Marketing in a Post-Disciplinary Era
ANZMAC 2016

5-7 December | University of Canterbury
Christchurch, New Zealand

Proceedings

Marketing in a Post-Disciplinary Era

Hosted by

UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY
Te Whare Wānanga o Waitaha
CHRISTCHURCH NEW ZEALAND

Proceedings

5-7 December 2016

University of Canterbury, Christchurch, New Zealand

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Conference Chairs

Associate Professor Sussie Morrish
Associate Professor Jörg Finsterwalder
Associate Professor Girish Prayag
Department of Management, Marketing
and Entrepreneurship
University of Canterbury

Conference website:
http://www.anzmac.org/conference

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WELCOME FROM THE PRESIDENT

As the president of ANZMAC, I would like to welcome you all to the 2016 annual conference of the Australian & New Zealand Marketing Academy. This premier conference brings together both top and emerging academics from our region and across the globe. ANZMAC is a platform that creates a wonderful sense of belonging year after year and nurtures a collegial and scholarly atmosphere. I am very pleased with the high level of interest in our annual conference and thank you for your ongoing support of our academic community.

I would like to thank our gracious host, the Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship at the University of Canterbury, for their excellent work without which this conference would not have been possible. I wish you have a rewarding and enjoyable experience at the 2016 ANZMAC Conference in Christchurch at the University of Canterbury.

Dr Laszlo Sajtos
President, ANZMAC

Thank you to our Gold Sponsor:

Associate Professor Sussie Morrish Associate Professor Girish Prayag Associate Professor Jörg Finsterwalder

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A VERY WARM WELCOME FROM THE CONFERENCE CHAIRS

Kia ora and welcome to the ANZMAC 2016 Conference in Christchurch, New Zealand.

On behalf of the University of Canterbury, the Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship, and the local organising committee, we are delighted to have you with us for both the Doctoral Colloquium and the Main Conference. We would especially like to extend a warm welcome to all international delegates and those attending ANZMAC for the first time.

The conference attracted over 400 competitive paper submissions this year resulting in 301 paper presentations. Participants come from 28 different countries, making ANZMAC a truly global conference. A number of workshops as well as special sessions have been offered to reflect contemporary marketing issues. The 'Meet the Editors' session is certainly not to be missed! We have a number of top-tier marketing journals on the ABDC list represented at this conference. Furthermore, a range of these journals are also ANZMAC conference special issues. We hope that you find the oral presentations stimulating and the social events an opportunity to build or reinforce your existing networks in this part of the world.

ANZMAC 2016 is not only about academic presentations but also an opportunity for you to experience some of the best local foods and attractions in the region. With the welcome reception at The Christchurch Art Gallery and the Gala Dinner at The Tannery, we have brought together social events in themed venues that reflect 'Art' and 'Retailing'. We hope that these venues engage you not only visually but also tantalise all your senses.

This year's conference theme is 'Marketing in a Post-Disciplinary Era'. This theme reflects the fact that marketing co-exists in an environment that is constantly evolving and the discipline interfaces with other social sciences

disciplines, such as psychology and sociology. Increasingly, the marketing discipline is becoming more relevant to other fields such as engineering and natural sciences that recognise business knowledge to contribute significantly to the success of new discoveries and innovation. Increasingly, governments and research bodies encourage collaborations between and amongst scholars in advancing new knowledge to benefit society. We hope that you find the sessions on the theme of the conference of interest.

We would like to take this opportunity to thank all our sponsors and exhibitors for their generosity. Much gratitude also goes to all track chairs, reviewers, special session, and workshop coordinators for their tremendous effort. Finally, we would like to acknowledge the support of the UC School of Business and Economics in organising this conference. The assistance and support from the administrative and marketing staff have been invaluable.

We hope that the next few days you spend at UC and Christchurch are thought-provoking and rewarding. The Canterbury region is a beautiful part of New Zealand. Please take time to explore and enjoy what our region has to offer!

The ANZMAC 2016 Conference Co-Chairs,

A/Prof Sussie Morrish
A/Prof Girish Prayag and
A/Prof Jörg Finsterwalder

The Academy aims to provide an organisation for educators and practitioners interested in marketing theory and research. More specifically, the Academy has the purpose to:

Provide an Australia/New Zealand network in the field of research in marketing;

Provide a forum for research presentations and evaluations;

Provide publication outlets for high quality research;

Support young researchers in the marketing field;

Foster a broad variety of methodological approaches and research issues in marketing, and encourage cross-fertilisation between approaches;

Develop an agenda of research topics;

Recognise contributions to the marketing discipline;

To carry out any activity which the Academy considers to promote any or all the purposes as set out above.

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CENGAGE Learning

Professor Saras D. Sarasvathy is a member of the Strategy, Entrepreneurship and Ethics area. In addition to MBA and doctoral courses in entrepreneurship at Darden, she teaches in doctoral programs in Europe, Asia, Latin America and Africa. In 2007, Sarasvathy was named one of the top 18 entrepreneurship professors by Fortune Small Business magazine. In 2013, Babson College awarded her an honorary doctorate for the impact of her work on entrepreneurship education. In addition to the Jamuna Raghavan Chair at the Indian Institute of Management, Bangalore, Sarasvathy currently holds a chair professorship from Nankai University in Tianjin, China and a jubilee professorship from Chalmers University in Gothenburg, Sweden. In addition to teaching awards from other universities, she won the 2015 Mead-Colley Honored Faculty Award from UVA for active engagement with students.

A leading scholar on the cognitive basis for high-performance entrepreneurship, Sarasvathy serves on the editorial boards of top management journals and as Associate Editor of top entrepreneurship journals. Her scholarly work has won several awards, including the 2001 William H. Newman Award from the Academy of Management and the 2009 and 2015 Gerald E. Hills Best Paper Awards from the American Marketing Association. Her book *Effectuation: Elements of Entrepreneurial Expertise* was nominated for the 2009 Terry Book Award by the Academy of Management. Effectuation is widely acclaimed as a rigorous framework for understanding the creation and growth of new organizations and markets. The research program based on effectuation involves over a hundred scholars from around the world whose published and working papers can be found at www.effectuation.org. Sarasvathy has also developed several cases and other instructional materials to teach effectuation. Her co-authored textbook, *Effectual Entrepreneurship* won the Gold Medal in the 2012 Axiom Business Book Awards. In addition to a master's degree in industrial administration, Saras received her Ph.D. in information systems from Carnegie Mellon University. Her thesis on entrepreneurial expertise was supervised by Herbert Simon, 1978 Nobel Laureate in Economics. Sarasvathy serves on the board of LENDING TREE (NASDAQ TREE) and writes a monthly column for the CORPORATE DOSSIER section of THE ECONOMIC TIMES.

Keynote Address: Entrepreneurial Marketing in a Post-disciplinary Era

Abstract
Through a series of actual stories of entrepreneurs co-creating different elements of their markets through the principles of effectuation, the keynote will present ways to bridge rigor and relevance in our cross-disciplinary research. In particular, the focus will be on intersubjective mechanisms that straddle social psychology, economics, education, public policy and history.

The double-blind review process is an intense and time consuming task and the ANZMAC Conference Committee is most appreciative of the contribution made by these Track Chairs for 2016.

Climate Change & Marketing

Prof Michael Hall
University of Canterbury

A/Prof Haywantee Ramkissoon
Curtin University

Consumer Behaviour

Dr Joshua Newton
Deakin University

Dr Laszlo Sajtos
University of Auckland

Consumer Culture Theory

A/Prof Ekant Veer
University of Canterbury

Dr Shelagh Ferguson
University of Otago

Cross Disciplinary Impact of Marketing

A/Prof Sussie Morrish
University of Canterbury

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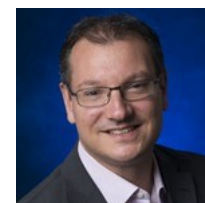
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University of Otago

International & Intercultural Marketing

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Curtin University

Dr Isaac Cheah
Curtin University

Marketing Communication

Dr Lukas Parker
RMIT

Dr Mark Brown
University of Queensland

Marketing Education

Dr Agung Yoga Sembada
Monash University

Dr Tania von der Heidt
Southern Cross University

Marketing Research

Dr Bodo Lang
University of Auckland

Dr Stanislav Stakhovych
Monash University

Retailing & Distribution

Prof Paul Ballantine
University of Canterbury

Prof Andrew Parsons
Auckland University of Technology

Services Marketing & Customer Experience

A/Prof Jörg Finsterwalder
University of Canterbury

Dr Alastair Tombs
University of Queensland

Social Marketing

A/Prof Lucie Ozanne
University of Canterbury

Prof Sharyn Rundle-Thiele
Griffith University

Strategic Marketing & Branding

Prof Leyland Pitt
Simon Fraser University

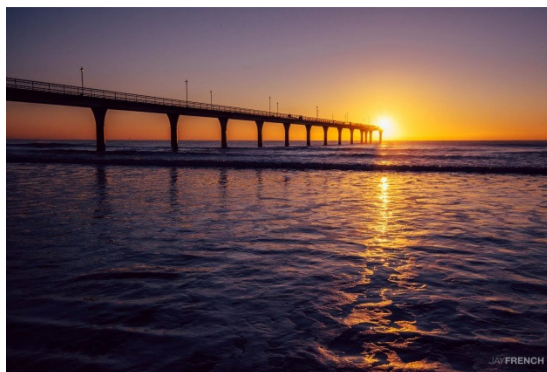Dr Joseph Vella
University of Malta

Tourism & Marketing

A/Prof Girish Prayag
University of Canterbury

Dr Chris Chen
University of Canterbury

Paper Overview

Special Sessions and Workshops

A total of nine selected special interest sessions will run throughout the conference with some of our Marketing community's most senior academics presenting and discussing topical issues in our field. Among these special sessions there will be a President's Special Session that features a strategic review of the role and value of ANZMAC to members and other stakeholders. The conference also offers three workshops (Service Research Retreat Workshop, CCT & Interpretive Workshop and Case Teaching, Research, and Publishing Workshop). Keeping with usual practice, the conference will also have a "Meet the Editors" session for the latest news on the world of journal publications.

Competitive Papers

This year 301 papers are presented in 16 tracks. All of these papers underwent a formal double-blind review process and all papers which have passed the competitive review process are accepted for presentation at ANZMAC 2016. These papers conform to the academic research conference guidelines as set down by the Department of Innovation, Industry, Science and Research (DIISR), and other organisations. For Australian delegates, all such papers which have passed the competitive review process are accepted for presentation at ANZMAC 2016. Proceedings are Category E, Conference Publications: E1 * Full Written Paper * Refereed. ANZMAC 2016 also complies with the requirements of the Performance-Based Research Fund administered by the Tertiary Education Commission and other organisations. For New Zealand delegates, the Proceedings are classed as Quality-Assured Conference Papers (Refereed).

Competitive papers submitted in 2016 totalled 413 manuscripts with 301 papers accepted for presentation. A large number of high quality submissions were received and with a rejection rate of around 25%, the calibre of papers presented at the Conference is of a very high standard. These figures show the importance of the review process - not simply in helping us to select the best papers, but also in providing feedback for authors and assisting in the process of paper revision and re-submission.

All of the papers in this conference have been subjected to a double-blind refereeing process. Papers written by academic members of the ANZMAC 2016 Organising Committee and Track Chairs were also double-blind reviewed using the same refereeing process, with particular precautions taken to protect the anonymity of authors and reviewers. We gratefully acknowledge the 607 reviewers who contributed their time and experience to this process.

Paper Submission & Review Process

The information contained in this book of abstracts is correct as best we were able to determine at the time of publishing. Considerable effort was made to include all papers in the proceedings and the accompanying book of abstracts, and to the best of our knowledge all papers accepted for presentation at the conference are included. Author and paper details have been checked and edited with information provided to us by the authors.

Competitive papers submitted to the ANZMAC 2016 conference are required to adhere to strict style and length requirement. It should be noted that all successful authors were issued with guidelines for the preparation of the final electronic copy. The maximum length of all papers was seven (7) pages including a title page with abstract (inclusive of all references, figures, tables, etc.). This guideline was imposed throughout.

By submitting their work for presentation at the Conference, authors have assigned to ANZMAC and the University of Canterbury, a non-exclusive, royalty free copyright licence to use their work and publish it in full or in part in the proceedings and on the World Wide Web with the ANZMAC Conference papers or for any other purpose in connection with the ANZMAC Conference.

The ANZMAC 2016 Conference Proceedings will also be uploaded on the ANZMAC 2016 website:
http://www.mang.canterbury.ac.nz/ANZMAC/index.shtml

and will also be available via the ANZMAC organisation website
http://www.anzmac.org/conferences/view/2016-ANZMAC-Marketing-in-a-Post-Disciplinary-Era

The abstracts for these papers also appear in the printed "ANZMAC 2016 Book of Abstracts" provided to all delegates.

2016 Reviewers

The double-blind review process is an intense and time consuming task and the ANZMAC Conference Committee is most appreciative of the contribution made by the following reviewers for 2016.

A
Carlo Aall
Hormoz Ahmadi
Pervaiz Ahmed
Tanvir Ahmed
Jeremy Ainsworth
Rob Aitken
Bader Albatati
Celeste Alcaraz
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Katayoun Zafari
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RMIT's School of Economics, Finance and Marketing are proud to be the hosts of ANZMAC 2017, *Marketing for Impact*….

The conference will be held 4 - 6 December 2017, at RMIT Melbourne City Campus.

For more information, visit:
www.rmit.edu.au/anzmac2017

Social Programme

Monday 5 December 2016

Welcome Reception – 18:30 to 20:30
Christchurch Art Gallery, Worcester Boulevard, Christchurch

Please join us for a special opportunity to renew old acquaintances or make some new friends in the stunning Christchurch Art Gallery. The venue is the public art gallery for the city of Christchurch. It has its own substantial art collection. Christchurch Art Gallery Te Puna o Waiwhetu was designed by the Buchan Group. Enjoy some light refreshments and enjoy some surprise entertainment.

Coach transportation will depart the Business and Law car park for the Art Gallery at 18:00 on Monday after the AGM. You will need to make your own way back to your hotel/home after the event. For those staying in town, the venue is within walking distance from the conference hotels (Breakfree, Rendezvous and Rydges).

Cost included in full delegate registration (not in student registration). If you have indicated your attendance, you will find a ticket in your registration pack.

Wednesday 7 December 2016

If you are staying in one of the ANZAMC hotels your transportation for the conference dinner will have been allocated from the hotel and will depart at 18:30.

If you are not staying in one of the ANZMAC hotels, you will need to be at the following pick-up points at 18: 30 sharp.(Chateau on the Park, Rydges Latimer, Rendezvous and Breakfree)

Buses will also depart from the Business and Law car park at UC at 18:30
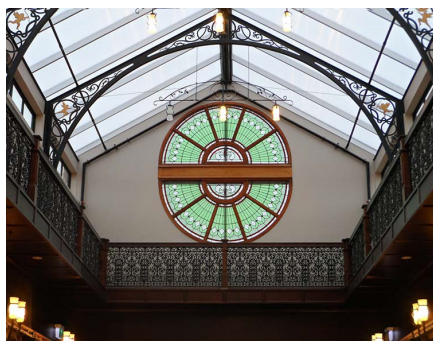
Gala Dinner – 19:00 to 23:30
The Tannery, 3 Garlands Road, Woolston

Get your dancing shoes on! The gala ANZMAC conference dinner caps off a great conference with delicious food, sumptuous wine, fantastic music, and an array of awards. In ANZMAC tradition, the flag will be handed on to next year's host and then the dancing begins.

Coach transportation will depart the ANZMAC hotels* at 18:30 on Wednesday. Coaches will depart the venue at 23:00 and 23:30 for the ANZMAC hotels, the central city, and the university. Cost included in full delegate registration (not in student registration). If you have indicated your attendance, you will find a ticket in your registration pack.

The Tannery is a Boutique Retail & Arts Emporium with over 60 retail stores, arts & crafts, fashion & shoes, books. The Tannery has evolved unassumingly into Christchurch's premier retail destination. Locals and tourists alike describe it as "Quirky, eclectic and worth finding" and "Old-time charm meets modern attraction".

Full Papers and Abstracts

ANZMAC 2016 – Best Papers in Track

Tracks	Title	Authors
Consumer Behaviour	The Need for Smell Instrument: Development and Cross-National Validation	Thomas Salzberger, Monika Koller (WU Vienna) Arne Floh (University of Surrey) Alexander Zauner (WU Vienna) Maria Sääksjärvi and Hendrik Schifferstein (Technische Universiteit Delft)
Digital Marketing & Social Media	Emotional Contagion in Computer-Mediated Communication: The Effects of Smileys on Receivers' Emotions	Katja Lohmann, Sebastian Pyka, Cornelia Zanger (Chemnitz University of Technology)
Entrepreneurship & Innovation	Consumer Motivations to Switch to Disruptive Technology Products	Apinya Kamolsook, Yuosre Badir (Asian Institute of Technology) and Frank Björn (Sophia University)
Industrial & Business Relationship Marketing	Emergent versus planned supplier segmentation in the retail sector	William Newell and Chris Ellegaard (Aarhus Universitet)
International & Intercultural Marketing	Consumer Motivations for Pursuing Loyalty Program Rewards: A Cross-Cultural Perspective	Chan, Haksin; Yang, Xin; Yu, Yang; Hang Seng Management College, and Fock, Henry, Hong Kong Baptist University
Marketing Communications	Testing the Validity of the Phillips and McQuarrie (2004) Typology of Visual Rhetoric: Some Preliminary Findings	Anurag Hingorani , Paul Wang (University of Technology Sydney)
Marketing Education	Marketing education in a post-disciplinary era: What do employers want from marketing graduates?	Ellen McArthur, Krzysztof Kubacki, Bo Pang and Celeste Alcaraz (Griffith University)
Marketing Research	Repurchase Acceleration – A Method to Remedy Hypothetical Bias and Projection Bias in Intention-Based Loyalty Measurement	Songting Dong (University of New South Wales) Ping Zhao (Tsinghua University) and Deqiang Zou (Fudan University)
Services Marketing & Customer Experience	Consumer engagement in online communities – a practice based approach	Hoda El Kolaly, Heidi Winklhofer and Linda Peters (University of Nottingham)
Retailing & Distribution	Beware of Strangers … unless you're looking at making connections for shopping tips	Thomas Tabitha, Kirsten Jane Robertson, Maree Thyne (University of Otago) Preeti Krishnam Lyndem (Indian Institute of Management)
Social Marketing	Not All Narrative Thoughts Are Created Equal: Narrative Closure and Counterfactual Thinking in Responsible Drinking Narratives	Davide Christian Orazi, Jill Lei and Liliana Bove (University of Melbourne)
Strategic Marketing & Branding	A True Measure of Equivalence? Brand Equity from the Financial Perspective	Amanda Blair (Royal Institute of Technology), Caitlin Ferreira, Elsamari Botha (University of Cape Town Ringgold) and Kirk Plangger (King's College London)

Track 01: Climate Change and Marketing

The Salience of Environmental Sustainability Knowledge Sharing among Nature-Based Tourism Operators.

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Abstract
Knowledge Management (KM) favours knowledge as an asset that organizations must proactively share with all stakeholders. However, in reality managers are fearful of their firm's core competency knowledge being exploited by competitors. This restriction presents KM as a "romantic" business strategy, because cases of unrestricted knowledge-sharing among stakeholders such as managers, staff, customers, and business partners, the public and competitors are rare. This study provides an empirical qualitative analysis of knowledge-sharing. Empirical data were collected through in-depth interviews with senior executives and specialist staff, field observations and analysis of company documents. Results found that managers are passionate advocates of environmental sustainability and therefore ardently share their knowledge and beliefs to promote and achieve environmental sustainability objectives. The findings support the notion that environmental sustainability knowledge is a strategic organizational resource that enables NTOs to implement environmental sustainability practices and to achieve their marketing objectives.

Keywords: Knowledge Management, Environmental Sustainability, Nature-based Tourism, Green Marketing

Track: Climate Change and Marketing

Introduction

Knowledge Management (KM) theory posits that knowledge is the most valuable of all organizational assets in the current knowledge economy (Barney, 1991). Core competency knowledge (Leonard-Barton, 1992) must be shared internally and externally in order for knowledge to be considered as the most critical business asset (Grant, 1996). This form of knowledge provides firms with sustainable competitive advantage and the ability to innovate processes and products (Leonard-Barton, 1992). In reality, managers are reluctant to share specific business and technical knowledge openly, both within and beyond their organizational boundaries. Cases of open, core competency knowledge dissemination with staff, customers, business partners, competitors and the public (hereafter referred to as 'stakeholders') are extremely rare in the KM and Marketing literature. In the current era of increased environmental concern, environmental sustainability is becoming a strategic marketing imperative for business and research, especially in the context of depleted resources, increased energy costs, increased level of pollution, and damage to the natural environment (Ip-Soo-Ching & Zyngier, 2014). The sharing of environmental sustainability knowledge demonstrates that knowledge from a KM paradigm can be shared generously and effectively among stakeholders because the aim of Nature-Based Tourism Operators (NTOs) is to care for and protect the natural environment. This research investigates environmental sustainability knowledge using a KM approach among NTOs because they depend on the sustained quality of the natural environment for their existence and success.

The Knowledge-Based View (KBV) of the firm suggests that intellectual resources are the most valuable organizational assets because they generate sustainable competitive advantage (Alavi, Kayworth, & Leidner, 2005). In the current era of greater focus by businesses on environmental sustainability strategies, the KBV of the firm has developed to encompass environmental sustainability (Ip-Soo-Ching & Zyngier, 2014). Nature-based Tourism Operators (NTOs) operate and depend on the natural environment for ongoing success. They create knowledge of environmental sustainability (hereafter, Environmental Sustainability Knowledge) which is defined in this research as knowledge of protecting the natural environment within an environmentally-focused mindset. NTOs rely on their environmental sustainability knowledge to operate in the natural environment. It allows them to reduce their impact on the natural environment, attain competitive advantage, and added benefits such as recognition for promoting environmental causes. Environmental sustainability knowledge resides within individuals at NTOs (leaders, specialist staff, and team members who are focused on managing environmental sustainability programs), where their primary role is the sharing and application of the knowledge that is created within the firm. Most organizations now recognize the critical importance of sharing knowledge within their value chain but are reluctant to do so (Spender 1993). This attitude prevents firms in many industries access to a unified knowledge base. By sharing their environmental sustainability knowledge with stakeholders, NTOs are able to integrate their knowledge. The findings of this research reveal that environmental sustainability knowledge is benevolently shared by NTOs among stakeholders, including local communities.

The environmental impacts of tourism on the natural environment

The tourism industry is dependent on the ongoing quality of the natural environment in which it operates (Williams & Ponsford, 2009). In particular, tourism activities such as scuba diving and coastal activities are heavily dependent on the natural environment for sustainable success (Flagestad & Hope, 2001). The favorable natural environmental quality of beaches, coral reefs, mountains, deserts, forests and other types of wilderness areas form the key attractions of destinations that tourists have come to enjoy (Hall, 1998). Mathison and Walls (1982)

demonstrated that the natural environment is the foundation of a tourism destination because in the absence of an attractive environment, there would be very few tourism attractions. Environmental sustainability knowledge provides NTOs with the awareness of the impact of their business operations on the natural environment, combined with their belief in and passion for environmental sustainability.

Research methodology

Research in environmental sustainability knowledge-sharing in the fields of Knowledge Management, Environmental Sustainability and Tourism is underdeveloped (Ruhanen and Cooper 2004). We believe that it would be inappropriate to design and implement a quantitative research methodology to investigate the phenomena of open knowledge-sharing of environmental sustainability. A quantitative research methodology was initially considered to investigate environmental sustainability knowledge-sharing activities among stakeholders on account of ease-of-access to these research populations. However, approaching competitors of NTOs and the general public would have presented accessibility and privacy issues. As such, an interpretative and qualitative research approach was deemed to be more appropriate to investigating the phenomena of environmental sustainability knowledge-sharing. Information and insights from the research population, comprising of senior management and technical staff, were collected through on-site in-depth interviews. Ethnographical observations were necessary to investigate environmental sustainability knowledge-sharing. Ethnography provides researchers the opportunity to observe a phenomenon unhindered and with the participants' trust (Rakic and Chambers 2009; O'Gorman). Employing a qualitative and case study research method is highly applicable in Knowledge Management, Environmental Sustainability and Tourism (Mason & Pauleen, 2003). Furthermore, the case study approach is a valid research method when seeking answers to questions of "why" and "how" associated with investigator(s) who have little control over events of contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context (Yin, 1984). Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007) provide further support by suggesting that case studies provide richness in data collection, analysis and discussion that support the building of a new theory based on emergent phenomena in a particular context, such as environmental sustainability knowledge-sharing. For the nature of this research, it was important for the researchers to have contextual materials to describe the particular setting of each case and access to a wide array of information, in order to provide an in-depth illustration for the reader (Creswell, 1998).

Research propositions

This research presents the following two research questions:

Q1: Why is environmental sustainability knowledge a core capability of Nature-Based Tourism Operators (NTO)?
Q2: How NTO managers share their environmental sustainability knowledge with stakeholders (staff, customers, business partners, competitors and the public)?

Findings

The importance of environmental sustainability knowledge for Nature-based Tourism Operators (NTOs)
The natural environments in which NTOs operate are recognized as vital to their success. NTO leaders believe that they are responsible for the maintenance and protection of the natural environment. Consequently, NTO leaders recognize environmental sustainability knowledge as a strategic resource that allows them to operate responsibly and successfully in the natural environment. Therefore, NTOs benefit from environmental sustainability knowledge as a

strategic asset. NTO leaders identified environmental sustainability knowledge as a *resource* that is integral to their overall business operations. Based on the combined responses from NTO leaders, environmental sustainability knowledge serves their organizations in their environmental sustainability implementations, business operations, marketing, publicity, customer satisfaction and preservation the natural environment for future generations. In addition, environmental sustainability knowledge enables NTOs to choose the right technology and processes to implement environmental sustainability programs efficiently. Evidence obtained from the respondents reveals the critical importance of environmental sustainability knowledge for NTOs in their operation within the natural environment. Respondents at the Great Barrier Reef explained that they would not be able to operate within the Great Barrier Reef without this knowledge, as there are heavy penalties for not complying with environmental laws. Since environmental sustainability knowledge is a critical knowledge resource for NTOs, self-interest for business survival in the competitive tourism industry should prevent managers from sharing critical knowledge with stakeholders. However, the respondents all agreed that without environmental sustainability knowledge, an NTO would not be able to operate sustainably and efficiently. NTOs managers *do* share environmental sustainability knowledge with stakeholders, demonstrating that managers can indeed share knowledge openly within a competitive industry, to the benefit of all.

Knowledge-sharing of environmental sustainability with staff
The notion of knowledge-sharing with staff seems self-evident, however many organizations experience significant difficulties in generating the enthusiasm and trust needed to effectively share knowledge among staff (Husted & Michailova, 2002; Iskoujina & Roberts, 2015). NTOs dedicate themselves in educating their staff in environmental sustainability through education and training. Often staff have a lack of environmental sustainability motivation and knowledge upon commencing their employment, therefore NTOs are obliged to educate them to ensure their organisation's survival and sustained competitive advantage. Critics may caution such open knowledge-sharing among staff. The argument may also be made that NTOs do not openly share their environmental sustainability knowledge in a benign environment but are forced to do so due to lack of staff motivation and education, and for business survival. Nevertheless, the authors found that managers and staff do indeed share environmental sustainability knowledge openly within an organizational environment in which the enrichment of environmental knowledge is highly valued. NTO staff vary in their level of environmental sustainability motivation and education upon commencing their employment. Their managers believe that they should be trained in environmental sustainability; thus NTOs share environmental sustainability openly among staff by educating them about CO_2 emissions, resource consumptions and nature documentaries and having Organisational structure and teams such as Green Teams.

 Knowledge-sharing of environmental sustainability with customers
Organisations share knowledge with customers for the purpose of providing product information, building brands, delivering customer satisfaction and maintaining relationship (Sveiby 2001; Im & Rai 2007). There is no question that NTOs build their brands, reputations and market positioning through their active environmental sustainability knowledge-sharing activities with customers. As environmental sustainability knowledge is a core competency for NTOs, questions could be raised as to why they freely share their environmental sustainability knowledge of operating in the natural environment. Some critics may say this is for the self-serving purpose of NTOs positioning themselves as responsible environmental sustainability stewards in their customers' minds. However, NTOs have additional objectives that compel them to openly and generously share their core competency knowledge with customers. The

NTO owners in this research are passionate believers of environmental sustainability while at the same time being tourism entrepreneurs who want their customers to experience and enjoy the natural environment during their sojourn (Lundberg, Friedman & Wall-Reinius, 2014). NTOs believe they should educate customers about how to appreciate and maintain the natural environment. They are aware that most of their customers live in urbanized areas and have sparse interaction with the natural environment which is usually only experienced during holidays. Therefore, NTO owners take the opportunity to educate customers about reducing CO_2 emissions, recycling, gardening, biodiversity and living sustainably. The authors find ample evidence that NTOs openly share their environmental sustainability with customers, and not from motivations that could be associated with branding, market positioning and publicity objectives. The knowledge that customers obtain from their vacations enables them to understand, appreciate and even become advocates of environmental sustainability. Experiential tourism (Curtin, 2005) is reinforced by the environmental sustainability knowledge provided by NTOs.

Knowledge-sharing of environmental sustainability with competitors
Organizations are disposed to resist sharing core competency knowledge with competitors on account of legitimate or perceived threats of losing competitive advantage (Bock, Zmud, Kim & Lee, 2005). Examples of competing organizations preventing their knowledge from being appropriated by rival firms are well documented in academic and general literature (Leibeskind, 1996; Brown & Duguid, 2001; Farley 2016; Battersby & Danckert 2016). Through acquiring the core competency knowledge of competing organizations, a firm can obtain critical knowledge of providing superior quality, value and satisfaction to its customers (Crane 2005; Jones 2008). The concept of coopetition views rival firms constantly engaged in competitive and collaborative activities (Tsai 2002). Unlike other industries, where firms are secretive in sharing their core competency knowledge with rivals, this research demonstrates that NTOs freely share core competency knowledge of environmental sustainability among competing NTOs. The knowledge that is shared keeps the NTOs in the knowledge loop of each other's environmental sustainability activities even though projects, activities and processes can be copied. It is clear that NTOs engage in coopetition while they also share environmental sustainability knowledge for the sake of collectively protecting the natural environment on which they all depend for success. Despite the criticism that NTOs share environmental sustainability with rival firms based on collaboration to enlarge their customers' base and market, NTOs openly share their knowledge with their competitors. This therefore cannot be dismissed as simply as coopetition.

Knowledge-sharing of environmental sustainability with communities and the public
Studies on KM activities between firms and their local communities are limited. NTOs who participated in this study stressed that educating the public about environmental sustainability is essential because of a general lack of environmental literacy and concern. Local habitants are often nonchalant about the natural beauty of their environment. Littering, pollution, environmental damage and over-fishing are major environmental problems that are encountered by NTOs. NTOs view "the public" as the population of the country in which their operations are located, who must not only be educated about environmental sustainability but also understand the reasons for learning about environmental sustainability. The respondents at Borneo Divers, Explore Asia Tours and Pulau Tiga believed that the public in Malaysia must be educated about environmental issues such as littering and illegal fishing. Soneva also educates the public about environmental sustainability in the Maldives and Thailand. However, the relevancy of environmental sustainability, while gaining recognition in developed

economies, is not yet relevant to the public in developing economies such as Malaysia, Thailand and Maldives.

Limitations and future research directions

This study has several limitations which could be valuable as avenues for future research. A qualitative case study research approach and open-ended in-depth interviews were used in this study to identify NTO strategies and practices of environmental sustainability and KM. However, qualitative research follows the tradition of impartial observation, analysis and reporting of findings; it relates to specific instances and provides a rich understanding of these specific instances and cannot be easily generalized in relation to other environments (Schofield, 2002; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Therefore, it is suggested that future research use a mixed method approach, using quantitative scale across industry sectors which will test and strengthen the enhanced framework outlined in Figure 1 above. Furthermore, this research was unable to clearly quantify all of the nature-based tourism components. Further research in this area requires a more precise definition to be broadly accepted and for this definition to be operationalized to provide the basis of some measurement procedure.

Conclusion and Managerial Implications

NTOs want to transform stakeholders into environmental advocates by openly sharing their environmental sustainability knowledge; thus protecting the natural environment and ensuring ongoing business and ecological success. Despite NTOs being open to criticism that they share environmental sustainability knowledge simply to educate unmotivated and uneducated staff, for branding and publicity advantages, coopetition, and corporate social responsibility, the study's findings provide evidence that NTOs share their knowledge openly in the benign environment in which environmental sustainability knowledge flourishes. Counter to other types of business knowledge (e.g. R&D, manufacturing and financial) which is jealously guarded and shared only among trusted stakeholders, environmental sustainability knowledge is benevolently shared among stakeholders by NTOs. Knowledge-sharing of environmental sustainability in NTOs is driven by their leaders' belief in, and passion for, the natural environment. As NTOs hold deep convictions about environmental sustainability, they believe that the associated knowledge must be openly shared among stakeholders for the successful implementation of environmental sustainability initiatives. Environmental sustainability processes form NTOs core competency knowledge and enable them to, differentiate their brands, attract tourists, reduce costs and protect their natural environment, including reducing CO_2 emissions. In addition, specific to NTOs, environmental sustainability is an ideology and objective that requires passion and belief to influence staff, customers and communities. This is only possible when managers are passionate believers of environmental sustainability themselves and are therefore willing to openly share their knowledge.

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**Shaping Brand Image through Social and Environmental CSR:
The Roles of CSR Image and CSR Information Sources**

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Abstract
In recent years, scholars and practitioners have come to regard corporate social responsibility (CSR) as a way of building brand value by tackling climate change and other social/environmental challenges. This study uses international consumer data to test a number of novel hypotheses about the effectiveness of distinct CSR types in building brand value, the exact effects of CSR on distinct dimensions of brand image, and the effectiveness of distinct marketing channels in distributing CSR information. The results indicate that CSR image influences all dimensions of brand image. Social CSR activities appear to be more influential than environmental CSR activities, which still are relevant to consumers. While CSR information from brand-internal sources effectively builds CSR image, it suffers from lack of credibility and thus tends to negatively affect brand image. By contrast, CSR information from external sources comes with credibility benefits and thus positively affects all dimensions of brand image.

Keywords: corporate social responsibility, environmental sustainability, customer loyalty, brand image, information sources

Track: Climate change and marketing

What Influences Australians to Buy Eco-Friendly FMCGs? – An Integrated Model

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Abstract
This paper aims to understand Australian consumers' purchase intentions towards eco-friendly fast moving consumer goods and whether the existing green marketing activities have an impact on consumers' psyche. Most importantly, it seeks to use an integrated model that will better explain the factors that affect purchase intention since previous research in the field has come up with varying results. The purpose of employing an integrated model is to incorporate variables that better explain the effect of these factors on consumers' green product purchase intentions. The study seeks to closely examine the mediating role of green trust on consumers' purchase intentions. This research will not only have practical implications for the marketers of such products, but will also contribute significantly to the body of knowledge on this subject.

Keywords: green marketing, eco-friendly, green trust, FMCG, purchase intention

Track: Consumer Behaviour, Climate Change and Marketing

Characterising the green consumer: who wastes food and what are the potential solutions to household food waste?

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Abstract

This paper reports data from a group of 'green consumers'. Use of the ordered probit model suggests that green consumers are not dissimilar from the general population; wealthy younger males, who have young children and who eat out frequently, are more likely to waste food. Older females who worry about the cost of food waste and who know the difference between "use by" and "best before" dates are less likely to waste food. Hence, effective communications and waste intervention strategies need to focus on the "worst" offenders in terms of food waste. The survey showed that a wide variety of measures to reduce food waste were acceptable to the respondents, including the development of renewable energy, funding of infrastructure to support centralised composting and price incentives for home composting. Education and marketing campaigns promoting second-grade produce was also acceptable to respondents. The main contribution of this study is to provide practical information for local government on the acceptability of policy measures to reduce food waste.

Keywords: food waste, socio-demographics, policy measures, probit model.

Track: Climate Change and Marketing

Background and conceptual foundations

Agriculture is, arguably, the most influential anthropogenic force acting on the Earth's climate (Tilman et al., 2002). The goal of sustaining and increasing agricultural yields; minimising the harmful effects of industrial agriculture (Horrigan et al., 2002); while also reducing food waste, lies at the heart of sustainable development. A large amount of food waste is lost throughout the entire food supply chain, causing serious environmental, economic and social issues. There is a growing literature on household food waste (Lea & Worsley, 2008; Koivupuro et al., 2012; Reynolds et al., 2014; Jörissen et al., 2015; Parizeau et al., 2015; Principato et al., 2015; Stancu et al., 2016; Thyberg et al., 2016). Consumers waste food due to a variety of behavioural factors, such as shopping, eating, meal planning, food preparation and food storage habits. Food waste is also linked to demographic factors such as age and household size (Wassermann & Schneider, 2005). Single households waste the most and households with children waste food due to the preferences of children (Jorisson et al., 2015). Food waste increases with higher educational qualifications as well as family size (Marangon et al., 2014). Studies have found that price-conscious consumers are less likely to waste food due to budget contracts and/or thriftiness (Koivupuro et al., 2012). Cecere et al., (2014) note that green consumers or recyclers are also waste producers and waste reduction behaviour is reliant on altruistic social attitudes. 'Green' consumers are conventionally defined as consumers who engage in green consumption which might extend to a range of activities, such as recycling, buying products with less packaging, buying local and organic food, fair-trade items and products that have a reduced environmental impact (Gilg et al., 2005). This research is important since food waste is a relatively new research field.

There is a substantial literature on the role of policy making in sustainable food consumption (Reisch et al., 2013). Secondi et al., (2015) found that awareness campaigns have grown markedly in EU countries (2015) and are underpinned by EU legislation and polices on food waste. In Australia, several initiatives have been undertaken to raise public awareness on food waste. The Queensland Government (2014) is committed to reducing the amount of waste sent to landfill by 50% in the next decade and action plans include charging a waste disposal levy, optimising the capture of re-use of gas from landfill and reducing household organic waste by kerbside green/food waste pilot bins, incentives, community gardens and education. The UK not-for-profit organisation, WRAP (Waste and Resources Action Program) launched a "love food, hate waste" campaign based on its research (WRAP, 2007; 2009) which was adopted in New South Wales and Victoria (EPA NSW, 2016; Sustainability Victoria, 2014). It is important to identify consumers who have similar characteristics in order to target messages at them. Sound understanding of different segments is needed if local public policy interventions are to succeed.

Methodology

The purpose of this paper is to identify the determinants of food waste. For the purpose of the survey, the following definition of food waste was selected: "avoidable" food waste refers to products that are still fit for human consumption at the time of discarding, or products that would have been edible if they had been eaten in time (Jörissen et al., 2015). The research question is what factors influence food waste practices? Based on the literature review, the following hypotheses have been advanced:

H1: Food waste behaviour amongst green consumers is influenced by demographic factors
H2: Food waste behaviour is influenced by green consumption habits and attitudes.

The population of interest was households in Townsville and Cairns, North Queensland. The survey contained a section on socio-demographic information and it included questions on the

amount of food wasted in a regular week, sustainable food-related behaviours, reasons for discarding food or avoiding food waste and level of acceptance for various policy measures. Scales to measure sustainable food behaviour were taken from the literature (Lea and Worsley, 2008). An online and paper-based survey was conducted in May, 2016. In order to reach green consumers, the survey was distributed face-to-face at two eco-festivals in Cairns and Townsville. It was expected that these participants would have some prior interest in food waste reduction. The internet was used to save time and money and access a larger number of participants (Sue and Ritter, 2007). To aid recruitment, snowballing and the professional networks of the authors were used. An incentive was used to encourage completion of surveys. A total of 350 consumers responded to the survey, but this paper is based solely on the analysis of the 'green' consumers (field work was ongoing at the time of paper submission). The data was analysed using the IBM SPSS Statistics 20 software and cross tabulations, frequency distributions and probit modelling were performed.

2.1 The ordered probit model
An ordered regression method is a suitable and practical technique to analyse the effects of multiple, explanatory variables on an ordinal outcome (Chen and Hughes, 2004; Green, 2002). It has some drawbacks, such as the complexity of method and the issue of how to handle missing data (Chen and Hughes, 2004).

The dependent variable Y in the ordered probit model used here refers to the different percentages of food and drink wasted in a week, in accordance with the survey. In the survey, consumers were presented with a Likert scale and were asked to respond to the question: "how much of the food and drink that you buy do you throw away in a regular week?" The answers (ranging from 'not at all' to 'greater than 30 per cent') indicated the propensity for wasting food and drink. The variables for this study, as shown in Table 1, are mostly measured in ways that make them consistent with those used in other studies (Engle and Kouka 1995; Foltz, Dasgupta and Devadoss 1999; Curtis, Mccluskey and Wahl 2007).

Table 1: Categories and definitions of independent variables used in the probit regression model

Socio-economic category	
Income	Annual household income
Age	Respondent's age
Gender	Dummy variable; 1 if the respondent is a male
Household size	Consumer's household size
Presence of young children	Dummy variable; 1 if the respondent has young children
Regional category	
Urban / Rural	Dummy variable; 1 if consumer is in urban areas
Consumer food consumption habits and attitudes	
Eatout	Frequency of eating out
Effort	Dummy variable; 1 if A good deal of effort is put into reducing food waste
Diff	Different degrees of knowing the difference between the "use by" and "best before"
Worrycost	Different degrees of worry about the cost of food I throw away

3.0 Results

The following section presents the results relating to demographics, food consumption habits and attitudes, propensity to waste food and attitudes towards policy measures designed to reduce food waste.

3.1 Influence of demographic factors on food waste

Table 2 presents the results of the ordered probit model for propensity to waste food. Income, age, being a male, presence of young children, frequency of eating out, efforts to reduce food waste, worrying about the cost of food waste, and knowledge of difference between the "use by" and "best before" are significant at 5% level. Income, being a male, presence of young children, and frequency of eating out are positively related to food waste. While age, efforts to reduce food waste, and worrying about the cost of food waste and knowledge of difference between the "use by and best before" are negatively related to food waste. Rich younger males, who have young children with frequent eating-out habits, are more likely to waste food. On the contrary, older females who worry about the cost of food waste, and know the difference between the "use by and best before", make an effort to reduce food waste, are more unlikely to waste food.

Table 2: Estimates of ordered probit model for food wasting behaviour

Variables	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P>z
Eatout	.2051	.0945	2.17	0.030**
Effort	-.5721	.1856	-3.08	0.002**
Diff	-.2442	.0768	-3.18	0.001**
Worrycost	-.1692	.0774	-2.18	0.029**
Gender (Male:1; Female: 0)	.3201	.1483	2.16	0.031**
Age	-.1130	.0559	-2.02	0.043**
Income	.1555	.0504	3.08	0.002**
Presence of young children	.6377	.1949	3.27	0.001**
Urban	.2634	.1717	1.53	0.125
Household size	-.1080	.0760	-1.42	.0155
Number of obs	224			
LR chi2(10)	84.13			
Prob > chi2	0.0000			
Log likelihood	-309.57322			
Pseudo R2	0.12			

Note: ** indicates 5% significance.

3.2 Acceptance of policy measures to reduce waste among sustainable consumers

The scale used to measure green consumption had ten items and seven behaviours were rated as important amongst respondents. See Figure 1. Respondents placed importance on healthy and pro-environmental behaviours such as avoiding processed food, buying local, in-season produce, eating free-range eggs, reusing, recycling and growing their own herbs or vegetables. Respondents were not inclined to rate "rating less red meat", "eating organic food" and "eating vegetarian meals" as important, suggesting limits to green consumption.

Figure 1: Green consumption
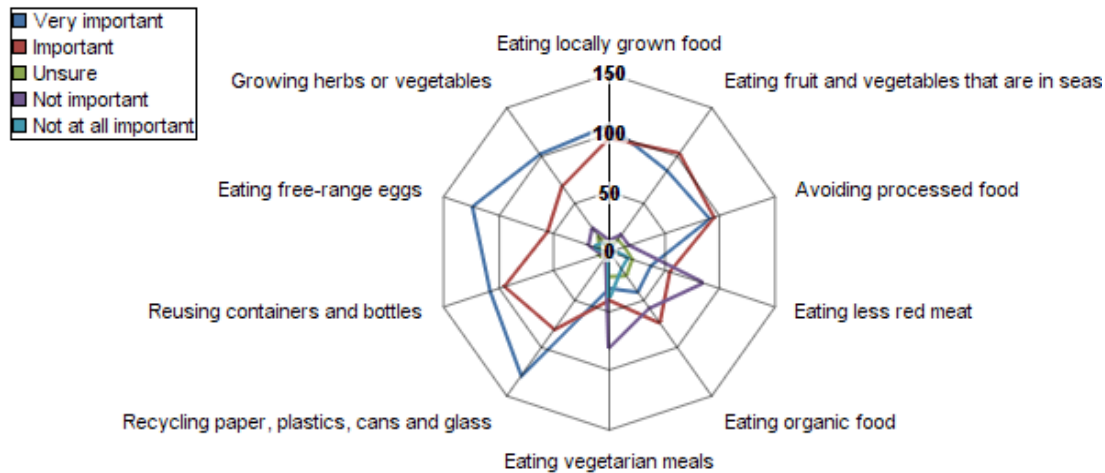
Note: beliefs were measured on a 5 point importance scale, where 1= very important, 2= important, 3=unsure, 4= not important and 5 = not at all important

Respondents were asked to indicate how acceptable a series of actions or policy measures to reduce food waste would be to them. The responses are shown in Table 3 and higher scores indicate unacceptability. All items were rated as acceptable, but some items were more acceptable than others, notably promotion of renewable energy technologies based on food waste, marketing campaings to promote 'seconds', provision of centralised/composting facilities. A ban on food waste received a "mostly acceptable to unsure" score.

Table 3: Acceptability of policy measures or actions to reduce food waste

	Mean:
Government incentives to promote renewable energy technologies based on food and agricultural waste	1.56
Marketing campaigns promoting 'seconds' or pest damaged fruit and vegetables	1.78
Provision of centralised/community composting facilities	1.88
Reduction in rates bill to encourage business and households to reduce food waste	1.94
Separate collection services for food waste by local council	2.02
More information on expiry dates	2.17
Ban on food waste entering landfill to encourage recovery of food waste	2.38

Note: acceptability was measured on a 5 point scale, where 1= completely acceptable; 2= mostly acceptable, 3=unsure, 4=mostly unacceptable and 5 = completely unacceptable

In an open-ended question, respondents were asked to give their views on actions that could limit food waste. Ideas included incentives for home composters, insinkorators, specific information on food safety; information on planning meals; using technology to conserve food for longer. Respondents had some concerns about actions, such as the smell of spoiled food in separate collection services. There were some doubts about the feasibility and practicality of proposals due to the time-poor nature of people's lives.

4.0 Discussion and conclusion

Our study shows that green consumers who waste food share similar demographic features to that of the general population. Hence, standardised educational campaigns could be effective. Secondi et al., (2015) found that young people waste more food than older people and females are more conscious of waste than males. Marangon et al., (2014) found that age and income affect food waste significantly. The WRAP study found that eating out affects food waste (WRAP, 2007; 2009), likewise, we found a significant relationship between eating outside of the home and food waste. Our study found that even 'green' consumers waste food but report very low levels of food waste. Likewise, Jörissen et al., (2015) suggested that people with a high environmental consciousness, or sensitivity to food waste, tend to waste less. Our study showed strong acceptance for composting food waste at home and economic rewards for generating less waste. There was less support for rigid and more rigorous measures such as a ban of food waste entering landfill. This could evoke protest among local residents since there are times when food should be discarded and issues may arise such as concern over smells, the attraction of animals to food waste and potential for illegal dumping. Some measures can be implemented easily and with relatively low cost, such as education and promotion of 'seconds', but others, such as renewable energy based on biomass, demand higher investment. There is a need to dig deeper into acceptability of policy measures, since many policy measures involve paying through the taxpayer system or through higher rates imposed by local government. Thyberg et al (2015) outline a large number of actions that would reduce food waste, including education, fiscal incentives, redistribution of food to charities, using food waste as animal feed, packaging that extends shelf life and the capture of energy from food waste. Priefer at al., (2016) argues that further research is needed on the impact and efficacy of measures to reduce food waste. A multi-stakeholder approach is required, involving industry, government and individuals. The contribution of this paper to the literature lies in exploring green consumers' practices of food wastage and their opinions on potential solutions to food waste. This study had its limitations, such as the small sample size, reliance on self-reported data and potential that the survey design resulted in socially desirable responses. Future research would benefit from comparing green consumers with the more mainstream consumers in terms of their perceptions and practices of food wastage, along with linking demographics to the acceptability of various policy measures. This type of comparative analysis will be critical to the success of food waste intervention schemes.

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Marketing to reduce business's carbon footprint: What should be in the mix?

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to propose a sustainability marketing mix (SMM) for sustainability-oriented marketing. The SMM draws on the American Marketing Association's redefining of Marketing's (AMA, 2013) and the concept of the marketing mix (AMA, 2016) concept. The SMM expands on the traditional four Ps, adding participants, process, and physical evidence, which are familiar from services marketing, and makes the case for the addition of Partnership. Demand-side consumption behaviours are unlikely to mitigate the impacts of climate change in the absence of more sustainability-oriented supply-side practices. Marketing strategy, as its quest is create value for customers, is argued to be the perfect vehicle for businesses to introduce these supply-side practices, permitting the simultaneous creation of value for society at large. The contribution of this paper is primarily conceptual. Propositions for future research directions in regard to the SMM are also presented here.

Keywords: Climate change, marketing mix, partnership, sustainability, Sustainability Marketing Mix

Track: Climate Change and Marketing

Introduction
The defined role of Marketing as a business function has changed and expanded over recent decades. This change is reflected in the American Marketing Association's (2013) recent explanations of Marketing moving from a dyad, involving consumers, for whom value was to be created, and organisations, seeking to capture value in exchange, to a triadic perspective. Marketing is now conceived as: "the activity set of institutions and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large" (AMA, 2013). This revised definition, which echoes the *societal marketing concept* proposed half a century ago (e.g., Kotler and Levy, 1969; Lazer, 1969), is a response to the call for the discipline's reinvention to be environmentally responsible (e.g., Kotler, 2011), but also marketplace calls for increased social responsibility from business (e.g. Cone Communications, 2015). Global warming, and the role that recent economic development has played in exacerbating this climate change, has contributed to marketing's business and societal role being recast. The creation of value for society at large is now expected to be considered simultaneously with the creation of value for consumers, and so assume priority in marketers' decision-making. The AMA's conceptualisation of Marketing is significant. As Grönroos (2006) observes, it is "considered the standard both for marketing practice and for academic research and education" (p. 398).

Value for society at large might be equated to the concept of *sustainable development*, described as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987, p. 43), which requires more responsible production and consumption. It is evident that more responsible consumption, at the scale needed to mitigate anthropogenic climate change, cannot be achieved by relying solely on consumers' changed buying preferences and behaviours (e.g., Gössling, Hall, Peeters and Scott, 2010), even if supported by public policy interventions: a commensurate move to more responsible business practices and outcomes must also occur. To date, however, a sustainability-oriented focus across corporate functions has proved rare, and may even be decreasing, according to a recent survey of sustainability executives from Business for Social Responsibility (BSR) member companies (Coulter, 2013). The most recent annual BSR/GlobeScan State of Sustainable Business Survey (2015), capturing the opinions of 700 experienced professionals in the Business for Social Responsibility network, cites the most significant leadership challenge facing business today is the integration of sustainability into core business operations, with human rights, workers' rights, and climate change were identified as the highest priority issues (NetImpact, 2015).

These results come at a time when more businesses are publishing annual sustainability reports as part of their governance ( ). A recent *Guardian Sustainable Business* headline captures sustainable business's state of flux with the question: "Is corporate sustainability reporting a waste of time?" (Leinaweaver, 2015). Among the issues cited in the Guardian article is potentially a perceived lack of efficacy and materiality in sustainability reporting due in part to a "confusing glut of standards and frameworks". Frameworks such as the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), the International Integrated Reporting Council (IIRC), and the Sustainability Accounting Standards Board (SASB), for example, each have their own approach to determining, reporting and assessing an organization's materiality (Leinaweaver, 2015). Overall, 87 per cent of ASX200 companies) are now reporting on sustainability to some level, however, the Australian Council of Superannuation Investors argues that a third of these companies "remain less than committed to sustainability reporting, with minimal or basic disclosures that do little to help investors make informed decisions" (Davies, 2015).

Paradoxically, these results coincide with evidence that a greater alignment between business and societal objectives can improve profitability (Porter and Kramer, 2006, 2011), and sustainability-led innovation can enhance the *triple bottom line*, improving the environment and society while simultaneously driving long-term profitability (Seebode et al., 2012). The late Ray Anderson, founder of Interface Inc, the world's largest manufacturer of commercial carpet tiles, made the point that as his business became more sustainability-oriented, profitability increased, partly from the business's setting up its own sustainability consultancy service (Interface Inc., 2016).

While the creation of societal value is now embraced as a key pillar of Marketing's purpose, to date, the frameworks and concepts of marketing have largely been silent on how sustainability performance and the simultaneous creation of individual consumer and societal value might be addressed. Charged with this pro-social role, how the marketing manager might make sustainability a key focus of the marketing function is an important question that has, as yet, received little formal attention. In particular, since the decision-making area of marketing is largely contained within the scope of the *marketing mix* concept, little direction has been provided as to how the marketing mix might contribute to more sustainability-oriented market offerings and the value-creation processes that underpin these.

While several valuable sustainability-marketing texts have recently emerged (Belz and Peattie, 2009; Martin and Schouten, 2012), these have discussed the concept of the marketing mix in very different ways. While Belz and Peattie have advance four Cs, "customer solutions, customer cost, communication, and convenience" (p. 33), criticising the traditional four Ps for "taking the seller's viewpoint, not the buyer's" (p. 33), Martin and Schouten adhere to the traditional four Ps of product, price, promotion and place, but note that these should be considered "in terms of sustainability's system conditions, which are "based on the laws of thermodynamics and natural cycles" (p. 25). Yet for a marketing manager wishing to engage with the pillars of sustainable development in a systematic manner across the marketing function, there is simply scant guidance for how to go about this
(Crittenden et al., 2011).

The purpose of this paper is to address this gap by inductively reconceiving and expanding on the concept of the marketing mix to develop a conceptual *Sustainability Marketing Mix* (SMM) framework, and to propose future research to validate this framework.
This SMM framework is to cascade from the inclusion of sustainability considerations at each level of the strategic marketing planning process, and permit triple-bottom line consideration in each of the critical marketing strategy areas needed for achieving a sustainability-oriented performance. We argue that sustainability aspirations should permeate a business's strategic thinking, reflected, initially, in its vision and mission, in order for the business to make unequivocal and strategic decisions at the operational level within the scope of its marketing mix. An example of this commitment is seen in the vision and mission of Interface Inc.: "To be the first company that, by its deeds, shows the entire industrial world what sustainability is in all its dimensions: People, process, product, place and profits — by 2020 — and in doing so we will become restorative through the power of influence" (Interface Inc., 2016).

Critically, we propose that, in order to achieve the outcomes necessary to deliver on sustainable develop and mitigate a business's contribution to climate change, the traditional four Ps understanding of the marketing mix does not provide marketing managers with sufficient guidance. We expand the marketing mix by including the three elements familiar to marketers from Booms and Bitner's (1981) extended marketing mix for services: *people* (reverting to the

original term, *participants*, in order to avoid confusion with the term *People*, one of the pillars of the *triple bottom line*), *process*, and *physical evidence*, but add *partnership*. The roles of people, process, and physical evidence are similar in the SMM to that understood in services marketing, though the sustainability emphasis will nuance these terms, and are elaborated on below. The role of partnership, familiar to tourism marketers as an element of the marketing mix proposed specifically for tourism and hospitality contexts, where value delivery often relies on globe-spanning networks of disparate businesses, by Morrison (2013), is to capture recognition of the need for businesses to collaborate with others within v*alue delivery networks* and necessitating *partner relationship management* (Kotler and Armstrong, 2013) in order to improve the network's overall creation of value for consumers and society at large.

We propose an expanded marketing mix comprising eight elements, which should be considered against the system conditions for sustainability noted by Martin and Schouten (2012, p. 21): the management of each element (i) causes no systematic increases in environmental concentrations of substances from the Earth's crust; (ii) causes no systematic increase in environmental concentrations of synthetic substances; (iii) causes no systematic increases in ecosystem degradation; and (iv) creates no systematic barriers to people meeting their own needs. This might be undertaken in light of the pillars of the triple-bottom line: Planet, People, and Profitability. We argue that our eight-element marketing mix captures a broader scope of marketing-decision areas needed to foster sustainability-oriented outcomes that are likely to present consumers with purchase choices that more easily permit them to consume in a manner more likely to ameliorate global warming.

While we insist that sustainability considerations must permeate each level of a business's strategic planning, from the vision/mission down, we focus our attention only on the notion of the marketing mix, that "mix of controllable marketing variables that the firm uses to pursue the desired level of sales in the target market" (American Marketing Association, 2016). Next, the expanded SMM is explanation and justified.

