay gap.
H_2: There will be a negative relationship between the investment in R&D by the firm and the size of the CEO pay gap.
H_3: There will be a positive relationship between the product harm crisis faced by the firm and the size of the CEO pay gap.
The data was collected for each year annually over 2007 to 2012 with KLD Research & Analytics Inc.'s ratings, S&P's COMPUSTAT, company annual reports (10-K), company proxy statements (DEF-14A) and company websites being the main sources.

CEO pay gap was found to have significantly negative impact on advertising intensity (β = -9.420, p < .05). Overall model was also found to be significant (p< 0.01). Thus, there was support for hypotheses H_1, predicting that lower CEO pay gap increases advertising intensity.

CEO pay gap was found to have significantly negative impact on R&D investment (β = -13.898, p < .05). Overall model was also found to be significant (p< 0.01). Thus, there was support for hypotheses H_2, predicting that lower CEO pay gap increases Research and Development in the firm.

CEO pay gap was found to have partially significantly positive impact on product harm crisis (β = .265, p < .1). Overall model was also found to be significant (p< 0.01). Thus, there was support for hypotheses H_3, predicting that lower CEO pay gap decreases the product harm crisis faced by the firm.

All in all, we found support for H1 and H2, and at least partial support for H3: firm with the lower difference between the CEO pay and other management pay, were more likely to invest in advertising, Research and development, and also are less likely to get involved in the product harm crisis.

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For further information contact:
Prachi Gala
University of Mississippi
326 Holman Hall
University, MS 38677-1848
(662) 202-6060
pgala@bus.olemiss.edu

INVESTIGATING VIRTUAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND PROMOTION FROM A SOCIAL INFLUENCE PERSPECTIVE

Li-Chun Hsu, National Taitung University, Taiwan
Kai-Yu Wang, Brock University, Canada
Wen-Hai Chih, National Dong Hwa University, Taiwan

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Understanding how to develop users' word-of-mouth promoting a virtual community has been an important issue in virtual community management (Lee, Kim, & Kim, 2011; Zhou, Jin, Vogel, Fang & Chen, 2011).This research aims to investigate the factors that lead to virtual community participation and promotion from a social influence perspective. Specifically, we propose that shared vision and shared language will influence users' intentions to participate in virtual communities and then intentions to promote virtual communities. Norm of reciprocity and social identity play a mediating role in the proposed model.

This research recruited 368 members of a virtual community (i.e., Fashion Guide) in Taiwan and Structural Equation Model is used to test research hypotheses. All of the constructs included in the proposed model were measured using multi-items scales drawn from previous studies that reported high statistical reliability and validity. The measurement model showed adequate fit. The composite reliability for each construct was above 0.788, demonstrating a reasonable degree of internal consistency between the corresponding indicators (Hair Jr., *Black, Babin & Anderson*, 2010). The squared multiple correlations were all above 0.2 as suggested by Bentler and Wu (1993). Results also showed support for the convergent and discriminant validity.

The fit of data to the proposed model was adequate. The results showed that both of shared vision and language positively influenced norm of reciprocity and social identity, respectively. Norm of reciprocity and social identity influenced virtual community participation intentions, and subsequently resulted in virtual community promotion intentions. The research findings not only advance our understanding of the role of social influence processes in virtual community participation and promotion but also provide managerial implications in virtual community management.

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For further information contact:
Kai-Yu Wang
Goodman School of Business
Brock University
1812 Sir Issac Brock Way, St. Catharines,
ON L2S 3A1, Canada
1-905-688-5550
Email: kwang@brocku.ca

ATTITUDES TOWARD TECHNOLOGY, DIGITAL ACTIVITIES, AND USE OF INTERNET SHOPPING FEATURES AMONG CHINESE AND US CONSUMERS

Seung-Hee Lee, Southern Illinois University, USA
Jane E. Workman, Southern Illinois University, USA
Kwangho Jung, Seoul National University, Korea

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Venkatesh, Thong, and Xu (2012) extended the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) stating that it is critical to examine the context of consumer technologies which is a "multibillion dollar industry given the number of technology devices, applications, and services targeted at consumers" (p. 158). Services targeted at consumer include Internet shopping features such as product reviews, announcement of sales, announcements of new products, and so forth. Whether or how often consumers will use these features may depend on their gender and their attitudes toward technology. Further, habitual use of digital activities may be an important determinant because research has shown that habit is a critical predictor of technology use (Limayem, Hirt, & Cheung, 2007). In addition, consumers from different cultures may have different attitudes toward technology and different habits regarding computer technology services such as social media, email, and smart phones.

The purpose of this study was to examine how attitudes toward technology (ATT), digital activities, and use of Internet shopping features differ among a sample of male and female Chinese and US consumers. First, some gender differences in ATT have been found (e.g., Rosen et al, 2013; Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012). Second, no research has compared Chinese and US college students on ATT, frequency of engaging in digital activities, and use of Internet shopping features. Third, research has documented the importance of ATT to consumer behavior, but has not examined how ATT and digital activities affect use of Internet shopping features. Based on the literature review and conceptual framework, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H1a-c: Women will differ from men in the positive, negative, and anxious ATT.
H2a-c: Chinese students will differ from US students in positive, negative, and anxious ATT.
H3a-e: Women will differ from men in frequency of engaging in digital activities: total digital activities, social media, smart phone, email, and entertainment (e.g., Internet browsing, computer games, TV).
H4a-e: Chinese students will differ from US students in frequency of engaging in digital activities: total digital activities, social media, smart phone, email, and entertainment (e.g., Internet browsing, computer games, TV).
H5: Chinese and US students will differ in the significance of the determinants (ATT, digital activities) for use of Internet shopping features.
H6: Men and women will differ in the significance of the determinants (ATT, digital activities) for use of Internet shopping features.

Method
A questionnaire contained demographic items and scales measuring ATT (Rosen et al, 2013), digital activities (Rosen et al, 2013), and Internet shopping features (Kim & LaRose, 2004). The questionnaire was pretested after being translated into Chinese by the widely used back translation method (Green *et al.*, 1980).

Instrument
ATT includes positive, negative, and anxious attitudes toward technology (Rosen et al, 2013). An example of an item measuring a positive attitude is "Technology will provide solutions to many of our problems." An example of an item measuring a negative attitude is "New technology makes people waste too much time." An example of an item measuring an anxious attitude is "I get anxious when I don't have my cell phone." Participants circled a number on a 7-point scale (7=strongly agree; 1=strongly disagree) to indicate degree of agreement with each item of the ATT.

Digital activities (Rosen et al, 2013) includes email, social media (e.g., Facebook, other social networks), smart phone usage (e.g., texting, browsing the web), and entertainment (e.g., computer games, watching TV shows or movies, searching the Internet for information on any device). Students indicate frequency of engaging in each digital activity using a 10-point scale (1 = never; 2 = once a month; 3 = several times a month; 4 = once a week; 5 = several times a week; 6 = once a day; 7 = several times a day; 8 = once an hour; 9 = several times an hour; 10 = all the time). Higher scores indicate a stronger habit of using digital activities.

Internet shopping features include both convenience and recreation features (Kim & LaRose, 2004). An example of an item measuring use of a convenience feature is "Reviews written by other shoppers." An example of an item measuring a recreational feature is "Email alerts of new products." Participants indicated frequency of using each Internet shopping features using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = never; 2 = rarely; 3 = sometimes; 4 = often; and 5 = very often.

Procedure and Analysis

Data were collected in large lecture classes from US and Chinese university students who took about 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, MANOVA/ANOVA and stepwise multiple regression. Cronbach's alpha for each scale ranged from .773 to .867, indicating that reliability of the scales was acceptable.

Results

Participants in this study were 209 US and 193 Chinese university students. There were 185 females and 215 males with a mean age of 21.13 (range 17-32) from a variety of majors (e.g., engineering, sports management, fashion, architecture, business).