A Marketing Mix for Sustainability
The traditional four Ps, Product, Price, Promotion and Place (McCarthy, 1960) remain appropriate for the SMM, although they take on a sustainability-oriented hue. *Participants* (used instead of *people*, as it was the term originally used by Booms and Bitner (1981), and it avoids confusion with the *People* pillar of the TBL) are the firm's employees and customers. Employees are particularly important when in customer-facing roles, as in services where they play a part in service delivery and influence buyer perceptions (Zeithaml, et al., 2006). Employees should be committed to the sustainability ethos through selection and training, and should be encouraged to contribute to innovation processes aimed at continuous sustainability performance improvement. Customers should also be expected to participate in the firm's pursuit of sustainability, and also, as might employees, become ambassadors for the brand or transfer learned sustainability practices to their daily lives. Customers might become service-logic innovators to capitalise on innovation as part of an overall firm strategy (Michel, Brown and Gallan, 2008). The concept of participants is also important from the perspective of service-dominant logic (Vargo and Lusch, 2004; 2008), as the focus of service interactions shifts from value-in-exchange to value co-creation.

Process refers to the procedures and flow of activities that describe how products are assembled and delivered, and offers considerable scope for sustainability improvement, often with immediate effect. Duke Energy, for example, made use of a *sustainability filter* to revise the company's method of starting up a natural-gas fired combustion turbine plant, saving fuel use,

time and carbon emissions, and resulting in the development of a new start-up calculator that improved efficiency and saved $2m in just six months at one turbine station (Hopkins, 2011). IKEA's early 2014 purchase of the Hoopestown wind farm, able to generate nearly 1.5 times the energy needed to operate all of the store's U.S. operations, while Facebook, Google, and WalMart's investing heavily in renewable energy are examples of businesses reducing their carbon footprints through process changes (Meany, 2014).

Physical evidence provides tangible clues that assist consumers to evaluate products, particularly *experience* and *credence* service products. The installation of photovoltaic cells on WalMart rooftops is a clear signal to stakeholders of the store's renewable energy drive, while San Francisco's quest to have zero waste by 2020 is a *process* change that will have an impact on the city's *physical evidence* (Katz, 2014). Physical evidence of goods manufacturers' sustainability efforts can include, *inter alia*, packaging, labelling, product design and manufacture features, and country-of-origin labelling.

Partnership, or the collaboration with internal and external value delivery networks that can drive enhanced value for customers and society at large has become an increasingly controllable marketing element for businesses seeking to improve their sustainability performance. For business, environmental issues are typically the province of outsiders and specialists (Porter and van der Linde, 1995). External expertise might be needed for marketing managers to subject their decisions to life-cycle analysis, a scientific management tool for clarifying the inputs and outputs of processes and their effects on the environment (van der Vorst, Grafé-Buckens and Sheate, 1999), and for sustainability-related innovation.
Collaboration with sustainability-enablers will be necessary to depart from 'business as usual'. 'Trailblazing' banks are supporting renewable energy projects with significant funding in order to stimulate meaningful volumes in the marketplace (Hering, 2014). Harvard University Graduate School of Design's 2012 joint launch of *Envision*, a holistic framework for evaluating and rating the community, environmental and economic benefits of all types and sizes of infrastructure projects helps ensure that civil engineers and planners do not miss opportunities to make a project more sustainable (Clark, 2014). Sustainability mavens often serve as beacons to others keen to follow: SAP extending free sustainability lessons to other businesses, based on its own experience, is one example (Weinreb, 2014). Businesses might also benefit from third-party partners' endorsements, for example, Rainforest Alliance, White
Swan, Green Globe, Fair Trade, and New Zealand's *Qualmark* Enviro Awards .

Further, as Grönroos (2006) points out, contemporary research into customer value has moved away from a value-in-exchange view, which suggests that products (or solutions) are imbued with value which is "delivered to customers for their use" (p. 398). Instead, he argues, value is seen as produced by the customer "when using products and when interacting with suppliers in co-creation with them" (p. 399). This notion of co-creation of value might be understood to more optimal under conditions where parties to the value co-creation process are working in partnership, rather than from a transactional perspective. Partnership is also critical within supply chains. *Interface*, for example, reports it: "recently partnered with a major university to provide sustainability training to two of our core yarn suppliers. The training summits included educational sessions from the university as well as presentations from Interface associates, all with the goal of furthering our supplier's sustainability progress and encouraging them to support us on our mission" (Interface, 2016).
Interface also stresses its internal partnerships with employees.

The addition of Partnership should not be seen as controversial but rather an obvious expansion of the marketing mix concept when seeking to simultaneously create value for customers and society at large. As demonstrated by Interface Inc., firms' management of their marketing mixes is typically fashioned from the foundation of core competencies: capabilities seldom include sustainability's condition requirements. Partnering with others, both internally and externally, is within the firm's control, and therefore should elevated in the corporate consciousness and included in marketing's *mix*.

By inductively developing the SMM, and subjecting each of the eight elements to the scrutiny of the system conditions of sustainability, it is posited that marketing will naturally be conceived more from a triadic than a dyadic perspective, where value creation for society at large assumes priority with value creation for individual customers. We argue that more responsible consumer behaviour is more likely to result from more responsible business performance, when sustainability thinking and a societal orientation is considered mainstream, rather than merely a niche. As such, the following broad research propositions are proffered:

Proposition 1: Adoption of the SMM will promote sustainability-oriented innovation across value delivery networks.
Proposition 2: Adoption of the SMM will promote simultaneous value creation for consumers and society at large, and enhance value capture for organisations.
Proposition 3: Adoption of the SMM will promote organisational transparency and help close the gaps between business performance and stakeholder expectations (e.g. Cone Communications, 2015).

Conclusion and Future Research
The approach proposed here is necessarily conceptual, challenging the ability of extant marketing mix frameworks, such as the traditional four Ps, to deliver market offerings that create value for consumers and, critically, for society at large. Such market offerings, brought about by implementation of the SMM could have the effect of moving responsible marketing and consumption from a niche to the new *business as usual*. Further research might empirically test the proposed SMM framework's effectiveness in creating such market offerings. Anecdotally, firms such as Interface provide support for the proposed approach, however, to this author's knowledge the SMM is not extant, and it is not used as a formal marketing strategy tool. A controlled series of case studies with cooperating firms across a number of product and service sectors might be used to test the SMM's relevance and results.
This paper is limited in the depth of its discussion by the conference format.

If we are to expect marketing to achieve very different results to what it has in the past, what it looks like, what it does, and how it does it will look very different to the past. In step with the AMA's (2013) revised definition of Marketing, the SMM approach proposed here is a step in this direction.

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Engaging farmers to adopt best management practices: A dual interest framework exploratory study

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Abstract

To minimise the impact of agriculture on environmental degradation and climate change farmers must voluntarily adopt pro-environmental best management practices (BMPs). The aim of this study was to understand how sugarcane farmers may be better engaged into adopting such practices. The dual interest framework was used to explore this phenomenon in the context of Australian sugarcane farming and water pollution. A case study method was employed. Data is drawn from interviews with sugarcane farmers and observations undertaken at an annual Field Day. Results reveal that although farmer's productivist identities dominate their decision making process, many also hold a conservationist identity that if activated and socially supported, has the potential to achieve better engagement in pro-environmental BMPs. Findings from this study have important implications for encouraging and engaging farmers into adopting pro-environmental practices known to minimise the environmental impacts of agriculture.

Keywords: climate change; environmental degradation; agriculture; sugarcane farming; best management practice adoption

Track: Climate Change and Marketing

Track 02: Consumer Behaviour

The Role of Feelings in the Consumption of Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Games

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Abstract
Customer experience is an important concept in explaining consumer behaviour with respect to Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Games (MMORPGs). This study examines the influences of feelings on three dimensions of game experience, namely, immersion, flow, and social interaction. Using an Indian sample obtained from Amazon Mechanical Turk this study finds that positive feelings have a significant effect on game immersion, flow and social interaction. However, negative feelings do not appear to affect game experience.

Keywords: Online games, Experience, MMORPGs, Flow, Social, Feelings

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

One of the important segments in digital games is massively multiplayer online role-playing games (MMORPGs), where a large number of players interact with one another in a persistent virtual world. Several motives have been identified for online game play. For example, enjoyment, or hedonic feelings, is believed to influence game experience (Yee, 2006b). This study will examine the influences of feelings on the three key elements of game experience (immersion, flow, and social). The findings of the study are expected to provide game designers with a better understanding of MMORPG players and help them to design improved strategies that can assist in player positive experience.

Theoretical Development of Experiential Marketing

Classically, economic theory positioned the consumer as one who makes purchase decisions logically, to solve a problem of need rationally (Pine and Gilmore, 1999). Recently, the economics and marketing focus shifted to experiential marketing, where the exploitation of perceived emotional value is advocated through manipulation of associated intangible aspects in a customer's psyche in order to create a compelling experience. Pine and Gilmore (1999), also argued that considerable economic value could be made from the creation of distinctive and memorable customer experiences. Frow and Payne (2007), in their qualitative study, defined experience distinctiveness as the meticulous management of customer "touch points". Despite of its importance, customer experience has not been thoroughly reviewed in the marketing or gaming literature (Gentile et al., 2007).

Consumers' quest for "*fantasy, feelings and fun*" (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) gave rise to the need by companies to entertain, stimulate and affect consumers emotionally during consumption (Schmitt, 1999). Experience marketing has been enabled by new technology which facilitated interaction between the real and virtual worlds and the formation of brand communities which "*act as the living manifestation of the brand's personality and relationship with consumers*" (McWilliam, 2000). Relevant marketing experiences that are personal, motivated the adoption of experience marketing for its capacity to generate brand advocacy, loyalty, customer advocacy with the Net Promoter measure (Tynan and McKechnie, 2009), and promotion by word of mouth (Smilansky, 2009).

Some scholars have argued that certain types of products can stimulate a positive or negative experience that leads to a like or dislike of a particular product. Decisions that are based on product experience rely on the intangible aspects of a product. Lacher & Mizerski (1994), found that consumers based their purchase decision of rock music on feelings and emotions that create a sense of fantasy immersion, fun, and other psychological emotive states, which leave the customer with an optimal experience. The same concept may be applied to online gaming, as both music and gaming products have entertainment value as their key product offering.

Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Game (MMORPGs)

MMORPGs are a form of digital gaming that is played online. Large numbers of players simultaneously immerse themselves in an online fantasy world to compete against each other, or cooperate to achieve certain goals in the game (Barr et al., 2007). Unlike single player games, players of MMORPGs typically require an internet connection to play in the same online world. Role-playing refers to the use of customisable "avatars" for interaction with other players in the virtual world. These avatars can be of different races and classes, each with unique skills and abilities needed for game progression (Monson, 2012). Players are required to design avatars and launch them in a virtual fantasy world where they interact with others. From a marketing perspective, these features provide players with a unique game experience which compels them to play more of the same game.

A study in 2006, revealed possible motives for playing games MMORPG (Yee, 2006b). Yee's study was based on visual games that used graphics, sounds, and avatars to play as opposed to Bartle's early study on text based MUD games. According to Yee, gamers' play motivation is influenced by the three main game outcomes, including achievement, social interaction, and immersion. For example, players who are achievers were more motivated by game advancement and competition, while socialisers preferred relationships and wished to help others.

The Game Experience
Game experience is a collective procedure that involves player's sensations, thoughts, feelings, actions, social interaction and meaning-making in a gameplay setting (Ermi and Mäyrä, 2005). This experience is developed from gamers' direct interaction with the game (Hunicke et al., 2004), which facilitates the construction of either pleasant or possibly unattractive game experiences. Thus, game experiences may be highly influenced by positive and negative feelings, which can be regarded as antecedents of game experience. Positive feelings about certain game sessions can result in players replaying the same game frequently. Conversely, negative feeling bad might discourage future game play.

MMORPGs marketers strive to engage players in a game experience that prompt players' positive feelings. Gamers are also influenced by positive or negative emotions that impact the play duration. Holbrook et al. (1984) explained that positive feelings can be a result of hedonic consumption (excitement, fun, and enjoyment) of video games. This type of consumption is usually associated with multi-sensory, fantasy and emotion aspects of the product usage (Titz et al., 2012), and may lead to a desire to repeat the game experience. In studies on other types of hedonic products, such as music consumption and online shopping, researchers also found that positive feelings can affect consumers overall product or consumption experience (Lacher and Mizerski, 1994; Chen et al., 2008).

Negative feelings may also exist in an online game play, when players experience feelings of anger and frustration on losing in-game challenges. According to Verhagen and van Dolen (2011), negative feelings, such as boredom, can have negative influences on consumer behaviour in online shopping. In contrast, some game experts believe that games, which challenge players' skills through frequent losses and difficult achievement goals, urges players to play more in order to overcome the obstacles (Rad, 2016). Rollings and Adams (2003), the gameplay experience can be identified by the nature of significant game elements such as the fantasy environment, competiveness of the game, and playing with or against others. These elements are described variously in the literature as immersion, flow, and social interaction. Yet, no empirical studies have examined negative feelings and its effect on game experience.

Immersion: In-game environments usually mimic physical experience in the real world to create a virtual experience, which is immersive, unique and capable of generating emotional responses. The theory of immersion has been examined by different scholars, such as Murray (1997), and Ryan (1999), from the aspect of game design theory, rather than marketing. Ermi and Mäyrä (2005), stated that game experience covers the immersiveness in playing. They identified three types of immersion components, such as the sensory, imaginative, and challenge. However, no studies have examined the relation between feelings and immersion.

Flow: The concept of flow was introduced by Csikszentmihalyi (1988) as a holistic experience that players obtain from game activities. This experience occurs when people act with total involvement with products, events, and role play activities. Flow is experienced when players have adequate skills to meet in-game challenges (Pace, 2004). Hsu and Lu (2004) found that the state of flow affects players' intention to play a game. However, their study was based on players who played online games in general, and not on MMORPGs specifically. Further, they did not examine how feelings may affect the flow experiences of players.

Social: According to Koo et al. (2007), digital gaming can provide a sense of belonging and social inclusion, where gamers can meet, team up or chat with each other. Ducheneaut et al. (2006) claimed social interaction in online games as essential to a game's success. The social aspect of MMOs is probably the most distinctive feature of the game, even though some players may also be motivated to play for reasons such as achievement. Shared experience, collaboration, socialisation, and gamer reputation are the most distinguished features of MMORPGs, and all contribute to the long-life and survival of a game in the market. Yee (2006), explained that social activities within online games motivates players to play, as players are interested in making friends, building relationships and collaborating with other players to overcome game challenges. In summary, the current study intended to examine how game experience (immersion, flow, social) may be affected by both positive and negative feelings. The following hypotheses for player feelings were tested:

H1: Positive feelings have a significant and positive effect on game immersion.
H2: Positive feelings have a significant and positive effect on game flow.
H3: Positive feelings have a significant and positive effect on game social companionship.
H4: Negative feelings have a significant and negative effect on game immersion.
H5: Negative feelings have a significant and negative effect on game flow.
H6: Negative feelings have a significant and negative effect on game social companionship.

Research Methodology and Data Collection

The target population for the study were people who played multiplayer online role-playing-games (MMORPG). Respondents were asked a number of questions regarding their experiences in playing MMORPGs. Answers to questions were graded on a Likert scale from 1 to 5, where 1 represented "strongly disagree" and 5 represented "strongly agree". Respondents were also asked about play time spent in the previous week, length of time they have been players for, and other demographic questions such as age, country of residence and gender. One of the main reasons for using Amazon Mechanical Turk as the data collection method was that it provided fast recruiting and access to a large pool of respondents in a short period of time, and with respondents of both genders and multiple nationalities (Paolacci et al., 2010). Respondents were given unique IDs after respondents met predefined measures such as whether they played in the previous week, to enlist for the study (Paolacci et al., 2010). These qualifying measures were a screening method to ensure that all respondents were active gamers and to prevent repeat respondents (Paolacci et al., 2010). In addition, good and complete responses were rewarded whilst bad and incomplete responses were denied the reward. In this way, complete responses were ensured and there was more control on data quality.

All 319 MMORPG player respondents for this study were from India. The rationale for this choice lied in the fact that the games industry in India is increasing rapidly, due to cheap and faster broadband services. Compared to other Asian countries, video games are less expensive which offers huge growth potential (Euromonitor, 2016). The Indian Media and Entertainment industry reported that the growth of video games increased by 16% from previous years with a market value of $277 million US dollars. Moreover, it is expected that this growth will continue and increase to 22% by 2017 with a market value of $776 million (TILARA, 2015).Feelings and immersion experience factors were adapted from the rock music study by Lacher and Mizerski (1994). Measures for flow were adapted from Martin and Jackson (2008), and social measures were adapted from Lee and Robbins (1995). A pre-test was conducted to ensure that the original scale instruments were properly used in the game context.

Results

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using the maximum-likelihood estimation method was used to test the hypotheses. Composite scores were used to represent the measures for each construct (positive feeling, negative feeling, immersion, flow, and social). The model fit indices showed that the model provides a good fit to the data (X^2/df = 137.114, p < 0.001, RMSEA = 0.122, GFI = 0.919, NFI = 0.947, CFI = 0.955, AGFI = 0.848). Moreover, Hypotheses 1 through 3 were all supported (p values < 0.05). The results confirmed that positive feelings have a significant effect on all three elements of game experience (immersion, flow, and social). In contrast, Hypothesis 4 through 6 were not supported (P > 0.05). Thus, negative feelings did not significantly affect game experience.

Conclusion and Limitations

The major objective of this study was to investigate the effect of both positive and negative feelings on game experience. Results showed that positive feelings significantly affect all three dimensions of game experience (immersion, flow, and social). These findings support the claims of Holbrook et al. (1984) that feelings play an important role in the context of hedonic consumption, such as online games. Contrary to our predictions, negative feelings did not show any significant effect on game experience. This may be attributed to the strong entertainment nature of MMORPGs, where most players play for fun, enjoinment, challenge, and socialisation (Yee, 2006a).

This study had a number of limitations. As respondents were exclusively from India, the study did not account for different cultural understandings of game play. Furthermore, it did not provide a control for other types of digital games such as sports and puzzles, which do not have an online social component.

The findings are expected to provide game marketers with a better understanding of MMORPG players and their game experience.

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A meta-analytic study of the factors motivating the purchase of organic food

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Abstract

Although research focusing on consumer behaviour related to organic food has grown, results have been mixed about which factors are most influential in purchase decisions. This study ranks reasons organic is preferred over non-organic (conventional) food on a sample of 124,353 consumers reporting their attitudes in 235 studies over the last 25 years. The results show that over half of the sample intend to and nearly half already purchases organic food on a regular basis. Over 60% of consumers prefer organic to conventional food because of considerations of health, safety and quality. Consumers rank highly such factors as animal welfare, nutritional value and concerns for environmental impact. This study confirms that the concerns of health, food safety and quality are the strongest motivators of organic food purchase.

Keywords: Purchase intention, organic food, meta-analysis

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Hidden Agendas: Intra-gender Competition and the Effects on Advertising Persuasion

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Abstract
When can the use of an attractive model in advertisements have a negative effect? This paper examines whether intra-gender competition plays a role in forming the circumstances where the commonly utilised 'beauty sells' strategy backfires. Psychological and evolutionary predispositions cause males and females to express intra-gender competition differently; this paper proposes that intra-gender jealousy is a cause of the negative response towards attractive advertising models. We stipulate that males and females will therefore evaluate advertised products differently where there is a use of an attractive same-gender attractive model. Whilst male intra-gender competition may only cause negative model evaluation that is detached from the advertised product or brand, we stipulate females will have the tendency to project negative model evaluations onto accompanying products within the advertisement.

Keywords: Mating, relationships, advertising, beauty, purchase behaviour

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

In advertising, 'beauty sells' is often a default strategy; however, there is limited research underpinning this. Advertising research indicates that the use of visually appealing or aesthetically pleasing models is resultant from adhering to the status-quo (Frith et. al., 2005). That is, choice of model is frequently derived from the personal preferences and definition of beauty as held by advertising directors and boards (Bower and Landreth 2001). Extant research also reveals that the use of more comparable or 'average' looking models can be a successful strategy, and today this is still observed in mass media occasionally; as signified by Dove's 'Real Beauty' campaign amongst others (Bower and Landreth 2001). Yet, these are still deemed 'alternate advertising appeals', hence the use of attractive models continues to dominate and form the greater majority of model choice. This can be enhanced by the fact that advertisers continue to use aesthetically attractive models under the assumption that should no positive brand or purchase behavior be elicited, there is certainty that negative evaluations are almost never observed. That is, the worst case scenario involves the advertisement having a neutral or no effect (Baker and Churchill 1977). However, are there circumstances where the use of attractive models can provoke an overall negative perception of the product and advertisement?

Hypothesis Development: Gender Specific Intra-gender Competition

Evolutionary psychology in particular considers intra-gender competition an evolved mechanism which attempts to address the issue of compatible mate scarcity. Given this, the application and linking of this ideology to marketing is often overlooked. The mechanisms of sexual attraction are derived from behavioural predispositions toward members of one's own sex where intra-gender competition exists, i.e. 'competition between members of the same sex for mating access to members of the opposite sex' (Buss, 1988). Intra-gender competition is of particular concern for several reasons. Buss (1992) concluded that feelings of jealousy and protectiveness were observed to be heightened to varying degrees across different gender groups when mating access to members of the opposite sex is restricted. Moreover, the presence of gender competition is known to distort behavior away from the 'norm'; a notion tested in one context by Wang and Griskevicius (2014) whom identified intra-gender jealousy and competition to be a confounding variable when subjects were asserting relationship status.

Our contribution stems from the likelihood that a 'devaluation effect' may be activated when consumers evaluate possessions belonging to those of the same sex in the presence of intra-gender competition.The reasons for the aforementioned 'devaluation effect' can be traced by their respective gender specific origin. Furthermore, research by Putrevu, (2001) provides evidence that female consumer behavior in particular, can be closely linked to women's hormonal fluctuations, which can in turn affect their consumption patterns. This can also be used to attribute female gender specific behavior in the form of purchase behavior that is aligned to improving their competitive standing relative to other women. Can this mechanism then be tested in the context of advertisements? And can this hormonally charged gender specific behaviour therefore be a driver for the varying interpretation of models and accompanying products? This research attempts to identify, in many ways, the extent of the aforementioned devaluation effect is exercised in the context of advertisements. Given that namely attractive models are used in advertisements, these models may therefore be perceived as 'strong competitors' in their respective gender pools. When further analyzed this hidden gender competition between consumers and models of the same sex in advertisements may be an opportunity to exercise the reflexive responses to the aforementioned feelings of

jealousy and protectiveness (Buss, 1988) that one may express when they detect intra-gender competition.

Activation of Mating-Mindsets

Mating Mind-Sets are known psychological phenomena; several situations can trigger mating-related thoughts often among adults irrespective of their relationship status. A study by Jones and Barlow (1990) indicated young adults are externally stimulated to think about mating on numerous occasions throughout the day as natural exposure to the opposite sex is enough to illicit thoughts about mating. Previous research shows that mating mindsets are triggered by the presence of real or imagined desirable people of the opposite sex (Griskevicius, Cialdini, and Kenrick 2006). For instance, dating or even browsing a dating website can activate thoughts about mating (Monga and Gurhan-Canli 2012). Similarly, mating mindsets can be stimulated by sexy or romantic advertisements, movies, or TV shows (Griskevicius and Kenrick 2013). Finally, being in short-term or long-term relationships might keep reminding one of mating (Monga & Gürhan-Canli, 2012). Therefore, given that consumers are urged by external situations to think about mating several times a day, there is reason to investigate if their subsequent actions whilst in this mind-frame can also be altered as a result.

Researchers in marketing and psychology have identified a number of factors that may come as a result of variety seeking behaviour or being in a 'mating-mindset. This includes more simultaneous and sequential choice making (Simonson 1990), enhanced mood and emotions (Buss, 1992), misprediction of future preferences (Kahneman and Snell 1990), and distorted choice in group settings (Ariely and Levav 2000). We add to this body of work by investigating the effects of the antecedent variable of mating mindsets on product evaluation and purchase decisions.

Impact on Evaluative Function

A considerable amount of research in decision making and behavioural economics attempts to explain the sources of "irrational" or biased judgements that consumers engage in particular situations (Krueger & Funder, 2004). In these situations or contexts classic economic decision making can disappear when the decision involves the evolutionarily imperative domain of mate seeking. Wang (1996) concluded findings that support this notion by presenting research shows that the classic bias of loss aversion can be aggravated, erased, and even reversed when consumers are under the influence of mating mind-set.

Extant literature suggests that by comparison, female intra-gender competition is less visible to that of male competition (Vaillancourt, 2013). Women are less likely than men to employ directly aggressive competitive tactics, often engaging in acts of indirect or relational aggression (Campbell and Wilbur, 2009). This translates into enhanced and constant internal mental evaluation being carried out by females by comparison to males (Wang and Griskevicius, 2014). Due to the in-depth nature of female evaluation and devaluation occurring under competitive circumstances (Wang and Griskevicius, 2014), previous studies fail to conclude whether this notion prevails during the evaluation of products that use attractive same-sex models. A pattern of results found by Petrevu (2004) suggests that women use a relational processing style, whereas men use an item-specific processing style. This may be interpreted in a decision making context whereby females are more likely to relate products being advertised with the model used in the advertisement. Contrastingly, males may have the tendency to perceive models in advertisements to be somewhat 'disconnected' to the products being advertised. This paper aims to illuminate a source of this rationality through the use of intra-gender competition. Specifically, we seek to highlight the difference in the decision

process between males and females whilst under a mating mind-set. We predict this will lead to an enhanced emotional evaluation of models and products for females however have limited effect on males. Using these aforementioned conclusive differences in thought processing styles whilst in a romantically competitive mindset, this study aims to identify if intra-gender competition is a source of irrationality when evaluating 'attractive models' alongside advertisements for various products.

STUDY 1

We anticipate that differences in female and male attitudes toward advertisements depicting attractive models can be explained through the differences in mechanism in the presence of intra-gender competition. We argue that an activation of this gender competition mechanism will influence the reactions towards the advertisements the subjects are shown. By examining whether intra-gender competition is a source of negative evaluation, we predict under the condition of a mating mindset, intra-gender competition arises. Males and females express intra-gender competition differently; we propose that intra-gender jealousy is a cause of the negative response towards attractive advertising models. Given human psychological predispositions discussed earlier, a mating mind-set is understood to highlight intra-gender competition (Li. et al, 2012). Utilising this, this paper proposes that male and female consumers with a mating 'state of mind' (i.e., thinking about a mate) will have significantly dissimilar perceptions of attractive models. Monga and Gürhan-Canli (2012) link possessing a mating-mindset with being in a confined state of intra-gender competition. This leads us to believe that the associated feelings of jealousy and protectiveness will be heighted amongst our participants in the mating frame of mind. However, given that these feelings are experienced to varying degrees across males and females, intra-gender competition may have the ability to induce largely dissimilar judgements of attractive models across male and female consumers. Utilising this linkage the paper first stipulates the following: participants in a mating mindset will evaluate the attractiveness of predetermined attractive vs. realistic models in a reversed manner. The dependant variable of same-sex model attractiveness evaluation will be predicted by the independent variable of manipulation (mating-mindset vs. control).

STUDY 2

The majority of advertisements typically use attractive models as they are perceived to more successfully persuade consumers and induce purchase. This can be driven by the notion that beauty is a link between the subject (model) and advertised product, a concept explored by Martin and Kennedy (1994). This often leads to consumers to conclude the attractiveness of a model is being partially derived from interaction with the advertised product. Hence, making the attractive model a successful sales cue for inducing purchase. However, extant research indicates at times attractive endorsers increase persuasion (Kahle and Homer 1985) whilst other times, they have no effect at all (Caballero, Lumpkin, and Madden 1989). However, the weak inducement effects attractive models had in research by Caballero et. al may be attributed to the use of beauty-unrelated products. Taking this into consideration, Kahle and Homer (1985) used a beauty-related product within their experiment and did not observe any positive inducement effects by attractive model. Given that various results are observed in both beauty and non-beauty categories when the use of an attractive model is present, our research will test across both beauty and non-beauty categories, in order to identify a wider-order effect when the concept of priming a mating-mindset is introduced prior to product evaluations. The dependant variable of product evaluations and participant

condition (mating-mindset manipulation vs. control) are predicted to account for variations in level of attractiveness of the model used in the advertisement.

STUDY 3
The third study aims to address the contingent co-variate of self-esteem when consumers are in a 'mating-mindset. This study will examine the role self-esteem plays as a mediator in the evaluation of attractive models in advertisements when a mating-mindset is present. The dependant variable of product evaluations and participant manipulations condition are predicted to account for variations in level of attractiveness of the model used in the advertisement; level of self-confidence will act as a covariate in this study.

Given that extant research by Campbell and Lavallee (1993) indicate people with high self-esteem have positive, well-articulated views of the self, the prototypical person low in self-esteem exemplifies these characteristics to vastly lower degrees (Letzring et al, 2005). This study aims to test if this can subsequently affect the extent to which attractive models are negatively evaluated whilst still being under the influence of a mating mindset.
Behaviour associated with one's self-esteem was once ordinarily treated as being under conscious (if not always thoughtful) control (Tedeschi, 1986). However, considerable evidence now supports the view that social behaviour often operates at an implicit or unconscious level (Greenwald, 1995). Greenwald's (1995) finding bears great significance to the subject of intra-gender competition; as discussed, reactive methods to intra-gender competition are often vast, but are often hidden or sub-consciously carried out (Wang and Griskevicius, 2014; Putrevu, 2001). The identifying feature of implicit behaviour is that it influences judgment in a fashion not introspectively known by the consumer. This may result in consumers being simply unaware that intra-gender competition plays a role in distorting their traditional evaluative processes (Krueger & Funder, 2004). This study contends that given self-esteem driven evaluations can take place on an implicit level, the negative evaluation of products using attractive models in advertisements may be aggravated by poor self-perceptions of oneself.

This study aims to observe an interrelationship between participants whom declare high levels of self-confidence relative to those that are less confident. We stipulate that those with high levels of confidence will not feel inclined to devalue products advertised using attractive models. In line with extant psychology theory, individuals possessing high self-esteem often have higher levels of confidence and in turn display generally more positive or favourable behaviour (Kernis,1993). They are less likely to engage in negative or depreciating behaviour (Baumeister et. al, 1993). Hence, offering a negative product evaluation of a result of an advertisement's use of an attractive model may be an indication of engaging in hostile or depreciating behaviour linked to poor self-esteem. This can potentially be due to individuals with lower levels of self-esteem feeling an increased need to compete with models with higher levels of attractiveness. Contrastingly, those with higher levels of self-esteem are more likely to engage in constructive behaviour (Crocker and Luhtanen, 2003) and may evaluate products in the advertisements using attractive models in a more favourable manner.

Contribution
This paper contends that the existence of intra gender competition brought on by a mating-mindset plays a defining role in the evaluation of attractive models used in advertisements. We will also conclude the definitive difference in the way males and females

express intra-gender competition in the context of purchase decisions. This paper aims to develop a framework for where negative product evaluation can be derived and tested. Due to the in-depth nature of gender specific evaluative processes, previous studies have observed 'emotionally negative charged behaviour' (Buss, 1992) under competitive circumstances but have failed to conclude whether this notion prevails during the evaluation of products that use attractive same-sex models. The managerial value of the paper is amplified through the use of replicated advertisements and will potentially aid practitioners and researchers alike when developing advertising strategies. If there is a difference in expressive forms of inter-gender competition across genders, this is an easily measurable consumer characteristic and could be considered as a potential segmentation variable for managers. Our research will test attractive models in both beauty and non-beauty related categories – if significant results are derived, it may also be able to lead marketers in different product sectors to use models with varying degrees of attractiveness.

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Consumer Ethics: A Segmentation Study

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Abstract

The plague of unethical practices in global businesses has sparked much research on the role of ethics in today's business and society. One of the most effective tools to understand consumers' motivation and behaviour is segmentation. Hence, the purpose of this study is segment ethical consumers based on consumer-ethics variables (i.e., actively benefiting, passively benefiting, questionable behaviour, no-harm, recycling, and doing good). Using a sample from the general population in Australia (N = 517), the analysis resulted in three distinct segments: 'The Good Samaritans', 'The Mainstream Ethical Consumers', and 'The Unethical Consumers'. This is one of the first few studies to segment consumers based on the consumer ethics scales developed by Vitel and Muncy (2005). By understanding different segments within consumers, the results of this study will assist researchers, managers, and public policy makers address unethical behaviour in society.

Keywords: Consumer Ethics, Segmentation

Track: Consumer Behaviour

A holistic understanding of undergraduates' money management behaviour: New perspective and new insights from a qualitative study

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Abstract

Money management behaviour of undergraduates is an important consideration for many stakeholders. The literature on student money management behaviour is overly centred on financial literacy. However, undergraduates' money management behaviour is determined by several factors including economic, social and psychological factors. The main aim of this study is to investigate how the interplay of these factors determines their money management behaviour. This study was carried out among undergraduates in Australia as they face many challenges to money management in recent times. Six focus group discussions (FGDs) were conducted in three universities in Australia to collect data for this study. The major themes from analysis aligned with the economic, social and psychological dimensions of money management. The main finding is undergraduate money management behaviour is determined by the interplay of economic, social and psychological factors, rather than purely by financial literacy. Many useful implications for both theory and practice are discussed.

Keywords: Money management behavior, undergraduates, financial literacy, Australia, qualitative research

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Can maximizer consumers' regret be alleviated? The hidden benefits of default options.

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Abstract
When preference for the available options in a choice set is highly uncertain, it is common to go with the "default", unless choosers actively change it to one of the non-default options. Our research shows that, even if defaults can increase the odds of selecting the most advantageous option in a choice set, they do not suit everyone. In particular, maximizers, who strive to get the best outcome in every situation, experience more regret with their choice when the set includes a default. However, we also find that prior choice tasks in which default options are provided attenuate the regret level of maximizers during a subsequent choice task that includes a default. Hence, we offer a new choice architecture (i.e., preliminary choice tasks with default options) so that maximizing consumers can benefit from a focal default option without experiencing regret.

Keywords: choice architecture, maximization tendency, default option, sequential choice task, regret

Track: Consumer behaviour

Why Go Green? Factors Affecting the Green Purchase Behaviour of Macau Youngsters

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Abstract

This study explores the relationship among green purchase behaviour, parental influence, peer influence and environmental knowledge in the area of green marketing from a consumer perspective. The present study is an attempt to investigate the green purchase behaviour of Macau youngsters. Analysis on the strength of the relationships between each pair of variables was being measure through Pearson's R in SPSS. Findings confirm that the three variables proposed in the theoretical frameworks all exist a significant positive relationship with green purchase behaviour. The consumption pattern of Macau youngsters is greatly influenced by their peers and parents since green purchase behaviour carry out a certain level of social meanings and values. In addition, Macau youngsters possess a relatively high level of ecological knowledge, which significantly affects their green consumptions. Finally, this study discusses managerial implications for marketers to do a better strategic marketing performance through educating and motivating young consumers.

Keywords: Green marketing, Green purchase behaviour, Parental influence, Peer influence, Macau

Track: Consumer Behavior

Introduction
Attention to environmental concerns has been steadily increasing in mainstream media, along with the discussions regarding green consumer behaviours. Marketers are increasingly interested in examining the willingness and motivation behind acquiring green products. The purchasing attitudes of green consumers vary through socio economic characteristics. Among all, age is a strong variable which influence the green purchase behaviour and buying pattern of consumers. In the past decades, research dealing with consumer decision making has traditionally focus on adult consumer behaviour (Davis, 1976). Researchers are less enthusiastic in reflecting young consumer decisions. Nevertheless, Moschis & Moore (1979) suggested that young people have been generally accepted as a differentiated segment of the market and therefore, the concerns regarding young consumer decision have gradually increased among marketers. In the recent years, more studies have been made in order to support the fact that young consumers are more ready than the old generation to accept the consumption of environmental-friendly products (Ottman, Stafford, and Hartman, 2006; Tai and Tam, 1997; Lee, 2011). To understand this segment, it is essential for us to discover factors appeared to be effective in the decision making process. Lee's study (2011) suggested that peer influence is the most powerful factors that affecting green purchases behaviour of Hong Hong's adolescents. Besides, numerous researches disclose the importance of peer influence and, Singh and colleagues (2003) specifically examined the relationship between young adults' purchase intention with informative peer influences. *H1: Peer influence would positively predict green purchase behaviour in Macau youngsters.*

Apparently, those who advocate peer influence as a strong prediction of youngsters' green purchase behaviour do have their reasons to a certain extent. However, suggested by Promotosh and Md. Sajedul (2011), instead of peer influence, parental influence is the top predictor among all the variables – "parental influence is a socialization factor in adolescent stage, and the consumption habits of a parent, their attitudes and their intentions to buy product strongly influence the consumption pattern of young adolescent people." It is believed that a young adult will adopt same and similar behaviour that their parents' maintain in their style (Chaplin and John, 2010, Cotte & Wood, 2004). It seems that especially for the Asians, their beliefs of specific individuals or groups are strong motivations for them towards purchases behaviour. *H2: Parental influence would positively predict green purchase behaviour in Macau youngsters.*

At this stage, a background factor, namely, environmental knowledge is being investigated in this research. Environmental knowledge facilitates the purchase behaviour of people (Ajzen, 2005). Past studies have advocated a positive association between environmental knowledge and behaviour (Kaiser, Wolfing, and Fuhrer 1999; Kempton, Boster, and Hartley 1995). The study of Ramsey (1993) and Jordan, Hungerford and Tomera (1986) have reported that students participating in environmental courses effects in an increase in responsible environmental behaviour and an increased awareness of environmental issues. A study made by Bradley, Waliczek and Zajicek (1999) suggested that the increased of ecological knowledge helped to improve environmental attitudes. *H3: Environmental knowledge would positively predict green purchase behaviour in Macau youngsters.*

Past studies have discovered the significant influence of an individual's environmental knowledge towards green behaviour by adapting adult samples. However, few studies have looked into the effect of ecological values beyond adolescence. Besides, there are many researches analysing the relationship between peer influence, parental influence and consumer purchase behaviour but few of them reveals the effect of environmental knowledge have, on

peer, parental influence. Paco and Reis's study (2012) discovered that the more environmentally concerned an individual is, the more scepticism he or she will be toward the green claims conveyed by other social media. Therefore, in this research, I proposed the assumption that a person's environmental knowledge will somehow decrease the influence come from his peers and parents, for the reason that they might already establish the independent thinking style previously. *H4: Environmental knowledge would have a negative effect on parental influence in Macau youngsters. H5: Environmental knowledge would have negative effect on peer influence in Macau youngsters.* To further understand how the three predictors facilitate green purchase intention of young people, a model is proposed (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Theoretical Framework
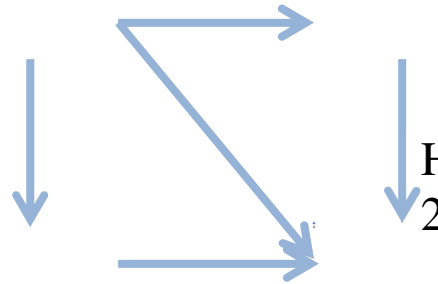
Methodology

I. Sampling and data collection method

The aim of this study is to look into the effect of three variables in youngsters' green purchase behaviour. The data for testing the hypotheses were derived from a survey of students from University of Macau. The sample size of the research is formed around 324 undergraduate students from different majors. This sample size is the necessary minimum for the correct operation of the applied statistical methodology. The data would be obtained by a face-to-face surveys answered by the bachelor students from year 1 to year 4 studying at University of Macau. To minimize the risk of a possible desirability bias, the following arrangements were undertaken: (1) the subjects were not required to give their names on the questionnaire; (2) the subjects were randomly picking up to ensure no previous preparation.

II. Measurement tools and Data analysis process

The measurements used in the survey were specifically developed so as to fit the focus of the study and the context of Macau. The questionnaire in this research is based on items and scales from previous studies that exhibit reliability (Table 1). The used instrument was a scale of Likert of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) for answering the question. Each of the items was summarized in Table 1. The statistical methodology used to resolve the raised hypotheses will be the simple analysis model. The study also measures the Cronbach's Alpha for those hypotheses to ensure the reliability of the findings.

Table 1: Summary of Measurement Scales

Measures	# of items	Scale examples	Reliability
Environmental knowledge	6	"I am very knowledgeable in knowing what to do to protect the environment"	.81
Peer influence	4	"My friends often discuss environmental related topics/issues"	.80 .85
Parental influence	4	"I have learnt about environmental related topics and issues form my parents"	.81 .75
Green purchase behaviour	6	"When I consider buying a product, I will look for a certified environmentally safe or organic stamp"	.75

Results and Findings

I. Demographic Characteristics

Demographic data of students who took part in the questionnaire are seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Summary of demographic characteristics of respondents

Characteristics	Frequency	%	Characteristics	Frequency	%
Gender			**Origin**		
Male	133	41	China(Macau/Hong	228	70.4
Female	191	59	Kong/Taiwan)	96	29.6
Age			China(Mainland China)		
Below 17	1	0.3	**Educational Level**		
18 - 19	25	7.7	Freshman	46	14.2
20 - 21	84	25.9	Sophomore	49	15.1
21 - 22	159	49.1	Junior	90	27.8
22 - 23	37	11.4	Senior	127	39.2
23 and above	18	5.6	Master	10	3.1
			PhD	2	0.6

II. Reliability, Mean and Correlation

All scales are reliable in the study because the Cronbach's Alpha of each item is greater than the standard 0.7 (Table 3). Table 3 also shows the descriptive statistics of these five scales in terms of mean. The lowest mean happened in parental influence, which stands for 3.39. While the highest one would be the scale of environmental knowledge, whose mean is 4.77. In addition, the strength of the relationships between each pair of variables was being measure through Pearson's R in SPSS. Pearson's R can range from -1 to +1 and within the range. To simplify the name of scales, short term is used: EK = environmental knowledge, FI = peer influence, PI = parental influence and GPB = Green purchase behaviour.

Table 3. Summary of the Cronbach's Alpha, mean and correlation of each scale

Scales	Mean	EK	FI	PI	GPB
EK	4.7762	****0.766**	0.379	0.218	0.443
FI	4.0098	0.379	****0.762**	0.490	0.388
PI	3.3981	0.218	0.490	****0.884**	0.478
GPB	3.7999	0.443	0.388	0.478	****0.870**

** These numbers shows the Cronbach's Alpha of each scale.

** The significance level is at .000.

In order to compare respondents' purchase behaviour in terms of different contexts, this study separated the origin of respondents into mainland China and the rest (Macau, Hong Kong, Taiwan). The findings show that respondents from mainland China are more likely to be affected by their peer and parents towards purchase behaviour (table 4).

Table 4. Summary of the correlation of each scale with a separated origin variable

Scales	EK	FI	PI	GPB
EK	1	0.283/0.539	0.130/0.337	0.380/0.541
FI	0.283/0.539	1	0.438/0.597	0.271/0.601
PI	0.130/0.337	0.438/0.597	1	0.327/0.780
GPB	0.380/0.541	0.271/0.601	0.327/0.780	1

** The significance level is at .000.

** Within each scale, the left hand side value refers to respondents from mainland China while the right one refers to respondents from Macau, Hong Kong and Taiwan.

Discussion

The present study finds that parental influence is the top predictor among all the variables I have studied. In the process of constructing children's behaviour, parental supports are found to affect their voluntary activities in the society (Fletcher, Glen, Elder, and Mekos 2000). Similarly, Cotte & Wood, (2004, p. 84) discovered that parental influence is not only affecting youngster's purchase decision, but also producing effect in shaping their behaviour. Found in many researches, parents are always considered as a socialization agent that transmit consumption attitudes and materialistic values to adolescents through modeling, reinforcement, and social interaction. From my findings, the correlation analyses show that parent's role is of great influence on the green purchase behaviour of Macau youngsters. However, my finding does not support the conclusion made by Lee (2001). Lee's study revealed that Hong Kong parents have less influence on their children's green purchase behaviour. The comparison of the two different results suggests that Hong Kong parents may not exert impressive influence in facilitating green purchase behaviour of young adolescents. Probably, green product is a new concept to the older generation in Hong Kong so parents do not frequently discuss environmental affairs with their children (Lee, 2011, p. 32). The finding reveals that parents in Macau have more environmental awareness. There is more conversation on green-related topics within the Macau family.

In this study, environmental knowledge is the second most important factor in facilitating green purchase behaviour. From my findings, Macau youngsters possess a relatively high level of ecological knowledge. This potentially indicates that Macau youngsters have many learning opportunities about environmental problems in school. They are willing to purchase green products in accordance with their level of environmental awareness. The present study finds that peers also exert a great influence on Macau youngsters in the area of green purchase behaviour. This finding is in line with the consumer socialization theory, which indicates that social influence arises with age and peaks in adolescents (John 1999). The finding also suggests that green purchase behaviour would carry out a certain level of social meanings and values to the youngsters when they are facing their peers. Apparently, the strong power of peer influence indicates a possible "group effect" on green purchasing concerns and decisions (Dotson and Hyatt, 2000). This "group" phenomenon is particularly evident in countries that exhibit collectivistic orientation. In this kind of counties, people are expected to act similar within their own groups. Macau is also an Asian city therefore, youngsters show a certain level of collectivistic values. As proposed in the theoretical framework, it was expected that a person with rich environmental knowledge is likely to think independently towards green purchase behaviour, thus reduce the level of influence come from peers and parents. To evaluate these assumptions, two more hypothesizes were set to test if there is a negative relationship between environmental knowledge and peer, parental influence. However, the findings of the current study do not support the two assumptions. The correlation analysis reveals that a person's environmental knowledge is positive co-relate with both peer and parental influence. This result is probably driven by the fact that Macau youngsters experience high level of peer and parental influence due to the collectivistic cultural orientation. In the meanwhile, they are able to develop environmental awareness through learning and interacting with the environmental topics.

With the interests in exploring the value differences between students from different part of China. This study divided the respondents into two main parts in terms of Greater China. The importance of evaluating results in terms of two datasets is because Macau, Hong Kong and Taiwan are running different political and economical systems with mainland China. The sociology and cultural practices are distinctive as well. In that case it is interesting to compare

students' purchase behaviour in terms of different contexts. In particular, the traditional Chinese family system is formed with unquestioned acceptance of parental authority. Children are expected to follow their parents' suggested direction given the high power distance between parents and children (Kim et al., 2008). My findings regarding students from different parts of China proof the fact in which mainland parents produce more effect in the green purchase behaviour of their children. On the contrary, Macau, Hong Kong and Taiwan youngsters are relatively independent. They perceive less influence from their parents. This result is partly accordance with Tai and Tam's study (1997). In their analysis, Hong Kong women were found to favour a more modern view of the role of women than their counterparts in China and Taiwan.

Managerial Implication

In the past decades, many researchers were enthusiastic in studying the purchase behaviour of adults. With the integrating of global market, the taste of consumers is getting closer and similar. The study of youngsters' green purchase behaviour is becoming more essential in the area of green marketing. In my study, the green consumption of Macau youngsters is my main focus. Macau Youngsters need to be considered by the marketers for the following reason: (1) they have a high purchasing power since Macau is one of the world's richest cities, and as of 2013 its GDP per capita by purchasing power parity is higher than that of any country in the world, according to the World Bank (2014); (2) Macau is a Special Administrative Region (SAR) of China, people are experiencing high level of freedom and autonomy. Macau youngsters are especially open-mined with modern trend; (3) they are becoming more environmental conscious in the recent decades.

My study reveals the fact that adolescents are being influenced by contextual factors such as peer and parental influences deeply. The managerial implication of this result is for marketers to encourage youngsters shop with their friends and parents. Furthermore, it would be attractive for the young consumers to perceive a product to be "trendy". It is recommended that marketers to design green products with newest and cool appearance. Moreover, my findings confirm the effect of background factor produced on youngsters' green purchase behaviour. It is proof that the purchase intention of a person will increase with the level of environmental knowledge. Driven by this result, the marketers are encouraged to pay more efforts to educate the young consumers, for the reason that knowledge and education are considered major influential background factors. For instance, the companies could provide free trial and promotion counters while launching the new products. They could also build some knowledge building competitions to motivate the youngsters from learning ecological knowledge. It is important for the youngsters to recognize the ecological beauty in their local communities.

Limitations

This study focused on the green purchase behaviour of Macau youngsters between the age of 18 and 23. In the process of data collection, we only collected samples from university of Macau students due to the limited resources. This quota sampling method would exit possible basis as the samples were not equally distributed across the population. Therefore, results must be used with caution. Future studies could extend the list of other universities and colleges so as to collect a relatively fair result. Secondly, the study only evaluates the purchase behaviour of Asian people. It will be interesting to examine the cultural differences by comparing results interpreted by both Asian students and foreign students. Finally, since my research is focusing on the relationship between several variables and green purchase behaviour. It is recommended that the future study should focus on the underlying values affecting youngsters' behaviour by adapting the triangulation method.

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Conceptualising Brand Obsession

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Abstract

Researchers have devoted much effort to understand consumer-brand relationships. This research has been important in advancing our understanding of the various relationships consumers can form with brands and how these relationships impact on their brand-related behaviour. However, despite this, existing studies seem to only provide an incomplete picture. We introduce the concept of 'brand obsession', defined as the 'frequent repetitive and persistent intrusive thoughts of a brand that drives its pursuit'; arguing such a phenomenon has yet to be investigated in any detail amongst the existing studies. Through preliminary research based on in-depth interviews complemented by a netnographic study, this paper provides initial insights into the phenomenon of brand obsession and highlights its important implications for both brand managers and researchers.

Keywords: Obsession, love, consumer-brand relationships, dependency

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Need and Patience: A Dual-Goal Hypothesis

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Abstract

How does a need state (e.g., hunger, sexual arousal) influence self-control? While existing research suggests that people high (vs. low) in need are more impatient in their intertemporal choices, we show that under certain conditions the reverse is true. We further propose a dual-goal hypothesis to explain the two sided effects of need on intertemporal decisions. We propose that high need activates two goals: actualization goal and quantity goal. . The actualization-goal concerns the feasibility of getting the need satisfying object: A person of high-need wants need-satisfying target ASAP. The quantity-goal concerns how much one can get the need-satisfying object. The proposed dual-goal framework can systematically predict when a need state leads to greater preference for immediate gratification and when it leads to greater patience in intertemporal choices. 5 studies supported our proposition. These studies revise current understanding on how need affects patience and self-control.

Key Words: Need, Intertemporal Choice, Goals, Self-Control

Track: Consumer Behavior

An exploration of the relationships between materialism, frugality, and consumer well-being

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Abstract

The relevance of materialism to consumer behaviour is undisputed. Materialism has repeatedly been heralded as a critical macro consumer behaviour issue. Nevertheless, while the majority of marketing efforts implicitly fosters materialism, relatively little empirical research has been conducted to explore the relationship between materialism and consumer well-being. Similarly, a related concept, consumers' frugality has received little research attention in its ability to affect consumer well-being. In this paper, the authors present empirical evidence that goes some way towards shedding light on the nature of these important relationships. Materialism was related to lower well-being and a worse perceived financial situation, whilst frugality was related to higher well-being and a better perceived financial situation. The authors discuss the findings' research implications.

Keywords: Materialism, frugality, consumer well-being, financial satisfaction.

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction
Australians increasingly feel that they do not have the necessary means to acquire all the things they (perceive that they) need. This gap between what people possess and their perceived needs relates not only to increases in personal debt (Hamilton & Denniss, 2005), but also affects consumers' perceived well-being (e.g., Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999). However, contradictory evidence emerges from the literature regarding the nature of the relationship between consumers' devotion to material needs and desires (which we refer to as materialism) and their well-being. On the one hand, evidence points toward materialism's negative effect on consumer well-being. Materialism has been associated with egotism at the expense of altruism (e.g., Yankelovich, 1981) and could be related to unfavourable social comparisons (Diener & Fujita, 1997), which has been found to ultimately decrease consumers' well-being. Some research even indicates that materialism is associated with lower perceived well-being (Dittmar, Bond, Hurst & Kasser, 2014) and greater distress and anxiety (Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002). On the other hand, scholars claim that increases in consumers' materialism are positively associated with well-being (e.g., Belk, 1983; Schwartz et al., 2006) while again others hypothesise that materialism per se is neither good nor bad (e.g., Csikszentmihalyi & Rochberg-Halton, 1981). Similarly, no clear relationship emerges for frugality, a related concept, which we define as the extent to which individuals practice self-restraint in their use of money. While frugal consumer behaviour may relate primarily to low personal materialism and income constraints (Pepper, Jackson & Uzzell, 2009) and has been associated with higher self-esteem, no evidence was found to support Tatzel's (2002) predicted non-linear relationship between frugality and well-being (Kasser, 2005).

To explore these important and unresolved issues, we examine a set of interrelated research questions: What is the relationship between materialism and consumers' perceived well-being as well as their perceived financial satisfaction? What is the relationship between frugality and consumers' perceived well-being as well as their perceived financial satisfaction? In addressing these questions, our study contributes theoretical, empirical, and substantive insights into the complex nature of materialism and frugality on consumer well-being.

Research Background
The acquisition of goods has long been accepted as a means of seeking success and happiness (Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002). In fact, across Western societies, a materialistic ethos (which is often fuelled by marketing strategies; see Belk, 1985; Muncy & Estman, 1998) largely dominates consumer culture. But not all consumer groups buy into this ethos. Indeed, different consumers can adopt a variety of different attitudes about money and its value. In certain subcultures, consumers focus on living self-sufficiently and frugally. Highly frugal individuals are typically "tight" with their money and try to save resources and live within their means. In contrast, those low in frugality tend to be "loose" with their money and show little restraint in their purchases (e.g., Lastovicka, Bettencourt, Hughner, & Kuntze, 1999). A third attitude can also be discerned, as throughout the decades, certain sectors of the populace have encouraged the sharing of one's money and possessions (through philanthropy, charitable organisations and so forth). Additionally, consumer's perceived financial situation could be related to both materialism and frugality. Regardless of absolute wealth, an individual's perception of their financial situation (their comfort level with their present income and satisfaction with their current financial situation) may well relate to materialism, frugality, and well-being.

In brief, some consumer groups purchase as much as possible in an effort to increase their well-being while others restrain their purchasing, while again other consumer groups share large parts of their money and possessions. Assuming that all consumers ultimately seek happiness

and well-being, who then has the highest chances of maximising their well-being through consumption behaviours?

Hypotheses Development

In 1985, Belk stated that "one of the foremost issues involving materialism that needs to be addressed is whether materialism is a positive or a negative trait (p. 266)". More than three decades later, marketing scholars still cannot provide a clear answer whether or not materialism increases or decreases consumer well-being. In part, this lack of consensus is due to the myriad contingencies that can affect the relationship between materialism and consumer well-being. For example, consumer values have been found to affect the relationship between materialism and well-being (Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002). Further, some degree of materialism is natural and healthy such as the acquisition of shelter and food. Nevertheless, we argue that beyond a certain point materialism will have a consistently negative effect on consumer well-being (Dittmar, et. al., 2014). This is because material possessions can "interfere with other important aspects of life" (Muncy & Eastman, 1998, p. 138). Some evidence suggests that materialism is associated with experiential avoidance, autonomy and relatedness to others (Christopher, Saliba, & Deadmarsh, 2009). Chang and Arkin (2002) even established a relationship between materialism and personal insecurity. We posit that this negative relationship occurs because the acquisition of material things often becomes more important than the possession itself. Marketers create brands primarily based on associations (e.g., Keller, 1993); however, these associations are related to consumer expectations, which can rarely be met by material goods. It thus comes as no surprise that some research shows that highly materialistic individuals who received an intervention that decreased their level of materialism experienced an increase in self-esteem (Kasser et al., 2014). In addition, we posit that materialism will negatively affect consumers' satisfaction with their financial situation. After all, highly materialistic individuals are more likely to spend more money in the pursuit of well-being and in so doing jeopardise their financial security. Thus:

H1(a) Materialism will have a negative impact on consumers' perceived well-being.

H1(b) Materialism will have a negative impact on consumers' perceived satisfaction with their financial situation.

Consumers high in frugality typically restrain themselves by spending less to acquire possessions. The reverse pattern has been discovered for materialistic consumers (Kasser, 2005), even though frugality is distinct from non-materialism in that it emphasises self-restraint in their use of money rather than a self-imposed renunciation of material needs and desires. Research shows that individuals low in frugality reported lower self-esteem, and increased incidences of conflict with others (Kasser, 2005). We argue that this reluctance to spend is related to consumers' willingness to instead invest more time and effort in intangible products such as shared experiences with members of their community. This behaviour makes lasting, meaningful relationships more likely, which are ultimately positively associated with consumer well-being (Gruner, 2012). These experiences are also typically not tainted by marketing campaigns that create often unrealistic expectations through branding efforts (e.g., Keller, 1993). In addition, we argue that frugality is positively related to consumers' satisfaction with their financial situation. After all, highly frugal individuals are less likely to spend excessive amounts of money in the pursuit of well-being and are thus unlikely to live beyond their means, and in so doing jeopardise their financial security. Although we acknowledge that being overly tight with money (just like being overly loose) has been associated with lowered well-being (Tatzel, 2002) we posit that frugality exerts a positive effect on consumers' well-being as well as their satisfaction with their financial situation (e.g. Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2014). Thus:

H2(a) Frugality will have a positive impact on consumers' perceived well-being.

H2(b) Frugality will have a positive impact on consumers' perceived satisfaction with their financial situation.

Method

We invited undergraduate marketing research students to complete a short survey on materialism, frugality, perceived financial situation, and well-being. We received 242 responses; 239 respondents answered all questions, and were thus included in the analyses.

Materialism was measured with the 9-item Material Values Scale (Richins, 2004); utilising a 5-point Likert agreement scale, materialism items included "The things I own say a lot about how well I'm doing in life" and "Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure". Frugality was measured by eight items on a 7-point Likert agreement scale (Lastovicka et al., 1999); example items are: "If you can reuse an item you already have, there's no sense in buying something new" and "There are things I resist buying today so I can save for tomorrow". Two items examined financial situation: satisfaction with current financial situation was observed by a single item on a 7-point Likert Scale developed for this study; financial stress was measured by a single item from the European Social Survey (2010). Two measures of well-being were utilised in the survey: the 5-item Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et. al., 1985) and the 8-item Flourishing Scale (Diener et. al., 2010); both of these well-being scales were measured on a 7-point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. All scales demonstrated good internal consistency reliability with Cronbach's alpha: satisfaction with life ($\alpha = .881$), flourishing ($\alpha = .878$), materialism ($\alpha = .809$), and frugality ($\alpha = .806$).

In order to address the hypotheses, the data were analysed with SPSS (version 23). Correlations were used to identify relationships between the variables of interest. A series of linear regressions were then conducted to estimate the proportion of variance in well-being and perceived satisfaction with financial situation that can be accounted for by materialism and frugality.

Results

The sample consisted of 239 respondents: 93 (38.9%) males, 162 (60.3%) females, and two (0.8%) gender unspecified individuals. Respondents were aged 18-49 years ($M = 21.3$, $SD = 3.3$). Whilst all respondents were students, many undertook at least some paid work: part-time employment (53.1%), full-time employment (1.7%), not in the labour force (37.2%), and unemployed (7.9%). The majority of respondents grew up in a large city (63.6%), followed by a small city (24.7%), rural area (9.2%), and on a farm (2.5%).

There was a significant negative correlation between materialism and frugality ($r = -.208$, $p = .001$) (Table 1). Materialism was significantly and negatively related to satisfaction with life ($r = -.164$, $p = .011$) and satisfaction with financial situation ($r = -.129$, $p = .046$). Conversely, frugality showed significant positive relationships with satisfaction with life ($r = .308$, $p < .001$), flourishing ($r = .302$, $p < .001$), and satisfaction with financial satisfaction ($r = .209$, $p = .001$). As satisfaction with financial situation increased, so too did both well-being measures: satisfaction with life ($r = .492$, $p < .001$) and flourishing ($r = .299$, $p < .001$). In the same way, as financial stress increased, reported satisfaction with life ($r = -.197$, $p = .002$) and flourishing ($r = -.161$, $p = .013$) decreased significantly.

Table 1. *Correlations between materialism, frugality, well-being and financial perceptions.*

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Satisfaction with life (SWL)	1	.620**	-.164*	.308**	.492**	-.197**
2. Flourishing	.620**	1	-.068	.302**	.299**	-.161*
3. Materialism	-.164*	-.068	1	-.208**	-.129*	.093
4. Frugality	.308**	.302**	-.208**	1	.209**	-.124
5. Satisfaction with financial situation	.492**	.299**	-.129*	.209**	1	-.340**
6. Perception of financial stress	-.197**	-.161*	.093	-.124	-.340**	1

Note: $n = 239$ $**p < .01$; $*p < .05$

Materialism had a negative influence on satisfaction with life ($\beta = -.164$, $t(237) = -2.564$, $p = .011$); materialism could account for 2.7% of the variance in satisfaction with life ($R^2 = .027$, $F(1,237) = 6.575$, $p = .011$), but did not impact individual's flourishing scores ($F(1,237) = 1.108$, $p = .294$). Frugality significantly predicted wellbeing scores, positively influencing both satisfaction with life ($\beta = .308$, $t(237) = 4.989$, $p < .001$) and flourishing ($\beta = .302$, $t(237) = 4.876$, $p < .001$). Frugality alone significantly accounted for 9.5% of the variability in satisfaction with life ($R^2 = .095$, $F(1,237) = 24.887$, $p < .001$) and 9.1% of the variability in flourishing ($R^2 = .091$, $F(1,237) = 23.776$, $p < .001$).

Regarding financial perceptions, materialism negatively influenced satisfaction with financial situation ($\beta = -.129$, $t(237) = -2.003$, $p = .046$); materialism significantly accounted for 1.7% of the variance in satisfaction with financial situation ($R^2 = .017$, $F(1,237) = 4.012$, $p = .046$), and did not influence financial stress ($F(1,237) = 2.062$, $p = .152$). Frugality positively influenced satisfaction with financial situation ($\beta = .209$, $t(237) = 3.289$, $p = .001$); frugality significantly accounted for 4.4% of the variance in satisfaction with financial situation ($R^2 = .044$, $F(1,237) = 10.820$, $p = .001$), but had no significant influence on financial stress ($F(1,237) = 3.678$, $p = .056$).

Discussion

The analyses confirmed our hypotheses. Interestingly, there were linear relationships found between materialism, frugality, perceived financial situation, and well-being. In addition, we examined the relationship between materialism and frugality. The two constructs were negatively related, but not too strongly related, which provides further evidence that they are separate constructs and not merely the opposite ends of a continuum.

Materialism had a negative impact on consumers' perceived satisfaction with life; whilst aligned with previous research (e.g., Kasser & Ahuvia, 2002) this goes against the marketing ethos that possessing certain goods will improve consumers' lives. Of course, possessing goods is not inherently negative, but our data indicate that as individuals become highly materialistic, their well-being declines. The adage "less is more" seems to ring true. Intuitively, materialism also had a negative impact on consumers' satisfaction with their financial situation. Although it is obvious that acquiring possessions means spending money, the findings suggest that highly materialistic consumers may spend beyond their means or remain unsatisfied with their financial situation because they constantly strive to acquire more. In contrast, frugality had a positive impact on both measures of consumers' perceived well-being: satisfaction with life and flourishing. Some research posits that being too frugal may have a detrimental impact on well-being (Tatzel, 2002), but our results suggest a linear relationship, where higher frugality related to higher well-being. Unsurprisingly, frugality had a positive impact on consumers' satisfaction with their financial situation; frugal consumers may be quite satisfied with their

spending behaviours because they are in control of them. They may be able to more easily save their money and make more mindful purchases.

We previously argued that, beyond a certain point, materialism will have a consistently negative effect on consumer well-being. Future research should empirically explore where exactly this point may lie. It is to date unclear if there is an optimal point of materialism and what contingencies affect the position of such a peak point. Our findings also have implications for social marketing research and programs. Indeed, some results indicate that consumers low in frugality (or high in materialism), were less likely to behave in an environmentally friendly manner, for example, "by turning off electric lights in unused rooms; reusing aluminium foil, plastic baggies, and paper; saving water while bathing or brushing one's teeth; and walking or bicycling instead of driving in a car (Kasser, 2005, p. 14)". Future research should explore these relationships in more detail.

This study is limited in its generalisability. The respondents were predominantly young university students, and so we cannot generalise the findings beyond the studied context. Following this, there should be larger, more representative samples studied to confirm these results and extend subsequent implications. Further, as the survey was brief due to time constraints, it did not include constructs and other demographics that may have moderated the explored relationships or additionally contributed to the explained variance in well-being. Applicable variables that may be incorporated in future research could be the impact of personal values on materialism and frugality, and the moderating effects of reported personal and household income.

Conclusion

As poets and philosophers (unlike most marketers) have long cautioned, the pursuits of material goods often disappoints and even backfires (e.g., Kasser 2002). It is apparent that more research is needed to ascertain exactly how materialism and frugality affect well-being. The literature acknowledges numerous contingencies that may affect the explored relationships including human values, personality, and actual income amongst other variables. Consumer well-being may well entail forced or voluntary restraints on consumption. This insight entails a myriad of unexplored opportunities. Importantly, marketing knowledge could increasingly be used not to persuade consumers to buy more stuff, but instead to learn about and believe in the potential benefits of consuming less, and more mindfully.

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Recent Experience and Financial Decision Making: Does Intensity in Chronic Regulatory Focus make a Difference?

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Abstract

Outcome of prior investment plays an important role in subsequent similar financial decision making, subject to intensity of an individual's chronic regulatory focus. This study proposes that people may behave differently after experiencing the same outcome due to the moderating effect of the intensity of chronic regulatory focus. Using an experimental approach, with 110 adults, this study demonstrates that individuals tend to be more risk-seeking in subsequent similar financial decision making upon a success, as compared to a failure, in their prior investment. The intensity of chronic regulatory focus moderates the effect of a prior investment success, specifically, individuals with higher intensity of chronic regulatory focus tend to be more risk-seeking than those with lower intensity of chronic regulatory focus in the success condition. In a failure condition, most individuals tend to be more risk averse after a big failure in previous investment.

Keywords: Intensity of regulatory focus, recent experience, financial decision making, risk-seeking behaviour.

Track: Consumer behaviour

Exploration of the New Zealand Pet Food Market

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Abstract
New Zealand has a large and growing pet population, but little previous research has examined owners and their pet food purchasing behaviour. This study used a structured questionnaire and intercept interviews to collect data from cat and dog owners. Owners are influenced by their pets liking for a food and by its nutritional value, they primarily purchase pet food at supermarkets, and they are brand loyal. Children were found to have little involvement with feeding pets; this suggests that socialisation skills may not be gained from pet ownership in families. Evidence of pet humanisation was found, but this had no significant influence on pet food purchasing behaviour. This study has identified the importance of various pet food attributes and the high degree of brand loyalty among pet owners; there are also practical implications from the results of this study for pet food manufacturers or marketers.

Keywords: pet food; pet owners; purchasing behaviour

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Neighbor's Envy, Owner's Pride – Two Sides of the Same Coin?: Implications for Self-control

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Abstract

Pride is a self-conscious emotion; envy is an others' focused one. Is being the source of someone else's envy the same as being proud of yourself? The current research examines how these two similar emotions can differentially influence self-control. Specifically, it examines whether being proud is different than being the source of someone's envy, the flipped side of being proud, and finds that self-pride (vs. others-envy) increases self-control. Moderating effect of self-focus is also tested. A series of four studies is conducted to examine whether self-pride and others-envy influence self-control in health (Study 1a and b – attitude towards a gym), perseverance at a difficult task (Study 2), and financial self-control (Study 3). We also test moderating influence of factors such as self-awareness on the emotion and self-control relationship.

Keywords: Emotion, Pride, Envy, Self-control

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Who am I? : How Identity Conflicts Can Influence the Emotional Connections between Brands and Consumers

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Abstract

This paper investigates the effect of identity conflicts on self-brand connections in the context of self-expression. Past research demonstrated that individuals can go through different identity crises over the years and that these identity crises can be very stressful and painful (Baumeister, Shapiro, and Tice, 1985). This research examines whether identity conflicts compel consumers to use different coping strategies in order to resolve these crises and to communicate their identities to other consumers. It investigates how brands can serve as coping mechanisms to reduce uncertainty during periods of identity conflicts. Throughout the studies, the authors examine how identity conflicts can lead to different strategies for consumers in terms of communicating their identities to other consumers. Several moderating variables (i.e., affirmation of self-clarity, and intolerance to uncertainty) were explored to examine their impact on the relationship between identity conflicts and brand self-connections.

Keywords: Identity conflicts, Identity ambiguity, Self-expression, Self-brand connections

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Sharing with friends or strangers? How attachment avoidance impacts consumers' intention to share personal possessions

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Abstract

Previous research has shown that personal possessions can be perceived as an extension of self wherefore we propose that sharing them with others can be seen as a relationship building process. Drawing on possession literature, we show that attachment avoidance - the degree in which individuals tend to avoid closeness and dependency- has a negative effect on intentions to provide personal possessions for sharing (study 1). This effect is however reversed if the sharing partner is perceived as interpersonally distant (stranger vs. friend) (study 2) or as a dissimilar (vs. similar) individual (study 3). We suggest a mechanism according to which the perceived risk to build intimate relationships via sharing explains this pattern. Avenues for future research and implications for peer-to-peer sharing schemes are discussed.

Keywords: Sharing, Possessions, Decision-Making Process, Attachment

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Topology of Augmented Commerce: The State and Directions for Future Research

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Abstract

Augmented commerce, or the exchange and consumption of products and services in augmented reality - a real-time and interactive overlay of virtual information over the physical world - ushers in a new marketing environment. Unlike the existing conceptualizations of 'e' or 'm' commerce that rely on particular technologies (computer networks, mobile devices), a-commerce represents a break-through technology where the focus becomes augmented experience rather than the technology per-se. We argue this happens because a-commerce creates a more natural (embedded) and intuitive (embodied) interface that promotes situated cognition through tight coupling of virtual and physical stimuli at the point-of-sale. After describing a-commerce and its strategic implications for marketing practice we provide a synthesis of the literature for a typology of augmented experience, and a conceptual framework that links value creation through a-commerce. We identify knowledge gaps that suggest opportunities for additional research.

Keywords: Augmented reality, a-commerce, typology, situated cognition

Track: Consumer Behavior

Introduction

Augmented commerce (a-commerce) has the potential to revolutionize the marketing world as we currently know it. As an interactive way of commerce it has the ability to overlay the physical environment with virtual layers of information in real time, providing new ways of how consumers experience their environment and how marketers can potentially engage with the consumer at the point-of-sale (Azuma et al., 2001). Using augmented reality (AR) in marketing is referred to as augmented (a) commerce, a construct which is not present in research yet, contradictory to the prognoses of the growth in the overall AR software and hardware market. In this paper, we contribute by first synthesizing recent marketing literature on a-commerce and proposing a-commerce typology. Furthermore, we provide a conceptual framework to suggest how a-commerce encourages a particular mode of information processing in consumers called situated cognition – which received little attention in the marketing research to date. Last, we identify knowledge gaps and suggest opportunities for additional research.

Conceptual Development and hypotheses

A-commerce

Recent research in a range of disciplines such as information systems, education and media has suggested AR is a new form of media that merges real-time environments with digital information and overlays. Conversely, most extant research focuses on the technical aspects of the AR (Azuma et al., 2001). However, the potential of a-commerce lays beyond the application of technology in marketing. A-commerce is a world, and a new form of experience, where technology blends with physical stimuli to create a unique marketing environment. The impact of this new marketing environment may be comparable to the advent of the e-commerce at the end of the 20th century; and its implications for entrenched business models are no less profound. In the past e-commerce has seen consumers move from brick-and-mortar retailing to online channels (Avery, Steenburgh, Deighton, & Caravella, 2012). Now, AR is set to disrupt traditional e-commerce in similar ways. Its key features are the embedding and embodiment of technology, which alter consumer experience by virtual layers of information (sights, sounds, and even touch) that co-exist with ordinary physical stimuli and respond to the same embodied actions as objects in the physical world. In particular, a-commerce removes the "air-gap" between the processing power of computer networks and consumer behavior in the physical environment leading to greater situational awareness and better decision making. Because the a-commerce interface is natural (embedded) and more intuitive (embodied) than a website or a mobile phone application it offers a compelling substitute for traditional e-commerce. Notwithstanding these strategic implications, a-commerce to date has not received widespread attention in the marketing literature. The limited research has focused on the media characteristics of the AR technology (Javornik, 2016a) and user attitudes (Javornik, 2016b).

A-commerce typology

To understand the implications of a-commerce for marketing, we classify its value creating potential into multiple dimensions. These include the target and the type of augmentation, the marketing channel focus, and the interface characteristics. The target of augmentation can be considered along the dimensions of connectivity (individual versus social) and product versus experience augmentation (Wolny 2016). The type of augmentation refers to the degree of virtualization and represents transforming augmentation where the sensory perception of a physical product or service is changed by the addition or subtraction of virtual information; digitizing augmentation where a physical product or service is replicated virtually to be moved, manipulated or processed outside the confines of the physical environment; and generating augmentation where novel virtual products or services are embedded in the physical

environment. The marketing channel is the customer, retailer, or manufacturer focus to value creation, while the interface characteristics include the degree of embedding and embodiment of a-commerce.

The first dimension of augmentation describes the level of consumer connectivity when using a-commerce applications. Applications either augmented a certain product to an individual consumer or allow a certain level of connectivity with other consumers, friends or peers, creating a social aspect in the shopping process. Examples of connecting with other consumers during the augmented shopping process are usually sharing the augmented product using social networks. Mr.Spex, a European online retailer for eye-wear, enables the consumer to virtually try-on the eye-wear using the webcam of the consumer's computer by projecting the glasses on the consumer's face. The consumer additionally has the possibility to share images of himself wearing the glasses with friends and peers which creates a social augmented shopping experience.

Next to the level of consumer connectivity, augmentation distinguishes whether the product itself or the shopping experience as a whole is augmented. An example for product augmentation can be found at the leading online-fashion retailer in Europe, Zalando SE, which uses augmented 360-degree pictures of shoes to augment the product itself and create a better understanding of the physical product in a virtual way. The shopping process experience itself is not altered, as the consumer still browses through the products on the webpage but is able to view the products in an augmented manner. Akzo Nobel's a-commerce application "Dulux Visualizer" on the other hand, changes the shopping experiences of how consumers redecorate their homes in terms of shopping for new paint. The application enables consumer's to virtually view different colors on their walls at home to immediately understand how it would look like. The experience of the shopping experience in terms of imagination, planning and purchase is augmented by a-commerce, hence we speak about an 'augmented experience'.

Author(s)	Title	Year	A-commerce provider	Consumer connectivity	Augmentation level	Augmentation type	Marketing channel	Interface characteristics
Huang, T. L., Feng, H.L.	Formation of augmented-reality interactive technology's persuasive effects from the perspective of experiential value	2013	Self-developed	Individual	Product	digitizing	Customer	embodied
Javornik, A.	"It's an illusion, but it looks real" Consumer affective, cognitive and behavioral responses to augmented reality applications	2016	Ikea (Study 1), Mr. Spex (Study 2)	Individual	Product	digitizing	Customer	Embedded / embodied
Rashid, Z., Melià-Seguí, J., Pous, R.	Bridging Offline and Online World Through Augmentable Smart Glass Interfaces	2015	Self-developed	Individual	Product	digitizing	Customer	embedded
Javornik, A., Rogers, Y., Moutinho, A., Freemanm R.	Exploring the Use of a Make-up Augmented Reality App in a Store	2016	Magic-mirror application of a cosmetic brand	Individual	Experience	digitizing	Customer	embodied
Wang, C., Chiang, Y., Wang, M.	Evaluation of an Augmented Reality Embedded On-line Shopping System	2015	Lativ (Taiwanese online retailer)	Individual	Product	digitizing	Customer	embodied
Rese, A., Schreiber, S., Baier, D.	Technology acceptance modeling of augmented reality at the point of sale: Can surveys be replaced by an analysis of online reviews?	2014	Ikea	Individual	Product	digitizing	Customer	embedded

Table 1: Literature review

Applications of a-commerce typically have focused on the digitizing type of augmentation where virtual analogs of physical products help communicate and sale existing products (such as Zalando SE's 3D rotation of a shoe, Mr. Spex's virtual sunglasses, or Ikea's virtual furniture). However, transforming augmentations, such as Hyundai's 'x-ray' view of a car's engine for easier maintenance, holds the significant promise improved customer experience. Just as researchers noted bundling of services (Maggioni, Marcoz, & Mauri, 2011), bundling of AR experiences has the potential to create an added layer of value through a-commerce. Least explored is the generating type of augmentation, such as PSP's AR games or Chromville's AR coloring pages, where virtual characters can come to life in AR. To date, type of AR application and its potential for standalone AR products and services has not been investigated in the marketing literature.

Based on the reviewed literature, we clustered the extant studies into the a-commerce typology quadrants to identify potential gaps in research. We discovered a noticeable tendency of a-commerce applications in the individual-product quadrant, mainly analyzing the effects of online and mobile a-commerce application of existing retailers (e.g. Mr. Spex or Ikea) in the context of usability, technology acceptance or shopping performance. Only one study examined the effects of a-commerce on cognitive, affective and behavioral consumer responses (Javornik, 2016b). Studies to date exclusively considered the only digitizing type of augmentation leaving a significant blind spot in relation to other types of
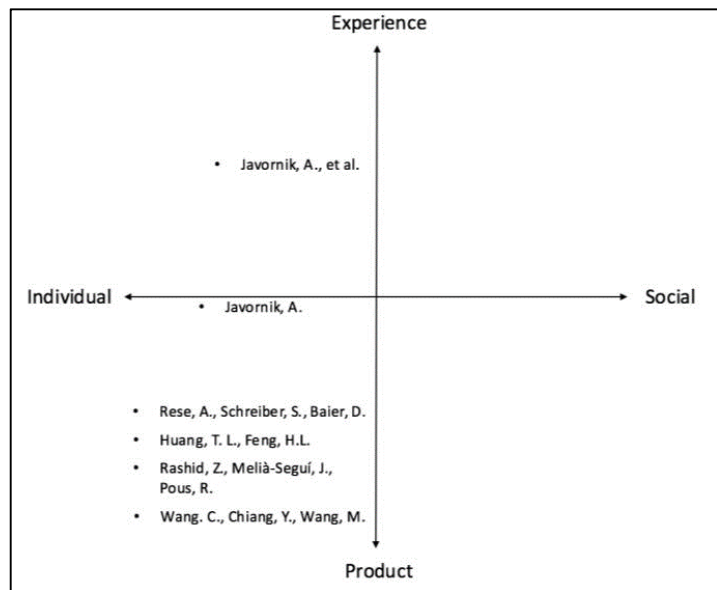
Figure 1: A-commerce typology of current studies (Wolny 2016)

augmentation, namely transforming and generating augmentation. The literature is also missing detailed analysis of augmentation according to the channel focus. Whereas customers can derive value through enhanced experience and more accurate decision making, retailers have the potential to gain real-time window to customer decision making processes allowing analysis and intervention at the point-of-sale. Historically, as retailers gained more information about their customers they were able to increase market power. In contrast, manufacturers can derive efficiency gains in production and maintenance of products with more timely information, design and evaluation offered by AR enhanced business processes. However, one of the most pressing gaps in the literature is the lack of conceptual understanding of the embedded and embodied nature of a-commerce interface and how it affects consumer behavior. We contend AR's a more natural and intuitive interface encourages situated modes of cognition, which create fit effects to improve experience and accuracy of decision making. Below we sketch out a potential for such research direction.

Situated Cognition

A-commerce is more likely to reduce the need for consumers to consult internal memory stores, past experiences and environmental cues such as shopping lists. Effectively, a-commerce couples the immediate environment with virtual layers of information, thereby allowing the

consumer to devote more attention and cognitive resources to the task at hand. This coupling of information with the task at hand 'situates' a person's cognition within the immediate environment. A-commerce offers a more intuitive, embodied way of shopping for products by embedding virtual information in the marketing environment. It is embodied as virtual information augmenting the real world, resulting in new, natural shopping experiences. Furthermore, it is embedded, as the shopping experiences become intuitive for the consumer as the blend of reality and virtuality seems real and authentic. Those aspects of a-commerce stimulate situated cognition (Schwarz, 2006) at the point of purchase. The foundation of the situated cognition literature differs from traditional cognitivism in the way that cognition is an activity which is situated (Schwarz, 2006; Semin & Smith, 2002; Wilson, 2002). In other words, all cognitive activity "takes place in the context of real-world environment, and it inherently involves perception and action" (Wilson, 2002, p. 626). Current literature divides situated cognition into coupled and decoupled cognition (Smallwood et al., 2012), where coupled cognition represents an agent's dynamic, coupled interaction with the environment. By contrast, decoupled cognition involves processing of information that is unrelated to the current, real-time environment.

Coupled cognition
Previous research (Wilson, 2002) states that situated cognition occurs in relationship to task-relevant inputs and outputs When engaging in cognitive processing, people are coupled to their environment and are affected by both situational and motor activity information, given that the information is relevant for the task. Given that people are coupled to their immediate environment, coupled cognition is a real-time cognitive skill used to control cognitive and physical actions (Wheeler, 2005). Several studies show that cognition is coupled to motor activities and environmental factors. Eelen, Dewitte, and Warlop (2013) show that information-processing is situated and context dependent by analyzing product evaluation in dependence of product orientation. In their study, right-handers preferred laundry detergent when the handle was oriented rightwards on the picture of the product presented. Förster (2004) found that bodily approach feedback (pressing one hand upwards or downwards against a table) influenced performance in creativity and analytical tasks. Smallwood et al. (2011) identified the immediate sensory environment as being the central focus of an agent's attention during coupled cognition, which makes the coupled cognition a process which takes place in real-time. In the same study, the authors show that participants have greater pupil diameters when coupled (compared to being decoupled) to the environment, indicating the processing of task-related stimuli.

Decoupled cognition
If the agent is decoupled from the environment or processes task-irrelevant information, the agent is considered to depend heavily on internal stimuli and memories and cognition is less dependent on sensory inputs. When applying these concepts to consumer decision-making, it is hard to imagine a shopping situation in which the consumer is completely decoupled from the consumption environment. Task related sensory inputs are always present in today's world, whether shopping in a traditional retail store or using electronic shopping platforms. The interdisciplinary field of sensory marketing (Krishna & Schwarz, 2014) and literature focusing on information overload and its effects on consumers (Jacoby, 1984) are example of fields which make use of the theory and apply it to cognitive actions and decisions. However, when making choices, consumers also refer back to previous purchases and experiences, hence making use of their memories and using decoupled cognitive processes. Depending on the situation and the cognitive task required from the agent, one state dominates the other and we propose that decision making and choices will differ depending on the dominating state.

Traditional marketing literature often views consumers' cognition as processes ranging from perception and following actions. Shopping itself is a situated activity, where consumers often experience unplanned purchases. These are often due to in-store-promotions, discounts or other stimuli causing consumers to deviate from their original shopping goal (Hilgard, 1962; Malter, 1996). This indicates goal-consistency is a potential issue when consumers are unable to stay on-task during a retail experience. Because of this, it may be that a-commerce offers consumers greater ability to stay 'on-task' in the shopping environment, thereby making purchase decisions that are more highly congruent with their original shopping goal. For example, consumers entering a shopping environment with a pre-defined goal (e.g. buying healthy products) may deviate from their pre-defined goal due to retail environmental influences such as color, ambient lighting, music and in-store-displays (Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn, & Nesdale, 1994; Wright, Newman, & Dennis, 2006). However, using a-commerce, shoppers will be less influenced by external cues other than the a-commerce device, shifting their planned-behavior processes towards the point-of-purchase. Typically, it is thought actions are consciously and deliberately determined based on the ideas, attitudes and values we hold (Ajzen, 1991). However, it is proposed a-commerce is supposed to positively influence consumer's choices in the way that they are more congruent with the consumer's pre-defined goal. As such, the following is proposed:

Proposition 1: A-commerce adds value to consumers' choices in the way that the goal-consistency is higher than without a-commerce present.

A-commerce has the ability to keep maintain the salience of the original shopping goal by using virtual layers of information to overlay the current environment. This allows an individual's cognition to become more situated, or coupled, so their actions are more task-related. As such, the primary influence of a-commerce is that it maintains or promotes a consumer's internal goal control (Chylinski, de Ruyter, Sinha, & Northey, 2014). Thus, when making decisions using a-commerce, those individuals who are more situated in, or coupled with, the immediate environment, will experience greater influence of a-commerce on goal consistency. Because of this, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Proposition 2: Coupled cognition will moderate the effect of a-commerce on consumer goal-consistency in the way that the effect is greater for coupled cognition than for decoupled cognition.

The two stated hypotheses serve as propositions for a theoretical model. This model serves as a starting point for future research in the field of a-commerce and situated cognition.

Discussion & Future Research

A-commerce is a promising, game-changing approach to marketing. The findings of our conceptual review indicate several strategic implications for marketing practice. First, the reviewed literature shows that the potential of a-commerce is not fully explored yet by practitioners and scholars, as current a-commerce applications mostly focus on augmenting the product instead of the shopping experience as a whole. Additionally, the social aspects of a-commerce are not well understood. While the focus on digitizing augmentation is gaining momentum, the value potential of transforming and generating aspects of augmentation have not been investigated. Similarly, retailer and manufacturer channel focus should offer meaningful opportunities for research. In terms of customer experience, further research is

needed to establish the psychological mechanisms responsible for value creation and customer experience.

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An Exploration of Ritualistic Practices Among Young Adult RYO Smokers

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Abstract

Young adult smokers increasingly smoke roll-your-own (RYO) tobacco because it is less expensive than tailor made cigarettes; however, RYO elicits sharply negative connotations, creating a tension that challenges social identities. We conducted 20 in-depth interviews to explore how young adult RYO users distance themselves from unattractive stereotypes. We identified three themes: establishing RYO's superiority; creating and enacting usage rituals, and ritual disruption. Participants saw RYO tobacco as more natural and found it facilitated control over their tobacco use and interactions with others. They developed rituals, and used specific artefacts and micro-behaviours to construct artisanal cigarettes to imbue RYO with positive attributes. Mandating unattractive rolling papers could disrupt these associations; however, further evidence that erroneous harm beliefs are widespread may justify restricting the key artefact – the product itself.

Key words: Ritualistic behaviours; young adults; smoking

Track: Consumer behaviour

Consumer awareness of the country of origin of fresh food

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Abstract
This study examines consumer awareness of country of origin (COO) of fresh produce at the point of purchase. Store exit interviews were conducted to examine consumers' perceived knowledge of COO and price of three fresh produce categories: meat, fruit and vegetables. Overall, awareness of COO was comparatively low, with higher recall of price. Awareness of COO for meat and vegetables was slightly higher than for fruit. Further findings indicate that while price is of greater importance to consumers than COO, for most consumers COO is at least of moderate importance. Moreover, New Zealand is ranked as the most preferred country for fresh food purchases and it was perceived that nearly all items purchased were locally produced. The findings contribute to public policy debate about the provision of country of origin labelling of fresh food.

Keywords: country of origin, fresh food, public policy, food labelling

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Bringing out the Devil in your Consumers: Morality Metaphors, Rebellion, and Indulgent Consumer Behaviour

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Abstract

We examined the effect of morality metaphors on consumer indulgence. Two experimental studies demonstrate that the associations tied to morality metaphors (i.e., the colour black, devil) influence indulgent consumer behaviour. We argue the phenomenon observed is due to rebellion metaphorical mapping, whereby consumers make metaphorical inferences based on their knowledge surrounding metaphorical cues (i.e., black/white, devil/angel), and associate them with their conceptualisation of rebellion and indulgence. Results of Study 1 provide evidence to suggest that exposure to the immoral (moral) metaphor, the colour black (white), increases (lessens) indulgent consumer behaviour, that is, consumption of 'full fat' ('low fat') chips. Study 2 demonstrates that consumer rebellion mediates the effect of morality metaphors on indulgent consumer behaviour. This research provides evidence that indulgent consumer behaviour can be cued through embedding morality metaphors at various consumer touch points to increase consumer rebellion.

Keywords: Metaphor, mapping, rebellion, indulgence, behaviour

Track: Consumer Behaviour

I Feel Poor, so I Help: The Impact of Financial Constraints on Donation Intention

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Abstract

In light of compensation motivation, this study investigates how feeling financially constrained affects individuals' donation intention by means of power state. Results of two lab experiments demonstrate that financial constraints impair individuals' power state; individuals who thus feel less powerful will elicit higher donation intention because of their compensation motivation. Further, this study also finds that different donation settings (private vs. public) moderate the aforementioned mechanism. Specifically, donation in public enhances the above effect by compensating power state, leading to even higher donation intention.

Keywords: financial constraint, power, donation intention, donation setting

Track: consumer behaviour

Introduction

Prior research in resources scarcity has mainly focused on the effect of individuals' actual resources on their prosocial behaviours. For example, Holland, Silva, and Mace (2012) find that people with scarce property are more reluctant to share their limited possessions and thus show lower donation intention. Unlike those studies, the current study formulates the research angle on perceived resources scarcity and investigates its effect on donation intention. That is, how individuals' feeling financially constrained affects their subsequent donation intention and what mechanism plays the role.

By definition, perceived financial constraints refer to the extent to which people believe that their financial situation restricts their desired consumption (Tully, Hershfield, and Meyvis, 2015). Thus, financial constraints are subject feelings resulted from a comparison of actual financial situation and consumption desire. Several prior studies have shown that financial constraints affect individuals' control of their financial resources and thus become one of the most important factors threatening people's short-run power state (Zhou et al., 2009). Further, as Rucker et al. (2012) point out, when individuals' power state is threatened, they are more likely to initiate some actions to meet their psychological needs, and thus compensation motivation is triggered. In light of the aforementioned theory and prior research, this study predicts that feeling financial constrained impairs individuals' power state; individuals of low power state tend to donate more money as compared to those whose power state is of no threat.

Further, extent prior research in altruistic donation motivation has shown that individuals expect to demonstrate/achieve social status or control by helping others (Bird and Smith, 2005). Donation in public is found to enhance such helping behavior because of social signalling effect (Griskevicius, Ackerman, and Cantu, 2013; Rucker et al. 2012). Hence, this study also predicts that different donation settings (private vs. public) moderate the impact of power state on donation intention.

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

Feeling of Financial Constraints, Power State, and Donation Intention

The concept of financial constraints originates from the study of resources scarcity, which has been widely investigated in the areas of economy (Walras, 1989), sociology (Booth, 1984), and psychology (Griskevicius et al., 2013). Based on prior research, resources scarcity refers to a gap between demand and supply. However, those scholars also point out that resources scarcity manifest in two basic formats: absolute shortage of certain resources and relative shortage of certain resources as compared to the demand. In the same vein as the latter, adapted from Tully et al.' (2015) study, feeling financially constrained refers to a psychological state that does not necessarily imply poverty or a literal absence of money; instead, it is a feeling resulted from a psychological comparison between what individuals possess and what they desire for. This study takes this stance and activates situational financial constraints in the subsequent manipulations.

Several studies have explored different effect of financial constraints on individuals' behavioral decisions. Sharma and Alter (2012) find that financial constraints activate individuals' negative emotions, which would in turn lead to uniqueness seeking behavior. Likewise, Roux et al. (2016) propose that financial constraints trigger individuals' competition orientation as well as altruism, which may subsequently result in the decisions towards self-welfare. In light of Roux et al.'s (2016) study as well as other altruistic motivations studies in donation, we speculate that when individuals feel financial constraints, they are more likely to donate more money

towards those who need help than those who are not financially constrained. Thus, we formulate our first hypothesis as follows:

H1: The feelings of financial constraints increase individuals' donation intention.

Individuals' power state refers to mental judgment and perception of their possession of power. Power is a subjective perception, which may either manifest in a long-term and relatively stable sense or in a short-run and situational perception (Rucker and Galinsky, 2008). Given that situational power state is found to be more influential in behavioral decisions than the chronicle (Anderson and Galinsky, 2006), this study takes the situational stance and explores how situational power state mediates the effect of financial constraints on donation behavior.

Prior research demonstrates that feeling financially constrained negatively affects individuals' power state (Zhou et al., 2009). That is, as compared to those who lack of financial constraints, financially constrained individuals tend to elicit lower level of power state. Financial resources (e.g., money) are found satisfy not only individuals' material needs, but also psychological needs such as happiness. For example, Zhou, Vohs, and Baumeister (2009) propose that money brings people confidence, power and efficacy, which may alleviate the pains resulting from social exclusion. Similarly, Zaleskiewicz et al. (2013) demonstrate that money reduces people's existential anxiety. On the contrary, lack of money may make people realize that they are unable to meet their desire with limited money and incapable of control valuable resources. Hence, facing with high level of financial constraints, individuals will experience the vibrancy of intensified scarcity and the decrease of control. Such perception resulted from financial constraints coincides with one of the key attributes of power – inequality of social relations- and thus negatively affects individuals' power state.

Prior research also proposes that individuals' power state negatively affects donation intention (Griskevicius et al., 2010). That is, individuals who are low in power state exhibit higher donation intention than those who are high in power state. Specifically, individuals' power states seem to be threatened when they hold the view that they lack the control of tangible money resources, consequently triggering both their needs and inclination for power. According to the mental inclination theory, people who encounter with power insufficiency will consider others more important than the self and thus tend to exhibit communal orientation, such as allocating resources to others (Piff, Kraus, and Cote, 2010). Hence, individuals who are low in power state are expected to exhibit higher donation intention as compared to those who are high in power state.

Similarly from the mental needs perspective, as people instinctively diverge from power insufficiency, the compensation motivations are primed when individuals perceive their power state is threatened, resulting in actions such as conspicuous consumption (Rucker and Galinsky, 2008) to increase the power state (Rucker and Galinsky, 2008). Given that donation behavior conduces to the building of altruistic images, the achievement of social status (Bird and Smith, 2005), and the representation of power (Griskevicius et al., 2013), individuals who are low in power state are expected to exhibit higher donation intention as compared to those who are high in power state. Hence, we propose the following hypothesis:

H2: Individuals' power state mediates the effect of feeling financially constrained on donation intention. Specifically, as compared to those who feel lower financially constrained, individuals who feel financially constrained exhibit lower level of power state, which consequently results in higher donation intention.

The Moderation Role of Donation Setting

Ruck et al. (2012) further point out that though the influence of mental needs and inclination may coexist when individuals' power state is threatened, the influence of mental needs works prior to that of mental inclination (Rucker et al., 2012). Therefore, when individuals are low in power state, their mental needs will be triggered and thus lead to a dominance of compensation motivation. On the contrary, when individuals are high in power state, their mental inclination for power will work rather than mental needs because the latter fails to be activated. Based on these assumptions, we propose that the influence of power state on donation intention varies across donation settings, namely, public versus private settings.

First, when requested to donate in the public setting, individuals of different levels of power state exhibit donation intention differently. On one hand, as the mental inclination theory posits, high power state is coupled with private orientation, thus, individuals who are high in power state tend to spend more money on themselves (Rucker et al., 2012) and endow their possessions with more value (Dubois et al., 2011), but they are less likely to care about others' welfare (Piff et al., 2010). We infer, from the aforementioned theories, that individuals who are high in power state have low donation intention. On the other hand, as the costly signaling theory argues, such public altruistic behavior brings values to individuals in two aspects. One is that public donation conveys the intention of altruism, consequently improveing individuals' social status and gain power (Griskevicius et al., 2013). The other is that donation in public shows ones' power and the ability to control sufficient resources, because altruistic behaviors are considered expensive and a type of sacrifice (Griskevicius et al., 2013). Thus, we speculate that individuals who are low in power state exhibit high donation intention in the public donation setting because such public donation helps meet their needs for power compensation.

Second, when requested to donate in the private setting, individuals exhibit similar donation intention across different levels of power state. As mentioned previously, high power state couples with private orientation, leading to low donation intention regardless of donation settings. Meanwhile, also in light of costly signalling theory, private donation simply shows caring about others' welfare (Rucker et al., 2012). It fails to increase social status or power, and therefore, it is unable for those low in power state to use for power compensation. We thus propose the following hypothesis:

H3: The donation setting moderates the relationship between power state and donation intention. Specifically, in a public donation setting, individuals who are in lower power state exhibit higher donation intention than those in higher power state, but the discrepancy disappears in a private donation setting.

Study 1

Study 1 aims to investigate the impact of feeling financially constrained on donation intention (H1) and the mediating role of power state (H2), while at the same time ruling out negative emotion as a potential mediator.

Method

Study 1 employed a one-factor (feeling financially constrained vs. control) between-subject design. A total of 64 students (M_{age} = 23; 31 male) from a Chinese university participated in this experiment. Adapted from Tully et al.'s (2015) study, a recall manipulation of financial constraints was conducted. Subjects who were randomly assigned to the experimental condition were requested to write about one of the most-recently-happened financially constrained experiences, whereas those who were in the control condition were asked to write about one of the most-recently-happened incidents.

After the manipulation, participants accomplished the manipulation check items by indicating (1) to what extent they felt their desire was restricted by the current financial situation and (2) to what extent they felt they would consume goods unrestrained on a seven-point scale (1 = very low, 7 = very high).

Participants then read a hypothetical scenario, which requested them to donate money to support a local education project. Their donation intention was subsequently measured. Adapted from Roux et al. (2016), donation intention was measured by answering (1) to what extent they intend to donate money to support this project on a seven-point scale (1 = very low, 7 = very high) and (2) the amount of money they intend to donate ranging from $1 to $20. In order to test the mediation effect, we also measured individuals' power state by asking the participants to report their current power state on a seven-point scale (1 = very low, 7 = very high).

We also measured negative emotion as a potential mediator. Specifically, prior research has illustrated that financial constraints induce negative emotion (Haushofer and Fehr, 2014) and consequently influence donation behavior (Small and Verrochi, 2009). We thus measured negative emotion by employing Small and Verrochi's (2009) measurement. In addition, given that men and women are consistently found to hold different orientation (private vs. communal), which in turn affects donation intention (Bakan, 1966), we tested gender as a control variable.

Results

A T-test was used to check our manipulation of financial constraints. Results indicated that participants in the experimental condition felt more financially constrained than those in the control group ($M_{financial\ constraints}$ = 5.25, SD=1.13, $M_{control}$ = 3.56, SD=1.16; t = 5.87, $p < 0.01$), indicating that our manipulation was successful.

We also ran one-way ANOVA to test H1. Results indicated a significant main effect of financial constraints on donation intention ($F_{(1,\ 62)}$ =15.34, $p < 0.0001$). Participants in the financially constrained condition exhibited higher donation intention ($M_{financial\ constraint}$ =5.15, SD =1.19) than those in the control group ($M_{control}$ =3.97, SD =1.27). Thus, H1 was supported.

Further, we adopted a bootstrapping procedure (Hayes, 2012; 5,000 bootstrap samples; SPSS Macro PROCESS Model 4) to test the mediating effect of power state. Results revealed a significant indirect effect (mediation effect size = 0.4168) of how power state mediated the impact of financial constraints on donation intention (95%CI = 0.1354, 0.8380) with zero being not included. Thus, H2 was supported.

In addition, we used the bootstrapping procedure that generated a sample size of 5000 to rule out the potential mediator of negative emotion. Results indicated a non-significant effect of

negative emotion (95%CI =-0.1017, 0.5671), with zero being included, ruling out the possible mediating effect of negative emotion.

Study 2
Study 2 attempts to demonstrate the moderating effect of the donation setting (private vs. public; H3). We propose that in a public donation setting, individuals in lower power state exhibit higher donation intention than those in higher power state, but the discrepancy disappears in a private donation setting.

Method
We conducted a 2 (financial condition: financial constraints vs. control) × 2 (donation setting: private vs. public) between-subject design. A total of 138 students (M_{age}=23; 63 male) from a Chinese university participated in this experiment. Procedures, manipulation, and measurements were identical to those in Study 1 except that the current study manipulated the donation setting. Specifically, participants in the public donation condition were informed that their name and the amount of money they donated would be posted on the university's website as an acknowledgement, whereas participants in the private donation condition were told that their personal information would be kept confidential.

Results
We ran a T-test to check our manipulation of financial constraints. Results indicated that participants in the experimental condition felt more financially constrained than those in the control group ($M_{\text{financial constraints}}$ = 5.1, SD=1.00, M_{control} = 3.64, SD=1.11; t = 8.13, $p < 0.01$), indicating that our manipulation was successful.

According to Edwards and Lambert (2007), the mediation model of present study was a second-stage moderated mediation model. We used a bootstrapping procedure (Hayes, 2012; 5,000 bootstrap samples; SPSS Macro PROCESS Model 14) to test the moderated mediating effect (H3).Results revealed that in the public donation setting, power state mediated the impact of financial constraints on donation intention (95% CI = 0.2910, 0.8923; mediation effect size=0.57), with zero being excluded. On the contrary, in the private donation setting, the indirect effect of power state was found insignificant (95% CI=-0.5397, 0.2298) with zero being included. The moderated mediation effect was justified and H3 was thus supported.

General Discussion
The current study conducted two lab experiments to investigate why and how feeling financially constrained affects individuals' donation intention. Specifically, in the realm of compensation motivation, we illustrated that financially constrained individuals have higher donation intention, and the process is mediated by individuals' power state. In addition, we propose that donation settings moderate the relationship between individuals' power state and donation intention. In light of costly signalling effect and of mental needs and inclination for power, public donation setting enhances the effect of low power state on donation intention.

This study contributes to the current research body in three aspects. First, we identify financial constraints as a new key antecedent of donation intention and propose that the relationship between the two is positive, results contributing to the research area of helping behavior. Second, unlike prior research, which focuses on absolute/actual scarcity, we formulate our study with an emphasis on relative/perceived scarcity and explore its effect on helping behavior, results shedding light on the field of resources scarcity. Third, unlike prior studies that consistently using altruism or emotion to explain how and why helping behavior occurs,

we propose a new perspective to better address the mechanism issue of helping behavior. Individuals' situational power state is the core of our arguments. In addition, we posit a boundary condition, under which public donation settings enhance the effect of low power state on donation intention, which may enlighten our further thoughts from a cross-cultural perspective.

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Suppressing Suppressors: Australia's Prohibition of Sound Moderation in Firearms.

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Abstract
This paper compares the status of firearm suppressors in Australia and New Zealand. In Australia suppressors are tightly restricted in all States while in New Zealand they are available to the public without regulatory control. The results of NSW Government-commissioned research list the advantages and disadvantages of de-criminalising what is undeniably a contentious product. The report lists the benefits; including hearing-loss prevention and reduced noise pollution. The disadvantages of suppressor use include the potential for criminal misuse and the public perception of criminality associated with the product. The 2011 report concluded no obvious correlation between suppressors and criminal activity in other permissive societies however there appears to be little change in Australia since the report was tabled in Parliament. While it is not the intention of the authors to advocate for change in either country the stark contrast in regulatory control given the similarity of cultures and provenance is noteworthy.

Keywords: Firearm, Gun, Silencer, Suppressor.

Track: Consumer Behaviour.

Introduction.
Suppressors are sometimes referred to as silencers or sound moderators. They are devices that fit on the end of a firearm barrel with the express purpose of lowering the muzzle pressure. In other words, suppressors make a gun quieter. While legal definitions in Australia use the term 'silencer' this is considered a misnomer by aficionados. The term silencer suggests, and the media portrays that it is possible to silence a bullet as it exits a barrel. Suppressor or moderator is a more precise definition as while these devices do lower the report at the muzzle they are incapable of effectively eliminating it. Compounding the fallacy of the silencer is how suppressors do not lower the velocity of a bullet, which if travelling higher than the speed of sound makes the same supersonic crack as if no suppressor was attached.

In Australian States the sale and possession of suppressors is heavily regulated. It would be fair to say that the Australian regulatory authorities view the use of suppressors by civilian shooters with trepidation. There is however legal provision in all States to permit the use of suppressors by designated shooters under strictly controlled regimes (e.g. wildlife officers, rangers and related government departments). In New South Wales, firearms legislation defines a suppressor as any article or device designed for attachment to a firearm for the purpose of muffling, reducing or stopping the noise created by the firearm (NSW Firearms Registry, (2010) Clause 4[3]). Suppressors are more broadly defined in the legislation as a 'prohibited weapon' under clause 4(3) of Schedule 1 of the Weapons Prohibition Act 1998 (the Weapons Act). When a suppressor is attached to a firearm the firearm is then considered a Prohibited Weapon. This then requires applicants to obtain and satisfy the requirements of three licenses;
A Prohibited Weapon Permit, to authorise the possession and use of the silencer.
A Firearms Licence, to authorise the possession and use of firearms, and
A Firearms Permit, to authorise the possession and use of the prohibited firearm.
(Firearms Registry Prohibited Weapons Silencer Permit, Fact Sheet P368, 2016).

In stark contrast New Zealand (NZ) does not regulate the sale of these devices. Any person of any age may purchase a suppressor; either on the internet or in a gun shop. NZ suppressor prices range from $50NZD for typically small calibres to $1,000NZD for the largest calibres. The criteria for price determination includes; precision, design, calibre, and materials (e.g. titanium, steel and alloys such as Inconel). In the United States (US), due to a greater influence of brand equity along with a suppressor licensing regime suppressor prices are higher. There are also anecdotal opinions among shooters that US suppressors are of higher quality than NZ. Prices in the US vary from $300 to $1,500 USD, plus a mandatory $200 Federal Government tax.

Method.
This paper is based largely on a secondary research report commissioned by the NSW Government in 2011. The research question was, 'What are the impediments to the use of sound moderators on firearms in NSW for the purposes of hunting and shooting?' In answering this, three authors and two research assistants collected information from the web; comprising 29 related reports and material from over 100 websites. The data included firearm blogs, firearm manufacturers and retailer data, data from legislative entities, government policies and regulations. This material was analysed over a three month period in early 2011. The section on community attitudes was further fortified by a related nine-year ethnographic study, commencing in 1999 and published in 2009 (MacCarthy, 2009b). The report was presented to the NSW Government and subsequently tabled in Parliament (Hansard, 2016). This conference paper also includes subsequent research after the report was published (MacCarthy, 2009a; 2013; MacCarthy & O'Neill, 2010; Martin et al, 2013), further informed by unpublished

research conducted by the NSW Parks and Wildlife Service (NPWS, 2016). This paper is a distilled compilation of these key findings in relation to a contentious product - namely firearm suppressors.

The Politics of Sound.
There are a wide variety of approaches taken by First World countries in their dealings with suppressors. These approaches range on a continuum from uncontrolled use (New Zealand, Norway, Poland), to controlled use (United Kingdom, Finland, Germany, USA), to zero tolerance (Australia, Austria, Hungary, Pakistan). Most countries that permit suppressor use outside the military have regulatory systems that identify the user and control the use of suppressors. In the case of zero tolerance regimes however, there remains a perception that suppressors are critical weapons components, will find their way into the hands of criminals and this will ultimately result in misuse. For example, recent debate concerning the report from the 2011 study evoked the following implied stigmata from the Green's Party Member in the NSW Parliament, Mr David Shoebridge, "They are prohibited weapons" (Hansard, 2011). Notwithstanding suppressors are currently available in controlled situations the pejorative description, 'weapon' underpins both the speaker's agenda (Shoebridge, ND) and the NSW legislature's appreciation of the product.

Among other things the 2011 study determined that a suppressor is not a device which of itself can cause harm or injury and therefore to suggest it is a weapon is arguably a mischievous falsity. One literal appreciation of the product implies they are similar in principle and no more or less benign than a motor vehicle muffler. In contrast however it appears some in Australian society have conferred the status of a demonic device worthy of fictionalisation and criminalisation. This, compounded by the current regulatory imperative to control (as opposed to relax) all aspects pertaining to firearms as a product, and shooting as a consumer lifestyle in Australia will likely result in opposition to the decriminalisation of suppressors. Opposition since publication of the report has manifested in the NSW Police Commissioner stating in the media that the NSW Police will not entertain any changes to the law where suppressors are concerned. In Western Australia the then WA Police Licensing Enforcement Division Assistant Director expressed disdain of the 2011 report in formal correspondence (Angwin, Sep. 2011).

One current case illustrating opposing attitudes towards civilian access to suppressors is that of Mr. C Allen vs. the Police Commissioner. In this 2016 case a NSW farmer has appealed the Police Commissioner's continued opposition to suppressor ownership, in what has been described by legal counsel as a 'David and Goliath' tussle. Initially, a licensing request by Mr. Allen for a suppressor was denied by the NSW Firearm Registry. Mr. Allen has since obtained legal representation and successfully challenged the Commissioner's decision in the NSW Civil & Administrative Tribunal (NCAT) (NSW Caselaw, 2016a). The Commissioner subsequently appealed NCAT's decision in the Appeals Panel. In a decision handed down on the 29th June 2016 the panel upheld the original decision whereby dismissing the Police Commissioner's appeal. This essentially reaffirms Mr. Allen's privilege to purchase and use a suppressor in NSW (NSW Caselaw, 2016b). The Commissioner has declined to appeal further and Mr Allen is now in legal possession of a suppressor manufactured in the ACT. The cost of the suppressor and ancillary legal cost are unknown.

Product Advantages and Disadvantages.
The 2011 university study revealed a number of advantages in the use of sound moderation, the most obvious one being hearing loss and tinnitus prevention. Related studies prove beyond

doubt that un-moderated firearm discharge is of a level capable of causing hearing loss/damage to not only the shooter but persons and animals nearby, and that moderators mitigate this hazard to a degree predicated by the caliber, muzzle velocity, type of moderator, proximity and angle from the muzzle (Flamme, 2011; Nondahl et al, 2000; Paakkonen & Kyttala, 1994; Pawlwczyk-Luszczynska et al, 2004; Prosser, Tartari and Arslan, 1988). Collateral benefits from the use of suppressors include increased accuracy (in many, but not all instances), reduced perceived recoil by up to 40%, reduced stock disturbance, facilitation of more efficient animal husbandry and more humane culling.

On a community level sound moderated firearms reduce noise pollution, which is increasingly beneficial in situations of growing urbanization and concern over how noise influences wellbeing and lifestyle. The use of moderated firearms has the added benefit of increasing firearm safety by allowing for more efficient communications in the vicinity of the shooter/s, and by increasing the overall length of a firearm making more difficult unintended sweeping of the firearm over objects, animals and people in the shooters vicinity.

Disadvantages of de-criminalising suppressors pertain to the possibility of criminals purchasing these devices with a view to committing one of two types of crime; poaching and unauthorized recreational shooting, and serious violent offences such as robbery and murder. Statistics gleaned, along with the lesser concern in permissive overseas constituencies suggest the likelihood of this occurring in Australia is similarly low. Suppressor misuse is outweighed by the benefits to a degree consistent with the cultural values of these overseas communities. Whether Australian regulatory authorities continue to apply the same weighting to opposing criteria remains to be seen. Other disadvantages of suppressors relate to the cost, of amounts that in some cases are equal to the firearm itself (i.e. doubling the cost). Also the weight and shift in balance-point further away from the shooter makes the firearm heavier and to some extent, more unwieldy. Notwithstanding, there appears to be little evidence in the literature that moderators are related to crime. As Clark (2007) sums the statistics in the United States;

First, use of silencers in crime is rare. Even when silencers are possessed they are even less frequently used. Silencer use is not primarily connected to organized crime. There were a few such cases, but in general, use of silencers appears to be a poor proxy for organized crime. Silencers probably are more threatening to their victims on a psychological level when used in crimes such as armed robbery. There is no evidence to suggest that criminals who possess silencers are more likely to be violent. For example, in the 50 cases of silencers found in drug raids, none of the defendants used a silencer to shoot at police, and in only a few of these cases was there any resistance at all. Whether silencers should be illegal at all is a good question. (p. 54)

Similarly research conducted in the UK in by the Home Office into gun crime and the illegal firearms market found a low level use of moderators in relation to violent crimes (Hales, Lewis and Silverstone, 2006). Of the offenders convicted of gun related crimes interviewed only 4 of 84 for the study were in possession of moderators. Other reports by the Home Office and British Authors do not deem the concept of moderator as worthy of noting (Dodd et al, 2004; Hales, Lewis and Silverstone, 2006; Home Office, 2006; Povey and Kaiza, 2006).

Further, Australian law-makers compete with the prospect that any mischievous person suitably motivated can construct a working suppressor given the ready-availability of information and simple design parameters. Information on suppressor design is readily available on the internet. For example, an improvised suppressor can be as simple as taping an

empty plastic drink bottle to the end of a barrel (caliber permitting). Another design, advertised on EBay couples a purchasable thread adapter to fit a motor vehicle oil filter on the end of a barrel. Notwithstanding proxy suppressors, a good quality commercial-equivalent suppressor can be manufactured on a lathe with only entry-level efficacy (NoiseLessClub, ND).

Australia vs. New Zealand.
While there are a number of different availability regimes in place by different countries the most relevant and patently obvious distinction is the comparison between the Australian and New Zealand regimes. Both countries share similar cultural values and history. Both share the same area of the globe - the Antipodes. Both countries share bonds forged in the ANZAC tradition. Both were colonized by the British and remain members of the Commonwealth. Both have similar ethnic make-up while valuing multiculturalism and a sense of indigenous past. Both are primary producers with similar hunting and animal husbandry issues. Both Australia and New Zealand share similar laws, as adapted from British Common Law and the Westminster system. Yet both countries view suppressors entirely differently. In Australia suppressors are judged by regulatory authorities to be weapons worthy of strict regulation. In New Zealand the government attaches no criminality to moderators and there are no restrictions of any kind. The attitude of one New Zealand gun shop owner summed up the collective pragmatism; "I don't know what the fuss is all about?" and, "…some farmers won't let you shoot on their property without a suppressor." (M30) (due to the belief that suppressors reduce stock disturbance).