First, MANOVA was conducted with country and gender as the independent variables and total scores on the positive, negative, and anxious ATT as dependent variables. MANOVA was significant for country $[F(3, 393) = 12.82, p < .000]$ and gender $[F(3, 393) = 3.84, p < .01]$. ANOVA revealed that men and women did not differ significantly in positive ATT, $F (1, 395) = .354, p < .552$ $[M^{men} = 24.05; M^{women} = 23.83]$ or negative ATT, $F (1, 395) = .591, p < .442$ $[M^{men} = 9.61; M^{women} = 9.82]$. Men and women did differ in anxious ATT, $F (1, 395) = 7.09, p < .008$ $[M^{men} = 9.83; M^{women} = 10.59]$. H1a and H1b were not supported; H1c was supported.

ANOVA revealed that Chinese and US students did not differ significantly in positive ATT, $F (1, 395) = .955, p < .33$ $[M^{Chinese} = 23.77; M^{US} = 24.11]$. Chinese and US students did differ significantly in negative ATT, $F (1, 399) = 6.77, p < .01$ $[M^{Chinese} = 9.36; M^{US} = 10.06]$ and in anxious ATT, $F (1, 399) = 20.67, p < .008$ $[M^{Chinese} = 10.86; M^{US} = 9.48]$. H2a was not supported; H2b and H2c were supported.

A second MANOVA was conducted with country and gender as the independent variables and scores on frequency of engaging in digital activities as dependent variables (total digital activities, social media, smart phone, email, and entertainment). MANOVA was significant for country $[F(4, 394) = 108.93, p < .000]$ and gender $[F(4, 394) = 7.60, p < .000]$. ANOVA revealed that men and women differed significantly in frequency of engaging in total digital activities $F(1, 397) = 3.53, p < .06$ $[M^{men} = 65.79; M^{women} = 68.51]$, social media $F(1, 397) = 20.16, p < .000$ $[M^{men} = 9.36; M^{women} = 10.06]$, and smart phone $F(1, 397) = 4.03, p < .045$ $[M^{men} = 10.70; M^{women} = 12.88]$, but did not differ significantly in frequency of engaging in email $F(1, 397) = .000, p < .983$ $[M^{men} = 10.48; M^{women} = 10.49]$ or entertainment $F(1, 397) = 2.16, p < .143$ $[M^{men} = 17.51; M^{women} = 16.72]$. H3a-c were supported; H3d and H3e were not supported.

ANOVA revealed that Chinese and US students differed significantly in frequency of engaging in total digital activities, $F(1, 397) = 205.72, p < .000$ $[M^{Chinese} = 56.75; M^{US} = 77.54]$, social media $F(1, 397) = 64.61, p < .000$ $[M^{Chinese} = 9.83; M^{US} = 13.75]$, smart phone $F(1, 397) = 77.22, p < .000$ $[M^{Chinese} = 24.85; M^{US} = 30.67]$, email $F(1, 397) = 427.03, p < .000$ $[M^{Chinese} = 6.79; M^{US} = 14.18]$, and entertainment $F(1, 397) = 45.74, p < .000$ $[M^{Chinese} = 15.28; M^{US} = 18.95]$. H4a—H4e were supported.

To identify the relative importance of the determinant variables on use of Internet shopping features by US students, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted with use of Internet shopping features as a

dependent variable. For independent variables, positive, negative, and anxious ATT plus frequency of engaging in digital activities (social media, smart phone, email, and entertainment) were used for testing. All the variables together explained approximately 20.0% of the variance in use of Internet shopping features. With respect to the relative importance, positive ATT showed the largest standardized regression coefficient (ß = .28, p < .000) followed by email (ß = .21, p < .001), and anxious ATT (ß = .17, p < .014).

For Chinese students, an identical stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted. All the variables together explained approximately 15.4% of the variance in use of Internet shopping features. With respect to the relative importance, anxious ATT showed the largest standardized regression coefficient (ß = .361, p < .000) followed by social media (ß = .161, p < .016). H5 was supported.

An identical stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted selecting only men. All the variables together explained approximately 8.5% of the variance in use of Internet shopping features by men. With respect to the relative importance, positive ATT was the only variable that affected use of Internet shopping features with a standardized regression coefficient of ß = .299, p < .000.

An identical stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted selecting only women. All the variables together explained approximately 29.1% of the variance in women's use of Internet shopping features. With respect to the relative importance, anxious ATT showed the largest standardized regression coefficient (ß = .315, p < .000) followed by positive ATT (ß = .268, p < .000) and email (ß = .228, p < .000). H6 was supported.

Discussion and Implications

Frequency (i.e., more habitual use) of engaging in digital activities and positive, negative, and anxious ATT influenced consumers' use of Internet shopping features. Men and women did not differ in positive or negative ATT but women indicated greater anxiety about technology than men did. US students indicated more frequent engagement in all digital activities than Chinese students. Use of Internet shopping features was affected by attitudes toward technology; specifically, a positive attitude was a significant determinant of use of Internet shopping features. These empirical findings suggest that ATT and habitual use of digital activities are powerful forces among consumers who use the Internet for shopping. Based on the results of the study, it seems apparent that while US and Chinese college student consumers share some attitudes and behaviors (e.g., positive ATT); they also have different consumer attitudes and behavior (such as negative and anxious technology attitudes, frequency of engaging in digital activities, and determinants of use of internet shopping features). Thus, these results might help international corporations or marketers better understand consumers in a variety of cultures.

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For further information contact:
Seung-Hee Lee
Southern Illinois University

875 S. Normal Ave
Carbondale, IL 62901
(618) 453-1981, shlee@siu.edu

THE INFLUENCE OF STORE WINDOW DISPLAYS ON EMOTIONAL RESPONSES AND ANTICIPATED SHOPPING EXPERIENCE

Danielle Lecointre-Erickson, GRANEM / Université d'Angers
Bruno Daucé, GRANEM / Université d'Angers
Patrick Legohérel, GRANEM / Université d'Angers

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Creating and managing customers' experience: this topic has been at the focus of retailing research for decades. The issue has become ever so more important with the ubiquitous paradigm and omnichannel shopping contexts. Research on in-store experience has largely focused on the influence of various interior atmospheric and social factors on perceived shopping experience. Little research exists on the influence of window displays and their role in retail. A majority of the studies on store windows has mostly focused on the influence of different types of storefront displays, varying from the quantity of products on display to changes in décor or in the level of artistic creativeness. Only recently has retailing research begun to explore the growing trend of technological window displays. No research exists on the role of these displays in shopping experience, and research on shopping experience has mainly focused on measuring two temporal dimensions: shopping experience during its occurrence and the evaluation of shopping experience after the consumer has left the point of sale.

To respond to this gap, the purpose of our study was to test the influence of an interactive window display on anticipated shopping experience and on behavioral intentions. The experiment for this study took place in a real-life setting and our scales were adapted to this context. Pre-test results showed good psychometric validity of the scales pulled from the existent literature. We used paper-and-pencil and biometric methods to collect emotional responses to the window displays. Interactive technology was operationalized as presence or absence of technology allowing interactive behavior with the display.

Preliminary findings showed that the interactive window display did not have a strong influence on anticipated shopping experience but did however have a strong influence on emotional pleasure and on behavioral intentions. These results partially support managerial arguments that exterior, interactive window displays are gadgets that are not always positively perceived by retailers. Even though this study is limited to small sample size and to the experimental context, it contributes to the scant literature on window displays and on the influence of exterior atmospheric variables on shopping experience. Our research to our knowledge is the first to measure the influence of the exterior shopping environment on anticipated shopping experience. This research will guide managers in their investment decisions in regards to their window displays.

For further information contact:
Danielle Lecointre-Erickson
GRANEM / Université d'Angers
+33 (0)2 41 96 21 06
danielle.lecointre@univ-angers.fr

THE IMPACT OF SALES COMPENSATION APPROACHES AND GOAL SETTTING ON SALES PERFORMANCE

Shawn Green, Dunham School of Business and Public Policy / Aurora University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The purpose of this working paper is to provide a discussion linking the impact of multiple compensation approaches to active goal setting of sales professionals on sales performance. This preliminary study contends that compensation strategies that clearly map out pay for performance approaches, in which salespeople have a belief that their effort will be appropriately rewarded, will be the most successful to developing stronger levels of sales performance. Secondly, sales performance will be increased when specific goal setting activities, accompanied by sales compensation plans are clear and in place and meaningful to salespeople.