New Zealand holds the view that moderators are merely non-critical devices designed to lower the sound report of an otherwise noisy firearm. There is no suggestion in the regulatory literature that suppressors possess any sentience and discount the possibility they are criminally contaminated (as portrayed in popular fiction). In New Zealand firearm sound suppression is viewed as something that has health, community and animal welfare benefits. Consequently the NZ authorities have deemed there will be no restriction on moderator availability. In contrast Australia holds the opposite view, that suppressors are a device associated with potential criminality. The banning of which is in the public interest; exclusively in order to mitigate the possibility moderators are used to facilitate crime. Unlicensed possession of a moderator will invite criminal prosecution, confiscation of firearms and a criminal record. Given the entirely opposite regimes between Australia and New Zealand it begs the question as to why two similar countries have such opposing views on the product.

Discussion.
The findings of the original 2011 report suggest the advantages of sound moderation in firearms outweigh the potential disadvantages. Regardless, little has changed in the NSW suppressor regulatory regime since the report was tabled in Parliament. Both the report and the relative regulatory regimes of Australia and New Zealand illustrate the transcendent nature of bias and agenda in the matter. It should be noted that while the report advocates for a revision of the Australian regulatory regime it is not the intention of this paper to do similar. The purpose of this paper is to highlight the arbitrary stewardship of a contentious product, associated with an even more contentious product, that being firearms. The passionate and intransigent agendas of all stakeholders are on display here. To be fair to the claim, this arguably includes the authors of this paper and the authors of the original report. For example, if we accept there has been no recent serious misuse of suppressors in other societies that is no guarantee it will continue to be the case tomorrow. Or that the weighting ascribed to advantages and disadvantages in the report are anything other than arbitrary, and therefore the report can be argued is no more than an educated manifesto. But then again, so are the weightings ascribed by the regulatory

authorities in both Australia and New Zealand. Regardless of researcher paradigm and method; qualitative or quantitative, hard science/soft-science the truth in this case appears to be 'measured' through the filters of personal agenda. Surely Robert Rosenthal and his rats would agree with this statement (1963). 'Lies, damned lies and statistics' - Is this a dangerous or benign product? Who is right and who is wrong? "Right and wrong has never been obscure, it is as clear as the future" (Laurencius, 2015).

Where firearms are concerned, this potentially dangerous product fuels an ongoing passionate debate that affects by association accessories like suppressors. It is not as simple as discounting emotion and educating any technical ignorance that surrounds suppressors. Even if this were possible the debate is largely won or lost by the 'in good faith' agendas of key decision makers, influenced by various committed stakeholders. By those who wield their social leverage in a climate of majority-population ambivalence towards firearms. For such a niche, contentious product it is an argument that most Australians don't want to hear.

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Household food waste and the green consumer

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Abstract

Food waste is a global problem and poses environmental, economic and ethical issues. A survey of 224 respondents showed that consumers were putting a good deal of effort into reducing food waste and the main motivating factors were concern over the cost of food wasted and a move towards a more environmentally-friendly lifestyle. The green consumers showed a high propensity to engage in sustainable food consumption behaviour, such as composting, eating in season, buying locally grown food and growing their own herbs or vegetables. The main reasons for throwing away food were purchase of fresh produce with a short life, spoilage and forgetting about food stored in the fridge. Surprisingly, most consumers were unsure as to whether food waste was harmful to the environment. The priority for social marketers and local government is to address this lack of knowledge and highlight that wasting less food is a climate-friendly choice.

Keywords: food waste, green consumption, consumer motivation.

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Background and conceptual foundations

Food waste is a global problem, amounting to an estimated 30% of global food production (Gustavsson et al., 2011). In Australia, studies claim that the average Australian household throws away $1,036 of food annually (Foodwise, 2014) or roughly $5.2 billion worth of food each year (Queensland Government, 2014). Food waste has ramifications for the environment in terms of a greenhouse effect and land real-estate occupation (Wang, Odle III, Eleazer and Bariaz, 1997). It represents the inefficient use of scarce resources such as water and energy (Reynolds et al., 2014), a waste of money (Baker, Fear & Denniss, 2009) and an environmental problem through significant methane gas production from rotting food (Farr-Wharton et al., 2012). According to Gentil and Poulsen, 2012), avoiding food waste can provide significant C02 savings throughout the supply chain and the food waste management chain (i.e., infrastructure and technology need for handling and treating waste).

Although there is a vast literature on green consumption (Verain, Dagevos & Antonides, 2015; Worsley, Wang & Burton, 2015; Reynolds et al., 2015) and a growing literature on household food waste (Lea & Worsley, 2008; Cox et al., 2010; Sharp eet al., 2010; Reynolds et al., 2014; Jörissen et al., 2015; Parizeau et al., 2015; Principato et al., 2015; Stancu et al., 2016; Thyberg et al., 2016), most studies on food waste deal with the general population, rather than green segments who would be expected to avoid food waste. Cecere et al., (2014) note that green consumers or recyclers are also waste producers and waste reduction behaviour is reliant on altruistic social attitudes. 'Green' consumers are conventionally defined as consumers who engage in green consumption which might extend to a range of activities, such as recycling, buying products with less packaging, buying local and organic food, fair-trade items and products that have a reduced environmental impact (Gilg et al., 2005). This research is important since food waste is a relatively new research field. In studying "green consumers", it is important to take the heterogeneity of consumers into consideration (Verain, Dagevos and Antonides, 2015) and this will have implications for the development of effective communications and waste intervention strategies.

Methodology

The purpose of this paper is to identify the determinants of food waste and to explore consumer motivations for wasting or not wasting food. For the purpose of the survey, the following definition of food waste was selected: "avoidable" food waste refers to products that are still fit for human consumption at the time of discarding, or products that would have been edible if they had been eaten in time (Jörissen et al., 2015). Based on the literature review, the following research questions have been posed:

Why do green consumers waste food?
What motivates green consumers to avoid food waste?
Why do some green consumers put more effort into reducing food waste?

The population of interest was households in Townsville and Cairns, North Queensland. The survey contained a section on socio-demographic information and it included questions on the amount of food wasted in a regular week, sustainable food-related behaviours, reasons for throwing out food and reducing food waste. Scales to measure green or sustainable food behaviour were taken from the literature (Lea and Worsley, 2008). An online and paper-based survey was conducted in May, 2016. The survey was distributed face-to-face at two eco-festivals in Cairns and Townsville in May, 2016. The internet was used to access a larger number of participants and save time and money (Sue and Ritter, 2007). A total of 350 consumers responded to the survey, but this paper is based solely on the analysis of the 'green' consumers (field work was ongoing at the time of paper submission).The data was analysed

using the IBM SPSS Statistics 20 software and t-tests for independent samples and frequency distributions were performed.

3.0 Findings
The following section describes results from the survey.
3.1 Consumers' attitudes towards food waste and their food-related environmental beliefs.
When asked about their attitudes towards food waste, most respondents were worried about the cost of the food they threw away; felt disturbed about the waste of resources in the food supply chain and felt guilty about wasting food in the face of food insecurity. Most of the sample felt that packaging was a bigger environmental problem than food waste. Many were unsure about whether food waste was harmful to the environment.

T-tests were performed on two groups (see Table 1): group 1 who responded 'yes' , they put a lot of effort into reducing food waste and group 2, who said 'no'. The group that did not put a good deal of effort into reducing food waste was inclined to agree that "it feels good to clean out the fridge". There were other significant differences. The findings suggest that consumers who put more effort into avoiding waste were more knowledgeable about expiry dates; they took a more nuanced view of food spoilage such as taking the smell of the food into account. They were not convinced that having information on the cost of food thrown away would help them avoid food waste. The mean level of agreement for the statement on packaging was slightly higher for group 1. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small.

Table 1: Food waste and food-related environmental beliefs

	Mean: sample	Group 1 (n= 166)	Group 2 (n= 47)
It feels good to clean out the fridge and get rid of old food	2.51	2.64	2.17
I know the difference in meaning between the 'use by' and 'best before' label	1.75	1.69	2.00
I only throw away food if the food smells bad or is slightly off	2.24	2.12	2.65
The packaging of food thrown away is a bigger environmental problem that food waste	1.97	1.86	2.36
I would probably throw away less food if I had more information on the cost of the food I throw away	3.16	3.27	2.84

** sig. $p < 0.05$
Note: beliefs were measured on a 5 point scale, where 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3=unsure, 4=disagree and 5 = strongly disagree.

3.2 Amount of food wasted, disposal of food waste, reasons for wasting food and avoiding food waste
Approximately a third of the sample (32%) claimed that they wasted less than 5% of the food they buy and 8% claimed that they did not waste food at all. A further third of the sample (32%) said they wasted less than 10%, and 18% said they wasted between 10% and 15%. Approximately half of the sample said they gave food waste/left-overs to pets or animals and roughly half said they put their food waste into a composting bin. We asked respondents about their food shopping habits and some habits were very common: 80% made a list of food prior to shopping, 89% checked the fridge or cupboards. Menu planning was less common and 46%

said that meals were planned for several days ahead. The most common reason for avoiding food waste was financial reasons (cited by 74%) followed by a move to a more environmentally friendly lifestyle (56%). An estimated 17% cited concerns about global poverty/ hunger and 11% cited pressure/influence from others in the home. Table 2 shows the most common reasons for throwing away food and the top three reasons were buying produce with a short shelf life; food had gone bad and had been forgotten about in the fridge.

Table 2: Most common reasons for throwing away food

Reasons	
Bought fresh produce with a short shelf life	60%
Food had gone bad / was spoiled	59%
Food had been forgotten in the fridge	58%
Prepared too much and did not use leftovers	37%
Food has passed its "use by date"	31%
Children did not want to eat the food/finish the meal	21%
Food had passed its "best before date"	20%
Bought too much due to a desire to have plenty of food in the home	17%
Ran out of time to cook the food, decided to eat out or go away for a weekend	14%
Bought too much due to a desire to cut out extra shopping trips	13%
Bought too much due to price specials or a Buy-One-Get-One-Free (BOGOF) promotion	10%
Did not like the taste of the food or did not want to eat the same food again	10%
Prepared too much food for guests to show hospitality	7%

3.3 Sustainable food consumption
It was hypothesised that green consumers were not homogenous and that they would vary in terms of the effort they put into avoiding food waste. The scale used to measure sustainable food consumption had ten items and seven behaviours were fairly common among respondents (see Table 3). Respondents were not inclined to rate "rating less red meat", "eating organic food" and "eating vegetarian meals" as important.

T- tests were performed and the group who put a good deal of effort into reducing food waste (group 1) rated "eating in season", "avoiding processed food", "recycling", "reusing containers and bottles" and "growing herbs or vegetables" as slightly higher in importance than the non-effort consumers. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small.

Table 3: Sustainable Food Consumption

	Mean: overall sample	Group 1 (n=166)	Group 2 (n-47)
Eating locally grown food	1.65	1.60	1.81
Eating fruit and vegetables that are in season (e.g. Asian greens in Summer time)	1.84	**1.77**	**2.07**
Avoiding processed food	1.84	**1.75**	**2.20**
Eating less red meat	2.94	2.88	3.18
Eating organic food	2.7	2.72	2.72
Eating vegetarian meals	3.27	3.26	3.37
Recycling paper, plastics, cans and glass	**1.47**	**1.39**	**1.76**
Reusing containers and bottles	1.62	**1.51**	**1.98**
Eating free-range eggs	1.83	1.77	1.98
Growing herbs or vegetables	1.94	**1.76**	**2.69**

*sig. p < 0.05
Note: beliefs were measured on a 5 point importance scale, where 1= very important, 2= important, 3=unsure, 4= not important and 5 = not at all important

Discussion and contributions to the literature

This study found that there were differences and similarities between our sample of green consumers and findings reported for the general population. Research links food waste to convenient consumption (Borgman, 2000) and reliance on pre-prepared food (Lehman, 2015). Food waste can be partly explained by an emotional disconnection from food (Parfitt et al. 2010), the devaluation of food and lack of knowledge about the origin of food (Pudel and Westenhofer, 1988). Our study found that the respondents placed importance on avoiding processed foods, eating local and in-season, and hence green consumers are likely to be different from mainstream consumers. Jörissen et al., (2015) found the food waste decreases when people shop in local markets and grow their own food. Other reasons for food waste are contemporary, hectic lifestyles (Gjerris & Gaiani, 2013) but for our sample, throwing away food due to situational factors was not common. Careful planning and shopping routines (Stefan et al., 2013; Schmidt, 2016) help reduce food waste and our survey respondents adopted good practices in this regard. Although concern about world hunger or poverty was not a driving force for reducing food waste, respondents felt guilty for throwing away food in the face of food insecurity. Guilt (Rowe et al., 2014; Parizeau et al., 2015) and personal values (i.e., self-directed or universalist and community values) are found to be important drivers of behaviour in food waste studies (Worsley and Scott, 2000).

The UK WRAP studies (2007; 2009) show that reasons for wasting food fall into two broad categories: 'not used in time' (i.e., food going off, being past a use-by date) and 'cooked, prepared or served too much'. Our study on green consumers found they are similar to the general population in this respect. Not surprisingly, buying fresh produce with a short shelf life leads to waste. In line with other studies, food was forgotten about in the fridge. Hence, social marketing approaches could facilitate behaviourial change. Interventions, such as colour-coding the fridge contents (Farr-Wharton et al., 2012) could help reduce waste. A recent study found that smart packaging (packing with colour-changing indicators that warn when food is

spoiling), smart fridges (i.e., fridges that offer the possibility of scanning products and informing users about expiry dates) and technologies to extend shelf life of products, were of interest to consumers (Jörissen et al., 2015). Although studies report that lack of knowledge on expiry dates leads to food waste (Pearson et al., 2013; Neff et al., 2015), our respondents had a high perceived knowledge of 'use-by' and 'best-before' dates and some made a nuanced assessment of food spoilage by taking smell into account. Respondents who put a lot of effort into avoiding food waste did not cautiously obey set dates, confirming findings by Parizeau et al., (2015).

Respondents were disturbed about the waste of resources throughout the food supply chain. However, many were unsure about the environmental burden of food waste or disagreed that it was a problem. Likewise, the WRAP project (2007) found a lack of awareness amongst people on the environmental impacts of food waste. This confusion on the part of green consumers is not surprising since CO2 is widely seen as the gas of concern in climate change. This misapprehension could perhaps be addressed by targeted communications. The findings suggest that many 'green' consumers perceive themselves as being engaged and already knowledgeable about expiry dates. Hence social marketing messages could, perhaps, be framed on emotions (i.e., guilt, worries about cost of food thrown away) and the environmental impacts of methane gas. Factual information on the actual cost of food wasted does not appear to a motivator, but perhaps these consumers are already doing a lot to reduce food waste or they are likely to under-estimate the amount of food they waste. This paper contributes to the literature on food waste by exploring the factors that cause 'green' food consumers to waste food. This study had its limitations, such as the small sample size, reliance on self-reported data and possible desire of respondents to present themselves in a positive light. Future research would benefit from comparing green consumers with the more mainstream consumers in terms of their perceptions and practices of food wastage.

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Better for World, Better for Firm? A Study on Green Demarketing Strategy from Customers' Perspectives

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Abstract

This study explores how consumers attribute the business motives behind a recently suggested sustainable business strategy—green demarketing (a strategy to encourage customer's demand reduction at a category level by purchasing the company's environmental friendly products). To further understand the perception of consumers, a correlational study is conducted to identify the relationship between green consumerism, motive attribution and brand attitude. The results show that consumers with a high green consumerism will attribute a high altruistic motive to the brand and build up a better brand attitude in response to a green demarketing advertisement. However, there is no significant relationship between green consumerism and the attribution of strategic and exploitative motive. The results also suggest that the relationship between altruistic motive and brand attitude is moderated by gender. In short, this study further explores green demarketing strategy and provides useful information for the marketing managers and firms in segmentation and targeting.

Keywords: Sustainable marketing strategy; green demarketing; motive attribution; brand attitude

Track: Consumer Behavior

Introduction

In this 21st century, environmental sustainability becomes a trendy topic in all aspects, including business, politics and city development. With the issue of global warming and scare natural resources, such sustainable behaviour becomes more important where individuals and governments try to reduce and limit the greenhouse emission. According to the WWF, people are facing more and more extreme weather due to climate change. When facing so many collective and societal problems, people are having the tendency of green consumerism. Studies also show that there is an increasing number of customers shifting their preferences to more environmental friendly products (Kotler, 2011).

Green Marketing

With the potential benefits of being green, more firms tries to build up their competitive advantages via a green marketing program. Green marketing refers to a marketing strategy that explicitly account for concerns about the natural environment, with the goal of creating profits and providing satisfying results for all the stakeholders of the company (Kilbourne, 1998). For example, Apple also realized the importance of greening their products. In 2016, Apple announced that it will introduce a recycling robot Liam to reduce e-waste, in response to the public criticism that Apple's products are difficult to recycle (Banchiri, 2016).

Introduction of Green Demarketing

Therefore, it is evident that firms are more concern with the environment and the public welfare of the society. Based on the information of WWF, people are contributing their effort by following the principle of 3Rs: recycle, reuse, and reduce. However, even though people are recycling more, they are also creating more garbage. In other words, to be the real green leader of the industry, the best way is to reduce consumer's consumption. This comes to the newly suggested marketing strategy – green demarketing. Green demarketing refers to a strategy whereby a brand encourages consumers to buy less at the category level through purchase of the company's brand for the sake of the environment (Armstrong Soule and Reich, 2015). In such sense, there is a conflict of interest which firms are focusing on economic performance and the society is focusing on the environmental performance. However, firms may obtain long-term benefit as green customers may perceive it as a moral brand. To see whether firms can satisfy the triple bottom line or not, this study serves to identify the customer's perception and reaction towards the green demarketing campaign by investigating how customers attribute motives behind the strategy.

Brand Attitude

Brand attitude refers to overall evaluations of a brand and includes cognitive, affective, and behavioural intentions (Assael, 1984; Eagly and Chaiken, 1993), which is subjected to change through different marketing actions (Keller and Lehmann, 2006). In other words, one is possible to affect the customer's brand attitude by using different marketing campaign.

Benefits of going 'green' is not a must: Skepticism and Motive Attribution

Skepticism can be defined as a cognitive response that changes based on the context and the content of communication, and may only reveal itself on certain situation. This is also a case for green demarketing strategy as this message is even more unexpected. Some consumers may think that the brand's motives behind green marketing or demarkteing are mainly disingenuous and deceptive, which is known as greenwashing. (Laufer, 2003).

Armstrong Soule and Reich (2015) further classified the attribution motives into three categories, customers may fall into altruistic, strategic and exploitative motives towards a green

advertisement. Altruistic motives refer to the genuine concern for the cause; a strategic motive refers to the balanced concern for both the cause and attaining business goals; exploitative motive refers to the total lack of concern for the cause. According to the study, consumers actually make different motive attributions about green demarkteing message depending on the characteristics of the brand.

Research Study
There are not many recent studies examining a concrete result of green demarketing in the customer's perspective. Individual differences may also influence their motive attributions for a green demarketing strategy. Individual's level of environmental affect also moderates the effect of the ads on purchase intention. (Grimmer and Woolley, 2014).

To evaluate individual's level of environmental effect on purchase behaviour, green consumerism will be explained. Green consumerism is an approach to make purchasing decisions about products based on their environmental impact (Matthes and Wonneberger, 2014). According to Armstrong Soule and Reich (2015), it is possible that a consumer with a higher green consumerism may have higher altruistic motives in response to this sort of message based on an accessibility-based model of interference making (Higgins, King & Mavin, 1982) whereby consumers with high environmentalism are more likely to ascribe this trait to others, including brands. However, it also may be the case that consumer with high green consumerism may perceive less altruistic motives due to a more critical analysis.

Therefore, instead of the brand reputation, customer may fall into different motives when having a different level of concern on environment. In order to further understand the possible outcome of green demarketing, this paper will investigate how individuals with different level of green consumerism perceives the motives on the demarketing message and how will they think about the brand and the products after exploring to such message. The relationship of motive attribution and brand attitude will be tested.

$H1_{abc}$: Consumer will attribute increased (decreased) altruistic, strategic or exploitative motives to brands engaging in a green demarketing strategy when the consumer has a high (low) green consumerism.

H2: When the consumer has a high (low) consumerism, consumers will hold a positive (negative) brand attitude at the time the consumers face the green demarketing message.

H3: The relationship between an individual's green consumerism and brand attitude will be mediated by altruistic, strategic and exploitative motive attributions.

Design of Ad and Message Framing
To carry out the demarketing message, an artificial print ad will be used. Some brands have already implemented a green demarketing strategy, for example, the print advertisement "Don't Buy This Jacket" of Patagonia. Setting will be the demarketing for mobile phone as they constituted part of the e-waste and it is a necessity for the generations. Message framing has been widely adopted to explain of two fundamental advertising message strategies – positive frames versus negative frames (Rothman et al., 2006; Tsai, 2007). According to the study of Xue (2015) in China, negative frames and collectivistic appeal generated more favourable brand attitude and a higher level of green trust and purchase intention. Thus, the message of the hypothesized ads below will be negatively framed and be more collectivism.

Figure 1: Artificial print advertisement

Methodology

Data Collection

Questionnaire has been collected from the undergraduates in the University of Macau. The questionnaire was distributed both online and in paper-and-pencil format. In this study, the initial data collection included 300 respondents. However, due to the data quality concerns, the sample has been eliminated to 276, with 185 female respondents (67%) and 91 male respondents (33%) and the mean age of (Mage=20.6 SDage=1.59).

Measurement

All items used composing the dependent and independent variables were measured on a 5-point scales (1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Strong Agree). The data were tested by reliability analysis with the Cronbach's alphas. The questionnaire has two parts: the first part is to test the respondents' green consumerism. The measure for green consumerism (α = .760) was based on the three items used by Matthes and Wonneberger (2014).

For the second part, respondents reported their motive attributions based on a three-item, five-point Likert scales (1=Strongly Disagree, 5=Strong Agree) used by Armstrong Soule and Reich (2015), which is adapted from Vlachos et al. (2009). After reporting their motive attribution, respondents answered questions about their attitude towards the brand. The brand attitude was tested by reliability analysis with the Cronbach's alphas (α = .885). As this study mainly focuses on 'green', this paper adopted the scale from Chen (2013) about green trust (α = .865), green perceived value (α = .698) and green purchase intention (α = .865).

Results and analysis

To test the influence of green consumerism on each motive attribution, each motive was regressed on the level of green consumerism. First, strategic motive is regressed on green consumerism. Results showed that the regression does not fit the data well ($R^2 = .002, F = .513, p = .474, > .05$). Therefore, there is no correlation between the level of green consumerism and strategic motives. Next, altruistic motive is regressed on green consumerism. Results showed that the regression fit the data well ($R^2 = .59, F = 18.093, p < .001$). The

regression coefficient of green consumerism was significant ($b= .378, SE= .089, p<.001$). The results supported that altruistic motives is significantly and positively related to the level of green consumerism. Lastly, exploitative motive was regressed on the green consumerism. Results showed that the regression does not fit the data well ($R^2= .003, F= 1.734, p= .189,>.05$). Therefore, there is no correlation between the level of green consumerism and exploitative motives.

To test the relationship between green consumerism and brand attitude, brand attitude is regressed on the green consumerism. Results showed that the regression fit the data well ($R^2= .094, F= 29.56, p<.001$). The regression coefficient of green consumerism was significant ($b= .411, SE= .075, p<.001$). The results supported that brand attitude is significantly and positively related to the level of green consumerism.

To test the mediation effect of altruistic motive on the relationship of green consumerism and brand attitude, three steps are followed to test the hypothesis. First, brand attitude was regressed on the green consumerism. Results show that they are significantly related ($b= .411, SE= .075, p<0.01$). Secondly, the mediator (altruistic motive) was regressed on green consumerism and the result showed that the relationship is significant. ($b= .378, SE= .089, p= 0.01$). Finally, the altruistic motive and green consumerism entered the equation with brand attitude as the dependent variable simulation. Results showed that the regression fit the data well ($R^2= .351, F= 75.38, p<.001$). Result showed that the effect of green consumerism ($b= .239, SE= .066, p<.001$) and altruistic motive ($b= .455, SE= .043, p= ¿.001$) is both significant. Therefore, the mediation effect of altruistic motive was supported.

Besides, the data is further analysed to see how motive attribution is related to brand attitude. The relationship for strategic motive and brand attitude is significantly positive. ($b= .150, SE= .042, p<.001$). Altruistic motive is also significantly and positively related to brand attitude ($b= .459, SE= .046, p<.001$). Lastly, exploitative motive is quite significantly and negatively related to brand attitude ($b= -.108, SE= .055, p= .006<.05$). The result indicated that a higher strategic motive or altruistic motive will contribute to a better brand attitude. Besides, an exploitative motive will lead to a negative brand attitude. This result is consistent with the study of Armstrong Soule and Reich (2015).

In process of data analysis, a significant difference of green consumerism between genders ($M_f= 3.96, SD_f= .46; M_m= 3.71, SD_m= .51$) is also discovered. An interaction term of gender and altruistic motive is created. Brand attitude is then regressed on green consumerism, gender, altruistic motive and the new interaction term. The regression fit the data well ($R^2= .358, F= 39.25, p<.001$). The coefficient for the interaction term of gender and altruistic motive was significant ($b= -.19, SE= .094, p<.05$). Therefore, the result suggests that the relationship between altruistic motive and brand attitude is stronger for females than for males.

Implication and Conclusion
According to this study, consumers with a high green consumerism will attribute a high altruistic motive to the brand and build up a better brand attitude in response to a green demarketing advertisement. The study also further proves that strategic and altruistic motive attribution is good to the brand while an exploitative motive attribution will harm the brand. However, their level of green consumerism does not contribute a significant relationship with the strategic and exploitative motive attribution. This may due to the accessibility-based model

of interference making (Higgins, King and Mavin, 1982). Consumer with a higher green consumerism will have higher altruistic motives because they are more likely to ascribe this trait to others. This will be good news for company which has the intention to conduct a green demarketing strategy. This provides a good direction in segmentation and targeting. By targeting people with high green consumerism, it is easier for the firm to be trusted and further build up its brand image.

At the same time, gender further modifies the relationship. A higher altruistic motive will lead to a positive brand attitude for female than male. Further supported with the study of Irwin, Edwards and Tamburello (2015), women are significantly more cooperative with a higher trust level than men under the private sphere cooperation. Generally, women also have a higher level of green consumerism than male. Therefore, this provides further useful information for marketing manager in targeting.

Referring back to the previous studies of green demarketing (Armstrong Soule & Reich, 2015) and this result, if the company contributes to an excellent environmental reputation, those managers have a great potential to make a gain in conducting a green demarketing strategy. Therefore, before conducting a green demarketing strategy, the brand managers should make an effort in building up its brand reputation in environmental practices, branding the firms as trustworthy and genuinely good to the environment. With a good brand reputation as pre-condition, the marketing managers can then conduct a green demarketing strategy which targets on female with high green consumerism.

In conclusion, this study further explores the potential of green demarketing strategy. It is a sustainable business strategy which will increase customers' attention and interests. Aligned with the previous studies on green demarketing, this study proves that green demarketing strategy has a potential to achieve positive outcomes for all the stakeholders.

Limitation and Future Research
The study is not free of some limitation and further open up the possible research topics in the future. Firstly, the sample is limited. The data is merely collected from the undergraduate students of the University of Macau. Therefore, the sample size did not cover all the potential customers. This leads to the problem of generalization. Our sample was also over-represented by female. In future research, a representative sample should be used with a balance of participants. Further about the sampling, future studies can further explore the individual differences in income level and nationalities as these factors may also moderate the relationship between motive attribution and brand attitude. Culture and country differences may also affect the result. According to Herbig(1998), there are cross-cultural differences in green marketing. For example, the Green party has an active role in German society. There is law regulating the packaging materials to be recyclable. Affected by the local regulation, customers may have different motive attribution behind the green demarketing campaign.

At the same time, qualitative analysis can be adopted so as to investigate more about the thoughts of the participants. There is a lack of knowledge about their feelings and thoughts. A thorough interview can be conducted and the Zaltman metaphor elicitation technique (ZMET) could be used to understand their brand attitude and audit the brand image. ZMET is a patented market research tool to understand what is under the mind of the customers, both conscious and unconscious (Zaltman, 1995). This may be an effective way to find out what factors will contribute to an exploitative motive attribution which this study does not test out.

Besides, as the advertisement and brand are hypothesized for this study only. Future studies could use a real brand in other industries as it is easier for them to make a linkage and give a more genuine and concrete thinking about the advertisement. Different product category may also influence their brand attitude. For example, customers may attribute different business motives behind the green demarketing message of fast-moving consumer goods. Moreover, as the message framing is situated in this study, future studies can also study the relationship of different message framing (positive or negative) on green demarketing and the brand attitudes.

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Personality and content preferences on social network sites in South Africa

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Abstract

We investigated the relationship between two personality traits – need for cognition and need for affect and visual and verbal content preference on social network sites. An online survey and pen-and-paper questionnaire were conducted with 307 convenience sampling participants. Multiple regression analysis indicated that that personality does have an influence on users' preference for visual or verbal content. In particular, visual content preference on social network sites was found to have a positive relationship with the need for affect and a negative relationship with the need for cognition. The need for cognition was shown to have a positive relationship with verbal content preference on social network sites; however the need for affect did not have a significant relationship.

Key words: Social network sites, personality traits, visual content, verbal content

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction
Marketing practitioners increasingly integrate social network sites (SNS) as promotional tools, thorough exploration of the factors that impact consumers' usage of these sites is essential (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). There has been a rise in visually-dominated content on SNS (Allen, Woodward, & Lamp, 2012). The online landscape has become more content rich, and every day, millions of photos and videos are uploaded on SNS such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and Pinterest (Meeker & Wu, 2013). As a result, companies are starting to see the opportunity of sharing content on SNS to attract the attention of potential consumers (Brennick, 2014; Leposa, 2013) and engage with them (Allen et al., 2012). In South Africa, the most popular SNS are Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, LinkedIn and Pinterest (World Wide Worx & Fuseware, 2015).

Literature review indicates that there is little research conducted on consumer factors (such as personality traits) that influence SNS usage and preferences (such on verbal or visual content). Academic literature on SNS is still growing, and research in this area has mainly been conducted in North America (Muscanell & Guadagno, 2012; Ross, Orr, Sisic, Arseneault, Simmering, & Orr; Zhong, Hardin, & Sun, 2011), but this study was conducted in an emerging market. The explored whether the "visual revolution" trend observed in SNS (Allen et al., 2012; Brennick, 2014; Leposa, 2013; World Wide Worx & Fuseware, 2015) is related to particular personality traits (NFC and NFA). Determining the relationship between these variables in a SNS context may contribute to the theoretical understanding of these variables in a new media sphere, as well as provide relevant applications for marketing practice.

Conceptual Foundations
In investigating consumer behaviour, academic research has been conducted to explore individual's preferences for visual or verbal information (Arcand & Nantel, 2012;; Townsend & Kahn, 2014). In advertising for example, when evaluating the same advertisement, studies have shown that a consumer that prefers verbal information would process the words in the advertisement, while a consumer that prefers visual information would process the images (McQuarrie & Mick, 2003; Mitchell, 1986; Sojka & Giese, 2006). Therefore, although they are exposed to the same advertisement, their responses to the components of the advert (in terms of advertisement recall, purchase intention, etc.) would differ according to their preference for visual or verbal information (McQuarrie & Mick, 2003; Sojka & Giese, 2006).

By definition, a trait is a distinctive, relatively durable way in which an individual differs from each other (Guilford, 1959). Personality traits are envisaged to predict and provide understanding of SNS usage differences. (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Chu & Kim, 2011; Correa,; Hughes, Rowe, Batey, & Lee, 2012; Ross et al., 2009; Seidman, 2013; Zhong et al., 2011). Two particular traits – the need for cognition (NFC) and need for affect (NFA) – show particular potential for explaining information processing preference in this study (Sojka & Giese, 2001, 2006). Personality traits and information processing preferences (visual versus verbal) have generally been conducted within the context of traditional above-the-line advertising, such as print media and television (McQuarrie & Mick, 2003; Mendelson & Thorson, 2004; Sojka & Giese, 2006). As yet however, no studies have examined this phenomenon not in newer media contexts such as SNS. Therefore, from a theoretical perspective, identifying the interrelationship of these variables in this context could add to the body of knowledge in consumer behaviour.

Marketing studies have proposed the efficacy of using social network sites for marketing reasons (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Clemons, Barnett, & Appadurai, 2007;

Waters, Burnett, Lamm, & Lucas, 2009). Given the opportunities that SNS provide for online branding and engagement (Cvijikj & Michahelles, 2013), marketing spending on these platforms have grown tremendously. In South Africa for instance, over 90% of the largest brands in the country use Twitter and Facebook, and just over half (51%) reportedly planned to increase their social media budgets in 2015, with resources mainly being focused on content marketing and multimedia content (World Wide Worx & Fuseware, 2015). The growth of SNS for marketing and business therefore highlights the importance of establishing an understanding of SNS and how characteristics such as personality traits influences user behaviour and preferences on these sites (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010).

Hypothesis Development
A growing number of studies have started to assess how individual differences affect SNS usage and behaviour (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Hughes et al., 2012; Ross et al., 2009; Seidman, 2013). This study aims to further expound on the effect that individual characteristics have on SNS by exploring the relationship between specific personality traits (need for cognition and need for affect) and content preference (visual or verbal) on SNS. Sojka and Giese (2001) found that individuals with high NFA tend to be more accustomed to deciphering what the visual components in the advertisement represent symbolically. Subsequent research by Sojka and Giese (2006) within the context of print advertising showed statistical and directional evidence for the idea that affective processors have better attitudes towards the advert and brand containing visual stimulus, than those low in affect. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that on SNS, users with high NFA would likely be positively associated with a preference for visual content on SNS given their higher motivation to seek and process affective.

Leading from this, in contrast to the holistic nature of affective processing, cognitive processers are more likely to separate or decompose data to identify specific attributes (Mantel & Kardes, 1999). As a result, it is logical to assume that when viewing different types of content on SNS, individuals with a high need for cognition would prefer not to process visual content given their predisposition to think rationally and rely on factual, rather than abstract information (Sojka & Giese, 2006).

The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) of persuasion by Petty and Cacioppo (1986) has shown the most potential in explaining the relationships between these personality traits and information processing preference (Zhong et al., 2011). The model describes attitude change according to a dual process theory, with individuals following either a "peripheral" route or "central" route of persuasion (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Individuals tend to follow the peripheral route in situations where they are not greatly invested or motivated, or do not prefer dealing with complex information (R. Petty & Cacioppo, 2012). When evaluating a message or argument, they tend to be influenced by less relevant "peripheral" attributes, such as the appearance or credibility of the person delivering the message, and other less thought-out heuristics such as moods and emotions (Cacioppo, Petty, , Kao, , & Rodriguez,, 1986). Conversely, for individuals following the central route, active consideration of information is involved and the enjoyment and effort of processing this information is a motivating factor (Cacioppo et al., 1986).

As a result, high NFC individuals are more likely to be swayed by the rationale of the argument and prefer in-depth, logical information to make a decision. Individuals with high NFC were more likely to be influenced by the calibre of arguments (i.e. use the central route of persuasion). Conversely, individuals with low NFC were found to be more likely to use the

peripheral route of persuasion (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983) and be swayed by peripheral cues, such as celebrity endorsements, which are less easily depicted in a verbal format compared to a visual format (Sojka & Giese, 2006).Therefore, given that individuals with a high NFC are attracted to information that is mentally stimulating and provides them with the opportunity to think and acquire more knowledge, it is reasonable to assume that these SNS users would be specifically drawn to and motivated to process verbal components in SNS content. As a result, it follows that the very characteristics of verbal stimuli that individuals with high NFC prefer will not appeal to individuals with low NFA. Therefore, when looking at verbal information, individuals with high NFA would be less inclined to process the verbal components because they prefer to view visual stimuli like pictures (Sojka & Giese, 2006). Therefore, it is likely that SNS users that have a high NFA are also more likely to dislike verbal content on SNS. The growth of SNS highlights the importance of establishing an understanding of SNS and how characteristics, such as personality traits, influence user behaviour and preferences on these sites (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010). There is limited research conducted to understand which format of content SNS users prefers (visual vs. verbal).

Research Method
To test hypothesis, 307 people participated in the survey in Johannesburg and Cape Town in South Africa. Participants had to be measured to determine whether they were high or low in need for affect and need for cognition. We then proceeded to test the personality traits on the content preferences on SNS. Multiple regression analysis and ANOVA were employed.

Analysis and Findings
Results indicated that Facebook (49.2%) was the main SNS used, followed by Instagram, 18.6%, Twitter (11.7%), LinkedIn (9.8%) and Pinterest (5.5%). Based on the ratings, the means results were as follow: Need for Cognition, M=67.36, SD=9.10; Need for Affect, M=35.36, SD=5.33 Verbal content preferences, M=17.72, SD=3.78 and Visual Content preference, M=17.58, SD=3.78. The results indicated that there is relationship between need for affect (NFA and visual content on SNS. Need for cognition (NFC) is negatively correlated to visual contents on SNS.

Table 1

Variable	Verbal Content Preference	Visual Content Preference
Need for Cognition	$\beta = .22, p < .01$	$\beta = -.13, p < .05$
Need for Affect	$\beta = -.04, p = .47$	$\beta = .15, p < .05$

Visual Content: Two personality traits (NFA and NFC) together were found to explain a significant amount of variance in visual content preference on SNS. The total variance explained by this model was approximately 2%, with adjusted $R^2 = .02$ and $F(2, 304) = 4.71$, $p < .05$. *Verbal Content*: For the two personality traits (NFA and NFC), only NFC was found to explain a significant amount of variance in verbal content preference on SNS. The total variance explained by this model was approximately 4%, with adjusted $R^2 = .04$ and $F(2, 304) = 7.19, p < .01$.

Discussion And Implications

Recent studies that have investigated the impact of personality traits on certain social network site phenomena have generally also produced small R^2 values in the regression analysis. For instance, Amichai-Hamburger and Vinitzky (2010) found a strong connection between the "Big Five" personality traits and Facebook behaviour, however the personality traits only explained 7% of the variance in number of friends (adjusted R^2 = .07, p = .05) and 5% of the variance in personal information uploaded (adjusted R^2 = .05, p = .05). Other similar examinations of the effect of the Big Five personality traits found for instance that these variables explained from 3% to a maximum of 13% of variance in social network behaviours and motivations (Seidman, 2013) and 3.2% of variance in social media use (Correa et al., 2010). Similarly, the significant associations found in a study by Zhong., Hardin, & Sun, (2011) between certain personality traits (including the need for cognition) and SNS use produced an adjusted R^2 = .11 (i.e. 11% of variance). All these studies concluded that while personality was related to SNS usage, it was not as influential as they had expected or as previous literature had suggested.

Two particular personality traits investigated in this study – the need for cognition (NFC) and need for affect (NFA) – were found to explain information processing preference in prior exploratory research studies (Sojka & Giese, 2001, 2006). It should be noted that previous studies conducted within the context of traditional above-the-line advertising, such as print media. This study, which was conducted in the context of social network sites, shows that the differential findings discovered in these previous studies also applied to a newer online media context. In particular, a positive relationship was also found between NFA and visual stimuli, as well as a positive relationship between NFC and verbal stimuli, as per these past studies (Sojka & Giese, 2001, 2006), however this study confirmed this in terms of content preference in the SNS environment. Therefore, this study contributes to the theoretical understanding of these constructs in a new media sphere.

It could also be beneficial for marketers to use different types of content on SNS for certain products or categories, depending on the involvement of the offering. 'Involvement' refers the amount of personal relevance that the purchase or product has for that consumer. Purchases that are very important to the consumers instigate high problem solving and information processing are defined as high-involvement, with the contrary being the case for low-involvement purchases. Emotional advertisements have been found to be more effective for low involvement and hedonic items, than for high involvement or utilitarian products (Geuens et al., 2011).

Brands in the categories aligned to visual and affective content (i.e. low involvement and hedonic products) could also consider having an increased presence on Instagram, particularly given its recent high growth in South Africa (van Zyl, 2015). For high involvement and/or utilitarian products, particularly those with high perceived risk, such as durable goods, automobiles, insurance policies, a house, etc. (Geuens et al., 2011), descriptive verbal content on SNS might be the best way to engage consumers. Further research would however be needed to confirm the relationship between content preference and product category/involvement levels.

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A re-examination of the factor structure of the CSI within low- and high- involvement contexts

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Abstract

Considerable research on the investigation of Consumer Decision-Making Styles exist, however research designs suggested to date are mainly replications of the original study by Sproles and Kendall (1986) proposing eight mental characteristics, the Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI). The aim of this research is to apply the CSI to different product involvement (e.g., high and low) and identify relevant factor structure in Australian context. Data were collected from 208 Australian respondents. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on the CSI adapted for high and low involvement purchases. Results found the original CSI can still be a valuable measure in relation to low involvement purchases (e.g., confectionary), however it is questionable for high involvement purchases (e.g., automobiles) and requires further modification. The findings of this research will expand the scientific literature on the relationship between product involvement and CDMS and will assist to develop segmented marketing messages and strategies for Australian consumers.

Keywords: consumer styles inventory (CSI), automobile and confectionary purchases, Australia

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Background

Consumer Decision-Making Styles (CDMS) is a cognitive and affective or 'mental' orientation characterising a consumer's approach to the overall decision-making process (Sproles and Kendall 1986). People may have more than one decision-making style and it may change depending on the product. These styles may vary across different product categories (Bauer et al., 2006). For example, consumers may be more brand conscious for high involvement product categories (e.g., automobiles, apartments etc.), whereas low involvement product (confectionary items, chocolates etc.) decisions may be more affected by price. In addition, consumers can be both quality and price conscious in their decision-making styles when they are familiar with particular product categories and brands. With this in mind, Sproles and Kendall (1986) developed a measure (the CSI), which can be used to identify the characteristics of CDMS (Azizi and Makkizadeh 2012).

However, the CSI has not been found to be completely reliable (Nayeem and Casidy 2013). It is unclear whether the CSI, mostly validated with student samples, is suitable for use with different types of consumers. A further limitation of the CSI is that it measures general shopping orientation, with studies focusing on non-specific product types (Nayeem and Casidy 2013). Recently, a small number of studies have examined the CSI in relation to low involvement purchases (see, Nayeem and Casidy 2015). However, there are not enough studies that have established the validity of the CSI in the context of high involvement purchases and/or using Australian samples (Nayeem and Casidy 2015). In addition, one of the shortcomings of Sproles and Kendall's (1986) CSI can be found in the formulation of the items which leads to poor construct validity (number of factors varies across studies) and, as a consequence, in the low to average reliability coefficients (Azizi and Makkizadeh 2012). This also indicates that more improvement and development of the scale is needed.

In light of the above limitations, the primary purpose of the current research is to apply Sproles and Kendall's (1986) CSI in the context of high involvement (e.g., automobiles) and low involvement (e.g., confectionary/everyday items) product purchase within the general populations of Australian consumers. This research developed product/s-specific (automobile and confectionary) version of the CSI, which was administered to a non-student adult sample, and made an attempt to identify relevant factor structure for high-and-low involvement purchases to test the generalisability of the CSI constructs.

Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI)

The CSI is based on preliminary work done by Sproles (1983), in which he argued that there are certain fundamental styles that all consumers apply to their shopping and buying. These styles included brand, price or quality consciousness, and provided a conceptual framework for describing CDMS. Sproles, together with Kendall (1986), later developed a revised model of eight CDMS based on cognitive and personality characteristics. Each of these styles (e.g., Perfectionist, high quality conscious; Brand conscious; Recreational shopping conscious; Price conscious; impulsive; Habitual/brand loyal and Novelty fashion conscious) independently characterises a fundamental intellectual approach to consumption (Nayeem and Casidy 2015). The CSI has become the most commonly used measure of CDMS, and has been widely applied and validated in several countries including the UK, New Zealand, China, India, Malaysia, Korea, Germany and the United States (see, Bauer et al., 2006; Azizi and Makkizadeh 2012; Nayeem and Casidy 2015). The CSI has also proven to be a useful instrument for marketers, enabling the segmentation and positioning of consumers (Bauer et al., 2006).

Research methodology

This research can be classified as replication with modification category, for example, Type III (see, Easley et al., 2000). The study uses similar concepts to previous CDMS research but uses an adapted version of the popular consumer styles inventory (CSI) to compare CDMS for high (e.g., automobiles) and low (e.g., confectionary) involvement product consumers. In addition, involving a heterogeneous sample this study also seeks to examine the validity of the CSI items for Australian conditions – specifically, which scale items should be retained from the original CSI, and whether CDMS between high and low involvement purchases differ significantly.

Sampling and measures

Non-probabilistic sampling technique was employed for this research. The sample consisted of 208 Australian adult/non-student consumers (48%) men and (52%) women living in Melbourne, Australia. To qualify for inclusion in the research sample, a number of criteria had to be met. For example, the sample population for this research was Australian-born consumers only. The sampling frame consisted of consumers living in Melbourne, Australia, who were aged between 18 and 75 years, held a current driver's license and had purchased confectionary products in the past week and also purchased a car within the past 12 months (Park and Kim 2003). Respondents were asked to think about their recent automobile and confectionary purchase in general. The survey took approximately 30 minutes to complete.

Data analysis

Data were analysed using SPSS for exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The purpose of factor analysis is to summarise the interrelationships among many indicator variables in a concise but accurate manner as an aid to conceptualisation (Gorsuch, 1997). Although the CSI is a well-established instrument, it has not been used before to identify CDMS for automobile purchase behavior and/or with Australian consumers. Therefore, it was appropriate to find out which items strongly loaded on each factor in relation to the purchase situation (see Diamantopoulos and Winklehofer 2001) to confirm the existence of a specific factor structure.

Results

Results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA): high involvement purchase (e.g., automobile)

In the first step of the factor analysis, EFA was conducted on the 45 items of the consumer styles inventory (CSI) using the calibration sample (N = 208) with maximum likelihood extraction and oblique rotation (OBLIMIN). Results showed that a seven-factor solution was more interpretable. All seven factors had eigenvalues over 1. The value of loadings of 0.50 was used as a guideline in the factor analysis (Nunally, 1978). This resulted in the removal of 11 items. This resulted in an accepted seven-factor solution (see Table 1). Only two factors from the original scale were retained: 'brand' and 'habitual' (Sproles and Kendall 1986) and five new factors were emerged: 'investigation process', 'information search', 'value within budget', and 'innovation conscious'. Note that 'Investigating process' (factor 1) had four items from the original CSI 'perfectionist' and one item from the original CSI 'brand'. 'Information search' (factor 2) retained four items from the original CSI 'confused' and one item from the original CSI 'impulsive'. The original CSI 'impulsive' factor was not supported; none of the items in this factor loaded strongly. 'Dealer, enjoyment' (factor 3) had retained four items from the original CSI 'recreation' and two items from original CSI 'impulsive'. 'Value within budget' (factor 4) had retained four items from the original CSI 'impulsive', two items from the original CSI 'price' and one item from the original CSI 'perfectionist'. 'Brand' (factor 5) had retained four items from the original CSI 'brand conscious' and one item from the original CSI 'price'. 'Habitual' (factor 6) had retained three items from the original CSI 'habitual' and one item from the original CSI 'perfectionist'. 'Innovation consciousness' (factor 7) had four items that

loaded strongly and therefore, appeared as one of the important factors in relation to automobile purchases. The seven-factor solution explained 76% of the variance. Results of the EFA indicated that many of the factors had good internal consistency. Consistent with recent CSI studies (see, Nayeem & Casidy 2015), only factors with Cronbach's alpha > 0.7 were accepted. Therefore, 'dealer, enjoyment' was not recognised in this study.

Results of exploratory factor analysis (EFA): low involvement purchase (confectionary)
Following the same approach as previously (see, automobiles) eight factors (see Table 1) from the original scale were retained: 'perfectionist', 'brand', 'confused', 'impulsive', 'habitual', 'novelty' and 'recreation conscious' (Sproles and Kendall 1986) and one new factor 'rational' was developed. Note that 'perfectionist' (factor 1) retained two items from the original CSI 'perfectionist, high quality' and one from 'impulsive' (reversed item) factor. The 'brand' (factor 2) retained all three items from the original CSI 'brand conscious' decision-making style factor. 'Confused' (factor 3) has retained all four items from the original 'confused by overchoice' factor. 'Rational' (factor 4) was developed in this study. One item from 'perfectionist', one item from 'novelty' and one item from 'price' were reassigned. Factor 5 'impulsive' had retained one item from the original CSI 'impulsive' factor, one item from 'novelty' and one item from 'perfectionist' (reversed item). 'Habitual' (factor 6) had retained two items from the original CSI 'habitual conscious;' and one from 'novelty' factor. 'Novelty' (factor 7) had retained two items from the original CSI 'novelty' and one item from the 'brand conscious' factor. 'Recreation' (factor 8) had five items that loaded strongly and therefore, appeared as one of the important factors in relation to everyday products. Four items were retained from the CSI original 'recreation conscious' and one item from 'novelty' factor. The eight factor solution explained 82% of the variance. Results of the exploratory factor analysis indicated that most of the factors had good internal consistency ($\alpha > .7$). Only 'brand conscious' had poor internal consistency and was not included in the study (see Table 1).

Table 1: Results of exploratory factor analysis (e.g., automobile and confectionary purchases)

High involvement: factor characteristics and items (after EFA)	Factor loadings	Low involvement: factor characteristics and items (after EFA)	Factor loadings
Factor 1 – Investigation process		*Factor 1 – Perfectionist, high quality conscious*	
Investigating new brands of cars is generally a waste of time (CSI high34)*	.669	When buying everyday products, I do not want to make a careless purchase I later wish I had not	.678
I shop quickly for cars, buying the first car or brand I find that seems good enough (CSI high35)*	.651	When shopping for everyday products, I look carefully to find best value for money (CSI low 14	.637
When it comes to buying a car, in general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality (CSI high40)	.593	Getting very good quality everyday products is very important to me (CSI low 10)	.614
I really don't give my car purchases much thought or care (CSI high28)*	.573	When it comes to purchasing everyday products, in general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality (CSI low 40)	.577
Getting a very good quality car is very important to me (CSI high10)	.545	*Factor 2 – Brand conscious*	

Factor 2 – Information search

All the information I get on different cars confuses me (CSI high07) .744

The more I learn about cars, the harder it seems to choose the best (CSI high25) .631

There are so many car brands to choose from that often I feel confused (CSI high32) .591

It's hard to choose which dealers to shop at for cars (CSI high16) .581

Factor 3 – Dealer, enjoyment

I take advantage of the first opportunity to find out more about a new dealer selling a car that I would like to purchase (CSI high39) .732

I enjoy shopping for cars just for the fun of it (CSI high37) .685

Going shopping for cars is an enjoyable activity for me (CSI high30) .611

I am the kind of a person who would try a new make of car (CSI high09) .591

I would buy a new or different brand of car just to see what it is like (CSI high27) .544

Factor 4 – Value within budget

When buying a car, I carefully watch how much I spend (CSI high38) .531

When shopping for cars, I look carefully to find best value for money (CSI high14) .741

I am willing to change brands when buying a new car (CSI high33) .631

When it comes purchasing cars, I try to get the very best or perfect choice (CSI high45) .663

The higher the price of an everyday product, the better its quality (CSI low 21) .569

The more expensive everyday product brands are usually my choice (CSI low 29) .566

The most advertised everyday product brands are usually very good choices. (CSI low 36) .534

Factor 3 – Confused by overchoice

The more I learn about everyday products, the harder it seems to choose the best (CSI low 25) .705

There are so many everyday product brands to choose from that often I feel confused (CSI low 32 .694

I make a special effort to choose the very best quality everyday products (CSI low 19) .636

Factor 4 – Rational, price conscious

When it comes purchasing everyday products, I try to get the very best or perfect choice (CSI l 45 .613

I am very cautious about trying new everyday products (CSI low 11) .611

I make a special effort to choose the very best quality everyday products (CSI low 19) .582

Factor 5 – Impulsive

I shop quickly for everyday products, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough (CSI low 35) .601

Investigating new brands of everyday products is generally a waste of time (CSI low 34) .613

When shopping for cars, I take the time to shop carefully for best buys (SCI high24) .572

When buying a car, I do not want to make a careless purchase I later wish I had not (CSI high15) .544

I prefer to buy cars at sale price (CSI high03) .572

Factor 5 – Brand conscious

A car does not have to be perfect, or the best, to satisfy me (CSI high01)* .544

The more expensive car brands are usually my choice (CSI high29) .572

The higher the price of a car, the better its quality (CSI high21) .562

I go to the same dealer each time I shop for cars (CSI high08) .768

The lower price cars are usually my choice (CSI high23)* .771

Factor 6 – Habitual, brand loyal

Once I choose a car brand I like, I stick with it (CSI high26) .691

I have favourite car brands I buy over and over (CSI high17) .678

I make a special effort to choose the very best quality cars (CSI high19) .682

Shopping around dealers wastes my time (CSI high22) .681

Factor 7 – Innovation conscious

I am the kind of person who would try a new make of car (CSI high02) .729

I am very cautious about trying new makes of cars (CSI high11)* .727

I really don't give my everyday product purchases much thought or care (CSI low 28) .611

Factor 6 – Habitual, brand loyal

I have favourite everyday product brands I buy over and over (CSI low 17) .726

Once I find an everyday product brand I like, I stick with it (CSI low 26) .715

Shopping around everyday products wastes my time (CSI low 3) .694

Factor 7 – Novelty/fashion conscious

When I see a new brand of everyday products somewhat different from usual, I investigate it (CSI .615

I am willing to change brands when buying everyday products (CSI low 33) .554

I am the kind of person who would try a new everyday product (CSI low 2) .515

I would buy a new or different brand of an everyday product just to see what it is like (CSI l 27 .615

I enjoy taking chances in buying unfamiliar brands of everyday products just to get some variety .568

I would rather wait for others to try a new store than try it myself in making my everyday product .569

I would be worried about trying a new everyday product (CSI low 44)* .551

Factor 8 – Recreation conscious

I enjoy shopping for everyday products just for the fun of it (CSI low 37) .616

Going shopping for everyday products is an enjoyable activity for me (CSI low 30) .658

Shopping around stores wastes my time (CSI low 22)* .637

I enjoy taking chances in buying unfamiliar brands of cars just to get some variety (CSI high20)	.715	I would take advantage of the first opportunity to find out more about a new store selling	.619
I would be worried about trying a new make of car (CSI high44)*	.725	Shopping for everyday products is not a pleasant activity to me (CSI low 13)*	.595

Discussion

High involvement (e.g., automobiles)

The results of this study found that only two factors ('brand' and 'habitual') of the original CSI model (Sproles and Kendall 1986) were retained and other factors such as 'investigation process', 'information search', 'value within budget', and 'innovation consciousness' factors were also confirmed. The possible explanation of this inconsistent findings could be the use of high involvement purchases. In this study, consumers were asked in relation to automobiles whereas, in Sproles and Kendall's study, consumers were not given any choice of specific products and therefore it was more in general purchase behaviour. The findings of this research are fairly realistic and/or consistent with recent consumer behaviour studies. For example, this study found consumers engage in extensive information search (factor 2), go through an investigation process (factor 1), require knowledge, preparation, and enough time to process and evaluate the budget (factor 4) so as to reach high involvement/automobile purchase decision (see, Chen and Quester 2015).

Most of the original factors generated by Sproles and Kendall (1986) are fairly out-of-date and/or irrelevant in the current context. The original factors such as 'price' and 'quality' are not the most important factors in relation to automobile purchases. Research found Australian consumers are not very reluctant to pay high price for quality cars, whereas nowadays consumers are more interested in guarantee, warranty, innovation, sustainability and other trends which are associated with car purchase behaviour (Uncles, 2011). The original 'impulsive' factor was not found in this research. In addition, consumers are less likely to be impulsive in relation to high involvement purchases (Uncles, 2011). The original CSI requires modification if to be used for high involvement purchases. The factors such as environmental sustainability, health consciousness, corporate social responsibility (CSR) need to be added. Furthermore, in relation to automobile purchases, the factors such as eco-friendliness/vehicle, solar powered engine, green cars, and innovation consciousness might be a good have (Park et al., 2010). 'Innovation consciousness' was proven to be one of the most reliable and valuable scales for Australian consumers. Australian consumers prefer more innovative features, design, trends and new technology in their automobiles preferences. This is excellent news for automobile companies, because in recent times automobile companies in Australia have been focusing on new technology such as ecofriendly (Toyota Prius) and high performance (Holden and Ford) vehicles. In recent times Australian consumers are more confident and, consequently, prefer innovation and change in their purchasing behavior.

Low involvement (e.g., confectionary)

The current research confirmed seven out of eight factors from the original CSI, suggesting that consumers in the USA and Australia tap into fairly similar cognitive dimensions with regard to purchase decision-making. EFA has confirmed that seven factors are adequately unidimensional. In this research, six factors were named in line with the original CSI (Sproles and Kendall 1986) because they mirrored similar styles within the Australian sample. These six factors, namely, 'perfectionist', 'confused', 'impulsive', 'habitual', 'novelty', and 'recreational' also showed acceptable reliability. The similarities found in this research as compared to the original study (Sproles and Kendall 1986) suggest that Australian consumers

are similar to American consumers in their decision-making style and found to be more generalizable and valid.

One new factor ('rational') has proven to be a distinct element of decision-making style for this sample with a Cronbach's alpha of .771. Australian consumers might adopt a rationale decision-making style for confectionary products. However, the 'brand was not recognised in this study, and is consistent with the results of previous studies (Hiu et al., 2001). Furthermore, the argument that customers may spend more time and effort choosing between functional features of a product (e.g., chocolate-coated vs non-chocolate coated biscuits) than comparing different brands, and that the customer profiles of directly competing brands rarely differ (Uncles et al., 2011). The items retained for the 'habitual' are all from the original CSI 'habitual decision-making style' factor. This result is inconsistent with findings from Hiu et al. (2001) whose study found that the 'habitual' dimension obtained a very low reliability of 0.4. In light of the findings, it is worth noting that Australian consumers might not spend too much time researching everyday products and therefore engage in repeat purchase to minimise their cognitive effort.

In the current study, the confused/over-choice dimension had the highest reliability, suggesting that it is an important consideration for Australian consumers. A variety of factors may contribute to confusion – from the abundance of promotional information, through to the array of competing brands in the market. The arrival of hypermarkets and mega-stores in the Australian retail landscape affords consumers considerably greater choice in the form of extensive product displays accompanied by considerable point-of-scale information. Thus the potential for information overload is very real.

Managerial implications

Using the current research findings that Australian consumers engage in extensive 'information search' and are 'innovation conscious' in their purchase of high involvement products, managers are able to provide product related information that would support the transitions from prospects to customers. Failing to provide extensive information (cost, technical, legal, social, environmental) for high involvement and innovative products would prevent sales to Australian customers. Managers can employ internet based, smart phone and sales lead technologies to communicate with consumers. Australians have embraced high involvement products such as solar panels, rain water tanks and, hybrid and bio-diesel cars at a much higher rate than consumers in other ciuntries. This research supports the suggestion that managers can devise segmented marketing strategies based on the framework for CDMS and high involvement products that have been tested. The high Cronbach's alpha score of .771 for 'rational conscious decision-making style' of Australian consumer demonstrates that they employ cognitive rather than emotional behaviour in their purchase of confectionary products. They understand that generic and non-national brands can perform similarly compared to popular brands. High brand equity of low involvement products is not necessarily sought by Australian consumers. Understanding the fact that Australians are heavily indebted at a rate of $79,000 per capita (ABS 2013) provides reasons that Australians are 'rational' low involvement products purchasers. The rapid market growth of discount retailers such as Aldi, Chemist Warehouse, My Chemist, Pharmacy 4 Less and future entry of Lidl can be linked to the 'rational conscious decision-making style' for Australian consumers. Knowing that Australians are 'rational' and 'quality conscious' buyers, managers of discount retail stores can employ CDMS for low involvement products to analyse customers' needs and such develop segmented marketing strategies. This would enable managers to further understand the purchasing of low involvement products through the analytical lens of 'rational conscious decision-making style' and 'quality consciousness'.

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Customer Participation in Co-configuration: Antecedents and Outcomes

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Abstract
Customers are increasingly demanding products that directly fit their individual needs. Organisations have responded to these demands by offering individualised products through mass customisation. This is becoming a key driver of competitive advantage, yet most research has only considered the organisational view of customising, and there is relatively little research from a customer perspective. The limited number of studies focused on the customer view have only considered the customers as co-producers of value in the design and production process, and focused on satisfaction post-customising. The aim of this research is to understand the customer perspective in more depth, while specifically focusing on co-configuration; a type of mass customisation that is lacking in research. This study explores the intentions of customer's participation in configuration of products, and the outcomes of participation. We find that customisation depends on Need for Uniqueness, Product Involvement and Perceived Behavioural Control, and significantly influences perceived aesthetics.

Keywords: Mass Customisation, Co-configuration

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Individual values and motivational complexities
in mobile shopping consumption

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Abstract

With the expansion of mobile shopping (m-shopping) consumption, there is an increased need to understand the variety of consumer motives for consumer engagement in such behaviour. For the rapidly growing area of m-shopping, this study explores consumers' desired consumption outcomes and personal values that drive m-shopping preferences. Analysis of data obtained through a hard laddering approach (n = 300 m-shopping consumers) reveals new dominant perceptual patterns that draws new consumer typologies relating not only to social values, but also more individual motives of value for personal image and social recognition. Further analysis shows that consumers have to compromise and balance between their conflicting personal values. The study augments previous literature in personal values research and m-shopping motivational research, as researchers can better understand how specific attributes of m-shopping relate to more emotional and symbolic aspects and link back to more private personal values. The study contributes towards a deeper understanding of m-shopper behaviour.

Keywords: Personal value, mobile shopping, motivation, hard laddering, and means-end theory

Track: Consumer behaviour

Introduction

With the exponential growth of internet-enabled mobile phone subscribers, advancement in mobile technology has enhanced the mobile device's potential as a new channel for service delivery in the retail landscape (Yang, 2010; Ewe, Yap & Lee, 2015). The notion of mobile shopping (hereafter m-shopping) is multifaceted, as reflected by the interpretation of its meaning. While some researchers describe m-shopping as an extension of the online shopping activities with the mobile terminal (Muller-Veerse, 1999; Ngai & Gunasekaran, 2007), others have attempted to study the differences between these two shopping channels (Wu, Chen, Zhou, & Guo, 2010). As m-shopping services are accessible on the move through mobile devices with fundamentally different presentation, processing and interaction features compared to a desktop computer, they are arguably different from the computer-based web shopping services (Kourouthanassis & Giaglis, 2012). Based on the work of Huang, Lu and Ba (2016), we define m-shopping as an activity relating to consumers' shopping processes through a wireless handheld device such as smartphone, tablet, or personal digital assistant.

Issues around understanding m-shopping consumption have been significantly attributed to the complex motivations that underlies consumers' choice criteria. Studies exploring consumers' motivation in m-shopping context utilise m-shopping attributes to assess consumer preferences and choices of using m-shopping. While these past studies have produced noteworthy insights, they merely illuminate the desirable consequences that consumers expect from the consumption activity such as hedonic and utilitarian motivations and specifically, hedonic values are outstanding factors that strongly fix consumers to stay as loyal m-shoppers (Lu & Su, 2009). However, the decision of positive or negative consequences that occupy consumers' preference and selection criteria in m-retailing consumption are determined by individuals' personal values and the pull back of m-shopping growth are due to the complex and conflicting nature of those personal values. Despite it's importance and valuable contributions, the exploration of personal values that drive consumers to desire those consequences remain unanswered. Moreover, conflicting nature of those personal values has appeared in the literature in different areas, but empirical research in m-retailing area is highly fragmented and still lacking and indigent amount of empirical investigations have sought to determine how people's multiple end-goals may interact in potentially converging, conflicting, or compensating ways to influence their motivation and behaviour in the m-shopping environment. Hence, an understanding of the new personal value assets in m-shopping context seems a worthy focus of attention.

This study aims to explore the m-shopping consumers' new types of personal values they possess and the motivational complexities they suffer by having incompatible values simultaneously. This study uses a hard laddering technique to develop hierarchical structure of values among a sample of m-shoppers that is closely related to means-end theory. This study sheds light on the motivational complexities faced by m-shoppers and supports the broadening and strengthening of consumer involvement from a novice mobile shopper merely conducting browsing and searching activities towards a higher involvement mobile shopper who is also making a purchase through a mobile device. Our preliminary findings using content analysis suggest that new types of personal values and motivational complexities that have not appeared in the literature emerge and present that individuals simultaneously possess incompatible values, which require consumers to conflict and balance those values to make optimal choice. Further, new consumer typologies emerge in the mobile shopping context as new values create new consumer groups.

Existing studies in m-shopping literature merely related physical features with hedonic and utilitarian consequences (Lu & Su, 2009; Koo, Kim, & Lee, 2008). This research extend past research by exploring what types of personal values in relation to m-shopping consumption motivate consumer to engage in m-shopping and the conflicting nature of those personal values that hinder consumers from consuming m-shopping or drive frustration around because the consumer needs to forgone incompatible values. Lastly, the study found out how consumers deal with when they confront conflicting motivations. Accordingly, this study seeks to address the following research questions:

What are the experienced personal values (found out from m-shopping consumption)?
Why are they experiencing personal values conflict?
How do they cope with the personal values conflicts?

Overall, after a review of the literature on m-shopping and the role of personal values in m-shopping consumption, this study uses a hard laddering method to develop consumer motivational chains among a sample of m-shoppers. The study reveals the dominant motivational patterns behind m-shopping choice, and discusses the implications and research directions in the context of m-shopping. Further, in highlighting the importance of personal values as determinants of m-shopping consumption, this study sheds light on the motivational complexities faced by m-shoppers and supports the broadening and strengthening of consumer involvement from a novice m-shopper merely conducting browsing and searching activities towards a higher involvement m-shopper who is also making a purchase through a mobile device.

Conceptual Foundations

M-Shopping Background Research
Along with the trend, research interest in m-shopping has increased in recent years, however, studies tend to focus on single issues such as mobile shopper profile (Jih & Lee, 2003; Wu et al., 2004; Bigne, Ruiz, & Sanz Blas, 2005), motivation for adoption (Wu & Wang, 2005; Ko, Kim, & Lee, 2009; Agrebi & Jallais, 2014; Chen & Lan, 2014; Wong, Tan, Ooi, & Lin, 2015), intention to use illuminating utilitarian and hedonic motivations (Aladas-Manzano, Ruiz-Mafe, & Sanz-Blas, 2009; Lu & Su, 2009; Yang, 2010; Yang & Kim, 2012; Li et al., 2012), continuance intention to predict future purchasing behaviour (Hung, Yang, & Hsieh, 2012), impact on traditional shopping experience and consumer decision-making process (Karaatli, Ma, & Suntornpithug, 2010; Holmes, Byrne, & Rowley, 2013), relationship between shopper profile and motivation to use (San-Martin, Prodanova, & Jimenez, 2014; Assarut & Eiamkanchanalai, 2015), and change in spending behaviour and shopping patterns (Wang, Malthouse, & Krishnamurthi, 2015; Huang, Lu, & Ba, 2016).

According to the insight from previous literature, attributes are the most influential predictor to consumers' attitude towards m-shopping (Musa et al., 2016). Studies exploring consumers' motivation in m-shopping context utilise m-shopping attributes to assess consumer preferences and choices of using m-shopping. Investigations have led scholars to relate m-shopping consumption to established theories and theoretical models to explain and predict m-shopping behaviours such as the Technological acceptance model (TAM) and Unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT), in addition to hedonic and utilitarian motivation theories on shopping behaviour. While these past studies have produced noteworthy insights, they merely illuminate the desirable consequences that consumers expect from the consumption activity and still the exploration of central personal values that drive consumers to desire particular consequences remain unanswered. These studies reveal the divergence and

complexity of perceptual and motivational patterns of consumers when conducting m-shopping. In particular, how m-shopping choice considerations interact, for instance, mobility features such as the always on, are linked to the eager to continuous connection with friends motivations of social belongingness.

Existing m-shopping researchers emphasise the power of relationships between profiles of m-shoppers with their motivation to use m-shopping (e.g. San-Martin, Prodanova, & Jimenez, 2014; Assarut & Eiamkanchanalai, 2015; Jih & Lee, 2003; Wu et al., 2004; Bigne, Ruiz, & Sanz Blas, 2005). Specifically with motivational studies, scholars have documented hedonic and utilitarian as well as intrinsic and extrinsic values, where multiple motivations are triggered and valued to engage in m-shopping (e.g. Wu & Wang, 2005; Ko, Kim, & Lee, 2009; Agrebi & Jallais, 2014; Chen & Lan, 2014; Wong, Tan, Ooi, & Lin, 2015; Aladas-Manzano, Ruiz-Mafe, & Sanz-Blas, 2009; Lu & Su, 2009; Yang, 2010; Yang & Kim, 2012; Li et al., 2012). However, past research has established that shoppers do hold multiple end-goals in various shopping environment (Koo, Kim, & Lee, 2008). This means that motivations of m-shopping may not always distinguished as between hedonic or utilitarian but are intrinsically triggered by personal values. With regards to antecedents of studies of areas where personal values shape consumer behaviour, scholars have primarily shown positive outcomes on shopping behaviour research such as mall shopping (Swinyard, 1998; Shim & Eastlick, 1998; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Cai & Shannon, 2012), discount store shopping (Jin & Kim, 2003), online shopping (Jayawardhena, 2004; Koo, Kim, & Lee, 2008), and ethical shopping (Jagel, Keeling, Reppel, & Gruber, 2012). This suggests that m-shoppers may have new types of personal values and struggle with novel motivational conflicts.

Personal Values Motivation
The word "motivation" is rooted from Latin which means "to move", and hence, fundamental interpretation of motivational research is the study of action (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). In essence, motivation refers to the process which causes people to behave in the way in which they do (Dubois, 2000). Modern theories of motivation tend to concentrate on the nexus between beliefs, values, goals and action. The term motivation is multifaceted, as reflected by several synonymous terms such as needs, wants, desires, drives, motives and instincts that are often used interchangeably. Although the meaning of these concepts is not identical, they represent the existence of a force within an individual which stimulates one's behaviour with a predetermined goal. Accordingly, explaining consumer behaviour involves the identification of these forces, their number, their strength and their direction, as well as the mechanisms which underlie them (Dubois, 2000). While motivational researchers may agree on the underlying internal needs of consumers, but they may not reach a consensus when it comes to identifying their nature and dynamics, and these diverse views enrich the analysis of consumption behaviour. This study endeavours to concentrate on one particular motivational force, that is, the concept of personal value.

Personal value is a centrally held enduring belief and a desirable trans-situational goal which guides actions and judgments in a person's life (Murray, 1938; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1994). It acts as an important motivational driver as they perform as a guiding standard in individuals' lives (Schwartz, 1994), thereby plays a significant role in determining consumption behaviour (Kilbourne & Beckmann, 1998; Rokeach, 1973). While personal values are deep seated and thus not apparent, the consequence of an individual's values can be discerned through observing his or her decision making (Sheehan & Schmidt, 2015). Past research have provided theoretical evidences that personal values can affect an individual's judgment of which attributes of an object are important in consumption decision-making. For

example, Koo, Kim, and Lee (2008) provide an insight that personal values held by a consumer provide motivation for him or her to seek certain potential benefits provided by a product or service. Thereby, after having been motivated to seek particular benefits, the consumer is motivated to evaluate certain attributes of the product or the retail environment that are more likely to be associated with his or her desired benefits, which leads to patronise a shopping channel or store and initiate a purchase.

In addition to types of personal values, conflicting nature of those personal values has appeared in the literature, but empirical research in retailing area has remained untouched. While existing research have primarily focused on hedonic and utilitarian motivations that are seen as multiple motivations occur simultaneously, they identified personal values conflicting nature as independent (Schwartz, 1994). However, the motivational complexities appear when one person simultaneously possesses multiple opposite values. This has resulted in calls for further research. Therefore, this study contrasts the personal values relationships and further identifies the coping mechanisms of m-shoppers how they react to those conflicting values. Specifically, Schwartz's (1994) circumplex model is examined to explore the interrelated relationship between personal values.

Means-end Theory
Means-end chain is employed as the fundamental theoretical framework of the study and as the tool to reveal the linkages between consumers' cognitive hierarchical value structures. Following the proposition of means-end theory, consumer value is of hierarchical nature (Bagozzi and Dabholkar, 1994; Overby et al., 2004; Woodruff and Gardial, 1996). This approach explains hierarchically how an individual cognitively performs through a consumption process (Zeithaml, 1988). Means-end chain is a cognitive structure linking the consumer's knowledge of product or service to one's knowledge of personal desired consequences and values (Gutman, 1982). In the main premise of means-end chain is that consumers learn to select products and services featuring the attributes that will allow them to achieve their personal values (Barrena, Garcia, & Sanchez, 2015). The suggestion is that product or service knowledge is organised into a hierarchical levels of abstraction inside a person's mind (Gutman, 1982; Reynolds, Gengler, & Howard, 1995). The stronger and more direct the personal link with the attributes and consequences, the higher the potential in the decision (Olson & Reynolds, 1983).

Research Method
According to means-end theory, there are three levels of abstractions in a means-end chain (Gutman, 1982, 1984): attributes; consequences; and values. These three elements will be explored through the use of the hard-laddering approach in the data collection stage. This approach allows for a better understanding of the relationship and the linkages among the attributes of mobile shopping and the goals pursued by consumers (Amatulli & Guido, 2011). During the data collection, respondents will answer open-ended questions using an open text box identifying up to three attributes that are of importance to them and subsequently writing up reasons for why each attribute is of importance (Voss et al., 2007). The patterns of responses and observed similarities across respondents construct the results of hard laddering approach (Zeithaml, 1988). The purpose of hard laddering technique is to freely elicit respondents' personally meaningful distinction of constructs from their cognitive structures and subsequently gain hierarchical connection of meanings by using a bottom-up, external-internal process of questioning (Phillips & Reynolds, 2009). The convenience sample of 300 responses are expected to be collected through online survey. The findings may give insight to retailers that they need to move beyond attributes and utilitarian and hedonic functions and measure

personal values, as these values construct a standard for consumers in making their preferences, choices and behaviours.

Findings
Using the sample of 300 hard laddering outcomes, the breadth of responses is attributable to the sample composition; respondents reported a wide spread of values they regard important. Our preliminary findings using content analysis suggest that new consumer value structures and motivational complexities appear and present that individuals simultaneously possess opposite values, which require consumers to conflict and balance those values to make optimal choice and maximally alleviate struggles. Further, new consumer typologies emerge in the mobile shopping context as new values create new consumer groups.

Discussion and Implications
This study contributes to existing m-shopping literature and practice in three important aspects. First, the value hierarchy of m-shopping helps retailers and researchers to understand the types and origins of m-shopping values. Second, the knowledge in personal value and the motivational complexities of m-shoppers enhance the knowledge of different m-shopping consumer segments which will yield new consumer typologies in m-shopping context. Lastly, the knowledge enhances our understanding of how to communicate to each segment effectively.

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The Effectiveness of Colour in Charitable Appeals

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Abstract
Colours can influence consumer decision-making through the psychological mechanisms of arousal and affect. We contribute by experimentally testing the effect of colour on charitable giving in two settings: online and laboratory. By varying the background colours of charitable appeals in terms of wavelength (hue) and saturation, we investigated how colour influences giving through the mediators of arousal and affect. In our studies, we measured charitable giving using a dictator game, widely used in behavioural economics to capture behaviour rather than attitudes (participants chose how much out of $10 to allocate between themselves and a charity). Study 1 (online) revealed a significant effect of saturation on giving mediated by arousal, but no effect of wavelength. Study 2 (laboratory) revealed directionally consistent but statistically insignificant results. We discuss the implications of these findings.

Keywords: Colour, charitable giving, arousal, affect

Track: Consumer Behaviour

More than meets the eye:
The influence of tableware aesthetics on food consumption

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Abstract
Research in food consumption has examined the role of various factors such as assortment variety, food shape, labeling, emotions and packaging, among others. In this research, we examine the influence of tableware aesthetics on consumption and identify the moderating functions of gender, food type and goal (healthy vs. hedonic), as well as the mediating function of monitoring. A key result from our experiments suggests that while aesthetically pleasing tableware increases consumption of hedonic food among men, it triggers monitoring among women, which in turn reduces their intake. However, these differences are not significant when utilitarian food and plain plates are used. We also address the role of goal priming in reducing the effect of tableware on consumption. Specifically, priming healthy goal decreases food consumption among males using aesthetic tableware, while priming either hedonic or healthy goal activates monitoring and hence reduces consumption among female consumers using plain tableware.

Keywords: aesthetics; consumption; monitoring; gender, hedonic consumption.

Track: Consumer behavior

The taste of colour:
Examining the influence of package colour on consumers' perception of food products

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Abstract

As consumers encounter the food product at the point of purchase, the food package functions as a source of information to their evaluation of the content. In this research, we examine the influence of dark versus bright package colour on evaluation of perceived tastiness and healthiness of the food product. We also aim to identify the link between package colour, food type (hedonic versus healthy food), and willingness to pay. Initial findings suggested that while both hedonic and healthy foods were perceived as tastier in dark (versus bright) package colour, bright package colour increased the healthiness rating of the food product. That is, healthy food is perceived as healthier and hedonic food is perceived as reduced health risk in bright (versus dark colour) packaging. The findings of our research have important implications for various stakeholders such as consumers, marketers, as well as policy makers.

Keywords: package colour, hedonic, healthy food,

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Older consumers and long-established brands:
Exploring the whys on their brand choices

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Abstract
Older consumers tend to buy older brands. It is critical to investigate how these behavioural preferences for long-established brands commence and endure overtime. In this study we analyse panel purchase data (individual) of 40 brands from three CPG categories in the UK. Our results support previous findings on preferences for older brands amongst older consumers. We found that newer brands tend to skew towards younger consumers, and older brands skewed towards older people. We propose some theories to explain why loyalty for long-standing brands prevails for older consumers, but not with younger ones, despite them having exposure to long-standing brands since childhood. It seems critical for brands to nudge consumers who are establishing their repertoires, as these foundation brands guide brand choices in the long-term.

Keywords: Older consumer, consumer behaviour, brand choice, buying repertoire

Track: Consumer behaviour

The Influence of Brand Familiarity, Brand Exposure and Brand Knowledge on Quality Perceptions. Outcomes from a Wine Tasting Experiment.

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Abstract
While, over time, placebo-type brand-equity effects may develop through the process of wine purchase and consumption; the extent to which factors like brand familiarity, brand exposure and brand knowledge combine to inform and reinforce such brand-equity effects remains still largely unexplored. With the purpose of modelling this potentially mediating dynamic, we present a two-stage wine tasting experiment employing the combined reportage of 140 subjects each consecutively tasting seven Sauvignon Blanc wines first blind, and then, afterwards, sighted. With control, results demonstrate how brand familiarity mediates the effect of brand exposure on the sighted assessment of wine both directly, and via its relation to brand knowledge. This novel finding extends the literature on the consumer response to brand information, suggesting that conventional mass media marketing strategies aimed merely at imparting brand knowledge may prove insufficient unless they also create a degree of brand familiarity in the minds of their customers.

Keywords: brand equity, brand familiarity, cues, wine.

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

Where two stimuli are co-joined, such as with a brand and its underlying intrinsic efficacy, over time and with repeated exposure, affect can be shifted from the one stimulus (the intrinsic quality) to the other (the brand itself) (Plassmann, Ramsøy, & Milosavljevic 2012). In this study we further the analysis of brand-equity effects by examining the mediating influence of pre-existing states of brand familiarity, brand knowledge and brand exposure in the purchase and consumption of wine.

Forms of cue-based product assessment are observed to derive from any number of extrinsic sources including: brand name, product price, expert ratings, prior knowledge and level of category involvement. With specific reference to the influence of brands, across a broad array of product categories including pain medication, beer, yoghurt, fast-food hamburgers, and sugar drinks, there is substantial evidence of subjects employing brands as heuristic enablers (Allison and Uhl, 1964; McClure, Li, Tomlin, Cypert, Montague & Montague, 2004; Pasovaara, Luomala, Pohjanheimo, and Sandell, 2012; Robinson, Borzekowski, Matheson & Kraemer, 2007; and Shiv, Carmon, & Ariely, 2005).

According to Aaker (1996), brand affect is fuelled by factors such as brand perception, associated levels of consumer awareness and loyalty, and perceptions of quality; and equates to a version of brand equity. Where situations exist that intrinsic merit cannot be readily attested, as in the purchase of wine, extrinsic brand cues have additionally been shown to serve as placebo-type proxies employed in determining brand equity (Thrane, 2004). In an assessment of wine brand-equity effects manifesting across a range of demographic transects, Priilaid, Barendse, Kato-Kalule & Mubangizi (2013) conducted a wine-based tasting room experiment premised on a view that brand effects may be specified and measured as the difference between a sighted and blind product sampling. Where the sight-to-blind rating-difference is found to be statistically consistent, this difference may serve as a legitimate proxy for brand equity (Kamakura & Russell, 1991 and Keller, 1993).

In their study, Priilaid et al. (2013) asked their subjects to assess different entry-level rosé wine brands, first blind and then sighted. Analysing the blind-to-sighted differentials, two significant findings emerged: (1) how some brands predominate over others, and (2) how such dominance may present differentially across different user profiles, with, for example, some brands more favoured by men than by women, and so on. While showcasing a cost-effective means for testing the presence of particular brand effects across user categories, the Priilaid et al. (2013) study was, however, subject to certain limitations. Most critically, it failed to consider the potentially mediating effects of any pre-existing degrees of brand familiarity. According to Tam (2008), brand familiarity is a function of the number of indirect and direct product-related experiences with a particular brand, and is regarded as crucial to predicting consumer behaviour: with familiar brands thus possessing significant communication advantages since they can be recognized more easily than their lesser cousins (Delgado-Ballester, Navarro & Sicilia, 2012). By extension therefore, familiar brands receive benefits in terms of increased consumption and greater perception of quality (Labroo & Lee, 2006; Lee & Labroo, 2004; Novemsky, Dhar, Schwarz & Simonson, 2007). In the Sherman & Tuten (2011) study of wine purchasing behaviour, brand familiarity and price were found to be the most important factors determining consumer choice.

With this in mind, our study asks whether and / or to what extent certain dimensions of brand awareness might mediate the sighted assessment of wine, when controlling for blind-based intrinsic merit. Worth noting here is that blind tastings are void of subjective bias since they

carry no extrinsic information. In blind tests, therefore, individuals may rely only on the intrinsic properties inherent in the wine itself. In sighted tastings however, the consumer is subject to the influence of both intrinsic merit and any extrinsic cues. Thus where the extrinsic cue is a brand, associative dimensions of brand familiarity, brand knowledge and brand exposure arguably come in to play. This being so, through the consequent control of blind measures of quality, the influence of a particular brand cue on any subsequent sighted assessment may thus be flagged and computed, in conjunction with the potentially mediating effects of one's declared familiarity, exposure and knowledge of the brand in question. Note that from here-out the brand familiarity, brand exposure and brand knowledge constructs are respectively foreshortened to BF, BE and BK.

Hypothesis Development

Consistent with Keller (2003), this study specifies BE as the degree to which a customer is witnessed to a particular brand across a range of touch points (as per Aaker, 1996), and BK as a function of informative marketing (as per Delgado-Ballester *et al.*, 2012). As defined by Tam (2008) BF relates to the aggregate number of product-related experiences per consumer. Such experiences may be direct or indirect, and include advertising, product usage, interactions with employees and word-of-mouth communications (Tam, 2008). BF plays an important role in purchasing behaviour as it has been found to be one of the key differentiating features among brands (Delgado-Ballester *et al.*, 2012). With evidence suggesting that familiar brands have distinctive communication advantages stemming from their requiring less mental storage, retrieval and processing effort, BF is thus deemed essential for commercial success (Delgado-Ballester *et al.*, 2012; Lange & Dahlén, 2003). Owing to the knowledge-differential existing between familiar and unfamiliar brands, consumer attitudes towards familiar brands tend thus to be more favourable (Dahlén & Lange, 2004; Delgado-Ballester *et al.*, 2012). With familiar brands more easily recognised, they posses thus both cognitive and affective advantages (Labroo & Lee, 2006; Lee & Labroo, 2004; Novemsky *et al.*, 2007).

In the light of the above, and as per Figure I below, we present three hypotheses:

H_1: BF mediates the relationship between BE and the sighted taste assessments of wine.
H_2: BF mediates the relationship between BK and the sighted taste of wine.
H_3: BK mediates the effect of BE in sighted taste assessment of wine.
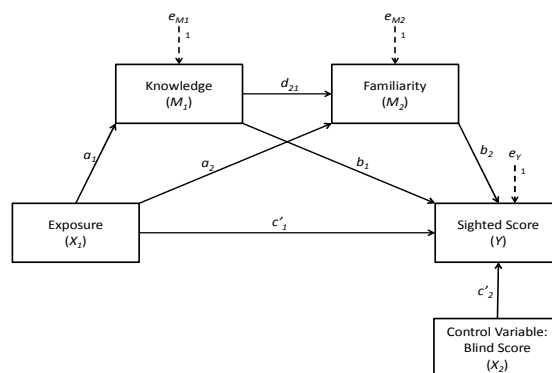

Figure I: The BF, BK and BE model specification for mediation analysis.

Methodology.

Research Method and Measurement Instrument

This study adopted the same one-group pre-experimental design-format employed by Priilaid *et al.* (2013), with a self-administered questionnaire containing two empirical components. The first was a single measure of utility experienced when sampling identical wines both blind and sighted. This measure employed an 11-point scale using 0.5 increments ranging from 0 to 5 using "half star" increments, with 0 being the 'Worst Possible' and 5 being the 'Best Possible'. As specified in Bruner's (2013) *Marketing Scales Handbook*, the second component included three separate questions aimed to measure BF, BK and BE, respectively. Each of these measures employed a seven-point semantic differential scale, as previously employed by Zhou, Yang & Hui (2010); with origins rooted in work by Steenkamp, Batra & Alden (2003) and Oliver & Bearden (1985). The questions relating to BF, BK and BE run respectively as follows: (1) *The brand is very familiar to me* (BF), (2) *I'm knowledgeable about this brand* (BK), and (3) *I have seen advertisements about this brand in the mass media* (BE).

Experiment Design

The study employed 140 subjects. Each was taken through a two-stage blind-then-sighted Sauvignon Blanc wine assessment, the sequence of events running as follows: (1). Prior to the blind round, respondents were requested to provide information on biographic details including age, gender and level of expertise, as well as typical spend per bottle, wine consumption per week, and wine preference: red, white or indifferent. (2). Subjects then tasted each of the seven wines blind, one after the other, recording their assessment ratings as they went. At this stage subjects were aware only of the cultivar of the wines sampled (Sauvignon Blanc). (3). Completed questionnaires from the blind tasting were then collected. (4). Prior to the sighted round subjects were requested to indicate their level of familiarity with each of the wine brands they were about to taste. (5). Thereafter, in the second "sighted" round, with the sampling order reshuffled, each of the wines was re-sampled, this time with the brand of each of wine exposed.

Data Description

Merging the assessment data relating to the seven wines sampled blind and sighted with information drawn from the 140 self-administered questionnaires (74 female and 66 male), a dataset of 980 (140x7) paired wine assessments and demographic control variables was assembled. *Inter-alia*, descriptive statistics pertaining to the subjects of the dataset included: sighted tasting score (max: 5, min 0, mean: 2.89, SD: 1.02), blind tasting score (max: 5, min: 0, mean: 2.84, SD: 1.08), and age (max: 82, min 18, mean: 27.9, SD: 14.0). Kurtosis and skewness indicators were assessed for data normality – and all variables indicated normality other than age, as per expectations.

Model Construction

Recent advances in mediation analysis allow for the simultaneous testing of multiple mediation effects. Thus, to consider the mediation effect of BF and BK on the relationship between BE and sighted assessments we followed the procedures for parallel mediation analysis proposed by Preacher & Hayes (2008) and Hayes & Preacher (2012). The earlier Figure 1 depicts these variables showing how the model considers (1) the indirect effect of *X* on *Y* via M_i ($a_i b_i$), (2) the indirect effect of *X* on *Y* via M_1 and M_2 ($a_1 d_{21} b_2$) in serial, and (3) the direct effect of X_1 on *Y while X_2 is a covariate.* Given the model specification it is suggested that the respondent's familiarity with the brand drives his or her knowledge of the brand which in turn can mediate the relationship between the respondent's exposure to the brand and his or her sighted

assessments of the brand. This mediation might occur either separately (a_1b_1) or together ($a_1d_{21}b_2$).

As per the first study component, un-reported statistically significant brand effects were identified in the meta-sample (n=140), and also in four sub-models; namely the age 18-27 model (n=113), the male model (n=66), female model (n=74) and non-novice model: n=53; sum: n=466).

As per the second component of the analysis, to test for subsequent mediation effects the data of each of the five brand-affective samples was aggregated to produce scores for each measure of sighted assessment, blind assessment, BF, BK, and BE. (i.e.: 140+113+66+74+53=466). This means that the individual item scores for each respondent were used to compute a mean score for each construct at the respondent level. This aggregated approach is consistent with the recommendations of Hayes & Preacher (2012) when employing parallel process analysis. The individual mean scores per brand identified were then combined to reflect the means of the 446 (n) respondents who identified these effects – this across the five models (as cited above) presenting with identifiable brand effects. Note that the procedure suggested by Hayes & Preacher (2012:649) is "*general in that it can be used for any model linear in its parameters that is differentiable with respect to X and M in the range of the data available, and it encompasses the linear model as a special case.*" Importantly, the method is useful for assessing indirect effects in models containing nonlinear parameters. It is therefore common to see it applied when the functional relation of two variables cannot be expressed as the product of a slope and a function of a predictor variable.

Results
As per Table I over-leaf, the output from the predictive model explains 57% of the variance in BK ($R^2 = 0.57$), 73% of BF ($R^2 = 0.73$), and 15% of sighted assessments ($R^2 = 0.15$). Moreover, the results demonstrate the presence of statistically significant mediation effects. In particular, the joint mediation effect of BK and BF on the relationship between BE and sighted assessment scores is statistically significant at the 95% level, and thus the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of H_1. Similarly, the mediation effect of BF on the same relationship is also statistically significant at the 95% level. Thus once more the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of H_2. These results however do not support a mediation effect of BK on the relationship between BE and sighted scores and thus the H_3 null hypothesis could not be rejected. Hence H_3 is not supported.

Conclusions and Recommendations
Building on the literature of Priilaid *et al.* (2013) this study suggests that BF does indeed mediate the sighted assessment of a wine when in the presence of a brand. This effect is shown to be particularly interesting given that the study sample consists of primarily younger respondents. Notably, fifty percent of the sample ranged between the ages of 18 and 22. Given this particular age bias, these results point to the importance of BE as a driver of BK, BF and ultimately the sighted assessment of wine itself. This suggests that marketing activities aimed at promoting BE are indeed worthwhile.

It should be noted moreover that BF mediates the relationship between BE and sighted assessments. This suggests that that merely exposing young novices to a brand (61% of the sample classified themselves as novices in terms of their expertise in wine) is not sufficient to yield consistently high sighted assessment scores. From a marketing perspective, this observation supports the notion that conventional mass-media-driven marketing, though

critically important to create BE, is in itself not enough. Rather, our results suggest that the marketing effort has to engage customers from this group in a manner that fuels sufficient degrees of BF required ultimately to drive sighted assessment scores. The import of both these results is further confirmed by the absence of a statistically significant association between BE and sighted assessment. Exposure does not independently drive hedonic utility. Finally, the absence of a mediation effect of BK in the relationship between BE and sighted assessment remains equally important; suggesting that only imparting knowledge (information) to consumers, but not creating familiarity *per sé* by engaging them in a meaningful multi-directional manner, may prove a futile exercise. Clearly the extent of the efficacy of BK and brand information cannot be fully addressed from the limited perspective of our analysis, and further corroborative research is required. However, in terms of young novice consumers, these findings do raise interesting questions about how wine marketers might better interact with these customers.

Overall Model results				
	Unstandardized Coefficient	**Standard Error**	**t-statistic**	**P**
Knowledge				
Constant	1.021	0.09	11.06	0.00
Exposure	0.719	0.03	24.53	0.00
Familiarity				
Constant	0.587	0.10	5.62	0.00
Knowledge	0.929	0.048	19.53	0.00
Exposure	0.186	0.05	4.13	0.00
Sighted				
Constant	1.711	0.14	11.85	0.00
Knowledge	0.047	0.05	0.92	0.36
Familiarity	0.077	0.03	2.07	0.04
Exposure	-0.051	0.04	-1.41	0.16
Blind	0.321	0.04	7.23	0.00
Mediation results				
Direct effect of Exposure (*X*) on Sighted assessment (*Y*)				
Effect Size	**SE**	**T-statistic**	**P***	**LLCI****	**ULCI*****
-0.0512	0.0363	-1.41	0.16	-0.1225	0.0202
Indirect effects of Exposure (*X*) on Sighted assessment (*Y*)				
	Effect Size	**SE**	**LLCI**	**ULCI**
Total	0.099	0.028	0.044	0.154
BE→BK→Sighted	0.034	0.025	-0.034	0.105
BE→BK→BF→Sighted	0.052	0.023	0.007	0.098
BE→BF→Sighted	0.014	0.008	0.002	0.034

Table I: Results of mediation analysis. Note**: *** $\rho<0.05$, *** Lower Limited of Confidence Interval, *** Upper Limited of Confidence Interval*

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Do food consumers too go green to be seen?

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Abstract

Because the current research suggests that there are links between prosocial acts (including sustainable consumer choices) and status signaling, we empirically study (two experiments) do food consumers too go green to be seen? In the first experiment, we examine how activating a motive for status influences on proenvironmental organic food preferences, and in the second, how social visibility of the choice (private vs. public) affects these preferences. We found that when consumers were exposed to status competition, they indeed preferred organic food products over their nonorganic counterparts; making the choice situation visible created the same effect. We claim that organic options were preferred more because a tendency to favor organic foods can be viewed as a costly signaling trait.

Keywords: Organic food, prosociality, costly signaling, status, altruism

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Financial Insight and Behaviour of Household Consumers in Port Elizabeth: An Exploratory Study

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Abstract

The objective of this study was to investigate the financial insight and behaviour of household consumers in Port Elizabeth. Economists have urged South Africans to start living within their means, improve their money management skills and eliminate debt and other symptoms of mediocre financial insight and behaviour. Addressing these issues requires empirical evidence. A research model guided the investigation involving a field survey (n=560) households. The survey revealed six factors for financial behaviour and one for financial insight. The negative results for most factors confirmed the need for improved financial literacy of Port Elizabeth consumers. Significant relationships between demographic variables and financial behavioural factors were observed for the sampled population. Educators and financial training facilitators should focus in their literacy programmes on financial planning, executing, vigilance, discipline, control and outsourcing personal financial services. Marketers and providers of credit should act responsibly when dealing with consumers with inadequate financial literacy.

Keywords: Financial insight, financial behaviour

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

The financial literacy of consumers in South Africa is at an acceptably low level which puts them at risk of dire financial adversity (Dempsey2015). The key focus of this study was to obtain empirical evidence of the actual extent of this problem by investigating household consumers' financial insight and behaviour in Port Elizabeth. A number of studies have noted that financial literacy in the country is low (Tomlinson 1999; Ramsamy 2012; Fatoki & Oni 2014). Government, NGO's and aid organizations are increasingly focusing on financial literacy education as a tool for improving welfare. Yet, to date there is little evidence that financial education is effective (Russia Trust Fund for financial literacy and Education 2012).

Literature Review

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) defined financial literacy as "the process by which financial consumers improve their understanding of financial products and concepts, and through information instruction and/or objective advice develop the skills and confidence to become more aware of financial risk and opportunities, to make informed choices, to know where to get help and to take other effective actions to improve their financial well-being" (OECD 2005). It is apparent from the above definition that financial insight and behaviour can be viewed as important components of financial literacy.

Insight is the capacity to gain a clear, intuitive understanding of a cause and effect in a specific context (Colman 2009). *Financial insight* for the purpose of this study is defined as a deep inspection or view of personal money matters. *Financial behaviour* is regarded as the financial management which an individual or family is required to perform to obtain, budget, save and spend money over time, taking into account financial risks and future life events (Kwok, Milevsky &Robinson, 1994). For the purpose of this study a heuristic model was constructed, based on previous research conducted in the Netherlands by Antonidus, De Groot & Van Raaij, (2012) and Kasper & Bloemer (2014). All the variables portrayed in the model were derived from research by these authors. Apart from guiding the study by serving as a basis for hypotheses formulation and the construction of an instrument for measuring financial insight it was hoped that the model would also assist in identifying strong and weak points in financial behaviour of the sampled population.

Figure 1: Heuristic model* linking socio-demographic variables with financial insight and behavioural variables and proposed hypotheses tested
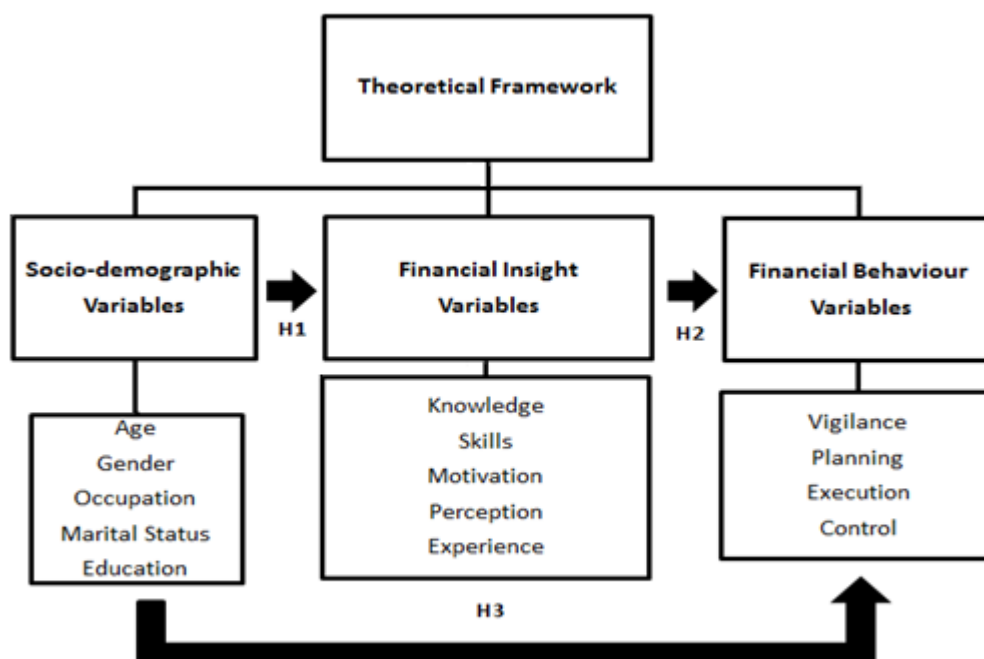
*The model adopted from Antonides, De Groot & Van Raaij (2008)

In the model *age, gender, occupation, marital status* and *education* were regarded as key socio-demographic variables impacting on financial insight directly and financial behaviour indirectly. All these variables featured prominently in previous research (Kasper et al. 2014; Robb & Woodyard, 2011; Schüssler, 2014; Voya, 2011; Du Plessis & Rousseau, 2007) and are relevant to South African conditions. For instance, Kasper et al. observed that most elderly want more and better service, want to avoid risks and long for trustworthy financial service providers while Schüssler stated that financial education in South Africa remains a main shortfall to be addressed at school level. Schüssler (2014), furthermore reports that that short-term unsecured loans have been rising as a percentage of South African households total debt, especially amongst lower occupation households.

Financial insight variables were categorized as: *knowledge* of financial planning for the future; the importance of saving, the advantage and risk involved in borrowing money; *skills* being the ability of dealing with money on a daily basis, responsibility in managing money mental accounting; *motivation* being the determination of providing for the future, managing personal finances and avoiding debt; *perception* being the awareness of the increasing cost of living, awareness of unforeseen expenses and the danger of irresponsible spending; *experience* referring to financial education, encounters with financial consultants, investment products and buying on credit. Regarding financial knowledge and skills Hung, Parker and Yoong (2009) found that older people tended to be weaker than the younger generation while men were more competent than women on financial matters. Regarding motivation and perception Ozmete and Hira (2011) state that one of the most important decisions an individual can make is choosing a sound financial behaviour plan that will enable an individual or family to achieve their life goals.

Financial behaviour variables were categorized as *vigilance* which refers to seeing beyond tomorrow, financial risk perception and staying informed about financial matters; *planning* referring to provision for retirement, pension schemes as well as for additional investments and insurance; *executing* which refers to organizing spending patterns, paying bills on time, following a household budget and savings plan; *control* which refers to knowing one's financial balance, income and expenditure and living within one's means.

Antonides et al. (2012) reported from a longitudinal study in the Netherlands that Dutch consumers were generally vigilant regarding their financial insight and behaviour. Kasper and Bloemer (2014) reported that consumers older than 50 years were highly vigilant regarding savings, paying bills on time and knowledge of their own financial balance. In South Africa however, many blue-collar employees are unable to engage in future planning, due to restricted income, resulting from poor financial behaviour (Brink 2011). Research in South Africa by Brink (2011) and Mishi, Vacu and Chipotle (2012) further showed that financial execution is substandard. A major problem with financial execution for middle-aged adults is the tendency to use their retirement fund to help adult children's transition to financial independence. Financial control, such as savings are also determined by family size, age of household head and employment status apart from income, according to Palmer 2015.

Hypotheses: In the model presented in Figure 1 it is hypothesized that relationships exist between *socio-demographic* variables and *financial insight* variables (H1), between *financial insight* variables and *financial behaviour* variables (H2) and between *socio-demographic* variables and *financial behaviour* variables (H3).

Method

Instrument: A 40 item questionnaire was constructed as measuring instrument. The items were derived from literature and related to the variables in the research model. The first 24 items focused on *financial insight* while the last 16 items focused on *financial behaviour*. The questionnaire concluded with questions pertaining to the *socio-demographic* variables in the model. A verbal anchored five-point rating scale (ranging from disagree completely to agree completely) was used to obtain respondents' views on the items in the questionnaire.

Sample: A non-probability convenience sample (n=560) was drawn from respondents in the Nelson Mandela Metro. Students from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University carried out the fieldwork. They completed a briefing session on sample selection and interview procedures. Fieldwork was carried out at home, at work or at shopping malls in various suburbs.

Data analysis: Microsoft Excel and the statistical software program Statistica Version 12 were used to calculate descriptive and inferential statistics and to perform exploratory factor analysis. An ANOVA was conducted to determine the relationship between demographic variables and financial insight and behavioural factors.

Results

Table 1 reports the reliability results for the various factors. .

Table 1: Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the factors

Planning	Executing	Vigilance	Discipline	Control	Outsourcing	Behaviour
0.79	0.71	0.76	0.71	0.55	0.38	0.70

The reliability values portrayed in Table 1 can be regarded as good for the first four factors and the last one but disappointing for factors five and six (control and outsourcing). However, bearing in mind the exploratory nature of the study, the reliability values are acceptable although results need to be interpreted with caution.

Table 2: ANOVA results - Factors by Demographic variables p-values (n=529)

Factor Effect	Employment	Age	Gender	Marital Status	Education
Planning	<.0005	<.0005	.131	.421	.001
Executing	.257	.029	.007	.921	<.0005
Vigilance	.008	.172	.027	.800	.001
Discipline	.143	.268	.671	.038	.057
Control	.140	.180	.088	.270	.602
Outsourcing	.129	.848	.442	.458	.819
Behaviour	<.0005	.013	.028	.769	<.0005
Knowledge	.343	.696	.450	.020	.010

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine the significance of the relationships between the factors and the demographic variables. These results are summarized in Table 2. Significant relationships ($p<0.05$) were observed between the demographic variables and all factors except for *Control* and *Outsourcing*. It was found for example that *Planning* is significantly related to Employment, Age and Education. Tables 3, 4, and 5 show significant ($p<0.05; d>0.20$) post-hoc results, for the significant ANOVAs ($p<0.05$ in Table 2), by employment, age and education for the various factors.

Table 3 Significant post-hoc results for factors by Employment Status

Factor	Mean Values				Scheffé p < .05 & Cohen's d > 0.20
	a.Pensioner	b.Unemployed	c.Part time	d.Full time	
Financial Planning	3.24	2.21	2.63	3.28	ab;ac;bc;bd;cd
Financial Vigilance	3.24	2.82	3.01	3.42	bd;cd
Financial Behaviour	3.35	2.81	2.97	3.34	ab

From Table 3 it can be seen that full time employed consumers have significantly higher *financial planning* scores than unemployed and part time employed. With regard to *financial vigilance,* results indicate that full time employed consumers are significantly more financially vigilant than unemployed and part time employed consumers. This may be due to unemployed consumers having given up hope to find a job and are therefore also less financially vigilant.

Table 4: Significant post-hoc results for Factors by Age group

Factor	Mean Values					Scheffé p < .05 & Cohen's d > 0.20
	a.20-29	b.30-39	c.40-49	d.50-59	e.60+	
Financial Planning	2.38	3.19	3.14	3.42	3.30	ab; ac; ad; ae
Financial Behaviour	2.91	3.25	3.21	3.42	3.43	ab; ac; ad; ae

With regards to age Table 4 shows that consumers in the age groups 20-29 scored significantly lower than those in the older age groups (30-39, 40-49, 50-59 and 60+) on *financial planning* and *financial behaviour.* These results suggest that younger respondents may be less aware of the importance of financial planning for their future.

Table 5: Significant post-hoc results for Factors by Education level

Factor	Mean Values					Scheffé p < .05 & Cohen's d > 0.20
	a.<Matric	b.Matric	c.Diploma	d.Degree	e.Post-Grad	
Financial Planning	2.60	2.55	3.24	2.94	3.16	ac;ae;bc;bd;be
Financial Executing	2.41	2.81	2.87	3.05	3.30	ac;ad;ae;be;ce
Financial Vigilance	2.98	2.89	3.25	3.32	3.55	ae;bc;bd;be
Financial Behaviour	2.85	2.94	3.24	3.24	3.41	ac;ad;ae;bc;bd;be
Financial Insight	3.16	3.29	3.15	3.08	2.80	be

As far as education is concerned, results from Table 5 show that consumers with a higher education (diploma, degree or post graduate degree) were significantly more aware of the importance of *financial planning* compared to those with only a matric certificate or less than matric. Educational level is thus related to financial planning. These results support those of Schüssler (2014:1-2), suggesting financial illiteracy should be addressed at school level.

Furthermore, the results suggest that educational level is significantly related to *financial execution, financial vigilance* and *financial behaviour.* It seems that respondents with a degree or post graduate degree were more competent in executing financial planning than those with less than matric, matric or only a diploma certificate. These results once more emphasize the lack of financial literacy at school level, notified by Birkholtz and Rousseau (2001:133-147). It further supports the notion by Schüssler (2014:1-2) that financial illiteracy is a huge problem in South Africa which should be addressed at school level.

Regarding *financial insight* Table 4 portrays a strange scoring pattern amongst consumers. It seems that consumers with a matric certificate exhibited significantly more *financial insight*

than those with a post graduate degree. This observation might indicate an element of arrogance regarding financial insight and behaviour amongst post graduates, stemming from material affluence compared to less educated "matric only" consumers. This result may support that of Robb and Sharpe (2009:25-43) suggesting that students with higher levels of financial knowledge also had significantly higher credit card balances compared to those with lower financial knowledge. This could result in more careful spending amongst the latter.

Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to investigate levels of financial insight and behaviour amongst consumers with various demographical backgrounds in Port Elizabeth. A conceptual model derived from previous research guided the investigation. Results from an exploratory factor analysis revealed six factors for financial behaviour viz. planning, executing, vigilance, discipline, control, outsourcing and one for financial insight viz. knowledge. Strong positive correlations between the first four factors (financial planning, executing, vigilance and discipline) emerged from the data analysis. No support of the hypothesis relating to a theorized positive relationship between financial insight and financial behaviour (H2) could be found.

Post-hoc results by demographics revealed significant relationships for financial planning, executing, vigilance, discipline, outsourcing, insight and financial behaviour. The implication is that the hypotheses relating to the relationships between demographics on the one hand and financial insight (H1) and financial behaviour (H3) on the other can be accepted. These results confirmed the influence of employment level, age, gender, marital status and education on financial behaviour and insight of consumers in Port Elizabeth. Full-time employed, elderly, married male consumers with post-matric qualifications obtained the highest mean scores on financial behaviour.

The main conclusion from the empirical research supported the literature that financial illiteracy amongst a large section of the population in South Africa and especially in Port Elizabeth, remain a main concern for the country. Lack of financial behaviour and insight is particularly prevalent amongst unemployed young and single consumers with a low education. As South Africa's population is relatively young and the unemployment level amongst the youth extremely high, the need for financial education and training, especially amongst the youth must become a priority.

Practical implications for educators: Educators at school level and training facilitators for business should focus in their financial literacy programmes on financial planning, financial executing, vigilance, discipline, control and the pros' and cons' of outsourcing personal financial services. These factors would hopefully increase financial behaviour and insight amongst those exposed to such interventions.

Practical implications for marketers: Marketers promoting financial services and banks, advertising credit and loan facilities should be responsible in their dealings with clients. They should not promote unrealistic attractive credit and loan offers to clients who cannot afford it, due to lack of financial knowledge. The poorer section of the population is especially vulnerable to unsecured loans and credit misuse.

Limitations and implications for further research: Bearing in mind the exploratory nature of the study, the measuring instrument needs to be refined in follow–up studies. Only one variable, "knowledge" emerged for the factor *insight.* More items need to be added to the questionnaire to measure the remaining variables for insight, portrayed in the model. Furthermore, "one-shot"

studies usually lack generalizability; therefore a follow-up investigation is needed to confirm tentative results obtained in the present study.

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Does Within-Domain Compensatory Consumption Restore the Threatened Self?
A Product's Identity Connections May Hold the Self-Repair Key

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Abstract
Consumers facing self-threats prefer products that symbolize the domain of self-identity on which they feel threatened. Because such within-domain compensatory consumption provides them a symbolic self-completion, it can repair their self on the threatened domain. However, merely consuming a threat-related product does not ensure self-repair. The self- repair potential of within-domain compensatory consumption is influenced by the extent to which the product consumed is explicitly linked to the threatened aspects of the consumer self-identity (explicit products). Marketing actions (e.g., advertising, slogans) sometimes make a product's identity connections explicit. Consuming explicit products leads to greater rumination about the self-threat and undermines self-repair. However, the self-repair outcome of within-domain compensatory consumption remains intact when products consumed are not explicitly connected to the threatened aspects of self-identity.

Keywords: Compensatory Consumption, Self-Identity, Threats to Self-Identity

Track: Consumer Behavior

The Need for Smell Instrument: Development and Cross-National Validation
*** Best Paper of Track ***

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Abstract
While sensory product perceptions by consumers are dominated by sight and hearing, for purchase decisions smell and touch are important, too. However, little is known about the variability in consumers in terms of individual propensities to actively engage their senses in purchase decision making. While empirical research involving the tactile sense has been facilitated by the development of a need for touch scale, research in the sense of smell has been hampered by the lack of a need for smell instrument. The proposed new instrument fills this gap. It consists of three related but conceptually distinct scales. First attempts at cross-national validation proved successful. Depending on the purpose of the study, the individual need for smell may also be summarized by one number as a composite variable. The instrument is expected to stimulate empirical research in consumer behaviour using need for smell as an independent or moderator variable.

Keywords: Need for smell, multisensory product experience, scale development

Track: Consumer behaviour

Virtual tracking of consumer behaviour: Pilot-testing of ViCoS 1.0, the Future of Market Research

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Abstract

For decades market research scholars have relied on traditional methods for gauging consumer behaviour that are based on participants' stated intentions. However, an evident gap identified between intentions and subsequent behaviour has led to increasing criticism about the validity of these tools. This problem can potentially be addressed by using virtual grocery stores that use modern information technology for simulating real shopping situations. This study presents the development of ViCoS 1.0, a virtual three-dimensional convenience store. A pilot test was conducted to investigate the overall operability and realism of the software. Results clearly demonstrate that ViCoS 1.0 is able to deliver realistic product visualisations and the majority of participants could imagine engaging with it in the context of a real life shopping situation. Based on these findings, further development will advance observation and testing of marketing interventions in a 'real' store setting.

Keywords: Consumer behaviour, convenience store, information technology, product testing, virtual reality

Track: Market Research

Introduction

Currently, surveys are the most popular data-collection method used by market research academics and commercial researchers for exploring and interpreting consumer behaviour (Malhotra, 2008, p. 169). Business managers heavily base their strategic decisions on market research studies as they assume that they will deliver insights about what consumer's desire (Malhotra, 2008, p. 11). But what if what people say does not match what they really want? While surveys offer a cost-effective and easy way to capture consumers' opinions, increasingly doubts are raised about the accuracy of this methodology (Chandon, Morwitz, and Reinartz, 2005).

As a consequence of the limitations of existing survey techniques a range of alternative approaches have been promoted by reputable academics. Juster (1966) advocated the use of purchase probability scales as an improvement over intention-based scales but still the time-lag between reported probability and purchase can be seen as a major concern. Silk and Urban (1978) tried to avoid this effect by physically simulating a store and measured purchase decisions directly at the point-of-purchase, but this approach can be very costly and is not suitable for large-scale studies. A range of digital shopping simulations, however, addressed this criticism and claimed to offer an inexpensive way of enabling large-scale consumer studies (Waterlander et al., 2015). Taking this development up, this study discusses and addresses limitations of prior store simulations and aims to develop a virtual convenience store that can outperform earlier approaches in terms of visual quality, perceived realism and naturalism of the control interface. Eventually, an improved simulation can potentially provide a realistic platform for observing and testing a range of in-store manipulations that cannot be done by existing methodology or actual store settings.

Conceptual Foundations

The development of information technology has progressed, and a whole range of new computer systems offer possibilities of simulating shopping situations that promise an inexpensive way of measuring in-store consumer behaviour in a realistic setting. Earlier, Burke (1992) presented his virtual shopping simulation "Visionary Shopper" that enabled consumers to navigate through virtual shelves and to inspect and select presented product packages. More recently Massara, Liu, and Melara (2010) developed a shopping simulation using digital store pictures in order to investigate consumer-environment interactions. However, all these systems strictly limited the freedom of movement and interactivity within the simulated environment.