According to Cichelli (2010), there are two crucial components to the effective management of sales compensation structures; communication and performance measurement. The key aspect that Cichelli is arguing for is that sales compensation plans should specifically pay for "the point of persuasion." His view is that the highest value that a salesperson can provide is to assist a client in making a purchase decision in the midst of risk and uncertainty. There are important reward system balances that need to be in place to meet the needs of the selling organization, salesforce and clients as stated by Ingram, et al (2015). The plan should be designed to encourage specific behaviors that the organization would like to achieve and compensation structures that have performance based measurable criteria that can be readily understood throughout the sales force.

In order to have solid implementation of sales compensation plans, the incorporation of systems to determine performance on an on-going basis is very useful. Dorf and Schum (2016) identify four elements that are vital for having an effective sales compensation plan implemented; well defined sales expectations and goals, accurately and consistently measure performance against sales expectations, reward achievement with competitive compensation that provides consistent motivation to achieve results, and monitor and modify the compensation plan as needed. The research of Chung (2015) indicates that placing caps on sales commissions negatively impacts sales results and revenue. Chung believes that quotas that are raised from one year to the next simply because of exceeded sales goals the year before will only serve to de-motivate salespeople. Relatedly, Zoltners (2015) believes that too many companies either set quotas too high or too low. It is possible that some sales companies also often underpay strong performers and overpay salespeople that benefit from naturally good sales territories.

Locke (et al; 1981) identified three attributes closely tied to higher levels or performance. These include goal specificity, goal difficulty, and goal attainment. Goal specificity refers to the degree of measurable preciseness of a goal. Goal difficulty addresses the extent of goal intensity being sought. Goal commitment accounts for the amounts of effort actually used to accomplish the goal. Wright and Kacmar (1994) found that goal specificity actually raised the level of goal commitment of the participants. Locke and Latham (1990) determined a positive relationship between goal difficulty and performance. Martin and Manning (1995) state that goal commitment moderates the impact of task difficulty on task performance.

Based on the work of Quick (1990), in order for salespeople to be motivated by difficult goals, they need to have involvement in the setting of their own goals. Organizational sales goals also need to be embraced by the sales force themselves. Kwicien (2010) states that activity goals of salespeople are different from result goals. Relying only on sales results goal can result in a lower degree of drive or self-motivation from salespeople. Instead, paying greater attention to the activities that lead to successful sales performance, and measure those activities, can drive toward desired results. (Sales Insider, May, 2008).

The propositions to be tested in further study of sales compensation approaches and goal setting activities of sales professionals include the following:

1. A sales compensation plan that combines salary and incentives will lead to a greater degree of sales performance than incentive based compensation alone.
2. A sales compensation plan that provides an uncapped commission incentive will lead to a greater degree of sales performance than a capped incentive structure.
3. Sales compensation plans that promote sales goal difficulty, specificity, and commitment will lead to a greater degree of sales performance than plans that do not require sales goal difficulty, specificity, and commitment.
4. Sales compensation plans that rewards activity goals will lead to achieving a greater degree of sales result goals than not rewarding the achievement of activity goals.
5. Sales management structures that recognize the value of intrinsic motivation on the part of salespeople will result in higher levels of sales performance than structures that do not recognize intrinsic motivation.

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For further information contact:
Shawn Green
Dunham School of Business and Public Policy / Aurora University
630-844-5527
sgreen@aurora.edu

THE MAN BRAND BACKLASH:
NEGATIVE IMPACT OF MALE IMAGES IN PUBLIC SERVICE ADVERTISING

Jean Jaymes West, California State University-Bakersfield

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The research conducted for this paper addresses the potential negative impact of the one-dimensional male images presented in public service advertising surrounding heterosexual intimate partner violence (IPV). While much progress has been made in the last two decades toward enlightening the public about some of the dynamics of intimate partner violence, there seems to be some form of "backlash" based on gender. Images presented in public service campaigns tied to this issue may reinforce some stereotypes about what we are allowed to accept in reflections of male and female behavior. Males reporting experiences not that do not coincide with stereotypical male images are viewed as less "manly," and thus not reflecting what the public views as the stereotypical "man brand."

In examining what that "man brand" is, men are rarely depicted as victims because the perception of what "masculine" means in America often does not leave room for roles that suggest something not in alignment with that. Societal perceptions have a strong influence in defining gender-acceptable behavior. Images shown overemphasize men's physical capability to repel abuse, as well as societal expectations toward men's financial and physical ability to resolve their own issues without any need of outside help or services. Hence, when men are victims of heterosexual intimate partner violence (IPV), they face an even more dangerous predicament because of society's refusal to view anything outside of the masculine stereotype.

Specifically examined in this research are the roles and images reflected in intimate partner violence campaigns that are based on gender stereotypes shown to the public over the past two decades. What is also examined is the reaction of the public when shown images that do not match up with those gender stereotypes, especially when it comes to intimate partner violence. The resulting public perceptions suggest that only women can be victims and only men can be perpetrators. The rationale, on the part of campaign designers for presenting the relationship gender stereotypes, is usually tied to the perception that men are rarely victims and females are rarely aggressors. Thus, the campaign creators suggest that women are the only "legitimate" victims of domestic violence. This research examines the phenomenon of refusing to represent men as victims or women as aggressors, what the true statistics reflect, and what steps may need to be taken to "de-contaminate" public perceptions tied to domestic violence. This "de-contamination" process explores why pervasive public beliefs or stereotypes tied to IPV now often portray men only as being abusers and women only as being victims, in many contexts. While no one would ever want to minimize any forms of violence, focusing only on this one-dimensional view has completely excluded the many scenarios in which men could actually be the victims. In fact, what is even more disturbing is that the abuse of men is often viewed by the public as less serious or a "joke."

These public perceptions, often reinforced by public advertising campaigns, can leave some men in an extremely vulnerable position. It is a potentially even worse outcome for men if the female in the domestic relationship is the abuser. Not only is it hard for the public and law enforcement to perceive of males as "victims" and females as "abusers," it is simply not part of the public perception of the "man brand." This research explores what that public advertising "man brand" is and why that may actually hinder true, complete progress in our understanding of domestic violence. This work investigates how public perceptions are affected by public service advertising and takes a first step in examining why those campaigns might be resistant to portraying females as the perpetrators of violence in any form.

Information obtained through preliminary focus groups with a small sample of male and female students in upper-division undergraduate courses suggests a strong lack of belief that males could ever be victims and females could ever be perpetrators. In fact, when shown a sampling of current public service advertising that reflected males as victims, many students engaged in laughter and expressed an overall perception that this is almost an impossible, and

infrequently occurring, situation because males are always physically stronger. They also expressed the perception that females could never truly be the aggressor in almost any situation, because most females are more passive and not often the dominant partner in relationships.

The preliminary focus group feedback suggests there might be several factors contributing to these perceptions of what constitutes male and female roles. There were several themes that emerged. Those themes suggest there is a strong need for a more complete explanation of participant reactions. Focus group discussions attempted to explore not just what current perceptions are surrounding the issue, but the reasons behind those long-standing perceptions. According to what participants reported, they felt their views were a result of repeated socially constructed perceptions fed to them by media and advertising sources tied to gender roles, and that these roles are prescribed as ideal or appropriate behavior for a person of that specific gender.

This suggests that, in viewing the public service advertisements and other media images surrounding what is acceptable as the "man brand," the general public, and men in particular, have been fed some very harmful information. Perhaps this is a result of a sort of "backlash" suggesting males, but not females, have got the message that domestic violence is wrong. What is even more disturbing, based on preliminary focus group participant responses, is that when law enforcement becomes involved, police will generally view and arrest the man as the violent partner, who is deemed the "primary aggressor" in most of the cases. Yet further examination of the true details of these cases often suggests that the couple is involved in custody or divorce battle—and the cry of violence is often females' strategy in achieving success in the legal system. Many females now acknowledge and understand that the laws have changed and those laws now support women in an almost unbiased manner. Even when it should be obvious, based on physical injuries to the male partner but not the female partner, only the man is arrested, incarcerated, and charged with felony domestic assault. In many case, male participants reported that police refused to arrest the female partner, stating that someone must be arrested and there was nothing they could do to the female—even if it was clear the female was the aggressor or perpetrator.