In 2005, van Herpen et al. published a study investigating product scarcity on consumers' choice utilising the first three-dimensional virtual supermarket. Thanks to the use of computer gaming technology, this enabled participants to move freely within the whole store simulation and see detailed information about each product when selected. Another system was developed by Waterlander et al. (2011) and has been used to investigate effects of product pricing and labelling. Early validation studies gave evidence that virtual shopping simulations indeed have the capability of more accurately predicting actual purchase behaviour compared to traditional methods using pictorial representations (van Herpen et al., 2014; Waterlander et al., 2015). However, major limitations of their software are the outdated visual quality of the simulation, a lack of interactivity with the environment (picking up and inspecting products is not possible) and the unnatural user-interface using mouse and keyboard.

A range of studies investigated the effectivity of simulations and highlighted the importance of perceived 'Presence' for the performance of a virtual environment (Nash et al., 2000). According to Witmer and Singer (1998), 'Presence' can be defined as '…the subjective

experience of being in one place or environment, even when one is physically situated in another' (p. 225). In this context Steuer (1992) investigated factors influencing 'Presence' and identified perceived vividness and interactivity as pivotal aspects increasing the immersion into virtual environments. Usoh et al. (2000) more specifically summarised important characteristics that have been shown to enhance perceived 'Presence'. He pointed out that realistic high-resolution graphics, the ability to move freely within the environment, the capability of interacting with objects, and letting a person forget about display and control devices are key drivers for enhancing the 'Presence' in virtual space. This research reports findings of a pilot study to determine the operability and 'Presence' within the ViCoS 1.0 software.

Methodology
Sample
Participants (n=24) were recruited using a snowball system within the Massey University campus in Palmerston North, New Zealand. This convenience sample consisted of 10 males (41.7%) and 14 females (58.3%), whose age ranged from 19 to 54. The majority of participants had a postgraduate or higher qualification (70.8%) and only a small proportion stated being experienced with computer games (29.2%).

Procedure
The study was conducted on campus, with volunteers using an experimental computer. An information sheet was provided about the study and included instructions for using the software application. After the instruction session participants started the shopping task using our ViCoS 1.0 software. The shopping task involved the purchase of some products which included searching for an item that was carrying a discount label (red and yellow 20% off label) on the back of the package. This additional exercise forced participants to use the software's full range of functions which included a zoom-function that enabled the user to closely inspect a product from all angles (see Figure 1). After the shopping and search task the participants were handed a short questionnaire about their experience with the software. The questionnaire asked participants to rate the program in terms of overall usability, visual quality and degree of realism. Additional open-ended questions were used to collect feedback to guide the implementation of further store components or functions and demographic details of the participants' gender, age, educational background and prior experience with computer games was also obtained.

Measures
General usability and the degree to which participants could imagine actually doing their shopping were measured by using 4 modified items from Waterlander et al.'s (2011) 8- item questionnaire that was used to pilot test their Virtual Supermarket. These items included statements like "The program was easy to understand" or "I was able to imagine doing my real-life shopping in the virtual convenience store".

For "Virtual Presence", however, the study adapted 5 items from Witmer and Singer's (1998) 32-item 'Presents Questionnaire'. For example the original item "How much did the visual aspects of the environment involve you?" has been transformed to the item "The visual aspects helped me feeling involved into the virtual store environment". This adaptation has been done to ensure that the same 7-point Likert scale can be used throughout the whole questionnaire.

Participants indicated their answers on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Entirely Disagree") to 7 ("Entirely Agree").

4. Results

4.1 Results of the ratings

Overall the ratings for our software showed very positive results. As shown in Table 1, 22 out of the 24 participants (mean rating=5.79) at least somewhat agreed that the software was easy to understand. The interactions with the virtual environment were perceived as natural by 19 participants (mean rating=5.38). Furthermore, 19 participants acknowledged that it was easy to find their way around in the virtual store (mean rating=5.5) and 20 thought that they could relatively easily find all products (mean rating=5.58). Visual aspects of the program helped 21 participants to feel involved in the store environment (mean rating=5.71). On the contrary, the ambient

Figure 2: Rotation zoom of soft-drink bottle

noise (running fridges) did not help the participants to feel immersed a great deal. Only 9 participants considered that feature as helpful for feeling immersed in the virtual store environment (mean rating=3.3). The feature to zoom-in and closely inspect product packages was very well perceived. Out of the sample 21 participants agreed that they were able to closely examine objects (mean rating=5.8) and every participant agreed to some extent that the products appeared to be realistic (mean rating=6.29). This was due to the fact that participants could rotate and view the products from all angles which was successfully utilised by 21 participants (mean rating=5.8). However, only 9 participants were satisfied with the controls as 12 subjects indicated that the

Table 1: Items for testing usability and 'Presence' (n=24)

	A	N	D	Mean	SD
1. The program was easy to understand	22	1	1	5.79	1.14
2. The interactions with the environment seem natural	19	2	3	5.38	1.38
3. I could easily find my way around the virtual convenience store	19	3	2	5.50	1.41
4. The visual aspects helped me feel involved in the virtual store environment	21	2	1	5.71	1.20
5. The ambient noise helped me feel immersed in the virtual store environment	9	1	14	3.25	1.89
6. I was able to closely examine objects	21	0	3	5.79	1.41
7. I could easily find all the products in the virtual convenience store	20	2	2	5.58	1.41
8. I was able to imagine doing my real-life shopping in the virtual convenience store	22	1	1	5.75	1.03
9. I could examine objects from different angles very well	21	1	2	5.79	1.35
10. The products appeared to be realistic to me	24	0	0	6.29	0.75
11. The control interface interfered with the performance of assigned tasks or with other activities	12	3	9	4.08	1.79

Note: A = Agree, N = Neither, D = Disagree, SD = Standard deviation

control interface significantly interfered with their performance during the task (mean rating=4.08). In terms of the overall performance of the simulation, 22 participants (mean rating=5.8) agreed that they could imagine doing their real-life shopping in the virtual convenience store.

4.2 Results of the open-ended questions

The open-ended questions were used in order to gather general feedback and to investigate the reasons for the participants' ratings. Overall, six participants certified the shopping simulation and in particular the looks of the products, as having a high degree of realism. Statements included "I enjoyed it and imagine myself in a real store especially when I found the brands I mostly buy" or "It looked very realistic as if I am shopping in reality". One participant offered strong support that "I felt this was going to be the potential future of shopping in the coming years". In terms of possible future applications in online shopping, 13 participants mentioned

Figure 3: Rotation zoom of biscuit package

that they would consider adapting this system for their own grocery shopping or felt it was a significant improvement to the traditional way of online shopping. Opinions included "It is interesting and involves a whole new dimension to convenience and ease. I loved it!", "Once I got used to it, I would be really keen to use the simulator for my shopping", or "Great. Make it the norm".

However, some comments highlighted potential improvements for this software. The biggest issue was reported with the controls. Eighteen participants indicated having had issues with the way the shopping cart is manoeuvred through the store. Particularly the process of picking up products (by double-click and hold) was criticised as unnatural. For example, one participant stated "It is a shame there was not another way of selecting items to purchase other than hold and click". Another important aspect was the fact that the camera was fixed to the shopping

Figure 3: View out of the store

cart. Participants had to turn the shopping cart into the direction they wanted to look even though they had wished to screen the shelves when moving with the shopping cart through the aisles. In regards to this issue two participants reported "View angle would be better, if mouse could change gaze independently while moving" and "I was frustrated that I could not easily turn my 'head' and view all angles. Could only look up and down". In terms of the store design, 9 participants found that additional signage would make it easier to find desired products. They suggested "Adding some signs for product category" or "No signage on aisles made it hard". Issues that were considered rather minor and were therefore only reported by 3 participants were the missing sound background like supermarket music or speaker announcements, a running shop balance and the ability to return products from the shopping cart to the shelf.

Conclusion

Summarised, the presented System ViCoS 1.0 was perceived very well in terms of user-friendliness and felt realism. In total 91.7% (83.3%*) of subjects agreed that the software was easy to understand, 79.2% (72.7%*) could easily find their way through the store, and a convincing 91.7% (77.3%*) could imagine our simulation as if they were doing their real life shopping. These results were very satisfying as the majority of participants was not experienced with computer games and therefore not familiar with using the keyboard and mouse controls to move through a three-dimensional space. A comparison with results of a prior study by Waterlander et al. (2011)* shows a slight superiority of ViCoS 1.0 in all disciplines.

Also in terms of participants' perceived 'Presence', ViCoS 1.0 delivered convincing results. A total of 79.2% considered interactions with the environment as natural, 87.5 % acknowledged that the visual aspects helped them feel involved in the environment, 87.5% were able to closely examine objects and the same number of people also thought that they were able to examine the product from all angles very well. Furthermore, all participants reported that the products appeared realistic to them. Accordingly, adding the possibility of interacting with products seemed to have a positive effect on the perceived 'Presence' in the virtual store. These results align with findings published by Hendrix and Barfield (1996) who found a positive correlation between 'Presence' and the fidelity of interaction with the environment. However, only 37.5% of participants felt that the sound helped them feel involved and, more importantly, half of the participants felt that the control interface interfered with their shopping experience.

These results suggest that ViCoS 1.0 demonstrated strengths in perceived visual quality and realism. The zoom-in function gives consumers the ability to inspect products like in the real world and therefore makes the simulation feel more realistic. This feature is a big improvement to other systems offered by van Herpen et al. (2014) and Waterlander et al. (2011). That said, future improvements should lead to a reworked store design (using signage), a richer product assortment, and an inclusion of more realistic sounds and music to enhance the experience.

Limitations of this study are the low sample size (n=24), and the convenience sampling within a university environment. This led to an overrepresentation of participants having a high educational level and experience in working with their mouse on the computer. People from a background with less exposure to information technology, especially who are born before 1970, might encounter even more issues while familiarising with the controls. An adequate market research tool, however, should enable all ages to perform tasks without any technical obstacles. Hence, it is of utmost importance to revise the user-interface to allow a more intuitive way of navigating the shopping cart through the store. One solution is the use of VR technology. This promises a more intuitive user-interface that involves using participants' own hands, while further enhancing the visual immersion, and therefore 'Presence', in the virtual store environment.

* Percentages in brackets represent results by Waterlander et al. (2011)

As 'Presence' is a crucial determinant of a simulation's performance (Waterlander et al., 2015), future research should aim on utilising modern VR technology which can open avenues for more sophisticated market research methods capable of measuring actual consumer behaviour. Thus, development and validation of ViCoS 2.0, using VR technologies, will provide many new opportunities for rapid and inexpensive in-store shopper research. Subsequent publications will inform about the following stages of development and explain the benefits ViCoS 2.0 has to offer for academic and commercial market researchers.

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Examining gender-specific differences in demographic characteristics, psychographic characteristics, and drinking behaviours between drinker subgroups

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Abstract

The present study represents an audience analysis that explores the gender-specific differences between drinker subgroups in terms of demographic characteristics, psychographic characteristics, and drinking behaviours. The study is divided into two main parts. The first part examines the differences between those who engage in risky drinking and low-risk drinking on typical drinking occasions that tend to involve heavy alcohol consumption. The second part examines the differences between beverage consumer subgroups, namely, lower alcohol beer, higher alcohol beer, wine, spirit and ready-to-drink alcoholic beverage drinkers. The study used a nationally representative sample of male and female drinkers from New Zealand. Findings revealed significant differences between drinker subgroups that varied substantially by gender. Such findings not only add to the current body of knowledge, but also indicate the need to take such differences into account for developing targeted prevention programs aimed at reducing alcohol-related harm in society.

Keywords: drinking patterns, lower alcohol beer, the Big Five personality traits, basic human values, prevention efforts

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Peas in a Pod? Distinct Effects of Pride and Gratitude on Self- Versus Other-Focused Appeals

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Abstract

Research on affect and decision making has predominantly considered positive emotions to be undifferentiated. In line with this notion, firms and marketers have evoked positive, but diffused, emotional appeals in their marketing campaigns. However, recent research suggests that different positive emotions might have differential effects. Our research aims to examine the factors that lead to similar versus divergent influences of two discrete positive emotions—pride and gratitude—on self- versus other-focused appeals. We propose that pride and gratitude will be similarly effective for self-focused appeals. However, gratitude will diverge from pride and differentially leverage the effectiveness of other-focused appeals. Further, the appraisal of self-responsibility is predicted to mediate these emotion effects. The findings of this research has implications for firms and marketers across different marketing contexts.

Keywords: pride, gratitude, positive emotions, self-focused appeals, other-focused appeals

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Grateful Compliance or Proud Defiance? Distinct Effects of Pride and Gratitude on the Effectiveness of Anti-Drinking Messages

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Abstract

Social marketing campaigns in general, and anti-drinking campaigns in particular, have been dominated by negative emotional appeals. Recent research has questioned this approach and suggested that using positive emotional appeals can be an effective alternative. However, there is little empirical evidence to support this view to date. This research aims to examine the differential influence of pride and gratitude on the willingness to drink moderately. Across two studies, this paper shows that gratitude, compared to pride, will be more effective in increasing the willingness to drink moderately. In particular, our research demonstrates that gratitude can reduce the psychological reactance that might be evoked by anti-drinking messages, thus enhancing the effectiveness of these messages. The implications of this research benefit social marketers, consumers, and policy makers, by highlighting the potential benefit of using positive emotional appeals and the importance of differentiating specific positive emotions to promote responsible drinking behaviour.

Keywords: pride, gratitude, positive emotions, anti-drinking messages, psychological reactance

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Anger Strays, Fear Refrains: The Distinct Effect of Same Valence Incidental Emotions on Consumers' Ethical Judgments.

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Abstract

Although variety of factors have been studied in terms of their influence on consumers' ethical judgments, the role of incidental emotions has received little attention. Recent research has focused on studying the effect of incidental emotions on various aspects of consumer decision-making. This paper investigates the effect of the emotional states of anger and fear on ethical judgment in a consumer context. Study 1 focuses on the interaction of moral intensity (amount of change) and emotional state in predicting the ethical judgment while study 2, in addition to replicating the results from study 1, investigates the underlying causal mechanism using a mediation analysis. The results reveal a significant interaction between moral intensity and incidental emotion. Individuals in the state of incidental fear exhibit higher levels of ethical judgment as the moral intensity increases. Further, perceived control mediates the relationship between emotional state and ethical judgment under higher moral intensity condition.

Keywords: Consumer Ethics; Ethical Judgment; Incidental Emotion; Anger; Fear; Mediation Analysis

Track: Consumer Behavior

Enhancing customer loyalty to supermarkets through retailing service quality practices

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Abstract
Enhancing retailing service quality (RSQ) serves as a basic strategy for gaining competitive advantage in the retailing industry and enables retailers to make a loyal customer base to stores. The main purpose of this study is to empirically investigate the influence of both RSQ and its dimensions (physical aspect, reliability, personal interaction, problem solving and policy), on customer loyalty to supermarkets. The findings of this study would contribute to both theory and to the marketing activities of supermarkets and other retailers. The data were collected from 2375 customers of three main supermarkets in Sri Lanka. The findings showed RSQ positively influenced customer loyalty. Of the dimensions of RSQ, physical aspect, personal interaction and policy had significant influence. Based on these findings, implications for theory and practice have been discussed.

Keywords: Retail Service Quality (RSQ), customer loyalty, dimensions of RSQ, supermarkets

Track: Consumer Behaviour

The effect of episodic recollection on brand retrieval and purchase intention

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Abstract

This paper examines the effect on brand retrieval and purchase intention of the activation of two different types of memory traces. The first type of memory traces considered is episodic, i.e. the reliving of autobiographical experiences about the product or service category; the second type of memory traces is semantic, i.e. relative to the meaning and imagery of the category. The findings of two independent studies based on the use of psychological methods reveal that the activation of episodic memory traces has a positive effect on brand retrieval and purchase intention. This effect is at times greater than the effect of the activation of semantic memory traces; yet, it differs across categories, in line with the level of consumer involvement. This outcome has theoretical as well as practical implications in relation to how brands come to consumers' mind in purchase situations.

Keywords: episodic recollection, semantic memory, episodic memory, brand retrieval, and purchase intention.

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

According to *dual-process models of memory* such as Reder et al.'s (2000; 2002) an individual's ability to retrieve information from memory depends upon two processes: *familiarity* and *episodic recollection*. These two processes involve the activation of different memory systems, i.e. different combinations of neural substrates and their behavioral or cognitive correlates (Tulving, 2002). Namely, familiarity involves *semantic memory*, i.e. general knowledge intellectually learned (Kronlund, 2008; Lee and Labroo, 2004); recollection involves *episodic memory* (Buchler *et al.*, 2008; Cary and Reder, 2003; Diana *et al.*, 2006), i.e. the reliving of autobiographical past events (Tulving, 1972; Tulving, 2002).

While familiarity has received a lot of attention in consumer and branding research (e.g. Alba and Marmorstein, 1987; Desai and Hoyer, 1994; Shapiro et al., 1997; Sundaram and Webster, 1999; Lee and Labroo, 2004; Coates et al., 2006), episodic recollection has been examined in far less detail. With the only exception of studies linking it to advertising effectiveness (Sujan, Bettman and Baumgartner, 1993; Braun, 1999; Braun-LaTour et al. 2004), to date, there is no evidence associating episodic recollection to the consumer behaviour outcomes, such as the consumer ability to retrieve brands from memory or important behavioural indicators such as purchase intention. This is somewhat surprising because intuitively a consumer may be thinking of the brand Mc Donald's and selecting it as a dining option because of recognising its familiar logo or because of recollecting a past memory of an enjoyable meal with friends at that restaurant that he/she lived personally.

Accordingly, the focus of this research is to empirically evaluate the effect of episodic recollection on brand retrieval and purchase intention; the aim is to introduce some theoretical foundations that illustrate its importance in relation to understanding and influencing how consumers consider and evaluate brands for choice. These foundations have relevant implications in terms of branding and communication strategies, because they clarify whether marketers can enhance the chances of a brand to be thought of and subsequently purchased by cueing episodic recollection, either as an alternative to or a supplemental strategy to leveraging familiarity through the use of highly recognisable branding. To pursue this aim, this research presents two independent online experiments, supported by a pre-test. The pre-test identifies categories and brands for testing. The two experiments capture and compare the effect on brand retrieval and purchase intention of familiarity vis-à-vis episodic recollection.

Background

In consumer behaviour research, episodic recollection has been examined in very little detail, and there is no empirical evidence linking it explicitly to the consumer ability to retrieve brands from memory or purchase intention. This oversight is somewhat surprising given that psychological research places episodic recollection at the heart of dual-process models of memory (Reder et al., 2000; 2002), primarily because it can facilitate the act of remembering also at times when familiarity is incidentally low (*see* Diana *et al.*, 2006).

Importantly, episodic recollection taps on a higher level of cognition (Tulving, 1972; 2002; Rubin and Greenberg, 1998; Rubin, Schrauf and Greenberg, 2003), which is the *episodic memory system*. Episodic memory is *multi-modal* and combines i) perceived properties of facts that are not intellectually learned (Bower, 1967); ii) spatial, temporal and contextual information (Schacter and Tulving, 1994; Rubin, Schrauf and Greenberg, 2003); iii) imagery and vividness of events (Conway and Pleydell-Pearce, 2000). Furthermore, episodic memory governs how information is stored and subsequently accessed in long-term memory (Hintzman, 1984; Nelson, 1993), the transformation or updating of information (Tulving, 1972) and the

construction of *schemas*, i.e. prototypes of categories (Barclays, 1986; Rubin, 1986; Nelson and Fivush, 2004). Last, episodic memory features autobiographical references, which relate to human behaviour (Conway and Pleydel-Pearce, 2000), because they moderate the activation of *goals* and enable self-expression (Tulving, 1983; Anderson and Conway, 1993; Conway and Rubin, 1993; Schacter, Norman and Koustaal, 1998; Conway and Pleydel-Pearce, 2000). Therefore, in the context of consumer behavior it is plausible to assume that episodic recollection should also impact information retrieval in relation to brands as well as behavioral or cognitive correlates of it. More specifically, it is plausible to assume that episodic recollection will enable *brand retrieval*, i.e. the consumer's ability to bring back to mind (Alba and Marmorstein, 1987; Sundaram and Webster, 1999) or how easily the consumer can process the brand in memory (Shapiro *et al.*, 1997; Lee and Labroo, 2004). Put formally:
H1: *Episodic recollection has a positive effect on brand retrieval.*

Additionally, in line with the concept of *recognition heuristic*, episodic recollection should also be relevant to consumer choice. Specifically, as Oeusoonthornwattana and Shanks (2010) recently remark, recognition heuristic describe decision-making 'protocols' whereby individuals are likely to select from a set of alternatives on the basis of whichever one is more familiar (inferential choice). If episodic recollection enables recognition when familiarity is limited, it is plausible to assume the following:
H2: *Episodic recollection has a positive effect on purchase intention.*

Importantly, there is evidence in existing research that H1 and H2 hold true for familiarity (*see* Desai and Hoyer, 1994; Nedungadi, Chattopadhyay and Muthukrishnan, 2001; Coates *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, this research validates H1 and H2 by *deduction*, i.e. by comparing empirical results of the effect of familiarity on brand retrieval and purchase intention against the empirical results of the effect of episodic recollection on the same variables. When doing so, this research assumes that empirical results of the effect of episodic recollection *equal or greater* than those of the effect of familiarity validate H1 and H2. Furthermore, this research is based on two assumptions, as follows. First, it theorises that episodic recollection will occur at the product or service category level, given that the information that consumers associate with the category is primarily episodic or autobiographic (Cowley and Mitchell, 2003). Second, it controls for three key factors that moderate relations between memory and consumer choice: *a*) category knowledge (e.g. Chocarro, Cortinas and Elorz, 2009), *b*) usage (e.g. Barwise and Ehrenberg, 1985) and *c*) exposure to advertising (e.g. Tellis, 1988):
H3/H4: *Category knowledge (a), usage (b) and exposure to advertising (c) moderate the positive effect of episodic recollection on brand retrieval (H3) and purchase intention (H4).*

Finally, this paper looks at different categories of *services* as the gauging context for the hypothesized effects. Services typically include an element of personal involvement and experience (Zeithmal, Parasuraman and Berry, 1985), which results from the ensemble of the people, the environment and any other contextual evidence (Berry, 2000; Lovelock and Gummesson, 2004). This includes vivid and memorable experiences, feelings and emotions that the consumer lives (Meyer and Schwager, 2007; Berry and Carbone, 2007; Verhoef *et al.*, 2009). These characteristics of services are very much aligned with the concept of episodic recollection and thus represent a fitting context for testing the proposed hypotheses.

Research design

The objective of the <u>pre-test</u> was to identify a selection of categories of services that are significantly different in terms of the extent to which they may trigger episodic recollection, and to identify one prototypical brand within each category. We used data from a pool of participants ($N = 120$) from the school of psychology of a UK university, offering a shopping voucher as incentive. We used existing scales by Jain and Srinivasan, (1990) to measure consumer involvement and perceived difficulty of choice, and Kent and Allen's (1994) proto-typicality measure. We then compared mean scores to identify three categories of services (*banking*, *fast food* and *social media*) and one brand in each category (*HSBC* for banking, *Twitter* for social media and *Mc Donald's* for fast food), to be used in Study 1 and 2.

The objective of <u>Study 1</u> was to assess the effect of the activation of semantic memory on brand retrieval and purchase intention (to be used as empirical benchmark for hypotheses testing pruposes). We gathered data ($N = 250$) from an online pool of participants (Prolific Academic), offering an e-voucher as incentive. We presented respondents with an online experiment set up as follows. First, we randomly assigned each respondent to one of the three service categories identified in the pre-study and we asked a set of questions to capture the current level of category knowledge, usage and exposure to advertising. Second, we exposed half of each category's sub-sample to manipulation, i.e. Zaltman's-like tasks to prompt the activation of semantic memory traces related to the category (adapted from Coulter and Zaltman, 1994; Coulter and Zaltman, 1995), and the other half to a control task with comparable cognitive effort (identified in a separate pilot study not reported here for reasons of space). Finally, we asked all respondents to complete a multi-cued pick-any task, which we used as a measure of brand retrieval for the prototypical brand of each category (*see* Boivin, 1986; Driesener and Romaniuk, 2006); we also asked respondents to state the level of purchase intention for that brand (measured with an 11-points scale, as per Wright and MacRae, 2007). We then compared the mean scores for all variables (between subjects design) using Mean Absolute Deviations (*see* Kennedy and Ehrenberg, 2001; Uncles *et al.* 2012) to cater for the limitations of more conventional interpretations of other measures of dispersion (Leys *et al.* 2013). We read deviations ≥10% as a difference between the control and experimental groups.

The objective of <u>Study 2</u> was to assess the impact of episodic recollection on brand retrieval and purchase propensity. We used data ($N = 200$) drawn from the same online pool as per Study 1, also offering an e-voucher as incentive. We exposed respondents to an online experiment set up consistently with Study 1, but using a different manipulation task. That is, we exposed half of each category's sub-sample to a set of tasks adapted from psychological studies (Rubin, Schrauf and Greenberg, 2003) to prompt episodic recollection for the category, while the other half of the sub-sample took a control task (same as per Study 1). Then, to test the hypotheses introduced earlier, we compared the differences between the manipulations and the control tasks across Study 1 and Study 2.

Results

When comparing the scores of brand retrieval between the control and experimental sub-samples in Study 1, we found that brand retrieval was different across all three services categories examined. Deviations from the mean scores in absolute value were, on average, less than 10% (i.e. 6.5% for banking, 7.8% for fast food and 7.7% for social media). In contrast, when comparing the scores of purchase intention, the difference between the control and the experimental group was, in some instances, as large as 10%, especially for the extremes of the purchase intention scale (0 and 10). When comparing the scores of brand retrieval between the control and experimental sub-samples in Study 2, we found that deviations from the mean

scores in absolute value were greater than 10% for social media (11.6%), but on average less than 10% for fast food (4.4%) and banking (7.5%). When comparing the scores of purchase intention, the difference between the control and the experimental group was above 10% for lower purchase intentions (i.e. values of 1 and 2 of the scale) for banking and between 12% and 20% for higher values of purchase intentions (i.e. 7 and above) for social media.

Further comparison of the outcome of the differences between the control group and the experimental group in each of the two studies revealed that, overall, there is support for H1 and H2. In two of the services categories considered (banking and fast food), episodic recollection has a comparable or even greater impact on brand retrieval than the activation of semantic memory, which thus supports H1. The same pattern occurs for purchase intention, which although occurring again only in two of the services categories considered (fast food and social media), often revealed a greater difference in Study 2, supporting H2. Finally, in relation to H3 and H4, there were differences (MADs ≥ 10%) in the level of knowledge for banking and social media, and exposure to advertising only for banking, leading to partial acceptance of H3a/c and H4a/c, but the rejection of H3b and H4b.

Discussion and Implications
The results of the two independent studies presented here reveal that episodic recollection has an underlying effect on brand retrieval and purchase intention. This effect is, at times, greater than that of the activation of semantic memory traces. The underlying effect also seems somewhat unrelated to usage, but prone to the mediation of category knowledge and advertising exposure. However, these patterns were not consistent across all categories examined, which suggest that the extent to which episodic recollection might play a role in determining brand retrieval and purchase intention varies across product types.

To date, existing works have considered episodic recollection only in relation consumers' emotional responses to advertising. This research has added to knowledge by revealing a new useful theoretical insight: episodic recollection enables consumers to retrieve a brand from memory, especially for categories with *higher* level of personal involvement and perceived difficulty of choice (e.g. banking and fast food); it also has an underlying impact on purchase intention, which seems greater for the categories with the *lowest* level of personal involvement and perceived difficulty of choice.

Taken all together these findings suggest that there is value for practitioners in cueing episodic recollection in marketing campaigns, as an effective way to influence brand retrieval and purchase intention. Additionally, since the effect of episodic recollection seems somewhat linked to the level of consumer involvement with the category, it is possible to summarise the following key practical guideline: managers of high involvement categories could embed episodic recollection in campaigns as a way to bolster the chances of consumers thinking of the brand and bringing it back to mind. Managers of low involvement categories could use episodic recollection also as a way to influence purchase intention – e.g. they could stimulate consumption by cueing episodes of category use that consumers can relate to.

Limitations and Future Research
This research offered a first attempt to understand and appraise the role of episodic recollection in the context of brand retrieval and consumer choice. However, it is confined to two independent studies and a limited range of services categories. It also uses manipulations at category level, and considers the main effects for only one prototypical brand per category. Accordingly, the research program resulting from this work will have to include the assessment

of the main effects for a broader range of categories and at brand level, considering multiple brands. Furthermore, this research implements manipulations of familiarity and episodic recollection across two independent studies; future research should embed both manipulations within the same experiment. Doing so, it will be possible to draw more explicit guidelines on the theoretical and practical importance of episodic recollection.

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Does a consumer's disposition propensity influence product upgrading behaviour?

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Abstract

The increasing pace of new product development and shortening product life cycles has created a dilemma for consumers; whether to upgrade the product they already own for the next generation available and if so how quickly should this upgrade purchase take place? This study investigates the influence of disposal orientation on the speed of initial upgrade and the likelihood of future upgrading activity. Data including psychological, product and marketing constructs was collected from 403 Australian product upgraders who had recently purchased a consumer-based electronic product. Findings show that disposal considerations of owned products influence both vicarious adoption and future intent to upgrade but not the initial upgrade speed. In addition results show that a consumer's psychological predisposition to upgrade exists and this influences upgrade speed along with vicarious innovativeness and age. Intent to upgrade again in the future is also influenced by speed of grade and vicarious adoption.

Key words: disposal, upgrading, speed, future intent, consumer electronic products, Australia

Track: Consumer behaviour

Consumers' Willingness to Purchase Non-deceptive Counterfeit Luxury Brands Online

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Abstract
Demand for counterfeit luxury brands has been growing at a rapid pace internationally. An emerging trend in the counterfeit luxury brand industry is consumption via e-commerce. These online traders blatantly advertises counterfeit products. This phenomenon is not only gaining acceptance, but thriving; evident by many stores with similar offerings. This research will investigate the drivers behind consumers' willingness to purchase non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brands online. The methodology is quantitative via an online consumer panel. The research will investigate the non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brands consumption in an online context. It will add to the growing body of knowledge in the area of international luxury brand counterfeit. This research will also provide insights and some solutions and strategies to manage this challenge.

Keywords: Non-deceptive counterfeit, e-commerce, consumer motivation, consumer knowledge

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

There is no doubt that counterfeiting is a harmful business and have numerous economic and social costs. Analysts contend that in 2013, the owners of genuine brands collectively lost an estimated 10 per cent of their revenue to counterfeits (National Bureau of Asian Research, 2013). There also have been links between counterfeiting and organized crime (Francis, Lu and Burgess 2015). This research is interested in the non-deceptive counterfeit market, and more specifically, in an online context. This is an interesting emerging trend, where consumers are in acceptance of purchasing non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brands online. There are a multitude of online stores offering and clearly promoting counterfeit products with no intentions of deceit (PerfectWatches.cn, 2015; Purse Valley, 2015). Product reviews on the stores, third party reviews in forums, and personal blogs from consumers with positive experiences further supports the behaviour. This suggests that the non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brand market will persist in gaining consumers' confidence and will continue developing.

Literature Review

According to literature, luxury brands satisfy man's need for social stratification and self-actualisation which are vital to him (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009). Luxury brands consumption is a means of conveying one's identity, self-worthiness and increases one's self-esteem (Eng and Bogaert, 2010). Through their consumption habits, they seek societal approval and admiration (Truong et al., 2008). This is because, luxury brands are perceived by consumers to extend their self image through its consumption visibility. The internal and social motives that drives consumers to purchase luxury brands also breeds the same motives for them to purchase counterfeit luxury brands (Penz and Stottinger, 2005; Francis, Lu and Burgess, 2015). Counterfeit products are close copies of famous luxury brand products sold to consumers at comparatively low prices (Phau et al., 2009; Wilcox, Kim and Sen, 2009). The high prices of luxury brands is an obvious reason to why consumers turn to counterfeit consumption. Researchers have discovered many other interesting drivers of counterfeit luxury brands consumption; some of which are, demographics, novelty seeking (Wilcox, Kim and Sen, 2009), accessibility (Albers-Miller, 1999), belief (Gentry, Putrevu and Shultz, 2006) as well as culture (Lai and Zaichkowsky, 1999; Francis, Lu and Burgess, 2015). Although many motives have been put forward, the theory regarding counterfeit consumption and especially in an online context is still in its initial stage.

Research Gaps

Based on literature scan, there is a clear gap of research in the willingness of consumers to purchase non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brands in an online context. There is no known literature that investigates this. There are researches available in a non-deceptive counterfeit luxury market in a brick and mortar context, but none in an online environment (Koklic, 2011). Researches have also been carried out in an online context about frauds and scams on deceptive counterfeit luxury brands, but none in a non-deceptive market (Bauerly, 2009; Radon, 2012). In addition to that, Wilson and Fenoff (2014) have also researched on how to distinguish counterfeit from authentic product retailers in the virtual market place.

Research Questions

This research aims to investigate consumer values and its influences to consumers' attitudes and subjective norms to their willingness to purchase non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brands online. It will also explore the moderating roles of consumer motivation and consumer knowledge between attitudes and subjective norms to the willingness to purchase. We then test

with a high involvement product (watch) and low product involvement product (bag) to verify if product involvement has an impact on willingness to purchase online.

Fig 1: The Theoretical Framework
Consumers' Willingness to Purchase Non-deceptive Counterfeit Luxury Brands Online
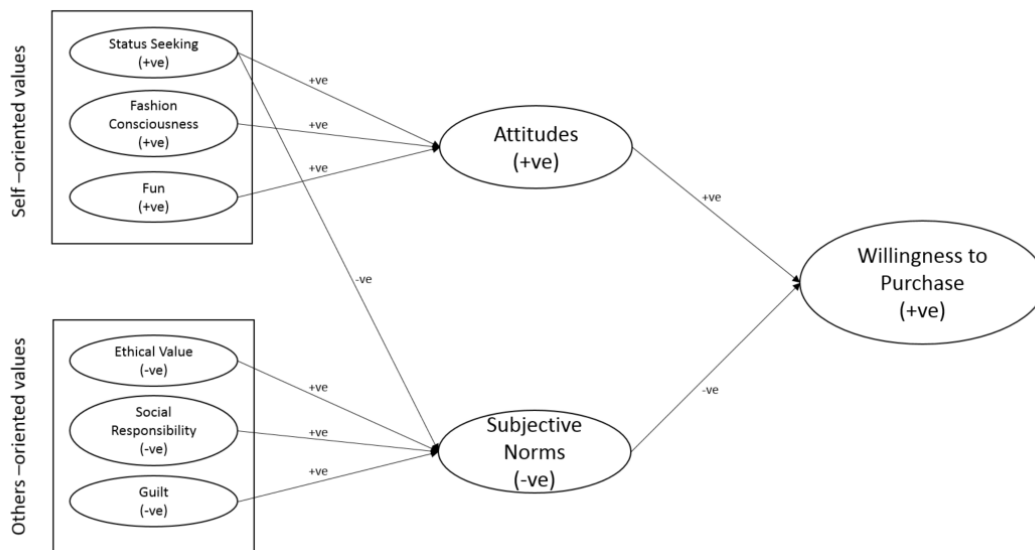
Hypotheses Development

Attitudes and Self-oriented Values.

Attitude is a "learned predisposition to respond to a situation in a favourable or unfavourable way" (Huang et al., 2004). The attitude construct is used as a predictor of consumer intentions and behaviours. Research has discovered consumers groups who hold favourable attitudes toward counterfeits. Consumers have justified their consumption and have shifted the blame onto the producers of counterfeits (Penz and Stöttinger, 2005).

Status seeking

Consumers of counterfeit luxury brands enjoys consuming the symbolic representation of the brands at an affordable price (O'Cass and Frost, 2002).

H1a There is a positive relationship between Status Seeking and Attitudes

Subjective norms are consumers' belief about their peers' expectations which influences his or her behavior (George, 2002). While, status seekers wants to "surround themselves with visible evidence of superior rank" (Packard, 1959). When consumers strive to prove themselves superior, they may disregard subjective norms.

H1b There is a negative relationship between Status Seeking and Subjective norms

Fashion Consciousness

Fashion is a way though which consumers express their identity it is used to enhance one's public self (Rathnayake, 2011). As luxury brands heightens one's identity, self-worthiness and increases self-esteem, consumers of counterfeits gains the benefits without having to sacrifice a significant amount of money (Eng and Bogaert, 2010).

H1c There is a positive relationship between Fashion Consciousness and Attitudes

Fun

Perez, Castaño and Quintanilla (2010) suggests that through experiences of consumption of counterfeit luxury brands, consumers visualize themselves as savvy consumers who optimize their economic resources.

H1d There is a positive relationship between Fun and Attitudes

Subjective norms and Others-oriented Values
Subjective norms are defined as the "represented expectations of relevant others" and are comprised of normative beliefs and motivation to comply with those beliefs (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). As counterfeiting is illegal, and is generally frown upon by the media and general public, the general consumer will express unfavorable subjective norms towards counterfeiting (de Matos et al., 2007).

Ethical Value
Ethical values are evaluation of an issue based on an individual's ethical or moral beliefs (Hunt and Vitell, 1986). The counterfeit industry damages brands and their revenues, results in job loss and the more severely, supports terrorism and criminal organizations (Francis, Lu and Burgess, 2015). From that, it can be inferred that purchasing counterfeit luxury brands is immoral and unethical.
H2a There is a positive relationship between Ethical Value and Subjective norms

Social Responsibility
Consumer Social Responsibility is defined as the conscious and deliberate choice to make certain consumption choices based on personal and moral beliefs (Devinney et al., 2006). A consumer that is concern about social responsibility will not partake in the illegal acts of counterfeit luxury brands consumption.
H2b There is a positive relationship between Social Responsibility and Subjective norms

Guilt
Guilt is an "unpleasant emotional state associated with possible objections to action actions, inaction, circumstances, or intention" (Baumeister et al., 1994). As counterfeit is illegal and causes economical and societal harm, it could be inferred that consumption of counterfeit luxury brands is a significant violation of community standards.
H2c There is a positive relationship between Guilt and Subjective norms

Willingness to Purchase
The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) by Ajzen (1991) states that consumers' behaviour is determined by the intention to engage in behaviour that is determined by attitudes and the subjective norms. As many online stores are now offering non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brands, the ease of access strengthens the link between intention and behaviour. This reinforces the use of "willingness to purchase counterfeit luxury brands online" as in indicator of actual purchase behaviour.

Consumers focus on the opportunity that counterfeit luxury brands presents; achieve status, image and excitement associated with owning luxury brands without the high price tags (Gentry et al., 2001).
H3 There is a positive relationship between Attitudes and Willingness to Purchase

On the other hand, consumers also perceive that there is a pressure to comply with social expectations (George, 2002).
H4 There is a positive relationship between Subjective norms and Willingness to Purchase

Consumer Motivation as Moderating Variable

Functional theories of attitudes such as facilitating self-presentation (social-adjustive function) and allowing self-expression (value-expressive function) addresses the reason why individuals hold the attitudes they do (Wilcox, Kim and Sen, 2009).

The social-adjustive attitude conditions CM to consume a product to gain approval in social situations as a form of self- presentation, for example, status symbol (Wilcox, Kim and Sen, 2009).

H5a Social Adjustive CM moderates the relationship between Attitudes and Willingness to Purchase *INTENSIFIES*

H5b Social Adjustive CM moderates the relationship between Subjective Norm and Willingness to Purchase *REDUCES*

Value expressive attitudes toward luxury brands will motivate consumption for product function and, quality-related reasons. Counterfeit products are known to have lesser quality (Snyder and DeBono, 1985).

H5c Value Expressive CM moderates the relationship between Attitudes and Willingness to Purchase *REDUCES*

H5d Value Expressive CM moderates the relationship between Subjective Norm and Willingness to Purchase *INTENSIFIES*

Consumer Knowledge as Moderating Variable

Consumer Knowledge (CK) is the evaluation and formation of preferences based on interaction between experiences and information (Brucks, 1985; Park et al., 1994).

Objective CK refers to consumers' "actual" knowledge, being able to recall product facts and attributes when forming a purchase decision (Brucks, 1985; Park et al., 1994).

H6a Objective CK moderates the relationship between Attitudes and Willingness to Purchase *REDUCES*

H6b Objective CK moderates the relationship between Subjective Norm and Willingness to Purchase *INTENSIFIES*

Subjective CK is based on the perception and opinion of the features, rather than the actual product features (Brucks, 1985).

H6c Subjective CK moderates the relationship between Attitudes and Willingness to Purchase *NTENSIFIES*

H6d Subjective CK moderates the relationship between Subjective Norm and Willingness to Purchase *REDUCES*

Product Category Involvement

Product involvement is consumers' perception of personal relevance towards a product (Zaichkowsky, 1985). The relevance is established by the extent of how important the product is to the consumer.The higher the product involvement, the more time consumers will spend to attain information and to make their purchase decision (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Peterson, Balasubramanian, and Bronnenberg (1997) indicated that owing to the special characteristics of the Internet, its suitability for selling products depends on the characteristics of the products. Several research (Phau and Poon, 2000) has indicated that consumers may be more apprehensive in their online purchase depending on product types (e.g: electronic markets) through Hence, we propose using a counterfeit luxury brand watch as a high involvement product and a counterfeit luxury brand bag as a low involvement product;

H9a There is a negative relationship on Willingness to Purchase when there is a High product involvement
H9b There is a positive relationship on Willingness to Purchase when there is a Low product involvement

Research Methodology
This research will be a quantitative research utilizing an online consumer panel using a self-administered questionnaire utilizing the Qualtrics survey software. The respondents will be recruited online via an invite link. Our targeted respondents will include everyone who use the Internet and have experienced online shopping. According to Li and Chuan (2010) the experience gained in using the Internet enhances perceived self-efficacy, which plays a determining role in influencing behavior such as online shopping and spending. Appropriate screening questions will be included to ensure the reliability and validity of the research. The data will be analysed using the SPSS software.

Research Contribution
Conceptual Contributions
This research will provide some clarity and more insight into the willingness of consumers to purchase non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brands online. This research will offer a theoretical understanding of the motivation behind consumers' willingness to purchase non-deceptive counterfeit luxury branded products in an online context.

Methodological Contributions
This research will employ the use of an online consumer panel. It will be ecologically valid, as it will consist of with real-life consumers with online shopping experience.

Practical Contributions
This research will discover information that could be used to form strategies to cope with the rapidly growing non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brand online market. With awareness of the reason for demand of non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brands online, the brand owners and policy makers can jointly formulate effective counteracting strategies.

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Conceptualizing "Willingness to Sacrifice" for Luxury Brand Acquisition

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Abstract

The aim of this research is to investigate consumers' willingness to sacrifice time, money, and comfort in order to obtain a limited edition luxury offering. There are recent reports in the media that highlight seemingly irrational consumption behaviour by these consumers, and there have been calls for research into luxury branding and the nature of scarcity research, which this paper aims to investigate further. The research will follow three phases. Firstly, to develop a measure for consumer willingness to sacrifice. Secondly, to test this measure within the context of limited edition releases of luxury brands. Thirdly, to re-test this measure within the context of goods that are scarce due to being new to the market or have no close substitute. This paper will be the first to examine consumers' willingness to pay more, willingness to sacrifice time, and willingness to be discomforted, all within the same study.

Keywords: Consumer Behaviour, Willingness to Sacrifice, Luxury Brands, Limited Editions, Scarcity

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Misunderstanding Fishbein & Ajzen

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Abstract

The theory variously known as the Theory of Reasoned Action, the Theory of Planned Behaviour and the Reasoned Action Approach is simultaneously one of the most used and most criticised models that purport to be able to explain and/or influence human social behaviour. But most of the criticisms are unfounded, based on a very limited or factually incorrect understanding of the theory. This article discusses the most common criticisms, and explains how they are invalid and/or irrelevant. By describing the most egregious misunderstandings, it is hoped that researchers who plan to employ the RAA in their work will enjoy more informative and useful results.

Keywords: TPB, TRA, ToRA, RAA, criticism, pseudo-science, scholarship

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

This article is both didactic and a polemic. But it is not a polemic that advocates a particular theory or model; rather I advocate in favour of high standards of scholarship in academic Marketing research and theory. The didactic purpose of the paper is served by explaining the theory currently known as the Reasoned Action Approach simply and compactly. The polemic purpose is served by developing a taxonomy of misunderstandings, illustrated by examples. Hence, I hope that this article will help researchers and reviewers who are contemplating using or evaluating work using this theory, and may also help my colleagues who have contemplated but rejected using this theory based on a misunderstanding of its content. Few theories or models in current or recent use by Marketing researchers have been more used and abused than the theory developed by Martin Fishbein and Icek Ajzen (henceforth F&A) that has been known over the years at the Theory of Reasoned Action (often abbreviated TRA or ToRA), the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) and most recently the Reasoned Action Approach (RAA). [**NB**: I use the US English spelling for proper nouns and direct quotes, and British English spelling otherwise.] By "abuse", I mean two things. I have often read scholarly work where the RAA has been either (a) applied incorrectly; or (b) criticised from a position of ignorance; or even both. This is disappointing, but would perhaps be forgiveable were not the prevalence of misunderstanding so great, the consequences so severe, and yet (to some, at least) the theory so simple. The consequences are severe because there is much missed opportunity for understanding the reasons for behaviour and the possibilities of changing it.

Literature

In the following sections a brief sketch of the historical development of the RAA is given, followed by selection of examples to illustrate important points for those who wish to either use or criticise the RAA in their work. Once again, I do not claim that the RAA is wonderful, valid, reliable and all-encompassing. It has been criticised roundly for many years (see, for example, Conner & Armitage, 1998; Sniehotta, Presseau, & Araújo-Soares, 2014; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010: Ch. 9). I merely wish to help others use and discuss it from an informed position, and to encourage careful and thoughtful scholarship. I assume that the reader has at least a passing familiarity with the RAA, and so will describe it briefly. The RAA posits that by and large humans are reasonable creatures, in the sense that:

our behaviours (B) usually occur because we intend (I) them to occur

our intentions (I) are influenced by our attitudes (A) toward the behaviour, and also our perceptions of what other people think about us performing that behaviour (the Subjective Norm, SN)

Both A and SN are influenced by (or composed of) beliefs, modified by two different classes of factors; beliefs about the behaviour, and evaluation of those beliefs:

Behavioural beliefs are estimated by the strength of our belief that the behaviour will have a certain outcome, weighted by our evaluation of that outcome

Normative beliefs are estimated by the strength of our belief that referent others will approve or disapprove of us enacting the behaviour, weighted by our motivation to comply

In this theory, attitudes are defined as a learned predisposition to respond favourably or unfavourably toward a stimulus. The theory has developed in three stages. At each stage an additional explanatory variable was added, relating to the degree to which the behaviour is under volitional control.

TRA (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein, 1967; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The original paper, a more developed exposition in an edited volume, and a book. Theory: B is proportional to I, and I is proportional to A and SN.

TPB (Ajzen, 1985, 1988, 1991, 2005; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). A chapter in an edited book, a book (two editions) and a paper in a managerial journal. Added perceived behavioural control (PBC), largely influenced by the work of Bandura (1977, 1986) on self-efficacy.

RAA (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). Added actual behavioural control (ABC).

It is important to realise that addition of more explanatory variables can be thought of in two ways: as an ad hoc addition of auxiliary hypotheses to cover a mismatch of theory and empirical support (Lakatos, 1978; Lakatos & Musgrave, 1970) or an expansion of the domain of the theory. Notably, the TRA is not a theory that *claims* that all behaviour is reasoned; rather it is a theory that *applies to* behaviour that is reasoned. Similarly the TPB applies to behaviour that is planned, i.e. is under volitional control.

Finally, the RAA is the "last word" in the development of the theory, because Martin Fishbein died in 2009, and the last book that he wrote with Icek Ajzen was published in 2010.

Discussion

Five years after the last word on the RAA, that book (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010) has never been cited in anything that I've read as a reviewer or author. In the book F&A describe their current conception, and also how it has developed over the years. They devote a chapter to describing how the RAA has been criticised over the years of its development, and of course attempt to rebut those criticisms. Readers interested in a summary of criticisms of the RAA should consult this material (Chapter 9) and the sources cited. In the course of that exposition they make the theoretical framework of the RAA clear:

"Stated briefly, according to our model of behavioral prediction, human social behavior is ultimately **guided** by considerations regarding a behavior's likely consequences (*behavioral beliefs*), by perceived demands of the social environment (*normative beliefs*), and by one's perceptions of barriers and facilitators that may be present in attempting to perform a behavior (*control beliefs*). Individuals who believe that their performing the behavior of interest produces mainly favourable consequences **automatically** and **spontaneously** develop a *positive attitude toward the behavior* … In combination, attitudes toward the behavior, perceived norms, and perceptions of control produce an intention to perform (or not perform) the behavior, and this intention is carried out to the extent that the person actually has control over the behavior." — Fishbein & Ajzen (2010) pp. 398–399. [Italic emphasis in original, bold emphasis added.]

Note: 'guided', not 'determined'; and the words 'spontaneous' and 'automatic' directly imply subconscious processing and attitude formation. And yet their critics, and even scholars who agree with them, have often claimed or implied that F&A's theory assumes some kind of logical consistency, rationality and cognitive deliberation. In a few instances in their 2010 book they have written sentences of the form "We have always said …", or "We have never claimed …", as if to imply that their critics had not taken the time to read the work that they were criticising. So one can forgive F&A from some apparent exasperation as they write:

"As we have repeatedly tried to make clear (see Ajzen & Fishbein (1980); Ajzen & Fishbein (2000), Ajzen & Fishbein (2005); see also Chapter 3), there is nothing in our theory to suggest that people are rational or that they behave in a rational manner." — Fishbein & Ajzen (2010) p. 301.

But are F&A being disingenuous when they say that their theory was always consonant with the ideas that our behaviours and intentions are often a result of affective, non-deliberational and sub-conscious processes? Because earlier they wrote:

"Generally speaking, the theory is based on the assumption that human beings are usually quite rational and make systematic use of the information available to them. We do not subscribe to the view that human social behavior is controlled by subconscious motives or overpowering desires." — Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) p. 5.

But later they have written things like "In developing the theory of planned behavior, no clear distinction was drawn between affective and evaluative responses to a behavior" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 200). Hence one could be forgiven for thinking that the RAA is an overly rational, conscious-deliberation approach to explaining behaviour. However what they are referring to is the assumption that our attitudes arise from our beliefs (even if that belief is wrong, or was formed unconsciously, or under the influential of strong emotions) and that our attitude, which is a learned *predisposition* to respond, to performing the behaviour in question influences our intentions to perform the behaviour (in conjunctions with our beliefs about social norms and our motivations to comply with those norms). Furthermore, our social behaviours may be *influenced* by subconscious motives or overpowering desires, but not *controlled* by them, in the sense that if we enact a behaviour that was prompted by the factors above, our own behaviour is still subject to our conscious awareness and possible corrective action. So, if that behaviour conflicted with our attitude, perceived social norms and perceived self-control, we would probably not do it again. But if it is consonant with them, then we might repeat that behaviour. This is the "control" aspect of the statement above. A critic might say "Aha! But obviously there *are* some behaviours that we continue to enact that conflict with our conscious A, SN & PBC. The RAA/F&A is/are therefore wrong!"

There are two possible responses to this: one is based on what F&A have written, and the other verges on sophistry, but is still worth thinking about. Firstly, F&A never claimed (they say), and have more than once written that the RAA does not, cover all behaviours, and of course does not apply to behaviours that are non-intentional. To use its various incarnations, it is not a theory that *claims* that all actions are reasoned, or all behaviours are planned. Rather it is a theory that *applies to* actions that are reasonable (in the sense above) and behaviours that are planned (in the sense of being under conscious volitional control). The second response lays the RAA open to what Karl Popper (1959/2002) would call "pseudo-science": i.e. a theory that can never be disproved because counter-evidence can always be accommodated by a suitable and seemingly reasonable clarification or re-definition of terms. So, confronted with the person who continues to smoke tobacco or eat unhealthy food despite claiming to have negative beliefs about the behaviour, perceiving social norms that discourage it and being motivated to comply, and claiming that the behaviour is under their own control. The disciple of F&A could respond variously "Well, that person may claim their beliefs are such-and-such but since they don't act consonant with the RAA, then they may be lying, and possibly even lying to themselves.", or "They may claim that their PBC enables them to stop, but the fact that they can is evidence of ABC.", or lastly, "Well, this is a case where the RAA does not apply." This last point exposes the real value of an RAA based research program. It is pointless trying to "disprove" the RAA, because any contra-"evidence" can be accommodated. In the Popperian sense, in my view the RAA is pseudo-science. However, taking the advice of G.E.P Box (1976) to heart (all models are wrong, but some are more useful than others) the value of the RAA in a research program designed to understand or change behaviour is to provide an organising framework for the multitude of differing factors that may affect the behaviour, and to focus on the elicitation of salient beliefs and the search for those that most strongly correlate with intention. However even researchers who agree with F&A apply the RAA in their work often make incorrect assumptions about the theory they are using. These incorrect assumptions include, but are not limited to:

Assuming that attitudes are solely a result of conscious deliberation i.e. ignoring the influence of affective and/or subconscious processes

Collecting attitudes directly (and not beliefs and their evaluation). This is probably the worst mistake at all, since the whole point of any use of the RAA is to elicit salient beliefs.

Applying a linear statistical model uncritically, e.g. using Pearson's r, OLS regression or ML SEM on Likert (1932) or semantic differential (Osgood, Suci, & Tannenbaum, 1957) scales

Measuring attitudes toward an object other than behaviour, especially trying to predict specific behaviours by general attitudes (e.g. attitudes to the environment rather than attitudes to recycling, or attitudes to recycling rather than attitudes to the respondents own recycling, and so on)

Conversely, following advice to specify exact behaviours, time and context slavishly such that the research does not illuminate behaviours in any other times or contexts (this one is quite rare, since the advice to specify these variables carefully is rarely followed)

These are broad classes of misunderstandings and are not meant to be an all-inclusive list, however in my experience they cover the vast majority of the cases I have seen in print. As an example, recently in my work as a reviewer I came across the following passage:

"Conventional approaches to understanding consumer behaviour, particularly those used to inform policy decisions, typically rely on rational choice models (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). These linear models are based on the assumption that people are essentially rational and that their behaviour is the result of cognitive deliberation motivated by self-interest. That is, people make decisions about what to buy after making use of the information available to them and calculating the costs and benefits of their choices (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975)."

It should be clear from the preceding exposition of the RAA that F&A say that that they have never claimed that the behaviours explainable by the RAA are necessarily the result of rational deliberation or conscious calculation of costs and benefits. As another example, it has sometimes been claimed (e.g. Hamlin & Welsh, 1999) that the RAA does not apply to low-involvement decisions, e.g. buying table salt as part of a weekly supermarket shopping episode. Why this should be so is not clear from that paper, but Hamlin (1997) elaborates on the point, writing:

"If one assumes that the Theory of Reasoned Action can be driven by a cue utilisation process, one has to assume that the consumer will be able to recall sufficient information to create a sub-profile with respect to each cue, to sum all of these sub profiles to form a main profile for the product, and simultaneously perform the same operation along the same dimensions for other products in the choice set. … The expectation that a consumer is either willing or capable of performing such a feat of mental gymnastics to assess a pack of sausages is quite simply absurd." — Hamlin (1997) p. 248.

Absurd indeed. So absurd, in fact, that 17 years previously F&A had explicitly written that their theory does not assume conscious, rational, calculating deliberation or elaboration:

"At this point, some words of caution are in order … we do not mean to imply that prior to performing each and every action, people systematically scrutinize the determinants of their behaviour. Rather, we view the processes involved as largely automatic or implicit, and only in *rare* cases do we become fully aware of these processes." — Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) p. 245 [emphasis added]

F&A make the point that some behaviours are driven by past habits, but all habits start with a first enactment, which is likely to have been the result of conscious deliberation. Continued enactment of the behaviour forms a habit, perhaps to such a degree that the behaviour becomes subconscious, on occasion.

Conclusion

Taking the RAA and its use and abuse as a case study of theory in marketing, one can discern a few themes that apply beyond this particular case. Those who really don't want to believe in the utility of the RAA point out that "empirical" support of the RAA by the thousands of observed correlations reported in the literature as being explainable simply by consistency bias induced by cognitive process of the questionnaire, i.e. when asked about their beliefs first, then attitudes, then intentions, respondents may (subconsciously) adjust their later responses to be

consistent with their previous responses, rather than an honest report of their thoughts and feelings. However often those same critics use evidence gathered in the same way that "refutes" the RAA as evidence against it, e.g. Sniehotta et al., 2014. Conversely, disciples of F&A, and other boosters of the RAA argue that evidence of low variance explained or additional variables argue that such evidence is methodologically or theoretically flawed, e.g. Bleakley & Hennessy, 2012, p. 38. It is human nature, when arguing a position, to up-weight and over-elaborate arguments in favour of the position, and down-weight, discuss only in superficial terms, and even misrepresent opposing arguments. That's fine for dinner-party banter or political rhetoric. But scholars are held to higher standards of discourse, not least of which is criticism from a position of understanding. And practitioners should be concerned with real-world pragmatic usefulness above all else. This leads to my view that the real utility of the RAA is as a kind of checklist, i.e. when considering how to understand or change behaviour, the RAA provides a list of major classes of factors to consider. This is useful to avoid leaving something out of one's deliberations.

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Online opinion leadership in negative e-WOM dissemination

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Abstract
With the rise of online media channels, negative electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) can damage a well-established brand within a short time frame. Departing from the past research that focuses on positive WOM and offline setting, this study addresses issues as follow: Does an opinion leader exist in the course of negative e-WOM dissemination after a bad news about a brand or its product revealed to the public? How is the online opinion leadership established in the process of negative e-WOM dissemination? How does such an opinion leader influence the online community members' sentiments towards the brand and its product? Through the content analysis on iphone6's bending issue, the research uncovers how online opinion leadership is developed and how it functions in e-WOM dissemination. This study advances the understanding of the intervening factors that underlie the influence of opinion leader and its role in the process of negative e-WOM dissemination within an online community.

Keywords: Negative e-WOM, online opinion leadership, e-WOM dissemination, online communities
Track: Consumer Behaviour 2

Introduction

The Internet has facilitated a variety of online social media channels which have a profound impact on consumer interaction and have created a new communication landscape in the digital world. These social networking sites provide a highly interactive platform for information sharing and exchange in innovative ways (Pagani, Hofacker and Goldsmith, 2011), thereby has the potential to build customer emotional attachment to the brand as well as serving as a good source for new product ideas.

However, the existence of these online social media also present challenges to marketers. For example, marketers have to deal carefully with instant, real time information exchanges as negative electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) often spread faster than positive ones. Negative e-WOM communication among consumers may jeopardise a company's image and its bottom line, and in some cases its survival (Williams & Buttle, 2014). It is important to closely monitor negative e-WOM communication so that strategic decision can be made to combat negative consumer opinions. Nevertheless, the booming popularity of online social communities has caused the shift of marketing power to consumers. Negative e-WOM communication generated through these online channels are perceived as being more trustworthy (Ba & Pavlou, 2002; Sen & Lerman, 2007). The question faced by marketers is how to better manage the e-WOM dissemination that takes place within the self-organised online communities.

The key e-WOM players are opinion leaders, who are interested in particular product field, make an effort to expose themselves to mass media sources and are trusted by opinion seekers to provide knowledgeable advice (Julilvand *et al*. 2011). Recent studies (e.g. Koh, Kim, Butler & Bock, 2007; Huffaker, 2010) demonstrate the emergence of leadership in online communities. These studies reveal that opinion leaders establish their leadership status through e-WOM interaction, and gain influential position by enhancing their interpersonal communication credibility. However, some important questions in this area of research remain unclear. For instance, news of a more negative nature has a greater influence on consumers' psychological state than do neutral or positive news due to the negativity effect (Baumeister, Finkenauer & Vohs, 2001; Rozin & Royzman, 2001). A good understanding of negative e-WOM dissemination process and the influence of opinion leaders during a crisis situation is crucial for the implementation of strategic interventions during the course to regain consumer trust. This paper aims to explore how opinion leaders mitigate negative e-WOM dissemination when a crisis event occurs considering that consumers tend to trust negative e-WOM more than positive ones. Particularly, the following issues are addressed:

 Does an opinion leader exist in the course of negative e-WOM dissemination after a bad news about a brand or its product revealed to the public?

 How is the online opinion leadership established in the process of negative e-WOM dissemination?

 How does such an opinion leader influence the online community members' sentiments towards the brand and its product?

Background Literature

Negative e-WOM Communication

Consumption decisions are often made in a social environment (tanner *et al.*, 2008). Past research has established that negative e-WOM often arises from customer dissatisfaction (Willams & Buttle, 2014), and that online consumers are more likely to spread e-WOM when they are dissatisfied with a product or service (Lee, Noh & Kim, 2013). These complaints are

voiced in different ways with different effects on the business performance (Lee, Noh & Kim, 2013). Cheng, Lam and Hsu (2006) classify negative WOM communication into two categories based on the motives of spreading WOM. The first category relates to an aggressive complaint with a specific intention of retaliatory action against the sellers. The second type of WOM concerns the use of WOM as means to warn others of a potential risk. There has been an abundance of research on the motivations for negative e-WOM communication which revealed four major motives that drive the behaviour. These include the desire to prevent others from experiencing similar problem (East, Hammond & Lomax, 2008); the need to express their emotions (Zeelenberg, Wetzer & Pieters, 2007); the attempt to reduce cognitive dissonance (East, Hammond & Lomax, 2008); and lastly, the act of venting out their dissatisfaction (Williams & Buttle, 2014). These nature of motivations for consumer participation in negative e-WOM communication reflects the key essence of the negative e-WOM interaction.

Negative e-WOM can have a profound impact on a business (Wiliams & Buttle, 2014) since it spreads faster than a positive one and that opinion seeker tend to pay more attention to negative e-WOM (Cheng, Lam & Hsu, 2006; East, Hammond & Lomax, 2008). Not only that, negative e-WOM also has a stronger impact on consumer attitudes and product evaluations than positive information (Cheng, Lam & Hsu, 2006). In sum, negative information can have far-reaching effects on a larger circle of potential consumers, resulting in adverse impacts on the sales, revenue, market share and reputation of an organisation (Hickman & Ward, 2013).

Indeed, failure to respond effectively to negative e-WOM may lead to a further and more intense spread of negative e-WOM. In some extreme situations, negative e-WOM spreading can affect the survival of a business which crisis management would be needed to recover the issues (Lee & Cranage, 2014; Williams & Buttle, 2014). Although a number of studies (e.g. Senecal & Nantel, 2004; Cheng, Liam & Hsu, 2006; Hickman & Ward, 2013) have suggested strategies for responding to negative e-WOM, it remains a challenge for businesses to effectively control the spread of negative e-WOM.

Chatterjee (2001) and Hickman and Ward (2013) found that consumers are less receptive to negative information when they are familiar with the company or brand. Thus, some companies attempt to engage consumers by continuously providing promotional information through various forms of communication channels in order to strengthen the positive image of the brand, and influence the consumers' opinion of their products (Mayzlin, 2006). Some firms also taking a proactive approach by actively intervening e-WOM communication with an aim to reduce the impact of negative e-WOM (Lee & Youn, 2009). However, this form of intervention executed by a company has its limitation since the message from a company is often perceived as less trustworthy than personal opinions or recommendations from consumers. This notion has led many companies to pay increasing attention to opinion leadership creation and stimulation.

Opinion leaders and e-WOM

Within an online community, there bound to be some members who actively engage in the online discussion by sharing and exchanging useful information and personal opinions with other members (Gu, Konana, Rajagopalan & Chen, 2007). These online consumers may participate in multiple online communities and are more likely to be innovative (Dahalander & Frederiksen, 2012; Ren et al, 2012). Rogers (1995) labels the special consumers as opinion leaders who can facilitate WOM communication and help others with a better understanding of the company and the product. In an online community, opinion leaders are defined as 4

individuals who have the ability to influence the e-WOM conversation within the community and shape the way other members talk about a given topic (Huffaker, 2010).

Past opinion leadership research has attempted to link credibility to other concepts such as persuasion, social influence, expertise and trustworthiness of message (e.g. Venkatraman, 1989; Awad & Ragowsky, 2008; Huffaker, 2010; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014). These studies conclude that the reason for the significant influence of e-WOM from opinion leaders on consumer decision-making is their level of credibility in the discussion community (Sun, Youn, Wu & Kuntaraporn, 2006). While some scholars (e.g. Forman, Ghose, & Wiesenfeld, 2008; Huffaker, 2010) argue that credibility is one of the key elements for opinion leaders to build trust and to increase their influence on e-WOM adoption, Hollander (1961) asserts that leadership is obtained when people engage in the group activity long enough, and other members can recognise their contribution to the community goals. In a similar vein, Forman, Ghose and Wiesenfeld (2008) explain that opinion leadership establishment is a developmental process that based on time spent in discussion communities. Huffaker (2010) echoes that the credibility of an opinion leader relates to trustworthiness, which is built through the length of time spent within a community.

Another stream of research centres on opinion leaders' social identity and social status, as well as their influential power within an online community (Forman, Ghose & Wiesenfeld, 2008; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014; Huffaker, 2010). That is, the intensity of online discussion engagement is related to sociability whereby the influence of an opinion leader is perceived according to the communication volume and the number of their supporters (Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014; Huffaker, 2010). This line of research indicates that opinion leadership is built on social relationships with other online members through continuous online information exchange activities which gradually gain the trust of the community and leadership social status.

Overall, past opinion leadership research has produced valuable insights into the characteristics of opinion leader, opinion leader's credibility and social identity. Although emerging research have looked into the opinion leadership development (e.g. Huffaker, 2010), further empirical exploration is needed to understand the establishment of opinion leadership specifically during a crisis when negative e-WOM is prevalent. The mechanism that underlies the influence of opinion leader on the online community members' sentiments is another issue that deserves attention. These issues will be addressed in this research.

Method

We took a qualitative approach to answering the research questions posed in our attempt to understand the nature of social exchanges within an online community. This research is based on an online discussion forum (i.e. MacRumors) around the faulty issue of the new iPhone 6 in September 2014. The website aims to keep track of Mac and Apple product rumour community with 950,000 members and more than 20,000,000 forum posts. The discussion forum allows online users to post a message in a public form and to other community members. These communications form a chronological thread. In general, the discussion traffic increases dramatically during Apple events such as new product release. The argument about new products is intensive and provides rich positive and negative e-WOM exchanges that influence consumer purchase intention. Specifically, the product complaints and product fault evaluation constitute a representative sample of negative e-WOM interactions. 5

A total of 557 online users who contributed 1911 posts covering a period of 3 months were collected for analysis. The online conversation contents from this forum were analysed with the assistance of the NVivo QSR 10 software. The data analysis comprises two stages. In the first stage, opinion leaders were identified by analysing community members' contributions to the online discussion using a set of criteria including the number of the post, the number of the reply and citation, the communication style, the posts length, the change of average path length and the centrality position a relational map.

Second, a content analysis was performed to analyse the online conversations by identifying valid categories relevant to the phenomenon of interest (Kassarjian, 1977). The emergent coding process as recommended by Stemler (2001) was followed. The data was first read so that coders are familiar with the data. During this process, notes and memos were produced for later reflection. The first author acted as the main coder and reviewed all data independently. A second coder was appointed to verify the plausibility of the main coder's interpretations. Disagreements between the two coders were resolved via discussion.

Findings

The first stage of opinion leadership identification analysis reveals a group of key influential members in the online community who plays an active role in shaping the negative e-WOM discussion direction. Among these influential active members, one individual member consistently scores high on all the measurement criteria was identified as the opinion leader in the community. The interactions between these active members and the opinion leader were then analysed in addition to the followers' sentiments.

The negative e-WOM dissemination process is divided into four main phases based on the discussion intensity. The content analysis reveals that during the four phases, opinion leader took multiple roles and shifts the role taking focus according to the discussion context changes in his attempt to gradually gain the leadership position. For example, as negative e-WOM spread intensively during the beginning stage, an increasing number of community members believed in the negative information. The opinion leader took the role as an information provider and observer to establish his appearance in the community and gain attention from others. In the second phase where the negative e-WOM discussion volume reached a peak, the opinion leader took more active roles such as opinion presenter and defender to present and reinforce his opinion and make his or her argument convincing. During the third phase of the discussion, the opinion leader assumed the role of evidence analyst and convergent thinker to focus on the evidence elaboration and analysis. During the last phase, the opinion leader acted as an aggressor and brand guardian. Overall, the analysis of the role taking at various stages reveals that the opinion leader gradually established his or her leadership position within the community and the negative e-WOM dissemination was under control. These results indicated that the opinion leadership evolution is a dynamic process which follows the e-WOM dissemination as well as influences the direction of the dissemination.

Our findings also reveal five intervening factors that underlie how the interactions between the opinion leader and the active members affect followers' sentiments: (1) hope; (2) cognitive balancing; (3) self-esteem; (4) emotion; and (5) justice. The perceived persuasiveness and genuineness of the communication style of the opinion leader plays an important role in influencing the followers' acceptance latitude of these psychological beliefs which somehow helpful in diverting the attention of the followers away from negative e-WOM about the brand and its product. 6

Conclusion

The contribution of this research is three-fold. First, it proposes a framework of online opinion leader identification by integrating multiple parameters, such as activity, communication style, impact and position of the opinion leader in the online community. Second, this study advances understanding of opinion leaders' impact by exploring its role in the process of negative e-WOM dissemination within an online community. Third, it also provides practical suggestions for companies to repair the damage of negative e-WOM in online communities and regain their consumers' trust by utilising the power of online opinion leader. In sum, our findings suggest that online opinion leadership is an important and useful topic to explore. We encourage future research to continue exploring the concepts of online opinion leadership and e-WOM as a potential to mitigating WOM related issues faced by marketers.

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Why do consumers buy imitations of luxury cosmetics?

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Abstract

This study aims to gain insights into consumers' motivations in purchasing imitation of luxury cosmetics goods by applying the functional theory of attitude. Consumers' desire for imitation luxury cosmetics are hinged on their motivations underlying their luxury cosmetics consumption. Also, consumers' perceived risk of purchasing imitation cosmetics and their brand loyalty to the original luxury products will restrain their purchase intention of imitation cosmetics. Finally, the study examines the effect of visibility of products (private/public) and imitation types (package/function) on consumers' preferences on imitating consumption. The findings will provide insights for policy makers, brand managers and academics, to better understand imitation in the luxury cosmetics industry.

Keywords: imitation, mimicry, attitude function, luxury branding, cosmetics

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

While cosmetics industry is continuously growing as the third most profitable industry with 460 billion USD in global market by 2014 (Jones, 2010), a growing number of imitation products are threatening the premium brands (Euromonitor International, 2008). Unlike the counterfeit providing consumers' cheaper and fake version of premium products without guarantee of safety and quality, the legitimate imitation is widely adopted as a profitable marketing strategy (d'Astous & Gargouri, 2001). The Daily Mail has reported that these copycats which only cost a fraction of high-end brands is becoming a prevalent trend among consumers on social platform, such as YouTube, Pinterest and blogs (Bennett, 2013; Coleman, 2014).While there has been an increasing number of studies conducted on counterfeit and imitation of luxury goods like bags, watches and clothes, the cosmetics industry has not been specifically studied. However, the inherent nature of cosmetics determines its uniqueness and specialty from other luxury goods. As neither straightforward utilitarian products, like computers and food, nor status symbol products, like luxury bags and watches, what are consumers really buying from a perfume, face cream and lipstick? Why do consumers pay so much for products whose ingredients are well known for only cost a small portion of retail price (Jones, 2010)? The understanding of consumers' motives behind their purchase will contribute to the understanding of their shift preference from luxury to imitation, after all the imitation is legitimately brand parasites relying on consumers' desire to purchase the premium brands in a reduced cost. This research applies functional theory of attitude in understanding consumers' motives in luxury cosmetics consumption. Unlike other luxury categories, luxury cosmetics are more affordable to consumers. This paper will explore whether consumers' attitudes and purchase motives are inconsistent regarding different categories within cosmetics. In response to the call for research in understanding the relationship between perceived similarity level and imitation types (Van Horen & Pieters, 2012), this paper will investigate the influence of imitation types on consumers' similarity judgement as well.

Conceptual foundation

Imitation types and influence on consumers' acceptance

The purpose of imitation is to arouse consumers' association with the original brand through similar package, design, advertising, etc. in order to increase their acceptance (d'Astous & Gargouri, 2001). Van Horen and Pieters (2012) has summarized imitations into two types: feature imitation and theme imitation. Feature imitation is to imitate the distinctive perceptual features of leader brands and generally believed to have a higher similarity, thus induce more negative evaluation regarding imitators' suspicious motivation (Loken, Ross, & Hinkle, 1986; Warlop & Alba, 2004; Wilke & Zaichkowsky, 1999). Theme imitation is subtler and perceived as more acceptable as the underlying meaning or theme imitated cannot be attributed to any specific brand (Horen & Pieters, 2012). In cosmetics, the feature and theme imitation are more accurately referred as package and function/ingredient imitation based on the products attributes. Nevertheless, consumers' evaluation of similarity is assumed to be different regarding to what they intent to achieve from products. In specific, if consumers expect face cream to bring them back the younger skin, they focus on the ingredients/function rather than the package of products. For them, function/theme imitation is more likely to be perceived as high similarity, rather than package imitation. This paper will explore consumers' evaluation of similarity and acceptance towards two types of imitation.

Product category and visibility

Cosmetics contain six main categories including skincare, haircare, make-up, perfumes, etc. In 2015, skincare as the largest part made up 36% of global market while makeup as the third part produced 17% globally (Statista, 2015). This paper only considers these two categories because they are more representative in luxury cosmetics and have more severe imitation problems. Nevertheless, these two categories function very differently to consumers. Skincare products are more privately visible products used at home and the products are invisible on face, while makeup products can be both used in private or public condition and the results of product, like the colour of lipstick and foundation, can been seen by others. Previous research defined publicly visible goods (display goods) as the purchase and use of ones that can be detected by external viewers and are able to communicate outside as a conspicuous consumption (Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Chao & Schor, 1998; M. L. Smith, 2007). On the other hand, privately visible goods (non-display goods) are used in private condition and cannot be seen by observers. Since the consumption of luxury goods is a manifestation of conspicuous consumption aiming to display the social status and identity to others (Phau & Prendergast, 2000), the visibility of luxury consumption becomes a critical element to fulfil this goal (Chao & Schor, 1998). Therefore, it is assumed that makeup, as the publicly visible goods, such as lipstick, are more likely to reflect social status related consumption motivation. And skincare, as privately visible goods, are more linked with inconspicuous consumption, which is independent of their social roles and it is more a reflection of self-awareness and affirmation (Ghosh & Varshney, 2013; Iglesias et al., 2011; M. L. Smith, 2007).

Functional theory of attitude

Functional theory of attitude suggests that attitudes serve important psychological and social functions (Katz, 1960; Kelman, 1958; M. Smith, Bruner, & White, 1956). Attitudes can serve as social –adjustive function to allow individuals to fit into important social situations and gain social approval (M. Smith et al., 1956). Value-expressive allows individuals to express their personal values and concept of themselves (Katz, 1960). Utilitarian function summarizes the positive and negative outcomes associated with products and guide behaviours to obtain or avoid these outcomes (Shavitt, 1989). In cosmetics, consumers' purchase intention for the imitated version of luxury cosmetics is guided by their attitudes toward luxury brands (Wilcox, Kim, & Sen, 2009). For instances, consumers who purchase the luxury brands because these products are popular among the group they strive to fit in, their attitude towards these luxury cosmetics serve as social-adjustive function, thus they are buying for brand or symbol value, instead of the product itself. For consumers whose attitude towards luxury cosmetics serve as value-expressive function, they make their purchase decision based on their self-identity and their expectation of how others will react to their purchase decision (DeBono 1987; Shavitt 1989a, b, 1990; Snyder and DeBono 1989). Since luxury and exclusivity are embedded in the brand rather than the products per se (Wilcox et al., 2009), these groups of consumers will be less likely to purchase the imitations. At last, if consumers believe the luxury cosmetics bring them better quality and more effective results because of the ingredients and technology, then their utilitarian attitude function will make them more likely to choose imitation instead when they are believed such imitations have same ingredients and will bring them the same benefits. Therefore, we predict the following:

H1: As the value-expressive function performed by attitudes toward luxury cosmetics increases,

H1a: consumers' purchase intention of mimicry cosmetics decreases.

H1b: consumer' desire to acquire luxury cosmetics increases.

H2: As the social-adjustive function performed by attitudes toward luxury cosmetics increases,

H2a: consumers' purchase intention of mimicry cosmetics decreases.

H2b: consumer' desire to acquire luxury cosmetics increases.
H3: As the utilitarian function performed by attitudes toward luxury cosmetics increases,
H3a: consumers' purchase intention of mimicry cosmetics increases.
H3b: consumer' desire to acquire luxury cosmetics decreases.

Brand loyalty
Brand loyalty is "the biased behavioural response with respect to one or more alternative brands, and is a function of psychological processes."(Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978). Once consumers develop a loyalty to a specific brand, they are more willing to pay more as some unique value they perceive from such a brand cannot be replaced by other alternatives (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Reichheld & Teal, 2001). In the formation of loyalty, consumers' high-involvement in product category and high satisfaction towards products are two major contributors (Chiou & Droge, 2006; Oliver, 1999; Quester & Lin Lim, 2003). In the luxury cosmetics market, premium cosmetic products are high-involvement products requiring strong interaction with beauty consultants, and because the effects of products are long-term, these credence products rely heavily on consumers' trust and loyalty (Chiou & Droge, 2006). For high-involvement products, it has been stated that the brand switching is less likely to happen compared to low-involvement products due to an ongoing commitment embedded in consumers' thoughts and feelings (Quester & Lin Lim, 2003; Van Trijp, Hoyer, & Inman, 1996). Therefore, we predict the following:
H4: As the loyalty towards luxury brands increases, the purchase intention of mimicry cosmetics decreases,
H4a: for value-expressive attitude, this effect increases the negative purchase intention for mimicry cosmetics.
H4b: for social adjustive, attitude, this effect increases the negative purchase intention for mimicry cosmetics.
H4c: for utilitarian attitude, this effect decreases the positive purchase intention for mimicry cosmetics.

Consumer perceived risk
Perceived risk is a fundamental determinants in consumers' behaviour due to their tendency to avoid mistakes than to maximize benefit in purchase (Mitchell, 1999). Since consumers' risk assessment is restricted to their limited information, experiences and semi-reliably memory, it is highly impossible for them to make an accurate measurement. Thus, researchers believe it is consumers' subjective or perceived risk, rather than objective or real risk, that guild their behaviour (Mitchell, 1999; Paulssen, Roulet, & Wilke, 2014; Stone & Winter, 1985). In marketing context, perceived risk refers to the nature and amount of risk estimated by consumers regarding their purchase behaviour (Cox & Rich, 1964). In the consumption of cosmetics, the cheap priced cosmetics were found to have more safety issues due to the absence of regulation, harmful ingredients, and unqualified production condition (Al-Saleh, Al-Enazi, & Shinwari, 2009). On the contrary, products with high price, familiar brand names, developed manufactured countries, trusted advertised person and warranty are perceived with lower level of risk because of the higher faith in ingredients, brands and manufacturing process (Yee-Man Siu & Wong, 2002). For consumers who shop for luxury cosmetics for the embedded symbol, value or premium quality, the risks involved in imitation cosmetics can be attributed into social risk, psychological risk and physical risk (Kaplan, Szybillo, & Jacoby, 1974; Mitchell, 1992). To avoid such risks, high involvement with a single brand, which is commonly known as brand loyalty, is proved to be an effective risk reducer (Roselius, 1971). Therefore, we predict the following:

H5: As perceived risk of mimicry cosmetics increases, the purchase intention of mimicry cosmetics decreases,

H5a: for value-expressive attitude, this effect increases the negative purchase intention for mimicry cosmetics.

H5b: for social adjustive, attitude, this effect increases the negative purchase intention for mimicry cosmetics.

H5c: for utilitarian attitude, this effect decreases the positive purchase intention for mimicry cosmetics.

Therefore, the proposed research model is as follows:

Figure 1: Proposed research model
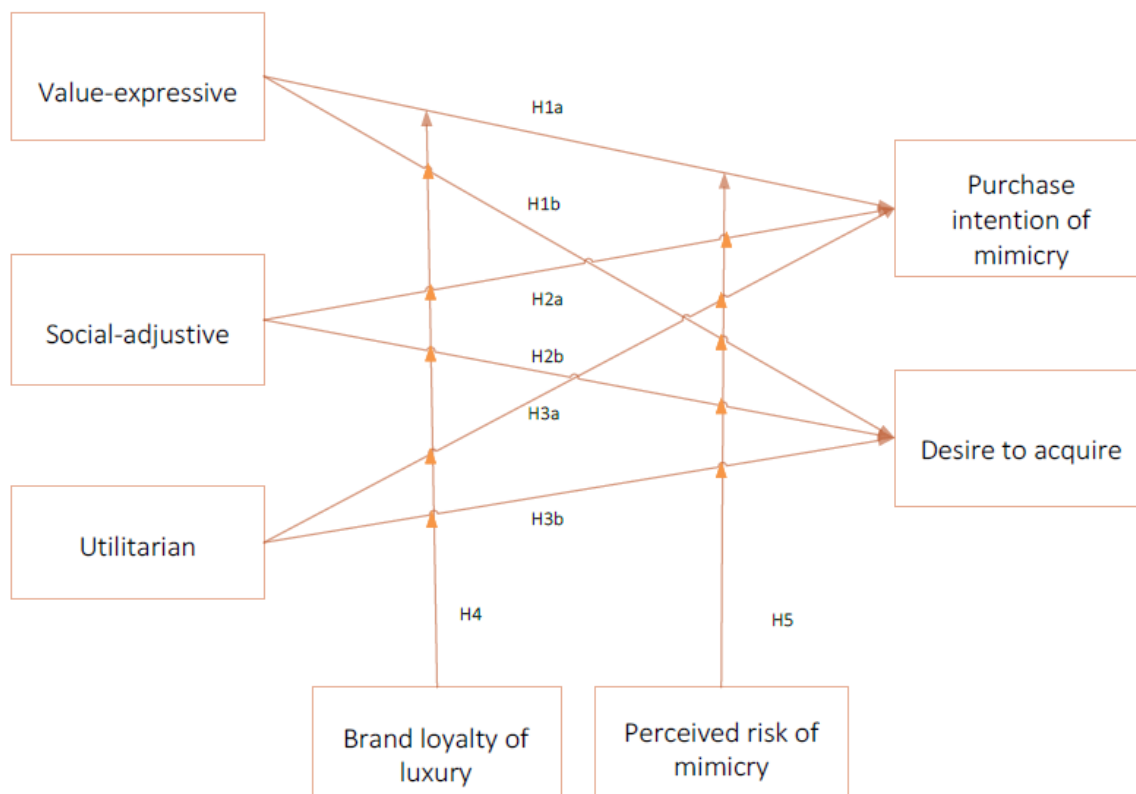
Methodology

A 2 (products visibility) x 2 (imitation types) between-subjects factorial design will be adopted to test above hypotheses in three studies. Study 1 will test the framework using most common imitation: Package imitation in public products. Study 2 will measure the influence of imitation types on consumers' preference using function imitation public products and compare the result with study1. Study 3 and 4 will examine the product visibility influence through testing package and function imitation in private products and compare the results with study1 and 2. In the development of questionnaire, established scales with Cronbach's Alpha above 0.7 from previous studies will be used to increase the internal validity of this study (Peter, 1981). 100 samples will be collected for each cell (400 samples in total) and respondents will be consumers who have purchased luxury cosmetics before and live in major cities in Australia in which consumers have more chances to access to high-ends premium cosmetics in department store and imitation cosmetics in drugstore and supermarkets.

Significance

This paper will contribute to understand the incipient imitation phenomena in cosmetics industry. The aim of this paper is to testify whether consumers' desire for imitation relies on their goals of purchasing luxury cosmetics, so as to influence people' purchase preference through influencing their attitude towards luxury cosmetics. Theoretically, this research will advance the theoretical understanding of consumers' desire for imitation cosmetics by exploring their motives for luxury cosmetic consumption. In addition to established research on counterfeit and imitation consumption, this paper will stress on how different product attributes influence consumers' attitude function served towards luxury cosmetics, and further investigate how imitation types restrict consumers' preference of imitations. This paper also takes inherent properties of cosmetics industry into consideration on consumers' consumption. Specifically, high level of brand loyalty towards luxury cosmetics brands will supress loyal consumers' demand for imitations. The higher level of perceived risk regarding cheaper cosmetics also induce consumers' concern and suspicion of imitations products, especially those produced by non-known brands and online retailers. Unlike other luxury categories in which only involve in either social or financial losses, the physical risk in cheap cosmetics constitutes the major part of consumers' concern. Managerially, this paper has implications for luxury brand marketers to curb consumers' demand for imitations through understanding their motivation of luxury consumption in cosmetics. Marketers could identify the segments of their target population based on social motives, and design the corresponding targeted advertising. The research also suggest that perceived risk could be used to fight against imitation for luxury cosmetics brands. With the increasing level of consumers' knowledge and information accessibility, safety issues related to cosmetics industry has raised consumers' attention. Their shifting preference for green, organic products is the signal of consumers' increasing consciousness of health in use of cosmetics. Instead of environment concern, researchers found that the prior motivation of consuming green and organic beauty products appear to be egocentric and health consciousness, considering the fact that most of consumers do not understand the meaning of all term and labels used in green products (Cervellon & Carey, 2011; Rajagopal, 2007; Yeon Kim & Chung, 2011).

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Deeper Enjoyment: Customer's Eudaimonia Experience in Craft Consumption

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Abstract

The experiential aspects of consumption were originally termed as "hedonic consumption" in marketing literature in order to be distinguished from utilitarian consumption. However the actual scope of "hedonic consumption" goes beyond hedonic enjoyment, which implicitly refers to sensory and indulging feelings in nature. Hedonic enjoyment lacks its strength in explaining why effort is enjoyable in craft consumption process. While hedonic enjoyment interprets pleasure as the attainment of positive affect and the absence of pain, eudaimonia defines pleasure as a form of deeper enjoyment which aroused by the feeling of accomplishment and self-expression. In this research, we assume that craft consumers perceive eudaimonia when they use mass-produced products as raw material for creating a new self-consumed product. We conduct three studies to empirically test the existence of eudaimonia in various craft consumption contexts, distinguishing eudaimonia from hedonic enjoyment and testing the moderating effect of craft task feature on eudaimonia experience.

Keywords: Hedonic enjoyment, Craft consumption, Eudiamonia

Track: 02 Consumer Behaviour

Lending Special Possessions: Tension Negotiation in Gift Exchange Relations

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Abstract

There is a dearth of research on the mechanism and strategies that people adopt in order to negotiate and ease the embedded tensions in their gift exchange practices. Prior research discussed the existence of tension and ambivalence in gift exchange relations. Drawing on lending practices of special possessions in context of designer items such as women's handbags and dresses, this article reveals that individuals actively negotiate tension around undesirability of gift exchange and develop strategies to reduce or resolve such tension. This article highlights the importance of the tension negotiation process in gift exchange and indicates that unpacking such a process helps better understand how gifts are circulated and how reciprocity norms and obligations are regulated in gift exchange relations.

Keywords: Gift exchange, Reciprocity Norms, Special Possessions, Tension Negotiation

Track: Consumer Culture Theory

Gifts to God: Religious Sacrifice and the Role of Religious Ideology in Enchanting Consumption

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Abstract

Gift exchange is one of the key consumer practices that dominates consumer culture theory. However, extant literature has not deeply considered the context when the gifting partner is a religious deity. Considering that more than half of the world's consumers are religious, this leaves a huge gap in our knowledge about gift exchange. Using ethnographic data, this study examined church donations among low-income members of a Pentecostal-Charismatic church in Ghana, who made payments to seventeen different donation funds. Fueled by the Pentecostalist ideology of the prosperity gospel, these members exchanged their meagre incomes for divinely orchestrated material wealth. Using a socio-historical lens of Ghanaian traditional religious beliefs, this paper foregrounds the concept of religious sacrifice and highlights the role of religious ideology in enchanting exchange, consumption and the market.

Keywords: Religious Sacrifice, Gift Exchange, Pentecostal-Charismatic Churches, Prosperity Gospel, Enchantment

Track: Consumer Culture Theory

Becoming Friends: The Role of Facebook in Ethnographic Research

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Abstract

Proliferation of social media has provided new opportunities for researchers to explore a range of stigmatised social phenomena. Social media networks have become integral to netnographic and social media ethnographic research. In addition, popular online social networks such as Facebook, Instagram and Youtube have increasingly been used in conventional ethnographic research. However, current literature largely focus on "how-to aspects" of using social media, thus, calling for further epistemological and methodological debates amiliorating issues pertaining to applications, contributions and potential implications of integrating different social media platforms in ethnographic data collection. The purpose of this paper is to illustrate the epistemological and methodological significance of integrating Facebook in conventional ethnographic research, particularly when exploring complex and mundane consumer experiences. Building on friendship theories we suggest that Facebook helps overcome three inherent challenges of conventional ethnography.

Keywords: Ethnography, Social media, Friendship, Facebook

Track: Consumer Culture Theory

Could Brand Authenticity Serve as the Linking Value in Consumer Tribes?

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Abstract

The high importance of consumer-brand link has inspired many studies on consumption communities in recent years. A stream of research has tried to identify factors that could contribute to development of such communities. This study investigated the influence of brand authenticity on brand tribes for sportswear products. Survey method was used to collect data from 315 undergraduate and graduate students at a Canadian University. The findings showed that perceived brand authenticity has positive impacts on all five dimensions of brand tribalism including degree of fit with lifestyle, passion in life, reference group acceptance, social visibility of brand and collective memory. Such impacts were stronger for the two dimensions of social visibility of brand and passion in life. These findings could help marketers in developing effective strategies to support brand tribes. By promoting authenticity, firms could influence the evolution of this fluid type of consumer groups.

Keywords: Brand Authenticity, Brand Tribalism, Tribes, Postmodern Consumption.

Track: Consumer Culture Theory

'You're best at grocery shopping, Mikkel'.
Visible fathers in family shopping, cooking and feeding

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Abstract
Little has been written of fathers' roles in family food practices. The invisibility of fathers in the contexts of shopping food, cooking and being involved in the feeding of children is in contrast to what was found in a recent qualitative study in Denmark. In several of these families the fathers were very engaged or even in charge of shopping and cooking, and very active in the food socialization of their children. This paper draws on the sparse research literature on fathers engaged in shopping, cooking and feeding of their children. Drawing on 11 family interviews, we explore the positions of fathers and reflect on the significance of fathers' new roles, and conclude that for these fathers there are a limited number of positions to take on in the family.

Keywords: father roles, food, shopping, cooking, child food socialization, Denmark, qualitative research

Track: Consumer Culture Theory (CCT).

Educing heroic masculinity:
Finding meaning in male fragrance advertising

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Abstract
Advertising images and consumer culture mutually inform and influence each other. Contributing to knowledge about consumer meaning making, the paper focuses on linkages between advertising images, symbols and consumer meaning. In particular, the study explores how consumers educe notions of masculinity, by applying interpretive semiotic analysis to advertising for a male fragrance brand. The sampled images invoke hero myths, presenting the hero as master of his domain, authentic and sacred, striving for fulfilment by pursuing a quest, seeking something greater than himself. However, heroic masculinity has a subtext, that of evasive masculinity. Too-close proximity to the average person (the profane) threatens the notion of heroism by intimations of narcissism, and by polluting sacredness. Brand representations should therefore use hero myth imagery with caution, as unintended meaning-making could dilute brand messaging.

Keywords: Advertising, culture, semiotics, myths, masculinity

Track: Consumer Culture Theory

Introduction

Advertising images are cultural artefacts, permeating daily routines, contributing to understandings of the world, and reflecting and creating cultural meanings. Advertising positively influences consumer brand and product evaluations when symbolism is used effectively, therefore acting as both a valuable symbolic resource for consumers to draw upon in pursuit of their identity projects (Arnould & Thompson, 2005). Linkages between advertising images, symbols and consumer meaning making require explicit attention, in particular, a need for research into the ways in which consumers make sense of visual images (Schroeder, 2004).

The purpose of this research is to address consumer sense-making at *"the interstices of vision and culture …"* (Schroeder, 2004, pp.229-230). Contributing to literature on brand messaging in popular culture (e.g. Cooper, Schembri, & Miller, 2010), and responding to calls for research that looks at *"if, and how, science, religion and magic inter-relate in the lives of postmodern consumers"* (Fernandez, Veer, & Lastovicka, 2007 p.704), the study investigates how advertising imagery constructs and is constructed by culturally derived meanings. I aim to enhance understanding of the linkages between advertising, consumer culture and mythology (Thompson, 2004), and cultural notions of masculinity (Holt & Thompson, 2004) through undertaking interpretive semiotic analysis of three Paco Rabanne male fragrance advertisements. Archetypes of male myths are presented and deconstructed, to provide deeper understanding of how consumers make meaning. The purpose is not to generalise, rather, it is to extend and deepen knowledge about the role of mythical archetypes in advertising representations.

Manliness and consumption

As interpretive agents, consumers engage in meaning construction activities within cultural production systems (i.e. advertising, fashion) that provide representations of identity and lifestyle ideals (McCracken, 1986). Myths are an important component of cultural production systems. In the Barthesian perspective, myths are a chain of ideas associated with a particular topic that consumers draw from to conceptualise and make meanings (Kadirov & Varey, 2013). The ideas are captured in stories about heroines, heroes and supernatural beings (Woodside, Sood & Miller, 2008), that present consumers with direction for identity construction and consumption decisions. Drawing on Jung's idea of a shared collective unconscious, myths are therefore consumer resources, supporting self-projects, sense-making and meaning construction (Arnould & Thompson, 2005; Kadirov & Varey, 2013). Popular culture texts both draw from and inform myths, presenting cultural ideals and normative messaging about origins, roles, appropriate behaviour, solutions to problems, good versus evil, and who to emulate or condemn (Hirschman, 2000; Schroeder & Borgerson, 1998). Advertising messages reference myths to support consumer meaning making and decision making (Arnould & Thompson, 2005; Cooper, Schembri, & Miller, 2010), hence providing the focus for this paper. For example, a recent study showed how product placement created meaning for Bollinger (the lover), Jaguar (the outlaw) and Aston Martin (the superhero) (Cooper et al., 2010). Such representations provide consumers with a frame of reference supporting construction of the ideal self, one that is readily translatable to luxury purchases (Mandel, Petrova, & Cialdini, 2006), such as male fragrance, the focus of this paper.

Masculinity myths describe male ideals such as the biker, the rock star, the hunter, the genius, the billionaire, the superhero, the working man and the sportsman. While these ideals appear diverse, Holt and Thompson (2004) argue for three over-arching male consumer archetypes: the dependable but boring breadwinner, the magnetic but dangerous rebel, and the action hero

ideal who straddles the boundaries of both. For example, the 2015 movie, *"Daddy's Home"* pits responsible but uninspiring Will Ferrell against charismatic but irresponsible biological father Mark Wahlberg. These contested views of masculinity present a dialectic: selfless provider versus selfish non-provider; creative rebellion versus oppressive corporatisation (Holt 2004). (Spoiler alert!) Hollywood reconciles the dialectic – each 'Daddy' character takes on positive attributes of the other to provide a synthesis, arguably the action hero ideal. Male ideals give rise to the notion of immature and mature masculinity, whereby the 'undesired self' challenges the highest expression of the archetype (Ogilvie, 1987). For example, the mature masculine action hero ideal is challenged by the immature masculine dialectic of the sadist and the masochist – ideals are nuanced rather than absolute. Brand managers must recognise and leverage nuances of meaning in order to appropriately imbue value and meaning to particular brands.

Following Schroeder (2004), the purpose of the study is interpretive rather than positive, intending to offer "*how* images can mean, rather than demonstrate *what* they mean" (p.229, italics added). Rather than making generalisations, the aim is to provide new perspectives and insights by contributing deeper understanding of advertising images as symbolic resources, and of consumer meaning structures relating to myths of masculinity across a globalised culture.

Methodology

This paper presents the results of a study directed at providing insight into how consumers engage with advertisements as symbolic resources i.e. how consumers construct brand meanings. Subtle, unconscious and complex engagement is evoked through evocative, intuitive and projective techniques which consider symbolism and interpretation of visual imagery (Schroeder & Borgerson, 1998). Semiotic analysis acknowledges the reader's agency to interpret the text, alternative potential readings, the co-creation of meanings between text and reader, and the mediation effect of sociocultural contexts (Schroeder & Borgerson, 1998). Taking an Interpretivist position, semiotic analysis draws on the dyadic system of linguistic tradition in order to tap into the deepest level of conscious awareness to explicate intuitive, tacit knowledge (Lannon & Cooper, 1983). The questions are addressed: How do brands appropriate and represent myths of masculinity? What insights about postmodern consumer culture emerge from myths of masculinity in advertisements?

The focus is on fragrance advertising, capitalising on the highly visual and richly symbolic nature of images used therein (Toncar & Fetscherin, 2012). Three samples of full page, four colour magazine advertising are examined, appearing for the brand Paco Rabanne over the period 2008-2013 (Figure 1):

Figure 1: Paco Rabanne Male Fragrance Advertising Images

Magazine advertising provides visual imagery and avoids the complexities of sound and movement. Paco Rabanne was selected as there as previous work to build on (Stern & Schroeder, 1994); distinctively positioned product lines facilitating comparative analysis; typicality of global fragrance brands (strong fashion industry ties, Western European heritage and international recognition); and the brand was relevant to the principal investigator. The images were interrogated by one principal (male) investigator, which presented opportunities and challenges. His educational background, religious beliefs, and experience inclined him to a critical view, identifying power imbalances, dominant ideologies and 'sexploitation'. However, the objective of the research is to understand rather than critique, requiring him to bracket his critical readings. He drew on his positionality as a 24 year old Malaysian Chinese male, educated in an Australian education system primarily in the Humanities. His socialisation provided him with the capital to engage with the meanings of signs within Western cultural products; and as a 'digital native in a global village', he was aware of popular culture tropes, memes and myths. He relied on his socialized tacit knowledge to engage with the data and make meaning (Hirschman 1998, Holbrook 1987) and acknowledge the partiality of his insights. He took a dyadic semiotic approach, studying the text's denotation and connotation, juxtapositions of similarity and difference, visual rhyme and antithesis, tropes of metaphor and metonymy. He engaged in constant comparative analysis and open-ended searches for patterns, as he describes in the section following.

Interpretation and Discussion

I engage with the images as advertising artefacts and as expressions of myths. Firstly, as advertising artefacts, the composition, typeface, tone, male Caucasian models and their posing provides a coherence for the core brand, which is associated to ideal masculinity via contiguity. The masculine aspect is conservative (in grooming, clothing, and persona), virile (naked and sexually attractive), and autonomous (individual, possessed of financial, social and cultural capital, unconstrained). The idealized aspects of these masculine personas are iconic: radiating with celebrity quality and dominant in their respective fields by virtue of unassailable financial, artistic and physical mastery. I label these male ideals the Billionaire, the Rockstar and the Champion respectively. Reading the images as expressed myths, I find all three images evoke the hero myth. A solo young male figure is captured in his act of conquest, a framing known as the hero shot (Schroeder & Zwick 2004). The personas are modelled after mythic cultural heroes: plutocrats, rock musicians and victorious athletes. These personas draw from separate bodies of myth to remain undisputed masters of their respective domains: privilege, revolution and physical action, which notably map to breadwinner, rebel and man-of-action archetypes (Holt & Thompson, 2004). The hero is authentic, 'real' and 'true', justifying the 'rightness' of

triumph over opponents (Luedicke et al., 2010). Similarly, the three personas are strongly connotative of inherent properties that 'make' them: charisma and talent (Rockstar), wealth and power (Billionaire) and physical prowess (Champion). Two of the three Paco Rabanne personas (Billionaire and Rockstar) enjoy carefree, hedonistic, leisurely lifestyles that are at once criticised as irresponsible, superficial and frivolous; while at the same time the individuals are envied and revered. The champion is at once disciplined and hedonistic, a 'work-hard-play-hard' synthesis exemplified in well-developed musculature and a facial expression suggesting satiation.

Three aspects of the hero myth emerge from my reading: sacredness, the quest, and the dialectic. The first aspect relates to the sanctity of the hero. Sacredness is defined as being "more significant, powerful, and extraordinary than the self" (Belk, Wallendorf, & Sherry, 1989, p.13). Sacredness is reserved for a special few, experiential rather than synthetic, and recognizable only by the cognoscenti. Sacredness is maintained through separation from dull and undiscerning others i.e. the profane, ordinary and mundane (Belk et al., 1989). In all three Paco Rabanne representations the hero is sacred, and he stands alone. The Invictus champion is adored by celestial nymphs, however the nymphs surround the fragrance bottle rather than the hero, leaving the hero untainted by association. The representation thus invokes hierophany, or manifestation of the sacred. The image also evokes a sacred occasion – a moment of triumph - and through the use of quasi-religious images, the suggestion of ascension, the divine: elevation from the everyday and the mundane. In addition, sacredness also stems from kratophany, the quality of inviting strong, ambivalent reactions combining devotion and fear, both approach and avoidance (Belk et al., 1989). The hero is "in touch with something special, something awesome and fascinating, something that attracts us and repels us at the same time" (Shaffer, 1987, p.25). Kratophany requires consumers to deploy coping mechanisms to reconcile inherent tensions (Fernandez et al., 2007), in this case controlling the unattainable and the fearsome by the act of purchase.

Heroic contributions are made by means of the quest, a universal feature of the hero myth often featuring supernatural elements (Campbell, 2008). Parallels have been drawn between consumer searches for satisfaction and the quest for the Holy Grail, whereby the desired object confers fulfilment (Belk et al. 1989). Ultimately, the search for fulfilment and the supernatural converges in objects of desire (Belk et al., 2003, p.334). The resulting fetishes, defined as *"magical objects of extraordinary empowerment and influence"* (Fernandez & Lastovicka, 2011, p.278) concretize and conflate the abstract concepts they symbolize. In the advertising image I read wealth, in the exaggerated gold ingot (1 Million); forbidden knowledge, in the dark shapeless, ominous mystery (Black XS); and triumph, in the grand trophy (Invictus). The fetishes reflect their respective personas anthropomorphically, the models are aestheticized and posed to echo their fetishes: Expensive and towering (1 Million); dark, mysterious, even formless (Black XS); and shiny, V-shaped and triumphant (Invictus). However, totemism is also implied, whereby the personas draw from the properties of the products to support their identities. The nature of the images creates an ambiguous relationship between persona and fetish, therefore they could be read as anthropomorphism, totemism or both.

The dialectic is reflected in my reading of multiple masculinities, appearing directly at odds with each other and contrasting with the relative stability of the hero myth. I observe two temporal patterns: progress and oscillation. Progress refers to advancement in the same direction, while oscillations reference fluctuation. I read progression in reader intimacy reflected in increasing nakedness. At the same time, I read oscillation in physique, tone of expression, character and aesthetic. For example, the characters reflect oscillating

dishevelment, derived from the battle field (whether social or sporting), or studied in the case of the Rockstar's considered aesthetic – hero and anti-hero.

Discussion and conclusion

Overall, the notion of multiple masculinities has considerable support (Smiler, 2004). However, rather than positing alternative ideal masculinities at all times, the readings suggest a temporal perspective, supporting Benwell's (2003) perspective of a *"perpetual oscillation between two forms of masculinity: traditional, heroic masculinity and ironic, fallible and anti-heroic masculinity"* (p.157). Here, anti-heroic masculinity is defined in opposition to heroic masculinity and is good-humouredly self-depreciating to avoid being perceived as narcissistic (Benwell, 2003). While Benwell (2003) focused on the average or anti-heroic male, this study focuses on the heroic male self i.e. the epitomisation of ideal masculinity. Heroism and masculinity have a long-standing relationship, based on the heroes of classical myth (Willner, 1982). The heroic male self embodies the ultimate hero fantasy (Holt & Thompson, 2004).The average man worries about appearing narcissistic by aligning himself too close to a self-exalting position (Benwell, 2003), but the heroic male self is constructed precisely for that reason. Hence, separation from the heroic leads to what we term 'evasive' masculinity. Moreover, parallels can be drawn with hero/anti-hero oppositions and the sacred/ profane: *"Heroes are unique, they are idealized and we admire and celebrate them but we cannot be like them, otherwise there would be nothing extraordinary to worship"* (Benwell, 2003, p.157). While Benwell (2003) considers heroic distancing to be a function of tone, distancing also occurs through oscillation of what it means to be heroic over time – e.g. 'new lads' vs. the previous 'new man' vs. previous modes of masculinity (Benwell, 2003; Holt 2004). The hero is not static, his story adapts to fit the needs of the times (Shaffer, 1987). Reconciling two seemingly paradoxical masculinities (heroic and evasive), there is an argument for synthesis, as heroic sacredness is protected by maintaining distance from the profane. Too-close contact may disgust followers by his narcissism – the proverbial 'feet of clay'.

In order to deepen understanding of linkages between advertising images and consumer meaning making, focus was directed at brand messaging in a series of print advertisements for a male fragrance luxury brand. The images referenced a multitude of myths, producing and reproducing the hero myth. Invocation of the hero myth conferred authenticity and sanctity, implying fulfilment through the auspices of a desired object or fetish. Across the images, patterns of progress and oscillation apparently contradicted the consistency and stability of the hero myth. Confirming Benwell's (2004) work the study found heroic masculinity to have aspects of evasiveness and instability. Heroic masculinity must be evasive since it is necessarily out-of-reach in order to maintain its sacredness, in tone and over time. Too-close proximity to the average person (the profane) threatens heroic masculinity both by intimations of narcissism, and by diluting heroic sanctity. Advertising representations should therefore approach hero myth imagery with caution, as unintended meaning making could result.

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A History of Drug Discourse and Power

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Abstract

This paper presents an historical overview of the psychoactive substance market – with a focus on the power structures and logics that have grown to govern and control today's markets. While the consumers and sellers in these controversial markets enter readily into, and are often satisfied with, the exchanges (Davidson 2003; Rosenbaum and Wong 2015) society dictates that the recreational consumption of psychoactive substances is inappropriate and excludes these markets from the legitimate marketplace. This exclusion is often grounded in moral and medical reasons however the majority of recreational substance consumers do not engage in problematic consumption - research has shown that many consumers even engage positively with controversial markets (Joubert & Previte 2016). This exclusion has led to the emergence of a 'new' drug market that skirts these boundaries; the 'Legal High' market. This market uses mainstream marketing mechanisms and technological advancements to get around the governing logics.

Keywords: Drug Discourse, Logics, Power, 'Legal Highs'

Track: Consumer Culture Theory

How the Postcolonial Gaze Structures Visual Representations of Volunteer Tourism

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Abstract
While the altruistic and exploitative dimensions of volunteer tourism have been heavily debated, less attention has been paid to how the broader cultural discourses which shape volunteer tourism are represented in and circulated through visual narratives. To redress this theoretical asymmetry, this paper draws on cross-disciplinary postcolonial theories and visual methodologies to understand how consumer-generated visual representations of volunteer tourism in social media are inflected by the postcolonial gaze. Our analysis of volunteer tourists' Instagram photos underscores the operation of four postcolonially inflected visual discourses: power asymmetry, helplessness, sentimentality, and making a difference. These discourses cast a lens over political, economic and social conditions that glamorise volunteer tourism and aggrandise its contribution to change.

Keywords: volunteer tourism, postcolonial theory, Orientalism, visual methods

Track: Consumer Culture Theory

Consumers' roles in their Word of Mouth Stories

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Abstract

Much is known about why consumers engage in Word of Mouth communication (WOM). Many of the motivators can be classified as self-centric, thus they tend not to take the social nature of WOM into account. This study investigated what social reasons may motivate consumers to issue Word of Mouth communication (WOM) and what roles consumers play in their own WOM episodes. A qualitative exploratory study was conducted to investigate these issues. Results suggest that consumers are often motivated to engage in WOM to entertain others. The most common vehicle for entertaining others are stories in which consumers actively shape how they portray their own role. The roles played by consumers in their own stories typically fulfil an archetypal role. Four such archetypal roles are identified. This exploratory study contributes towards our understanding of storytelling in WOM and what factors motivate consumers to engage in WOM.

Keywords: Consumers, word of mouth, story, storytelling, roles, entertainment

Track: Consumer Culture Theory

Growing up with "Cool"

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Abstract
This paper attempts to explore the differences of cool identities and consumptions between adolescents and more mature consumers. A number of group discussions involving young adult consumers from Sydney, Australia provided the narratives that were interpreted in this regard. The findings suggest that cool identities and consumptions differ between adolescent and more mature consumers, and 'grown-up' consumers consciously distance themselves from adolescent identities of cool. Adolescent consumers engage with cool identities that facilitate peer affiliations, whereas more mature adult consumers engage with cool identities that democratically facilitate self-expressions. The differences indicate fragmentation of the markets driven by cool ideology, and the emergence of separate markets based on life-cycle stage. This paper investigates the rarely addressed issue of maturity-based sub-cultural differences in cool identities, which can inform marketers for effectively marketing segment-specific cool identities.

Keywords: Cool, adolescents, maturity, self-expression

Track: Consumer Culture Theory (CCT)

Introduction

A stream of Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) literature highlights the emergence of markets from consumption cultures (Arbashi, Ferguson and Knight, 2014). 'Cool' is a dominant ideology of contemporary consumer capitalism (Nancarrow, Nancarrow and Page, 2002), and is influenced by cultures of young consumers including tweens (9-13 year olds), teenagers, and young adults (Bird and Tapp, 2008; Mohiuddin et al., 2016; O'Donnell and Wardlow, 2000; Warren and Campbell, 2014). However, CCT literature that explore cool ideologies are few. An interpretive study by Nancarrow, Nancarrow and Page (2002) provides an understanding of cool ideology from style leaders. Belk, Tian and Paavola (2010), Frank (1997), and Heath and Potter (2004) explore counterculturalism and cool ideology and describe its evolution through commoditisation. Gurrieri (2009) offers an understanding of the collaborative approach of marketers, coolhunting agencies, and consumers in the construction of cool identities that allows commoditisation of cool. The broader Marketing literature commonly focuses on developing a common and unified understanding of cool identity which can be useful for marketers in commoditising it (Mohiuddin et al., 2016), but literature also acknowledges that cool identities are rebellious and deviate from the norm (Belk, Tian and Paavola, 2010; Bird and Tapp, 2008; Gurrieri, 2009). This results in cool identities to continuously rebel against the ever-changing commoditised cool norms. This continuous effort to deviate is identified by Gurrieri (2009) as the transient nature of cool. The transience of cool is relevant to the discussion on consumption driven market emergence in CCT literature (e.g. Arbashi, Ferguson and Knight, 2014; Martin and Scouten, 2014). Martin and Scouten (2014) discuss a three-stage commodification process from the growth of rebellious subcultures. This growth can lead to fragmentation into multiple forms and expressions resulting in new segmentation within markets through three stages – rebellion, fragmentation, and commodification (Goulding and Saren, 2007; Martin and Scouten, 2014). This process of emergence of markets in rebellious subcultures provides the premise for this paper. The process of emergence of markets based on rebellious subcultures discussed in CCT literature is consistent with the variances in cool identities due to cultural, sub-cultural, and contextual variations that is acknowledged in broader Marketing literature (e.g. Mohiuddin etal., 2016; Warren and Campbell, 2014). The variances in cool identities of consumers counter the Marketing literature's focus on a common and unified understanding of cool, and the worldwide investment in identifying and marketing of a globalised cool through cool hunting that Gurrieri (2009) refers to. A common and unified understanding of cool used to develop and implement a globalised marketing strategy is unlikely to engage different segments of cool driven market that inherently value subcultural or segment-specific identities and focuses on deviating from mainstream norms. Developing segment-specific understanding of cool is likely to avert valuable marketing resources being wasted in a blanket globalised approach.

Marketing literature acknowledges that life-cycle stages of consumers influence consumer identities to cause changes in consumption practices. However, there is a dearth in relevant extant literature that explore the variances of cool identities due to 'growing up', and transitioning from adolescents to more mature consumers. This paper henceforth addresses the two segments as 'adolescent consumers' and 'adult consumers' respectively. The paper explores this gap and discusses the differences in cool identities of adolescent consumers and adult consumers.

Cool identities of consumers

Two works in CCT literature stand out in understanding cool identities. Belk, Tian and Paavola (2010) analyse narratives of style leaders, and discuss emotional control, cool style, knowingness, rebellion, and being a trickster in relation to cool identities. Their study identify attitude, performance, style, uniqueness, nonchalance, hiding emotions, style, knowingness, and possessing talent as elements in forming cool identities in young consumers. Nancarrow, Nancarrow and Page (2002) discuss the diffusion of cool in the global market, and the history and evolution of cool identities. They also associate cool identities with insider knowledge of styles, staying outside mainstream, authenticity, and not trying too hard.

Reviewing broader Marketing literature reveal that Mohiuddin et al. (2016) explore cool across disciplines to propose a generic conceptualisation of cool that integrates the understandings from literature on cool from different contexts and disciplines. They propose a conceptual framework of cool based on an integrative discourse of the vast literature on cool dispersed by the context-specific and product-specific foci. This conceptualisation of cool proposes that cool has seven dimensions such as deviating from norm, self-expressive, indicative of maturity, subversive, pro-social, evasive, and attractive. Mohiuddin et al. (2016) suggest these dimensions of cool are present across contexts, while the context-specific identities of cool may exhibit a varied level of engagement with each of the dimensions. By focusing on young consumers' identities of cool, this paper seeks to answer the following question: How do cool identities vary for adolescent and adult consumers? This paper refers to the conceptualisation of cool by the CCT and Marketing authors to examine the differences, and finds that the relevance of certain elements of cool increase or decrease as consumer's transition from adolescents to adults.