Men and women alike, in preliminary interviews, report using the advertising surrounding this issue to denote how domestic violence and typical gender roles are defined. Advertising surrounding domestic violence may have a range of possible alternative interpretations. Some of these interpretations may lead men to believe that if the spectrum of their personal experiences is not depicted, their experiences do not fit within the realm of what is defined as domestic violence. Most public service advertising examined does not include female aggression as having any role, or certainly not a very frequent role, in intimate partner violence.

This research proposes to continue investigating male and female responses to a sample of public service advertising surrounding domestic violence. It is important to note that some of the advertising examined does not intend to rely on gender stereotypes, but rather are simply a reflection of what the general public has come to acknowledge as the "man brand." In that context, it may be understandable why some of the campaign elements employ unbalanced gender images and language. The responses from participants in the preliminary research suggest further research should be conducted to explore how to best educate the public on IPV in a gender-equal manner. Exploring how to increase public awareness by addressing influences that label females only as victims and males only as perpetrators is a worthy endeavor. Examining how to correct the extreme and pervasive stereotypes in advertising that affects these perceptions is also worth exploring. Finally, examining what can be disseminated that will lead the public toward acceptance of female aggression and male passivity, without creating further stigmatization for either gender, can be a first step toward creating more accurate public advertising campaigns.

For further information contact:
Jean Jaymes West, Associate Professor of Marketing
California State University, Bakersfield
School of Business & Public Administration
Department of Management & Marketing—BDC 139
9001 Stockdale Hwy
Bakersfield, CA 93311
(661) 654-2388
jwest10@csub.edu

LOVE AT FIRST SIGHT: THE INFLUENCE OF PERCEIVED ENTATIVITY OF MERE VIRTUAL PRESENCE ON BRAND ENGAGEMENT

Jose Luis Saavedra, Southern Illinois University- Carbondale, USA
Ramin Bagherzadeh, Southern Illinois University- Carbondale, USA
Monika Rawal, Southern Illinois University- Carbondale, USA

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

By 2016, almost all of Fortune 500 companies were using social media to connect with customers (Barnes & Griswold, 2016). Customer trust on social media to learn about new brands and an active presence on social media strengthens the relationship between customers and the brand by turning them into engaged fans (Wallace, et al., 2012). For that, firms need to comprehend this engagement on social media settings to build up their brand strategy (Naylor, et al., 2012). Despite a significant amount of research conducted on customer's brand engagement, defined as "an individual difference representing customers' propensity to include important brands as part of how they view themselves" (Hirschman, 1970, p. 92), there is still a lack of understanding on how the community influences it in online settings. In order to fill this gap, we propose that mere virtual presence (MVP), defined as "passive exposure to a brand's supporters experienced in such social media contexts" (Naylor et al., 2012) has significant influence on customers' brand evaluations which is one of the antecedents of brand engagement (Hollebeek, 2011).

On the basis of above discussion, the current research has three main objectives: 1) to examine the relationship between MVP and customers' brand engagement, 2) to examine the role of customers' social identification with the MVP as a moderator between MVP and customer's brand engagement, and 3) to examine the role of entativity and customers' brand evaluation as mediators between MVP and customers' brand engagement. This study has theoretical and managerial contributions. From theoretical perspective, this study could provide evidence of 1) how the members of a brand community could affect customer brand engagement without the direct interference of the brand; and 2) how the perception of a cohesive group leads to a higher brand evaluation, and higher levels of customer brand engagement. From the managerial perspective, this research provides support for marketing strategy decision-makers in taking decisions about communicating or not the MVP of a particular brand community.

Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Engagement is a relationship between the customer engaged and a particular engagement entity (i.e. brand) (Sprott, et al., 2009). This two-way process generates specific customer's engagement states based on particular contextual conditions. For example, customer engagement in online environment is circumscribed to online applications (i.e. weblogs, podcasts), and social networks (Brodie, et al., 2013). Previous researches have shown that the outcomes of customer's engagement (i.e. trust, attachment, and loyalty) (Hollebeek, 2011) are prominent in online brand community (OBC) contexts, because customers anticipate major social acceptance from the community (Pan, Lu, & Gupta, 2014). Engagement on social networking involves practices like "focus on creating, enhancing, and sustaining ties among brand community members" (Schau et al., 2009, p. 34). These activities enhance member engagement in the OBC and provide them with social capital (Brodie et al., 2013).

A feature of social capital is the ability to identify members of the community to which they belong. The identity of a customer's supporter of the brands is more accessible for customers on social media environment rather than offline. Customers could see pictorial information about people who voluntarily became a member of online brand page. This minimal interaction is defined as MVP. Naylor et al. (2012, p. 107) suggested that "in the absence of externally provided information about others, customers anchor on the self to infer that ambiguous others are like them". For example, research had demonstrated that industrial customer changed their buying behavior when they saw the number of sellers and buyers in online exchanges (Tucker & Zhang, 2010). Based on that, this study predicts that customers in presence of MVP are likely to engage more with the brand. Thus, we propose:

H1: MVP (control condition) is associated with high (low) level of customer brand engagement.

Social identity theory (Turner & Tajfel, 1985) stated that persons describe their self-concepts by their associations with social groups or entities. In so doing, individuals engage in a process of self-identity in which a group to which one identifies is visibly separate of an out-group. Also, individuals play social roles in various social settings, and each one is structured hierarchically because it represents a unique identity. These identities also take place in the social networking practices (Schau et al., 2009). Those ties are explicit on closer communities, which include activities as rituals, events, and sharing information (Schau et al., 2009). However, if customers do not feel connected with the group, those ties are weak or nonexistent. Based on that, we hypothesize:

H2: Group membership (in-group / out-group) moderates the relationship between MVP and customer brand engagement, such as for MVP condition, customers having in-group (out-group) membership will present higher (lower) degree of customer brand engagement.

Entitativity represents "the extent to which a social aggregate is perceived to be a coherent, unified and meaningful entity" (Yzerbyt, et al., 1998, p. 1093). Customers perceive groups more entitative when their members have similar characteristics such as interdependence, organization, and common goals (Smith et al., 2013). In addition, people vary in the extent to which they perceive group as entitative. Some customers (called entity theorists) tend to believe that groups have fixed characteristics, and based on that, they tend to perceive social groups as more entitative. On the other hand, customers, defined as incremental theorists, tend to believe that basic personality of the groups can be cultivatable with time and effort, which is the reason why they perceive groups as less entitative (Smith et al., 2013). On the branding concept, Naylor et al. (2012) suggested that when customers perceive homogeneous MVP (similarity between themselves and the members showed by the brand), it produces positive brand evaluations. Based on that, this study proposes:

H3: Customers' perception of entitativity of the group and customers' brand evaluations mediates the relationship between MVP and customers' brand engagement, such that, for MVP condition (control), customers will perceive higher (lower) levels of entitativity of MVP, which leads to customers' positive (negative) brand evaluation, which in turn leads to customer's higher (lower) level of brand engagement.

Methodology

We will conduct two studies to achieve our research objectives. In order to test H1 and H2, a 2 (MVP: presence / control) x 2 (Group membership: in-group / out-group) between-subjects factorial design will be adopted (study 1). Convenience sampling will be used to select 180 undergraduate students to participate in a web-based online survey. Data will be analyzed using ANOVA and OLS regression for main effect (H1) and bootstrapping approach (Model 1 in Hayes, 2013) for H2. In this study, we will use a fictitious Facebook fan page to manipulate MVP (Naylor et al., 2012). First, participants will indicate their gender before the study begins. Second, participants will be observing an extract from a Facebook fan page created by fictitious company. The four scenarios are a mix among the total number of fans and pictures of six fans (similar/dissimilar age and gender as the participant). Third, participants will be asked to respond to the 8-items brand engagement scale of Sprott et al. (2009), on a 7-point scale ranging from "completely disagree" to "completely agree".

In order to test H3, a 2 (MVP: presence / control) x 2 (Entativity: high / low) between-subjects factorial design will be adopted (study 2). Convenience sampling will be used to select 180 undergraduate students to participate in a web-based online survey. Data will be analyzed using bootstrapping approach (Model 6 in Hayes, 2013). In this study, we will use the same manipulation of study 1 for MVP. New scenarios include a mix among the number of fans and pictures of six fans but wearing similar/dissimilar clothes and same/different background and settings. Then, participants will respond to the brand engagement scale (Sprott et al., 2009). Brand evaluation will be measured by asking "Based on the information you just saw from their Facebook page, how much do you like Roots brand clothing?" on a 9-point scale ranging from "do not like at all" to "like very much" (Naylor et al., 2012).

For further information contact:
Jose Luis Saavedra
Southern Illinois University-Carbondale
(618) 453-7778
jsaavedra@siu.edu

THE INTERACTIVE EFFECTS OF BRAND LOGO ADAPTATION (VS. STANDARDIZATION) AND BRAND EQUITY ON BRAND EVALUATION IN SOCIAL MEDIA SETTINGS

Sangwon Lee, Ball State University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

In this paper, the interactive effects of brand logo adaptation (vs. standardization) and brand equity on brand evaluation are examined in social media settings. Prior researches demonstrate that brand logos play a critical role to convey brand identification, image and meaning to the consumers (Park et al., 2013). Brand logos also build brand awareness and brand equity (Keller, 2008). Despite the importance of brand logo in forming brand value, few studies examined the effect of the brand logo on brand evaluation in social media context. Given that the use of social media as a promotion tool among corporations is becoming a norm (Okazaki and Taylor, 2013), design of the brand logo in social media may contribute to the success of the firm's marketing communication in several ways.

To fill this gap, it is appropriate to examine how the brand logo adaptation (vs. standardization) affects brand evaluation in social media settings. Adaptation (vs. standardization) in our context means the brand logo is used in different ways (vs. the same way) from the traditional one (Keegan and Green 2011). This study can answer the following questions: (1) does brand adaptation in social media affect brand evaluation? (2) does the brand equity moderate the relationship between brand adaptation (vs. standardization) and attitude toward the brand?

Using customer-based brand equity (Keller, 1993) as a theoretical underpinning, two hypotheses were developed. Hypothesis 1 suggests that there is no difference of attitude toward the brand between standardization and adaptation of brand logo in social media advertising. Hypothesis 2 proposes that in higher brand equity condition, adaptation of brand logo in social media ad. leads to more positive attitude toward the brand than the standardization of social media ad. On the other hand, in lower brand equity condition, standardization of social media ad. leads to more positive attitude toward the brand than the adaptation of social media ad.

A 2 X 2 between subject experiment was conducted in which two factors were manipulated: brand logo (standardization vs. adaptation) and brand equity (higher vs. lower). Results from the experimental study conducted demonstrate that (1) lower value brand had better standardize the brand logos that look similar to the traditional logo for the better brand evaluation and (2) higher value brand has a strategic freedom to use adaptation of the brand logo in social media ad. because the dissimilar brand logo leads to better brand evaluation.

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For further information contact:
Sangwon Lee
Miller College of Business
Ball State University
2000 W. University Ave.
Muncie, IN 47306
(765) 285-5195
slee20@bsu.edu

EXPERIMENTAL PRICING STRATEGIES

Joyce A. Shotick, Judson University
Kilee Hoffman, Judson University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Pricing products can be the most complex, challenging and essential practice of any business. There are economic, psychological, sociological as well as situational factors to be considered when establishing a price. In the new product development stage of any business, identifying an ideal price for the product is critical to the product's success and total revenue.

There are a myriad of pricing techniques that have been identified and implemented to enhance sales, create barriers to entry, penetrate an established market as well as imparting psychological quality perceptions (Peter & Donnelly, 2013). However, as important as price of a product is to the business to generate revenue, predicting the ideal price continues to be elusive. Involving students to conduct an experiment in pricing can enrich student comprehension of the challenges and rewards of pricing.

There are over 35 different pricing strategies that are used in today's business environment. The most recently studied pricing strategy is pay-what-you-will pricing (Regner, 2015). PWYW pricing allows owners to provide the product and allow the customer to determine the "price" that they are willing and able to pay. The price that the customer selects can include $0. PWYW places pricing determination solely in the hands of the consumer (Isaac, Lightle, and Norton, 2015). For this reason, many owners are hesitant to give consumers all pricing control.

Although not-for-profit organizations, such as churches and street performers, have used this pricing strategy when collecting free-will donations or contributions, it has only been recently that for-profit businesses have considered adopting this strategy. To better understand pricing, and in particular, PWYW strategy, students can conduct their own quasi-experiment with a small investment. They can collaborate with the psychology department and/or consumer behavior class to identify and set up varied conditions to see if their customers would pay more or less due to different factors. For example, if no one is present, would customers take the item without zero price? Would a sign with a "price recommended" statement inspire customers to pay a higher price?

This presentation will describe how marketing students can participate in their learning of the pricing component of marketing management. The quasi-experiment on PWYW pricing allowed students to learn how to control variables that influence the decision process to purchase. Students were asked to identify, explore, and test possible pricing strategies that would impact not only if a consumer would buy the product, but if given the chance, how much would they pay for the product.

During class, a lecture discussed the various pricing strategies. When describing the PWYW model, students were asked about the feasibility, liabilities, risks, and rewards of a novel pricing technique. As a group assignment, the students selected small bottles of Gatorade to sell to their classmates and faculty. The department chairperson provided a small $50 gift to purchase the initial bottles from a nearby wholesale establishment. The students identified variables that would impact purchasing. Four influencing variables were chosen to study: presence of a salesperson; presence of another person near the site; signage with recommended pricing; and signage indicating a charity for whom the proceeds would be donated. A schedule of implementation of the influencing variables was created to ensure that the students in the class were prepared to make the changes. Students in the class were asked not to tell buyers what the purpose of the Gatorade sales were except to explain that it was a business department project.

The motivation for consumer pricing control has dynamic implications for businesses today (Kunter, 2015). Will consumers recognize that they should pay "something" for the items, or take them with no payment? Would a business be more profitable if customers paid a price that would cover costs of goods sold? With no paid wait staff,

would costs be lowered significantly to generate profits? These exploratory questions can stimulate exciting discussion on pricing and its relationship to expenses.

Gatorade bottles were displayed on a table in a highly trafficked area at the same location and same time each day for five weeks. Each week a different influencing variable was imposed and documented. The number of bottles "taken" and the amount of money collected each day was recorded along with various situational conditions, such as extreme weather or university holiday. For convenience, the bottles sold for $1.00 each. The cost of the Gatorade bottle was $0.46 each. The Gatorade "stand" was open four hours each day.

The first week was a typical snack sales stand with a student worker available to conduct the exchange. The second week, a sign was set by the bottles of Gatorade indicating a recommended price of $1 with a container for the money to be deposited, but no salesperson was immediately present. However, a student worker was studying near the Gatorade bottles. This was to determine if a person present nearby would reduce the number of bottles taken with no donation. On the third week, the Gatorade bottles were set out with the sign and the container, but no one was posted by the bottles. The fourth week the sign indicated a request for donations that would benefit a charity.

In class, the students totaled the costs of the Gatorade bottles sold and the revenue from customers week by week based on the different conditions. In total, the sales exceeded the costs of the bottles of Gatorade. The second week with the sign indicating the recommended price and a student nearby generated the highest sales. The first week with a salesperson had the second highest sales. Surprisingly, the sign indicating a charity to benefit from the proceeds yielded the lowest total sales.

The results of the quasi-experiment demonstrated that the overall business endeavor was profitable: revenues collected exceeded the costs of the bottles of Gatorade. However, further discussion of the opportunity costs of paying someone to sell the Gatorade were calculated. The cost of one student worker far exceeded the revenue collected. Students discussed the cost/benefit analysis of the PWYW pricing approach and its implication of its use for different types of products under different conditions. For example, those products with no marginal cost, such as a digital music recording, can generate significant revenue and profits. However, major cost items, such as an automobile, would not be profitable.

Each student wrote a reflective paper on the results of the experiment and their thoughts of the use of PWYW pricing in businesses today. Students had to address the advantages of PWYW and the challenges. They described other situations, such as Panera Bread Company that provided coffee, cups, and a container for customers to deposit their "recommended price" monies and avoid the wait in line.

This interactive approach to studying the impact of pricing on consumers and the business can engage students and develop their critical thinking skills. They can apply their knowledge of marketing and psychology to experience the interaction of pricing with product, promotion, and distribution. This hands on approach to learning about the complexities of marketing, and pricing in particular, will generate both excitement for the profession and appreciation for the pricing strategists.

This dynamic approach to studying the impact of pricing on consumers and the business can engage students and develop their critical thinking skills. They can apply their knowledge of marketing and experience the interaction of pricing with product, promotion, and distribution. This hands on approach to learning about the complexities of marketing, and pricing in particular, will generate both excitement for the marketing profession and appreciation for the pricing strategists.

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For further information contact:
Joyce Shotick
Judson University
1151 N. State Street
Elgin, IL 60123
(847) 628-1046
joyce.shotick@judsonu.edu

EXAMINING BRAND ORIENTATION AND THREE PROMISES THEORY IN SERVICES FROM THE PERSPECTIVES OF CUSTOMERS, MANAGERS, AND CONTACT PERSONNEL

Ceren Ekebas-Turedi, Purdue University Northwest
Musa Pinar, Valparaiso University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Extant literature has emphasized the important role of brand orientation in marketing strategy (Baumgarth, 2010; G. Hankinson, 2012; P. Hankinson, 2001a; Urde, 1994, 1999; Urde, Baumgarth, & Merrilees, 2013). Urde (1999, p. 107) defines brand orientation as "[…] an approach in which the process of the organization revolve around the creation, development, and protection of brand identity in an ongoing interaction with target customers with the aim of achieving lasting competitive advantages in the form of brands". Brand orientation is an inside-out approach in which brand is the strategic platform to satisfy the needs and wants of the consumers (Urde et al., 2013). Brand orientation involves a deliberate and systematic brand management approach and it requires long term planning (Baumgarth, 2010; Gromark & Melin, 2011; Urde, 1994; Yin Wong & Merrilees, 2007).

Growing the brand further is the role and the goal of the entire organization (Yin Wong & Merrilees, 2005). Relationship with external and internal stakeholders is essential in this process. As internal stakeholders, employees need to take the role of being brand ambassadors (Gromark & Melin, 2011; Urde, 1999) which will lead to 'living the brand' (Ind, 2003). In addition, Gromark and Melin (2011) found that the most important underlying dimension of brand orientation is top management's approach to the brand. Even though the top management reflect a deliberate approach to the branding strategy, it is very critical to see how employees and consumers perceive these efforts.

Core values of the brands lead to brand offerings, hence, customer value and how brand is perceived. Therefore, brand orientation reflects the "brand promise" of the organization (Urde et al., 2013). The three promises framework (making, enabling, and delivering a promise) integrates brand perceptions of customers, employees, and management to examine in delivering service brand value (Bitner, 1995; Brodie et al., 2006; Brodie et al., 2009). This theory suggests that the success of a brand is influenced by the extent to which the internal, interactive and external branding components of brand promises are congruent or aligned (Brodie et al., 2009; de Chernatony, 2010).

Despite the recent growing interest in brand orientation concept and its importance for business performance, there are few studies that provide measurement scales for brand orientation and its dimensions. Some of these studies covered business-to-business (Yin Wong & Merrilees, 2007, 2008), destination branding (G. Hankinson, 2012), and non-profit sector (Napoli, 2006). A study by Leticia Santos-Vijande, González-Mieres, and Ángel López-Sánchez (2013) provided measurement scale for brand orientation as one of dimensions of brand management system, so it was not intended to measure the brand orientation concept.

Even though brand orientation literature has been rapidly evolving with recent empirical and conceptual research, there is still a great need to further the operationalization of the concept (Gromark & Melin, 2011), as well as more empirical testing is needed for the measurements of the brand orientation (Baumgarth, 2010). Therefore, this study aims to investigate brand orientation in three promises theory framework in services branding triangle (Pinar, Girard, Trapp, & Eser, 2016) in order to determine if the brand orientation perceptions of customer, manager and contact personnel are consistent and aligned for creating a strong brand orientation in an organization. Hence, this study examines brand orientation of an organization to determine if there is any difference between the perceptions of a) customers and managers (external brand orientation gap), b) customers and contact personnel (interactive brand orientation gap), c) managers and contact personnel (internal brand orientation gap). Based on these objectives, the study address the following Research Propositions (RPs): RP1: There should be no significant differences between customer and managerial personnel perceptions of brand orientation and its dimensions (External Branding Gap);

RP2: There should be no significant differences between customer and contact personnel perceptions of brand orientation and its dimensions (Interactive Branding Gap); and P3: There should be no significant differences between managerial personnel and contact personnel perceptions of brand orientation and its dimensions (Internal Branding Gap).

To accomplish the research objectives, a survey instrument has been developed to measure the brand orientation for services (more specifically, convenience services). Since there is no prior research that measures brand orientation and its dimensions from the perspectives of managers, personnel and customer, a special effort was made to identify dimensions that could be relevant to all three groups to measure their perceptions of brand orientation. The dimensions used in this study are brand commitment, positive word-of-mouth and brand citizenship (King & Grace, 2010), affective brand commitment (Wallace et al., 2013), brand performance (G. Hankinson, 2012), brand orientation and customer performance (Leticia Santos-Vijande et al., 2013), brand image (Brodie et al., 2009), and attitude toward brand (Biehal, Stephens, & Curio, 1992; Machleit & Wilson, 1988; Miniard, Barone, Rose, & Manning, 2006). Each of these dimensions includes multiple items measured on a seven-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree). Several pretests have been conducted to modify and improve the survey questions, as well as purifying the measurement scale. Two versions of the survey (one for customers and one for managers and personnel) will be administered to measure the perceptions of managers, contact personnel and customers.

For further information contact:
Ceren Ekebas-Turedi
College of Business
Purdue University Northwest
Westville, IN
Phone: (219) 785-5496
Email: cturedi@purdue.edu

TRANSACTION COSTS, LEARNING, AND A DYNAMIC APPROACH TO GOVERNANCE IN AN EXCHANGE RELATIONSHIP

James Doyle, School of Business / The University of North Carolina at Pembroke

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This conceptual paper applies a learning perspective to identify mechanisms that can affect transaction costs over time and, as one consequence, the organizing mode of firms (i.e., governance structure). As Williamson has explained, governance is "… the means by which to infuse order, thereby to mitigate conflict and realize mutual gains" (2008, p. 8) in "… ongoing contractual relations for which continuity of the relationship is a source of value" (2005, p. 2). In an attempt to cope with behavioral uncertainty, ward off opportunistic conduct, and generally ensure that an exchange partner is acting in accordance with expectations, firms incur transaction costs by searching for information as well as bargaining, monitoring, and enforcing contracts (Coase, 1937; Coase, 1992; Crosno & Dahlstrom, 2008; John and Weitz, 1988; Ouchi, 1980; Williamson, 1988; Williamson, 1996). As this paper suggests, organizational learning activities can, over time, reduce transaction costs to a level lower than transaction costs in the absence of learning.

There is powerful evidence that organizations learn and adapt (Cyert & March, 1992) and it is from this evidence the ensuing sections of this paper aim to describe how organizational learning can be used to achieve efficiency through ever-decreasing transaction costs. Indeed, uncertainty can be reduced over time through effective learning as the situation of insufficient knowledge is corrected (Williamson, 1973). According to Levitt and March (1988, p. 320), firms learn "… by encoding inferences from history into routines that guide behavior." More particularly, learning is commonly conceptualized "… as cycles of taking action and observing payoffs directly attributable to the latest action" (Rahmandad, 2008, p. 1297). Indeed, learning can be an incremental process that depends on action taking, outcome observing, and then alteration making (Argyris, 1992).

Conventional thinking is that learning is not an especially pertinent topic with regard to transaction costs (especially as compared with production costs). Kogut (1988), for instance, makes no allowance for changes in transaction costs but cites learning as a factor that can account for differences in production costs. Kogut (1988) does, however, report that learning motivations are often used in discussions couched in transaction cost theory to explain the creation of joint ventures (a hybrid governance form) but that such discussions are a confusion. For Kogut (1988, p. 323), joint ventures can be created for reasons of learning but that it is incorrect to link a learning imperative with transaction costs because, with learning, "… the explanatory factors are organizational and cognitive rather than derivatives of opportunism under uncertainty and asset specificity."

Despite convention, there seems to be little substantive reason for holding that an organizational-learning perspective cannot be used to inform transaction cost theory. In particular, that decision makers are bounded in terms of cognitive capabilities does not imply that decision makers cognitively operate at a point at which learning cannot occur. Along this line, transaction cost theory has been criticized for inadequately accounting for "…the dynamic processes through which a firm's organizational governance form evolves …" (e.g., Mitsuhashi, Shane, & Sine, 2008), failing to account for hybrid modes (e.g., Williamson, 1991), and for lacking a dynamic capability (e.g., Williamson, 1988). Of specific concern to this paper is the silence of transaction cost theory with regard to the mechanisms by which firms come to modify previous market/hierarchy decisions.

Through a process of "incremental experiential learning" (cf. Herriott, Levinthal, & March, 1985), firms should be able to effectively reduce the activities from which activity costs are derived (cf. Ouchi, 1980). This process is not dissimilar to that of logical incrementalism (cf. Quinn, 1989). Logical incrementalism, as Quinn (1989) asserts, is a "serious" management technique for integrating the analytical (i.e., deliberate) and behavioral (i.e., emergent) "aspects" of strategy through a process of incremental refinement. Incremental refinement, as does a learning-based transaction cost theory, emphasizes temporal progression (Quinn, 1989). To capture this learning-based transaction cost theory, the following overarching proposition is offered: Firms that engage in learning with respect to governance structure should experience lower transaction costs than firms that do not engage in learning. An interesting context

in which this learning-based transaction cost theory could be applied is the growing use of dual distribution by firms in consumer markets.

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For further information contact:
James Doyle
University of North Carolina at Pembroke
Email: james.doyle@uncp.edu

WHAT WERE YOU THINKING? ANALYZING THOUGHT PROCESSES IN THE PRESENCE OF BRAND LOVE

Derek Ezell, University of Mississippi

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This study attempts to further foundational knowledge of brand love by explaining its effect on source credibility and the likelihood to seek additional information in the acquisition of new information. With past research showing the impact of affective states on information processes, this study uses brand love to proxy this affective state. Although the love felt for a brand isn't necessarily the same love one would feel for their family or spouse, research has shown that consumers do develop feelings towards a brand that are considerably more intense than a liking towards that brand. Despite the varying definitions concerning brand love, most definitions contain similar concepts and generally refer to the affinity generated by a customer towards the brand that they have formed a relationship with over time. attachment theory centers around the notion that humans often reach for an "attachment figure" when faced with a difficult situation (e.g. stress, illness, fatigue). These attachment figures serve as comfort for the individual. Derivative of positive past experiences with these figures, individuals are immediately calmed and comforted when in the presence of their attachment figures.

Two studies were conducted to test five proposed hypotheses: H_1 - Consumers who receive new information about a brand they acknowledge love for will be more likely to seek additional information; H_2 - Consumers who receive a positive (negative) message about a given brand will be more (less) likely to seek additional information; H_3 – Brand love will moderate the previous relationship; H_4 - Consumers who receive a positive (negative) message about a given brand will perceive the source to have high (low) credibility; H_5 – Brand love will moderate the previous relationship. Findings show support for H1, H4, and H5.

Results indicate those who love a brand are more likely to seek additional information than those who do not love the brand. This falls in line with the notion that consumers think more intently and pay more attention to brands they love. Regardless of whether it is positive or negative, as new information comes in about this loved brand, consumers want to know more. Initial skepticism of negative information leads consumers to rate sources as having lower credibility when presented with negative information. This relationship is shown to vary depending on the presence of brand love.

Implications for academicians and practitioners alike are discussed, as well as limitations and future research direction.

For further information contact:
Derek Ezell
University of Mississippi
dezell@bus.olemiss.edu

EXPLORING THE LIMITS OF ARBITRARY COHERENCE

Michael Mattei, Bellarmine University
Stephen Hellebusch, Hellebusch Research and Consulting

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

In Behavioral Economics, "arbitrary coherence" is caused when an arbitrarily chosen number, known to be random, influences the amount potential purchasers are willing to pay for a product. From that initial arbitrary point, all evaluations of prices are coherent with the randomly chosen starting point. Marketers can use the anchor point to help set optimal prices and determine optimal price changes. An initial study was conducted to replicate research found in the literature and assess the arbitrary coherence effect on consumer pricing perceptions. The first study confirmed the effect, but led to a concern about the survey questions. A second study attempted to resolve the concern, but indicated a lack of arbitrary coherence. A third study was conducted to further investigate the issues arising from the first two studies. This paper presents the issues identified in the first two studies and reports on the results of a third study designed to resolve the questions that arose in the earlier research.

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For further information contact:
Michael Mattei
Bellarmine University
Email: mmattei@bellarmine.edu

SKIP IT OR VIEW IT: THE ROLE OF VIDEO STORYTELLING IN SOCIAL MEDIA MARKETING

Dominic M. Baima, Eastern Illinois University
Kesha K. Coker, Eastern Illinois University
Richard L. Flight, Eastern Illinois University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Video has emerged as an integral part of social media marketing in the digital age because of its "ability to grab our attention, [and] fire up our imagination" (Mancuso & Stuth, 2014, p. 18). Video comes across as "the perfect format for quickly grabbing busy audiences' attention" (Lessard, 2014). Equally important is the rapid spread of video over social media platforms. There are more than 1 billion unique monthly visitors to YouTube (Vidyard, n.d.) and in 2015, video marketing was expected to grow as "65% of viewers watch more than three-quarters of a given video." Even more impactful for marketers is "70% of marketing professionals report that video converts better than any other medium" (Lessard, 2014). This turnover shows the power of video for marketers.

While consumers are watching more videos on social media a challenge exists for brands to stand out. Since consumers actively try to avoid ads, grabbing consumers' attention long enough so they tune in to branded video content is difficult. Ad avoidance is facilitated by media that now allow consumers to skip ads. For example, consumers who are exposed to commercials in video format before viewing videos on the social media site, YouTube, can now choose to skip or view such commercials. This situation leaves marketers trying to find best ways to keep consumers engaged and attentive to marketing communications with videos on social media.

One way to address challenges of video content in social media marketing is to examine the video's execution style. A term borrowed from the advertising field, execution style is "the way a particular appeal is turned into an advertising message presented to the consumer" (Belch & Belch, 2015, p. 301). One execution style, storytelling, has become a viable option for communicating the brand's message in today's world of social media since "facts tell, but stories sell" (Lessard, 2014). Storytelling is the "conveying [of] messages and sharing accumulated knowledge and wisdom to help navigate and explain the world around us" (Mancuso & Stuth, 2014, p. 18). The way people often remember information, especially significant events, is through stories (Woodside, 2010). Marketers may capitalize on this natural way of remembering and utilize it to positively affect the consumer's response to branded content through videos.

Current research suggests that "a well-crafted firm story may create positive associations with a brand and ultimately increase consumers' willingness to pay for it" (Lundqvist, 2012, p. 291). However past studies have not measured how the consumer's response changes when the story is told through video on social media. As noted in the literature, "much has been written about the power of stories in branding, but very little empirical evidence exists of their effects on consumer responses" (Lundqvist, 2012, p. 283). To address this gap, this research examines the role of storytelling execution styles on consumer responses to branded video content on social media. Of practical value to marketers is the comparison of two video content execution styles.

The *narrative theory* as it relates to consumer storytelling states that strong self-brand connections are formed through narrative storytelling (Escalas, 2004). These strong self-brand connections are positive for brands that use storytelling in their ads. According to Escalas (2004, p. 176), "[Self-brand connections] are associated with better attitudes toward the brand and higher likelihood of purchase." As storytelling increases a consumer's positive attitude to the brand and the likelihood to purchase, it can be inferred that this execution style may increase consumer engagement with the branded video. This type of engagement may reduce the likelihood that consumers would skip or tune out the branded video content. The current research expands on narrative theory and applies it specifically in the context of video marketing in social media. Based on narrative storytelling theory, the persuasion knowledge model, and the elaboration likelihood model, this research examines the role of video storytelling in social media

marketing. More specifically, the current research compares the effect of a straight-sell execution style with that of storytelling on the consumer's response to video marketing in social media. Four types of consumer responses are examined: attitude toward the brand, purchase intention, positive word of mouth, and likelihood of viewing (rather than skipping) the ad. As such it is hypothesized that: H_1: a video storytelling execution style will generate more favorable attitude toward the brand than a straight-sell execution style, H_2: a video storytelling execution style will increase purchase intention compared to a straight-sell execution style, H_3: a video storytelling execution style will increase positive word of mouth about a brand compared to a straight-sell execution style, and H_4: a video storytelling execution style is more likely to be viewed, whereas a straight-sell execution style is more likely to be skipped.

Study results are based on a sample of 238 participants in a 2 (execution style: straight-sell vs. storytelling) x 2 (brand: Extra Gum vs. Mazda) within-subjects experimental design. These brands were chosen because they are not brands that have very strong cultural followings, such as Coca Cola, and they both had ads that used storytelling and straight-sell execution styles. The experiment was administered through an online survey that was distributed to participants via email. Participants were given a week to complete the survey and were instructed to take the survey on an electronic device with audio and video capability. The stimuli used in this study were four company-produced 30-second videos. Participants were randomly assigned a brand (either Extra Gum or Mazda) and saw both the storytelling and straight-sell ads for their chosen brand.

In support of H_1, attitude toward the brand was more favorable following the video with the storytelling execution style than the straight-sell execution style (t=8.03, p<.001). Similarly, H_2 is supported as purchase intention was greater following the video with the storytelling execution style than the straight-sell execution style (t=5.01, p<.001). Since positive WOM about the brand was more favorable following the video with the storytelling execution style than the straight-sell execution style (t=8.66, p<.001), H_3 is also supported. Finally, participants were more inclined to view (than skip) the video with the storytelling execution style than the straight-sell execution style (t=9.35, p<.001), thereby providing support for H_4.

The findings of this research hold both practical and theoretical value to social media marketing. By extending narrative theory, the persuasion knowledge model, and the elaboration likelihood model, this research makes a significant contribution to the marketing field by suggesting the power of video storytelling in social media marketing. This research also answers the call in the literature to examine the role of brand storytelling on consumer responses (Lundqvist, 2012) and is the first known study to date to delve into this realm of research in social media marketing.

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For further information contact:
Kesha K. Coker
Eastern Illinois University
(217) 581-6202
kcoker@eiu.edu

KEEPING CURRENT: LEARNING NEW TRUTHS — SABBATICAL, "STAYBBATICAL" OR EVOLVING ON THE FLY?

Karen Bussone, Illinois Wesleyan University
Kim Folkers, Wartburg College
Dena Liberman, Alverno College
Lori Lohman, Augsburg College,
Stephanie Jacobsen, Bridgewater State University
Frederick B. Hoyt, Illlinois Wesleyan University

PANEL POSITION PAPER

This panel discussion will address different options for meeting the need to stay current in the rapidly changing marketing field. How?

1) I can hardly wait for my upcoming sabbatical - So, you're planning for a sabbatical and really want to update your teaching? We'll discuss ways to create a meaningful sabbaticing that will bring new impact and added value to your teaching.

2) No, no - I can't wait for sabbatical - No sabbatical in sight, but still feel a sense of urgency to update your skills? This part of the discussion will focus on what you can do to expand your skill sets and insights even while you're immersed in teaching every semester.

3) Deciding what "old truths" are still true. "Learning New Truths" means you might want to identify what "old truths" are still true.

Come join this conversation guided by faculty at different points in their careers. Our goal is for attendees (and panelists!) to leave with an expanded and concrete sense of how to keep up with the ever-changing field of marketing.

For further information contact:
Frederick Hoyt
Illinois Wesleyan University
(309) 556-3128
fhoyt@iwu.edu

MARKETING RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES FOR ECOTOURISM

Robert Boostrom, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater
Maxwell Hsu, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater
Dennis Kopf, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater

PANEL POSITION PAPER

Large numbers of consumers are looking at issues of sustainability and ecological impact when making choices. Studies suggest that approximately 30% of consumers fit within the Lifestyles of Health and Sustainability (LOHAS) segment (Rosen, 2002), and their interests and buying power are driving marketing activity. Walmart has responded to this by working to become more sustainable not only in their business practices, but also in their product offerings. Since 2008, Walmart has surpassed all other retailers to become the largest purchaser of organic milk and cotton (Savage, 2008).

As part of this global trend toward conscientious consumption, ideas arose related to how tourism might be shaped by environmental concerns. In 1990, The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) was formed to help better define the idea of ecotourism, understand how consumers view issues related to ecotourism, and to provide standards for evaluating sustainability issues within the tourism industry (TIES, 2016).

TIES has found that many issues related to travel and sustainability have the force of consumer dollars behind them. For instance, they cite research that found nature-based tourism is 20% of international travel and growing, and that 73% of Millennials and Generation Z consumers show a willingness to pay more for products that are sustainable (CREST, 2016). Although trends like this suggest that ecotourism and related areas of interest shape consumer behavior in compelling ways, the work in this area that has found its way into marketing management journals and conferences has been quite limited. For instance, eleven papers dealing with tourism as a central issue were described in the Spring Proceedings of the Marketing Management Association between 2010 and 2016. Of those papers, two dealt with cultural issues (which may be seen as related to ecotourism) and only one dealt directly with sustainability issues.

This panel discussion will explore ideas, issues, and likely research collaborations related to tourism marketing in general, and ecotourism and other sustainability-related perspectives on consumer travel experiences in particular. The goal of the panel is to discuss ideas with fellow researchers that might drive more activity in this potentially important area.

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For further information contact:
Dr. Dennis Kopf

University of Wisconsin-Whitewater
+1.262.472.6948
kopfd@uww.edu

MARKET MORPH: HOW THE SHARING ECONOMY IS REVOLUTIONIZING THE WAY WE SHOP, STAY, AND PAY

Ursula Y. Sullivan, Northern Illinois University
Alex Eddy, Northern Illinois University
Timothy W. Aurand, Northern Illinois University
Vijaykumar Krishnan, Northern Illinois University

PANEL POSITION PAPER

In this panel session, we explore the sharing economy in a few ways. In the first section of the panel, the panelists discuss the evolution of the sharing economy and how technology has enabled the business of sharing. Technology has created a new era for sharing but the basic ideas have been around for a long time. There is a history of people and firms sharing assets to acquire what they need to live and work. Indeed, another term that is used in addition to the "sharing economy' is the "Collaborative Economy." In the panel session, an overview of the size of the sharing economy and the various businesses that are involved are provided. According to one study, the size of the sharing economy sector is expected to reach $335 Billion by the year 2025.

In the second section, the presenters will provide evidence of a continuum of the sharing economy, thereby revealing the extent to which companies—and consumers—can participate in the business of sharing. Some researchers are beginning to tease apart the sharing economy from the traditional rental economy. What is very interesting is that many in the traditional sector (e.g., hotels, rental companies, and car companies) are beginning to offer their own versions of a "shared" format. For example, Maven, is a new car-sharing company that is a joint venture by Lyft and General Motors, whereby drivers for the car-sharing provider, Lyft can acquire their cars for serving Lyft customers through a lease/sale program provided by GM.

The third section provides initial data on the effects of the sharing economy, both positive and negative, on consumers, providers, and even on the cities in which we live. For example, some studies reveal discriminatory practices by AirBnB. While AirBnB now requires its hosts to sign a non-discriminatory policy, the concern remains that technology provides an easy way to say "no" to potential customers. Other societal concerns include: 1) replacing public transportation with ride-sharing firms like Uber; 2) privacy policies that rate customers as well as workers; 3) an increase in free-lance workers who no longer have a "corporate safety net" to rely upon; and 4) driverless vehicles—both car sharing as well as trucking—and their unknown impact on road safety.

Finally, the panelists provide initial data from a survey that asked millennials about the items they are willing to share. Results generally suggest that millennials are very happy to share many of the things they own, except for those deemed too personal. Some new avenues for further research are provided .

For further information contact:
Ursula Y. Sullivan
College of Business, Northern Illinois University
128 Barsema Hall
DeKalb, IL 60115
(815) 753-6285
usullivan@niu.edu