Methodology

Consumers from Sydney, Australia who perceived themselves as knowledgeable on cool consumptions were recruited through a commercial marketing research firm. These adult consumers emerge from a cohort that was exposed to a globalised and commoditised cool, and have experience of cool identities both as adolescent and adult consumers. Participation in the study was voluntary, but each participant received a pre-paid debit card worth $70. The consumers participated in focus group discussions with small groups of three to five consumers. Ten focus group discussions were undertaken for the study engaging a total of 47 consumers. The age of participants ranged from 21 to 29 years, 23.4 years being the average. The participants included 25 female and 22 male consumers. The focus groups were held at an arranged venue, and one of the researchers moderated the discussions. The participants were instructed to collect images of cool products and services three days prior to the discussions. The discussions were unstructured, and the images brought by the participants initiated the discussions. Then the participants were asked to describe the differences of their perception of cool as adults versus when they were adolescents. The researchers focused on young adults and avoided minors as participants as they felt unprepared to counsel minors who may be adversely affected by focus group environment and pressure. The discussions were recorded, and later transcribed by the researchers themselves. The moderating researcher also took note of the expressions and other non-verbal cues of consumers during the discussions. The transcripts were reviewed to identify and list key terms and language to describe cool from the perspectives of adolescent and as adult consumers. The analysis of data followed relevant established methods of analysing qualitative data in accordance with the discussion of Spiggle (1994). The terms were categorised in relevant themes. Refutation process of the themes between the researchers on the basis of literature ensured that the themes do not omit probable aspects of the listed terms. The two sets of themes were then compared to identify the

differences in between them. The initial descriptive analysis was interpreted through relevant literature on adolescent identities, gaining maturity, and cool identities. The researchers then followed an iterative process of reviewing the transcripts, reviewing relevant literature, reflexive thoughts, and discussions between themselves to agree upon the interpretations.

Findings and Discussion
Whilst the analysis of data identifies that cool identities vary for adolescent and adult consumers, cool remains relevant for consumption of adult consumers. This is evident from the fact that all participants of the study brought own set of images of relevant cool consumptions, and explained the reasons for considering specific consumptions as cool. Cool is socially constructed and is based on evaluation by others (Belk, Tian and Paavola, 2010), and consumptions that can express one's identity can be included in cool consumption. Accordingly, participants spoke about fashion and grooming products such as shoes, clothing, hair-styling, fashion accessories, travel, furniture, interior decoration, out-of-home food consumption, and entertainment such as movies and music.

Cool identities may be explained by display of increased maturity. Adolescents try to display a mature identity through mimicking "grown up" and adult behaviour such as underage smoking, underage drinking, and sexual permissiveness (Bird and Tapp, 2008; Cullen, 2010). The collected data indicates a conscious effort of adult consumers to distance themselves from cool identities of adolescence. Consumptions that were considered cool by the cohort during adolescence were deemed unacceptable to develop and maintain the cool identities of the same cohort as adults. Stacey (name changed), 21 years, waitress, stated:
"It's interesting…. the people who were cool in high school, we still call them 'cool', but they are not cool anymore. They are the ones going out and drinking, and smoking, and getting wasted. They look like a bunch of jerks now, and to think they were cool. They sort of stopped growing-up. They look childish. Sometimes it's ridiculous how hard they (adolescents) are trying to be subversive. Cool is constructive, it's not destructive. In high-school you wanted to be grown-up. We don't want to be grown-up, but more like… be matured. Maturity includes responsibility. You can't be mature if you are not responsible." [Group 07]

The cool identities of adults need to be indicative of increased psychological maturity compared to adolescents. This results in adults critically analysing cool consumptions. Maturity in adolescents and young adults is indicated by increased in-depth exploration (Klimstra et al., 2010). The participant's (Stacey) understanding of adult cool identities demonstrate tendency of in-depth understanding of consequences. Klimstra et al. (2010) also mentions increasing stable identities as an indication of maturity, which is evident from how the participant (Stacey) explains cool identities should be appropriate. This supports findings of Warren and Campbell (2014) who explain cool to be autonomy bounded by appropriateness. They explains the appropriateness in a social context (Warren and Campbell 2014). Stacey's statement also suggests that this binding of social appropriateness is not common in adolescent cool identities, which is stated by Belk et al. (2010) as evidence of cool identity as well as maturity. Hence, adult cool identities differ from adolescent cool identities in the consideration of one's social environment, and the in-depth exploration of consequences of behaviour. The data suggest that relevance of self-expression to cool identities increase as consumers transition from adolescence to adulthood. James (name changed), 23 years, game developer, narrates the following:
"Being unique wasn't cool in high school, you'd get picked on. In high school you want to impress your peers, and not your parents. But when you are at university, you want to impress your parents and you want to impress yourself. You strive to be the best person you can be

academically, financially, but in high school you are just seeking approval of your peers. In high school there is going to be a division (of the cool and uncool), and you had to fit in. I did it, I took my mom to buy clothes that I thought others thought are cool, and tried to fit in. But after a while I became sick about trying to be cool. So after high school I didn't have to think what others would think, and I am a lot more happy." [Group 06]

The ridicule and sanction of deviant behaviour and identities in adolescents loses its effect in adult consumers, resulting in increased appreciation of self-expression. A probable explanation of this phenomenon may be found in Wooten (2006). Ridicule of deviations from group norms works as a mechanism to inform and teach adolescents about socialising, and gaining or avoiding attention (Wooten, 2006). Thus as consumers mature they develop ways to cope with negative responses that result from self-expressions. Another probable explanation can be found in the works of Klimstra et al. (2010), who suggests changes in commitment considerations with maturity of adolescents. Consumers may have decreasing consideration for commitment towards norms, and increasing appreciation of self-expression as they gain maturity. Literature on cool indicate exclusivity as a key characteristic of cool identity (Bird and Tapp, 2008; Gurrieri, 2009; Mohiuddin et al., 2016; Warren and Campbell, 2014). For consumers, this exclusivity may be gained by affiliation of exclusive sub-groups in adolescence, whereas through self-expression in adult cool identities. While marketers have historically "stolen", "hijacked", and "manipulated" cool for mainstream cool consumption by adapting elements of minority sub-cultures (Belk, Tian and Paavola, 2010, pp. 191-192; Southgate, 2003, p. 8), adult consumers perceive that the cool marketed in the mainstream market provides less options for self-expression. Adult consumers will put in considerable effort, including being evasive, to maintain the exclusivity of their cool consumptions. The following account of Carol, 26 years, accountant, is relevant.

"If a celebrity is wearing a $10,000 dress, I'm not going to be able to buy that. It's about what we can emulate. … …Cool is affordable, yeah, but not like super easy to get. You don't want some uniform. You want to look different compared to the person next to you. It's tricky… Sometimes there are new ways of integrating the older elements that were once popular… I have found shops that sell authentic and different clothes. They go to America, and come back with Aztec print clothes, that is so cool… People may not want to share much about cool. I see someone with a bag, and I say, "That is so cool, where did you get it?" And they are like (showing a reluctant shrug, and saying), "China", and don't give the details. These people, may be, know that what they are carrying is cool, and don't want to give away." [Group 02]

Adult consumers relate cool to exclusivity that results from more "democratic" and "accessible" alternatives of self-expression, which may take the form of a stylistic adaptation of an existing product, past fashion, or an element from a different culture. The exclusivity of cool is seen as different from the exclusivity of luxury by adult consumers, whereas participants agreed that adolescent consumers do not share this understanding. Katie (name changed), 23 years, interior designer, said the following on food consumption:

"A lot of people like sauerkraut to be cool, but my father has been making it for a very long time. If it's presented in a new and different way, food is cool. Average restaurants use a lot of sugar, whereas having pickles and organic vegetables in food is not that common. A lot of people have these foods from local restaurants in different areas …… and they believe that that's cool." [Group 03]

The expression of Katie indicates that adopting a cool trend is considered as less cool compared to naturally or historically owning an expression of cool identity. Such ownership of a cool expression may provide a higher status within a group that appreciates that expression of cool

identity. This indicates that exclusivity influences status within a social group that in itself is countercultural or deviates from norm. The practice of ridicule in adolescents as explained by Wooten (2006), and analysis of data thus posit self-expression versus group norm conformity as another difference between adolescent and adult cool identity. As cool identities are dependent on others' evaluation, peer influence plays a role in defining cool expressions. Adolescents can access a limited number of peers in school and elsewhere, and consequently relate to the commoditised cool identified by Belk, Tian and Paavola (2010). On the other hand, the greater social exposure of adults may allow adults to adopt the more authentic self-expressions without receiving social sanction. Adolescent consumers are likely to respond to marketing that commoditises cool, but adult consumers try to avoid the same. In an increasingly globalised market of commoditised cool, it is increasingly difficult to deviate from norms. A need to distance from cool identities of adolescents further limits the options for exclusive cool identities in adults. This enhances the adult consumers' need to protect their cool expressions from others, and requires them to engage more with the concept of evasiveness. Adult consumers' strategies for deviating from norm include adapting elements of minority sub-cultures or foreign cultures, and pastiche. The increased financial and social freedom experienced by adults compared to adolescents mean that adult consumers are able to seek out cool consumptions that are not available to adolescents. This provides opportunity for adult consumers to create distance from adolescent cool identities. For example, adult consumers' cool consumption include less-known restaurants from outside locality that offer deviation from norms in food. The findings and discussions in this paper suggest that the distancing of cool identities and consumptions of adults from that of adolescents align with the fragmentation of market explained in CCT literature on market emergence.

Limitations
A major limitation of the study is using focus group discussions to understand a socially constructed concept, when the participants themselves may be trying to be cool in the presence of others. The researchers adopted this method after trialling a few depth interviews, which was found to counter the objective of understanding market perceptions. The trial depth interviews revealed that the abstract social construct needed to be explained to a large extent prior to eliciting relevant responses, amounting to somewhat dictating the participants. Future studies may use follow-up depth interviews of individual participants after conducting focus groups to overcome this limitation. This will also likely provide more in-depth understanding of cool ideology while avoiding dictating participants. Another methodological limitation was the use of retrospective data to differentiate adolescent cool constructions from mature cool constructions. The researchers focused on young adults and avoided minors as they felt obliged, but unprepared, to counsel underage consumers who may feel pressure in focus groups. Arranging psychological counselling for minors during participation may allow to overcome this limitation.

Conclusion
This paper suggests adult consumers engage differently with cool identities and relevant consumption compared to adolescent consumers, and indicate the fragmentation of the cooldriven market based on CCT literature. It is expected that research to focus on these phenomena will receive attention as it outlines a gap in Marketing literature that has practical implications. Adolescent consumers engage with cool identities based on acceptance of peer-groups that can be addressed with coolhunting practices and the commoditisation of cool. Adult consumers engage with cool identities that democratically offer the option of self-expression, requiring a marketer to consider launching a larger range of limited edition offerings with

customisation options. The paper also suggests a cool-driven market segment may consciously distance itself from another segment. Thus more globalisation and commoditisation of cool identities in marketing may fail to elicit the desired outcome from specific segments of interest, requiring mutually exclusive marketing strategies.

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Value Co-Creation in Retail: A Perspective Integrating Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) and Service Dominant Logic of Marketing

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Abstract

This paper sets the stage for the exploration of value co-creation process in retail sector by integrating Service Dominant Logic of Marketing (SD) and Consumer Culture Theory (CCT). SD logic is widely accepted, critiqued, extended and merged with other disciplines worldwide. Essential to this logic, is the concept of value co-creation that defines the overall purpose of marketing interactions and relationships. SD logic gives a framework of actions and reactions of actors collaborating during resource integration with the aim of creating experiences. CCT, on the other hand, offers a more in-depth understanding of cultural aspects of experience. CCT excavates deep to know how customers allocate economic, social and cultural capital resources between competing goods and services. This paper develops the argument by reviewing and integrating SD logic, CCT and value co-creation literature. Furthermore, the relevance and suitability of retail sector is also discussed.

Key Words: Service Dominant Logic, Consumer Culture Theory, Value Co-Creation, Retail

Track: Consumer Culture Theory

Introduction
The Service Dominant (SD) logic is a new way of looking at social and economic world with the focal point of value propositions. It is a major shift from routine microeconomics point of view of the Goods Dominant (GD) logic that accentuates manufacturing. SD logic shift itself from "value-in-exchange" concept dominated by Goods, to the concept of "value-in-use/context", resulting in co-creation of value. SD logic shifts from "value distribution" concept to the "value creation" concept. The experiences are incorporated into SD logic by focusing on "experiential nature" of value by changing the paradigm from production to outcomes and how those outcomes are contextually and exclusively perceived and experienced by individuals.

Value co-creation is joint, common and harmonized peer like process producing new value, ideally and considerably. Customers co-creating value through interactions with the provider is the generalized concept of value co-creation. Managers do not comprehend completely the intensity and diversity of culture of co-creation. Creating things is not the idea behind "creation," in reality it is about interpreting and making sense, as "meaning" is always co-created.

Consumer Culture Theory offers a more in-depth understanding of cultural aspects of experience. When marketer and customer interact, they end up extracting value. One of the main focal point in CCT research is "Marketplace culture." "Relationships" in marketing emerge as interaction among marketer resources and grounded norms and cultural aspects of behavior. CCT research "operant factors" focuses on different problematic domains and discover the understanding of "what customer is?" and "what customer does?" CCT digs deep to know how customers allocate **economic**, **social** and **cultural** capital resources between competing goods and services and how to use them to enhance their experiences.

Service Dominant (SD) Logic of Marketing
In SD logic marketing theory has changed its primal focus from tangibles to intangibles, from manufacturer of goods to customers as co-manufacturers (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). SD logic is the new way of looking at financial and social world (Vargo & Lusch, 2011) with main emphasis on value propositions (Kowalkowski, 2011); (Ng & Smith, 2012), which is way apart from customary microeconomics view of product focused (Vargo & Lusch, 2008a, 2008b). According to SD logic, goods act as mean for service option than as ultimate end in itself.

Service experience co-creation is further used in SD logic is enhanced to actual service interactions and considers those interactions as direct and indirect in value co-creation context (Helkkula, Kelleher, & Pihlström, 2012). Attuned to this change, the SD logic endorses a balanced view in which value is measured as somewhat co-created in combined interface among financially viable actors (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2008, 2011). This substitute's view over value creation where provider creates value on their own, utilized by customers.

Vargo & Lusch (2011) proposed a word of "actors" versus "producers" and "customers. "All players were basically co-creating value through resource integrations and combined service swap, moving in the direction of networks to one service ecosystems? Linking SD logic with new experience; organization- norms, rules, symbols, and meanings which serve as interconnected phenomenon for value creation, as well as, holistic evaluation tool (Lusch and Vargo, 2014).

Scholars from all parts of the world took part in the SD logic from different disciplines, helping SD logic in its explanation, extension and comprehension. (Lusch & Vargo, 2014) reduced the ten foundational premises (FPs) proposed in (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2008b) to four axioms from which remaining six FPs could be derived, providing more far sighted frame work. These modification resulted in "value-in-use" to "value-in-context" (Chandler & Vargo, 2011) and its intensification to include "value-in-social-context" (Edvardsson, Skålén, & Tronvoll, 2012), and value proposition (Vargo & Lusch, 2014). From SD logic "ecosystems" perspective it is suggested to add on additional premise and axiom: FP11/A5: "Value co-creation is coordinated through actor-generated institutions and institutional arrangements."(Vargo & Lusch, 2016) and is explained in below table along with other axioms.

Axiom	Description
Axiom 1/FP1	Service is the fundamental basis of exchange.
Axiom 2/FP6	Value is co-created by multiple actors, always including the beneficiary.
Axiom 3/FP9	All social and economic actors are resource integrators.
Axiom 4/FP10	Value is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary.
Axiom 5/FP11	Value co-creation is coordinated through actor-generated institutions and institutional arrangements.

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Value Co-Creation
According to American marketing association (AMA) the definition of marketing is "all about the process of value creation: for customers, for firms, for society, for networks, and for stakeholders." According to (Zeithaml, 1988) there are four basic definitions of value in literature: i) Value is determined by price, ii) Value is the swap between cost and benefit, iii) Value is quality versus price paid and iv) Value consists of "give" (personal, physical, social and cultural aspects) and "get" portions (convenience, quality and prestige).

According to (Grönroos & Voima, 2013) it is the customer who uses value generation process and value is not shaped by the provider. As (Wieland, Koskela-Huotari, & Vargo, 2015) highlighted that economics and business economics literature was over powered by "value-in-exchange" concept, resulting overshadowing value creation concept.

Co-creation has a solid background which goes back to twentieth century. Mary Parker Follett discussed the co-creation concept in 1925 (Gould, 1995). Co-creation concept was embedded in many business-to-business situations and the management writer (Ind & Coates, 2013) pinpoints different strings and highlights new ventures in co-creation in participatory design, literary theory, open source movement, joint innovation and psycho treatment.
Co-creation is referred as joint creation of offerings in modern day marketing literature (Hoyer, Chandy, Dorotic, Krafft, & Singh, 2010) or value (Edvardsson, et al., 2012); (Vargo, 2008), classically understood as happening through interchange and interaction of resources (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014). Only actors integrating can affect the customer's value creation not the service provider (Grönroos & Gummerus, 2014).
In value co-creation system actors engage in dialog with the aim of "improving self-situations." This system consists of multiple processes such as "resources integration" among actors to co-create consequences through give-and-take joint dialog, value identification and value estimation. Enhanced outcome is acknowledged through "increase in resources", "actor's satisfaction", "successful service delivery" and lengthy durable partnerships (Rashid, 2015).

Consumer Culture Theory

The vibrant association between customer actions, the marketplace and cultural meanings are addressed in the Consumer Culture Theory (CCT). CCT deals with multiple diverse research approaches and goals. Researchers interested in CCT area are actually looking at the cultural complexity (Arnould & Thompson, 2005).

According to (Kozinets, 2001) "consumer culture" is interlinked system of "objects, texts and images" that people use. People construct through contradicting and even overlapping "observations, uniqueness and connotations". This will help them to incorporate their people experiences and lives in more holistic way. In special roles and situations these meanings are personified and negotiated by customers. CCT presents culture as the main core of "action, meanings and experience" (Geertz, 1983).

According to (Arnould & Thompson, 2005), CCT research developed and advanced through experiential studies examination resulting "consumer culture" are transformed, sustained, constituted and shaped by culture ideologies, myths and narratives which are rooted in social and economic conditions and marketplace (Arnould & Thompson, 2005).

CCT is consumer centered theory will look into how customers assign "social, economic and cultural capital" resources between rival goods to enhance their experiences. This theory based advancement could move in the development of creating "**theory of customer value co-creation**" (Vargo & Lusch, 2016).

Integration of SD Logic and CCT
The research conducted on CCT gives a viewpoint of markets that focuses the cultural richness of the background that surrounds know-how and experience. Contrary to that, SD Logic emphases on the integration and use of diversity of quantified and un-quantified resources within vibrant systems of actors that under rates the social and relational oriented background (Chandler & Vargo, 2011); (Edvardsson, et al., 2012).

Theoretically, CCT and SD logic integration is the first step towards discovering enhanced concept of experience. Experiences that form in CCT context focuses on "cultural richness" whereas, SD logic encompassing "ecosystem" enhances value creation and value to several point of views (Vargo & Lusch, 2011).

The integration of SD logic and CCT limelight's the value creation synergy in multiple points of view affects continuous evolution as well as revolution of any particular experience. Associations in organization are knitted in vast level of organizations and their integration. The multiple knitted layers are constantly co-created during actions and exchange of many players acting and reacting to positive as well as negative assessments of reassessments of experiences (Chandler & Vargo, 2011).

Co-creation of value in cultural context research can probably precede the comprehension of value as "cultural meanings" and different norms and ritual really affect the manner in which a person assesses the experiences. Researchers will be interested to know about how people choices change with the passage of time in broader "cultural context." This will give researcher additional input in co-creation of value in "cultural context" (Elina Jaakkola, Dr Leena Aarikka-Stenroos, Akaka, Vargo, & Schau, 2015).

Further research is required to enhance the searching of resources, associations and value co-creation, amongst diverse actors like customers and organizations. Involving experiential research, one can interrogate multiple points of view of related experiences. One can also look at how the formation of context experience can be influenced by the organization integration.

For the people in actual field like managers and academicians, it is very important to understand the single experience along with social and "cultural context" to know how the experiences happen (Elina Jaakkola, Dr Leena Aarikka-Stenroos, Akaka, et al., 2015).

Retailer as an Integrator
According to (Lusch, Vargo, & O'Brien, 2007) the retailer is usually in the best position to become the key integrator. Due to integration role, the traditional distributor role of retailer changes and retailer becomes the curtail bond in network value. It has been noted that retailer has quite a control and power over "customer experience," thus using SD logic it could be utilized to co-create customer experiences.

In SD logic, the retailer is the main component of a value network. It includes all actors like the "customer" involved in value co-creation. The retailer is mainly different from other network actors by the fact that his integration with the customer is direct. An SD oriented retailer would view the all the population in surrounding, as store of resources to join forces with to not only help the surrounding population but to give the retailer added competitive advantage (Vargo & Lusch, 2008b). SD logic puts retailing as "service-integration" function as oppose to the traditional concept of retailer as a final link in supply chain.

According to (Saarijärvi, Kannan, & Kuusela, 2013) the value co-creation viewpoint, in line with the other value co-creation examples, there is a change in the traditional role of the retailer (provider of goods) and the customer (provider of money) to joint co-creator of value. In addition, customers become part of resource integration with their presence in interactive situation like physical or virtual retailer (Nilsson & Ballantyne, 2014). Empirical studies specially using case study or field research to explore relations are hardly any, especially in the retail sector (Yu & Ramanathan, 2012).

Conclusion
Academic community worldwide is involved in new, exciting and innovating empirical studies to extend SD logic and value co-creation. However, there is a need to understand; how culture plays a role in the co-creation of a retail experience? There are empirical studies available from consumer behavior and consumer psychology perspective in the retail sector; but there are limited numbers of studies available to understand the customer and the retailer resource integration process encompassing SD logic, value co-creation and CCT. By identifying the types of relationship dimensions that emerge after resource integration and the role actors play in joint experience, an all-encompassing and detailed framework of value co-creation can be developed.

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Social Influence in the Anti-Vaccine Movement

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Abstract
Public opinion about vaccinations has shifted from broad acceptance to common concern regarding safety and efficacy. The choice to vaccinate has been associated with the belief that trusted individuals around you are also getting vaccinated. Utilizing the Theory of Normative Social Behavior (TNSB) as a framework, this research seeks to investigate normative influence on future vaccination intentions. Results indicate that perceptions regarding the prevalence of abstaining or delaying vaccinations among close friends/relatives and the general trend of the public influence vaccination intentions. Additionally, outcome expectations regarding the child and others, as well as injunctive norms influence intentions. Lastly, the results suggest that both the expected outcomes for the child and the public moderate the effect of the perceptions of the prevalence of abstaining/delaying vaccinations among close friends/relatives on intentions. In light of these results, theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: Norms, Anti-vaccine, Social influence, Theory of Normative Social Behaviour

Track: Cross Disciplinary Impact of Marketing

Conceptualising Brand Charisma

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Abstract

Charisma has three main definitions being from the supernatural to secular sense; as the main distinction that charisma creates order through mastery and representation, which exists on a continuum with the use of symbols. Brand Charisma is the additional quality that luxury brands have and are shaped to a certain degree by cultural and historical heritage, assembled and diffused to reflect the way a brand speaks, moves and interacts with followers. The conceptualisation of brand charisma will be extending from extensive research undertaken in sociology, psychology and marketing and bring together a wide array of literature and theory into luxury branding context. This preliminary exploratory phase seeks to qualitatively define and explore brand charisma. This research adds value by making significant contributions to current theory, holds managerial implications for policymakers and brand managers in shaping and communicating brand charisma; additionally to develop a research framework and scale to measure brand charisma.

Keywords: Charisma, Branding, Brand Charisma, Luxury Branding

Track: Cross Disciplinary in Marketing

The Role of Partner 'Fit' in Outsourcing Services: A Consumer Perspective

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Abstract
This study examines the role of perceived fit between focal firms and outsourcing partners in the context of service outsourcing from a consumer's perspective. Built from categorisation theory, this study proposes a construct called "perceived fit of service outsourcing" that captures consumers' evaluation of service outsourcing between focal firms and outsourcing partners. The results of both a qualitative and quantitative study confirmed that perceived fit is made up of cultural similarity between the focal firms and outsourcing partners, corporate reputation, experience of the partner, and latest technology owned by the partner as the four most important characteristics that result in different perceptions of outsourcing fit. The findings of these studies show that perceived fit is a robust measure that can capture differing levels of perceived fit between focal firms and outsourcing partners. The resultant construct serves as an important measurement for future research on consumer perceptions of outsourcing.

Key Words: Service Outsourcing; Perceived Fit; Categorisation Theory; Inference Theory

Track: Cross Disciplinary Impact of Marketing

Perspectives of Righteous Marketing Value – A New Construct

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Abstract
Ethical behavior is increasingly becoming an integral part of business and marketing. Nonetheless, in many instances organizations fail to comply with certain ethical standards in relation to marketing practices. This is primarily due to a dogmatic and fragmented approach in many cases. A simpler, practical and an integrated approach make marketing ethics easy to understand and, better still, effectively practiced. This conceptual paper proposes a simple but practical approach to marketing ethics based on the utilitarian philosophy propagated by Peter Singer (2006). The paper calls this new ethical value dimension in marketing as Righteous Marketing Value (RMV). We propose an Integrated Righteous Marketing Value (IRMV) framework that integrates righteous marketing value with customer value and shareholder value. The paper concludes that a simple comprehensive approach such as RMV would help inspire thinking in lines of marketing ethics and ethical value integration with other values created by marketing.

Key words: Marketing Ethics, Righteous Marketing Value, Preference Utilitarianism, Integrated Righteous Marketing Values

Track: Cross Disciplinary Impact of Marketing

Market Orientation and Firm Performance: The Mediating Role of Management Accounting Systems

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Abstract

Drawing upon the resource-based view (RBV), the knowledge-based view (RBV) and the contingency theory, we evaluated the impact of market orientation and competitive intensity on the use of management accounting systems information (MAS). Findings from a sample of 171 large sized firms in a transitional economy show that (1) the use of MAS information (in terms of broad scope, timeliness, aggregation and integration) mediates the relationship between market orientation and firm performance and (2) the influence of market orientation on the use of MAS information is strengthened with competitive intensity. From these findings, we proposed theoretical and managerial implications regarding designing and implementing MAS information in market-oriented firms in transitional economies.

Key words: Market orientation, competitive intensity, management accounting systems.

Track: Cross Disciplinary Impact of Marketing

Introduction

Since the 1990s, there has been an increasing trend in marketing studies on the well recognised relationship between market orientation (MO) and firm performance (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Narver and Slater, 1990). An important stream of MO research is explicating the modus operandi through which MO contributes to firm performance. The extant literature has primarily studied customer- and innovation-related mechanisms as process variables that mediate the relationship between MO and firm performance (e.g. Deshpandé and Farley, 2004; Kirca et al., 2005; O'Cass and Ngo, 2012; Slater and Narver, 1994). Surprisingly, there exists no research on accounting-related mechanisms that drive the implementation of MO and mediate its impact on firm performance (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Slater and Narver, 1994). Research in management accounting literature has shown that the design of management accounting systems (MAS), consisting of *broad scope, timeliness, aggregation and integration* (Chenhall and Morris, 1986), is a key driver of firm performance (e.g. Agbejule, 2005; Chia, 1995). However, the question of whether MAS connects MO to firm performance remained unanswered. Moreover, the influence of competitive intensity on the use of MAS had been of concern since the 1990s (Bromwich, 1990; Mia and Clarke, 1999). However, the relationships between competitive intensity and MO on the use of MAS towards enhancing firm performance have not been investigated.

In the current paper, we proposed two research questions to address these gaps. First, how do market-oriented firms use MAS to enhance firm performance? Second, what is the role of competitive intensity in the MO-MAS link? We answered these questions by developing and testing a model integrating MO, MAS and competitive intensity to explain firm performance using data from 171 large sized firms in a transitional economy. The remains of the paper is organised as follows. Firstly, drawing on resource-based view and knowledge-based view we added the use of MAS as a pathway between MO and firm performance. Secondly, based on the contingency theory, we included competitive intensity as a contingent factor in the MO-MAS path of theoretical model. Thirdly, we presented the research design and reported the analyses and findings.

Theoretical background and hypotheses

Market orientation refers the orientation of a firm (in terms of customer orientation, competitor orientation and interfunctional coordination) towards creating superior value for its customers (Narver and Slater, 1990). In market-oriented firms, MAS processes provides more *broad scope* information (including both financial and non-financial information). Firms need both financial information (e.g. customer revenues, customer costs and customer profitability) and non-financial information regarding the customer value creating processes (e.g. customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, as well as antecedents of those performance measures). Firms with a high level of MO have a relatively strong external orientation (Guilding and McManus, 2002). For example, firms with a high level of customer orientation are more likely to develop and use MAS (*broad scope* and *timeliness)* information regarding customers' preferences and behaviours to customise or develop products and create superior value for customers more effectively than competitors. In addition, a competitor orientation clearly requires the use of MAS developed as part of a customer orientation thus enabling a competitor-cost comparison to be undertaken at the same (product) level.

The hypothesised relationship between MAS and firm performance can be explained via the resource based view (RBV) (Peteraf, 1993; Wernerfelt, 1984). The RBV refers to competitive advantage obtained through a firm's ability to accumulate resources and capabilities that satisfy the VRIN conditions (*Valuable, Rare, Inimitable, and Nonsubstitutable)* (Dyer and Singh, 1998). We argued that MAS is a strategic resource meets the VRIN conditions. MAS can

disseminate products/services, finance and market information across functional boundaries within the firm so that this information can be processed and converted into knowledge via learning. According to the knowledge-based theory, knowledge is a *valuable* resource which can result in competitive advantage and superior performance (Grant, 1996). In addition, MAS is designed to meet different needs of different firms. The contingency theory presumes that there is no best way to design the best MAS for all firms (Cadez and Guilding, 2008; Chenhall, 2003). The design of MAS depends on numerous contingent factors (e.g. structure, environmental uncertainty, competitive intensity, technology, competitive strategy, firm size). Therefore, the configurations of MAS are firm-specific (Abdel-Kader and Luther, 2008) and are being considered as *inimitable* resources. Moreover, information from MAS can be processed and converted into knowledge to become a *unique* strategic resource for competitive advantages (Smith et al., 1996); hence, it satisfies the *rare* condition. Building upon the above arguments, we proposed the following hypothesis:

H1: MAS mediates the relationship between MO and firm performance.

Higher competition signifies a greater motivation for firms to differentiate their products/ services from those provided by competitors (Guilding and McManus, 2002; Mia and Clarke, 1999). This requires firms to use more timely and accurate cost information regarding product attributes and to monitor the costs overtime. This also results in a greater reliance on using MAS broad scope with non-financial information that can improve performance (Baines and Langfield-Smith, 2003). One can argue that market competition creates turbulence, risk and uncertainty for firms and thus market oriented firms are required to mount appropriate responses to these issues in the competitive environment via appropriate use of MAS. Under competitive pressures, a greater use of MAS enables managers to ascertain whether their firms, compared to its competitors, are offering a competitive package of product attributes to the customers at a competitive price, and thereby assisting the firm in dealing with its market competition effectively (Mia and Clarke, 1999). This means that market orientation couples with a higher level of competitive intensity can explain a higher level use of MAS. In light of the above arguments, we proposed the following hypothesis:

H2: Competitive intensity positively moderates the relationship between MO and MAS.

The proposed model and hypotheses is shown in figure 1.
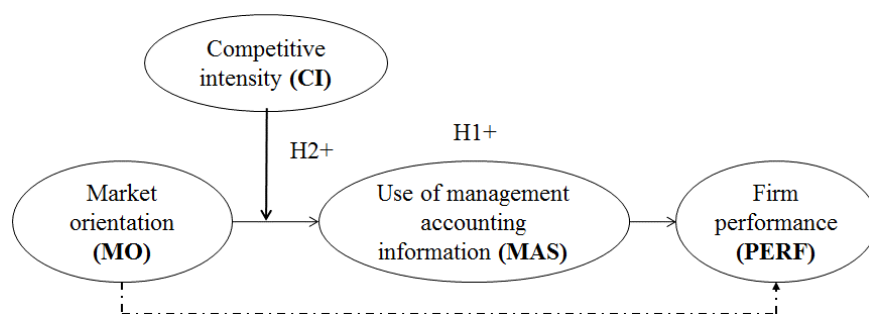
Figure 1. Proposed model and hypotheses

Research methodology

3.1. Sampling

We collected survey questionnaires from top managers (e.g. CEO, CFO, board members) and mid-level managers (e.g. head/vice head of departments, projects) in large firms in Vietnam via the SurveyMonkey tool. By emailing 3,000 potential respondents (collected from the LinkedIn professional network) with 2 follow-ups, we received 751 responses. After eliminating 153 incomplete responses, 91 responses with too short response duration (less than 5 minutes), and 346 responses from SMEs, the final sample consisted of 171 valid responses.

The final sample had 56.1% mid-level managers and 43.9% were top-manager respondents. Average tenure of the respondents of 6.8 years indicates that they had adequate experience to represent their firms to answer the survey. The sample consists of 53.2% services, 33.3% manufacturing and only 13.5% trading firms. 79% of the sampled firms had total assets of more than USD25 million. In addition, 76.0% of the sampled firms had more than 500 full-time equivalent employees. 90% of the sampled firms had more than 5 years of operation.

3.2. Measurement scales and item assessments

The scales of the main constructs were adopted from previous studies. MO was measured based on Zhou et al. (2008). Use of MAS, a second order construct (including four dimensions: broad scope, timeliness, aggregation and integration), was measured following Agbejule (2005) and Chenhall and Morris (1986). Competitive intensity was rated following Guilding and McManus (2002). Firm performance was measured based on Calantone et al. (2002). In addition, we based on Calantone et al. (2002) to include firm size (in terms of assets and number of full-time employees), years of operation and ownership structure (1: with foreign capital; 2: without foreign capital) as control variables as they may influence firm performance. The bootstrap *t*-values of all the items in the outer-measurement model are acceptable (>1.96) with loadings (0.83 – 0.95) higher than the recommended 0.5, demonstrating adequate individual item reliabilities. We evaluated the discriminant validity of all major constructs using the Heterotrait-Montrait (HTMT) ratio (Henseler et al., 2015). The HTMT ratios ranged between 0.09 and 0.89 which is significantly different from 1, providing evidence that all constructs in our model have discriminant validity. Finally, we conducted Harman's single factor analysis and the marker variable techniques and found that common method bias was not a serious issue.

Hypothesis testing results and discussion

4.1. Hypothesis testing

To test H1 - H3, we ran two models: Model 1 with MAS as a mediating variable and model 2 without MAS as a mediating variable. SmartPLS3 was employed to test the hypotheses using the following indices β, *t*-value and R^2 for each dependent variables. All the indices were computed on the basis of 500 bootstrap runs. The adjusted R^2 values of MAS and PERF were all higher than the cut-off value of 0.10, suggesting that the proposed model has a good fit to the data. Our findings show MO positively influences the use of MAS (β=0.60, *t*=9.76 – Model 1) and the use of MAS has a positive effect on firm performance (β=0.27, *t*=2.81 – Model 1), in support of H1. In addition, we found that the relationship between MO and PERF was weakened when we included MAS as a mediating variable (β reduced from 0.43 – Model 2 to 0.24 – Model 1; *t*-value reduced from 5.55 – Model 2 to 2.48 – Model 1). We also performed a Sobel test using a bootstrapped sampling distribution (*N = 1,000*) to examine the mediating role of MAS use on the relationship between MO and PERF. We found that the indirect effect of MO on firm performance is 0.13 (*p*<0.05; CI (95%): 0.04, 0.24, Sobel = 2.83 (*p*<0.01). The results show that the use of MAS partially mediates the relationship between MO and firm performance. H2 posits that competitive intensity strengthens the effect of MO on the use of MAS. This hypothesis was supported (β=0.11, *t*=1.79 – Model 1). Moreover, competitive intensity has a positive effect on the use of MAS (β=0.31, *t*=5.54).

Table 1. Structural equation parameter estimates (*t*-value)

	Dependent variable	Model 1 (with MAS as a mediating variable)				Model 2 (without MAS)	
		MAS		PERF		PERF	
		β	*t*-value	*β*	*t*-value	*β*	*t*-value
Hypothesis	*Independent variable*						
H1	MO	0.60	9.76***	0.24	2.48**	0.43	5.55***
	CI	0.31	5.54***				
H2	MO × CI	0.11	1.79*				
H1	MAS			0.27	2.81**		
	Control variable						
	Size (assets)			0.04	0.58	0.04	0.56
	Size (employees)			0.05	0.60	0.04	0.51
	Firm age			(0.08)	1.12	(0.07)	0.91
	Ownership			(0.06)	0.82	(0.09)	1.14
Adjusted *R²*		0.53		0.19		0.16	

Notes: *, **, *** denote a significance at 10%, 5% and 1% respectively (2-tailed *t*-test), MO: market orientation, CI: competitive intensity, MO × CI: the interaction term between MO and CI, MAS: Use of management accounting systems, PERF: Firm performance.

4.2. Theoretical and managerial implications

Our study has some theoretical implications. Firstly, our study provides empirical evidence on the importance of designing MAS in terms of broad scope, timeliness, aggregation and integration as proposed by Chenhall and Morris (1986), to enhance the performance of market-oriented firms in an emerging economy. In doing so, our study adds to the extant literature on the performance implication of management accounting in a market-oriented setting (Agbejule, 2005; Mia and Winata, 2014). Secondly, our findings support the resource-based view (Chenhall, 2003) and the knowledge-based view (Grant, 1996) while arguing and providing evidence that MAS is a resource that meets the VRIN conditions and can enable firms to promote learning and create knowledge for competitive advantage and superior firm performance in a competitive environment. Our findings also support the contingency theory while confirming the role of competitive intensity, an important contingent variable in our model, in explaining the use of MAS in market oriented firms. Hence, firm performance is the outcome of interactions of various factors including both internal factors (e.g. MO, MAS) and external factors (e.g. competitive intensity). Thirdly, our study adds to limited research at the marketing/accounting interface with the combination between MO (a marketing variable) and the use of MAS (an accounting variable) in our theoretical model. Our findings suggest that firms need to combine marketing strategy (via MO) and MAS to achieve superior firm performance. Our study revealed and provided evidence that MAS information is an important pathway connecting MO and firm performance, which has not been examined in previous studies. Finally, adding to limited research from emerging markets regarding the integration between strategic management accounting and marketing (Cadez and Guilding, 2008, 2012) or research at the marketing/accounting interface (Roslender and Hart, 2003; Roslender and Wilson, 2008), our study extends limited understanding of the possibility of a combination of market orientation strategy and the design MAS towards enhanced competitive advantages and firm performance.

Besides its theoretical implications, our study provides guidance to market-oriented firms to design and implement MAS towards enhanced performance. First, market oriented firms should consider the moderating role of competitive intensity on the MO-MAS link when determine the management accounting information needs to cope with competive pressures.

Second, although MO is a necessary condition for enhanced firm performance, it can be integrated with the use of MAS to form a sufficient condition for higher and superior firm performance. This is justified via the important connecting role of MAS in transforming MO to performance. Following this, market oriented firms should configure their MAS in terms of broad scope, timeliness, aggregation and integration (Chenhall and Morris, 1986) to exploit the synergy between their market orientation strategy and MAS information aiming at competivity advantage.

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An exploratory assessment of the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for use of mobile device applications and attributes by senior (65+) consumers

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Abstract

To date, there has been limited research carried out to better understand seniors' needs and purchase motivations related to mobile devices. To that end, this research enabled an exploratory assessment of the intrinsic and extrinsic needs/motives to consider in future research and development of ubiquitous mobile devices and related applications, specifically for the senior segment. The 65+ population is expected to double by 2025 (WHO, 2013) from 390 million to 800 million. Our results demonstrate specific needs/motives which should be considered during the development of new mobile attributes and apps for this segment. For both attributes and apps, three tiers of priority for development were determined.

Keywords: Senior consumers, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, mobile devices, applications
Track: Cross Disciplinary Impact of Marketing

Introduction

Since Apple launched its 'App Store' in 2008, the revenues from mobile applications ('apps') has risen to a total of 2.155 billion USD in 2010 (Simonite, 2011) and these were expected to grow to between 100 (Layton, 2015) and 185 billion US dollars (Gurtner et al., 2014) in 2015. This industry provides a massive infrastructure for responding to various customers' needs. Yet, surprisingly little has been done to date by the mobile industry to address the different needs of the variety of potential customer segments it serves. One specific group, which we believe offers such an opportunity, is that comprized of 'senior' (65+) consumers.

The global population of seniors (65+) is predicted to increase by almost 50% by 2025 (World Health Organization, 2013). Despite the added limitations that come with the aging process (Saracchini et al., 2015), more than 90% of Canadians 65+ live autonomously in their communities and wish to remain that way for as long as possible. Research in the field of gerontology shows overwhelming evidence of the various positive economic and social outcomes associated with social activity, independence and aging well. 'Active aging' has its benefits (Reid, 2014). Mobile devices and their related applications can also provide important support mechanisms for seniors, thereby reducing social network dependence and improving their security (Ni et al., 2015). Seniors are also a high category of growing users of the Internet and mobile devices (nearly four times higher in 2007 than in 2000). In the U.S., alone, the smartphone penetration rate attributed to this group in 2013 was 18% (Deloitte Touche Tohmatsu Ltd, 2014). Based on this growth, the senior segment is quickly becoming an important, promising market, however, it is still underrepresented in terms of focus from the industry (Gurtner et al., 2014). There needs to be a focus on seniors' perceptions of mobile applications and how to educate and help the segment to learn more about how to use them. Inherently, increasing numbers of seniors will require social applications allowing them to better communicate and become active participants in our digital society (Luna-Garcia et al., 2015). As such, our research aims at uncovering the interests of seniors regarding mobile devices and the applications installed on them.

Literature Review

The technology literature dealing with mobile devices clearly shows that, until now, with the exception of some health and accessibility services (Páez & al., 2011 *in* Luna-Garcia et al., 2015), most mobile applications, have not taken account of senior's needs during the design process. This, in turn, has resulted in many interfaces that are not suitable for seniors, and a bias toward younger users and state-of-the-art features (Arfaa and Wang, 2014 *in* Luna-Garcia et al., 2015). Similarly, there is much research focused on technology aspects such as sensor design, monitoring techniques, machine learning algorithms, reasoning approaches. The fundamental issues of activity context and information representation have not received enough attention related to seniors' needs (Ni et al., 2015).

Recent research has applied the theory of 'Uses and Gratifications' (U&G) to understand individuals' motives for using new technologies (Papacharissi, 2010 in Magsamen-Conrad & al., 2015). U&G theory is based on the assumption that individuals chose a specific technology to satisfy their needs and wants in combination with social, psychological and media factors. Other scholars have specifically focused on using a QoL (Quality of life) approach (Plaza et al., 2011; Schulz et al., 2013) to examine how new technologies affect seniors' QoL. Other researchers use the framework developed for the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) (e.g., Mallenius et al., 2007; Van Biljon & Renaud, 2009) and its extensions (e.g., TAM3 and UTAUT, Petrovcic et al., 2015) and have applied it to the context of the adoption of mobile phones, but not with seniors. Another stream of research, stemming from marketing &

innovation theory, has examined other factors that affect the diffusion process such as the attributes of innovation (beginning with Rogers, 1962), word-of-mouth (Dichter, 1966) activities and economic considerations (Ferreira & Lee, 2014). Other studies, yet, look at usability problems such as those related to the shape or design of the devices or complexity of the interfaces (Petrovcic et al., 2015).

All-in-all, limited work has been carried out related to the specific perceptions and attitudes held by seniors related to mobile attributes and applications of the devices currently on the market. Given this, our interest was to create a framework for this research, building on the retailing literature, which studies the motivations and interests driving consumer shopping behaviours. This literature suggests that consumers shop for reasons going beyond provisioning needs (Miller et al., 1998). These take the level of understanding a further step from the U&G, QoL, TAM and diffusion studies. As such, we examined the shopping typologies developed in the retailing literature to synthesize motivational differences by consumer type focused on social motivations, economic factors or shopper orientation based on primary interests (Angell, 2012; Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Megicks et al, 2008; Stone, 1954; Westbrook and Black, 1985; Williams et al., 1978). In more recent years, these have been considered using a framework that divides these factors into two: extrinsic (i.e., functional needs as a means to an end) and intrinsic factors (i.e., non-functional needs) (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Consumers with intrinsic motives are seeking to derive richer, fuller experiences from activity.

Reid et al (2005) used the following typology in recent research specific to senior shoppers: the 'functionalist' has specific shopping objectives and wants to get in and out of the store as quickly as possible; the 'social shopper' is primarily motivated by socializing during shopping; and the 'experiential shopper' who is primarily motivated by how they feel during their experience with promotions, products and the store's environment. This study revealed that both social and functional shoppers show lower adoption of such mobile devices than their experiential counterparts. However, adoption of such devices and related apps might be encouraged through service simplification, lowering of price and education/training (Reid et al, 2015).

The selection process for acquiring mobile applications and attributes can be assumed to be similar to the shopping motives that emerge in a regular shopping experience. As with retailing, some consumers will be looking to fulfil their extrinsic needs and/or their intrinsic needs depending on their mobile device adoption profile. Yet, to be useful, mobile technologies must, from the start, be designed according to the characteristics of seniors (i.e. tailored to their cognitive and physical abilities) so as to address such needs and promote 'willingness-to-adopt' and use them. As such, this study contributes to the literature by identifying the interests of seniors in terms of the applications and attributes of mobile devices by utilizing an intrinsic/extrinsic motivation framework.

Propositions
To uncover the attitudes of senior people towards mobile apps, we formulated 3 propositions:
(P$_{1a-b}$): Seniors experience different motives, a) functional (e.g., price info, meal planning, reminders) and b) non-functional (e.g., social, experience) influencing their interest levels in <u>mobile applications</u>. Motives can be extrinsic (i.e., functional needs as a means to an end) or intrinsic (i.e., non-functional needs) (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Hence, P1a-b aims to investigate whether and how different motives influence the use of mobile applications by seniors.
(P$_{2a-b-c}$): Seniors experience different motives, a) functional (e.g., screen size), b) non-functional (e.g., easy to use, easy to understand) and c) value added (e.g. warranty, services),

which influence their interest levels in <u>mobile attributes</u>. As noted by Ma et al. (2015), perceived 'ease of use' impacts seniors' attitudes towards mobile devices. Ease of use is considered to be largely experiential in nature and therefore 'non-functional'. Others studies have demonstrated that 'perceived value' affects seniors' purchase behaviour intention for mobile health services (Deng et al., 2014).

(P3): There are differences, based on autonomy level, within the senior segment in relation to their interest in mobile apps and attributes. Reid et al.'s (2015) typology showed that demographic and health profiles mitigate senior's behaviour. Income, dexterity capabilities and general health showed a distinction between adoption and non-adoption of mobile devices (Reid et al., 2015). It is therefore also likely that autonomy, measured by possession of a driver's license, would be related to mobile adoption.

Research Method
The survey was pre-tested with 9 and final-tested with 103 participants (65 to 95). The questions (Likert-scaled 1-7) pertaining to 33 applications (e.g. bus schedule, weather forecast, to-do lists etc.) and questions on 34 attribute characteristics (e.g. good quality, perceived value, easy to use, easy to buy, number of keystrokes to perform an activity, etc.).

Results
Proposition 1:
(P1a-b): As proposed, we found early support for the proposition that the use of mobile applications is driven by 3 motives: social, experiential (both non-functional) and functional. The first application category related to <u>apps currently being used by seniors</u>, regroups 'Social' motive/apps (average mean = 5.24) and is part of non-functional motives. It includes applications such as contact list, social planner to stay in touch with family and friends and phone calls as a means to socialize with people. Secondly, seniors are using experiential applications that enable them to 'stay informed and amused' (average mean = 3.75) in their environment. These applications are driven by the motive of staying on top of the news, reminders for activities, weather forecast, daily routine planner and having social function suggestions and access to music. This second category is also part of non-functional motives. The third category corresponds to functional or 'practical' motive/type of applications (average mean = 2.94). These include apps to create to-do lists, meal planners and price info. ANOVA analysis was used to validate whether these motives are statistically distinct. Results confirm social motive is statistically different from the experiential motive (p-val= .046 < α) as well as from the functional motive (p-val = .002 < α). However, the experiential motive is not significantly different from the functional motive (p-val = 1.000 > α). Further, the tabulation of the <u>apps seniors are interested in using but do not currently use</u> similarly revealed three main motivations. These include social motives (average mean = 4.30), experiential motives (average mean = 3.12) and functional motives (average mean = 2.38). The ANOVA results reveal the social motive is statistically different from the experiential motive (p-val= .044 < α) and from the functional motive (p-val = .001 < α). Though, the experiential motive did not produce a significant result to confirm its means is different from the functional motive (p-val = .415 > α).

Proposition 2:
(P2a-b-c): The second proposition seeks to uncover whether seniors have different motives that influence their interest levels when it comes to mobile phone <u>attributes</u>. The same procedure was used as with proposition 1. The frequency tabulation exercise generated three underlying motives. These encompass the 'ease of use' motive (average mean = 6.58), a 'value' motive (average mean = 6.11) and a functional motive (average mean = 5.70). Phone attributes results

showed that the primary requirements that seniors are looking for are an experience that pertains to 'easy' whether it relates to being easy to use, easy to understand, ability to start quickly, easy user guide or long battery life. The secondary phone attributes requirements were related to 'value' whether they are perceived value (benefits to costs), warranty, access to Internet or low price for services. The tertiary requirements related to 'functions' like lightweight, bright screen, not many keystrokes to perform action, large screen, large keys and solid keys. Functions required less by seniors include the following: customizable design, aesthetic design, nice colour casing, voice capabilities, physician support. The ANOVA results showed that all three motives/needs categories are distinctively different from one another. The 'ease of use' motive was significantly different from the 'value' motive (p-val= .012 < α) as well as from the 'functional' motive (p-val = .000 < α). The 'value' motive was statistically different than the 'functional' motive (p-val = .059 < α) at 90% confidence.

Proposition 3:

(P_3): There are differences within the senior segment in relation to their interest in mobile apps and attributes. The overall interest in mobile apps is related to seniors' level of autonomy (i.e. having a driver's license).We tested this by using the Chi-square test analysis. Results show that interest in mobile devices is, in fact, dependent on the level of autonomy experienced by seniors (Pearson $\chi^2 = 0.047 < \alpha$). Proposition 3 is therefore supported. It was shown that seniors who have to rely on others for their transportation care are the ones who see the greatest value in using a mobile device (std. residual = 2.1). This brings even more weight to the importance of developing mobile applications that meet seniors needs and requirements (e.g., attributes), with the purpose of helping seniors through aging well and reducing their dependence on caregivers.

Discussion and Implications

Our results show that, in terms of mobile applications desired by the seniors market, there are three key needs/motivations which have been identified (in order of their prevalence in our sample) and which conform to the shopping typology put forward by Reid et al. (2014): social, experiential and functional. Additionally, we show that there are three tiers of priority for development of the mobile device attributes. The most important priority, by far, was 'ease of use' (e.g., easy to use, easy to understand, able to start quickly). The second priority of three identified was 'value' (e.g., good quality for price, warranty, services). The third priority was a good array of 'functional' features (e.g., lightweight, bright screen, low # of keystrokes to perform an activity, solid feeling keys). Mobile device manufacturers might consider addressing these priorities, based on the sequence determined in this research.

Conclusion

Our contribution lies in adding to the scarce literature (Fernández-Ardèvol & Ivan, 2013) focused on better understanding the underlying motivations driving growing interest in mobile applications and attributes by seniors. There is a shared collective view regarding seniors and their ability and willingness to learn 'intellectually' challenging skills such as those presented in the case of using mobile devices. These perspectives may have impacted developers and companies operating in this field. This study demonstrates that seniors' interest in mobile applications is linked to their level of autonomy. This is an important finding given that 90% of seniors, estimated to reach 800 million by 2025, live independently and want to remain in their homes (World Health Organization, 2013) and ICT offers perhaps some of the largest economic and social opportunities to this segment of consumers (Llorente-Barroso et al., 2015).

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A Study of Agonistic Behaviour in Luxury Brand Consumption

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Abstract
Scarcity appeal is an important marketing strategy for the luxury brand industry. Studies have found that scarcity increases perceived attractiveness and expensiveness which lead to purchase intention. However, limited studies have examined how scarcity appeal may deter consumers to acquire the products. Therefore, this study aims to understand consumer perception towards scarce products as underpinned by the theory of agonistic behaviour from biology literature. This theory suggests that some animals choose to withdraw and seek for alternative resources instead of being aggressive and pursuing to acquire the scarce resources. Theoretically, this study extends the theory of agonistic behaviour from biology into marketing by developing a framework to explain consumer behaviour towards luxury brands. This study potentially contributes in providing insights for luxury brands managers to manage the perception of scarcity and to build marketing campaign which can encourage consumers to purchase luxury brands instead of the alternatives.

Keywords: Scarcity, agonistic behaviour, luxury brands, mimics

Track: Cross-Disciplinary Impact of Marketing

The Influence of Brand Familiarity on Luxury Car Mimics

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Abstract
The study extends the theory of mimicry from biology into marketing and branding. The study investigates the relationship between presence of mimicry, perception of luxury and product evaluation towards the mimic brand using real life luxury cars and luxury mimic car brands. In addition, the study will examine the influence of brand familiarity of both the model and mimic brand on consumer evaluation towards the mimic brand. The findings will present insights to policy makers, the model and mimic brand managers and academics.

Keywords: brand mimicry, brand familiarity, luxury brand, cars, perception of luxury

Track: Cross Disciplinary Impact of Marketing

Track 05: Digital Marketing and Social Media

How do expatriate women in the United Arab Emirates justify their eWOM product recommendations?

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Abstract

This exploratory study investigates how electronic word of mouth (eWOM) product recommendations are justified. A content analysis approach was employed to analyse data obtained from 200 threads on an online forum. 341 separate product recommendations were identified, coded, and analysed. Of these 282 contained at least one justification for the recommendation, with 57 of these containing more than one justification. 59 posts recommended a product without a justification. Around 85 per cent of the recommendations were positive with around 15 per cent of recommendations being negative. Boltanski and Thevenots' (1996; 2006) orders of worth framework was used to categorise justifications. The 'industrial' order of worth was the most frequently employed, although there was substantial variation between product categories. The exploratory study contributes to our understanding of argument quality in eWOM through establishing the key role justification plays in message framing.

Keywords: eWOM, word of mouth, social media, justification

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Introduction

In the digital and globalized age consumers have become less responsive to traditional marketing communications (e.g., King and Racherla, 2015; van den Putte 2009). Hence, it makes sense for marketers to understand how consumers receive product information from other sources. Of particular interest to both scholars and practitioners are eWOM communications (e.g., Brown, Broderick and Lee, 2007). Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004, p.39) defined eWOM as 'any positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet'. The forums that enable E-WOM such as social networks, blogs, wikis and online forums have experienced exponential growth in recent years. eWOM has global reach, is able to reach more individuals, and is accessible by anyone with an internet connection (Hennig-Thurau et al, 2004). Opinions about products posted online are trusted by around two thirds of consumers, compared to around 90 per cent of consumers who trust recommendations from people they know, with both forms of WOM more trusted than advertising (Nielsen Research, 2015). Understanding the nuances of eWOM should be of great interest to marketers.

The importance of eWOM has motivated a large number of studies into eWOM. Much of the initial research focused on the social, psychological and behavioural factors that motivate consumers to post product related information online (e.g., Dholakia, 2004). A second stream of research has investigated consumer response to eWOM, with a focus on trust (e.g., Awad and Ragowsky, 2008), credibility (e.g., Park and Lee, 2009), and other factors as predictors of consumer responses. A third stream of research focuses on factors associated with the actual eWOM message including valence (e.g., Liao et al, 2015), and the quantity of reviews (e.g., Park and Lee, 2009). Within this third stream of research there have been a number of studies that investigate argument quality generally focusing on relevance (e.g., Wang et al, 2015), and accuracy (e.g., Wixom and Todd, 2005).

This exploratory study is an attempt to improve understanding of argument quality in eWOM, and in particular how eWOM recommendations are justified. Although justification has long been acknowledged as being a critical element in the quality of an argument (van Eemeren and Grotendorst, 1984) it does not appear to have been studied in the eWOM context.

Justification

People will often feel the need to justify their behaviour as consumers. One argument is that consumers will choose the option that has the strongest justification when they are aware that they might be held to account for their decision (Montgomery, 1983). An issue with using consumer justification to explain consumer behaviour is that there are often many different justifications, which may be considered valid, available to explain any specific consumer act or decision (Simonson, 1989). If products are considered to be a bundle of attributes (Lancaster, 1966) then it is logical that many different justifications could be advanced for consuming a single product.

The traditional model of human communication suggests that the sender of a message will encode the message in a way that they hope will be decoded accurately by the receiver of a message (Laswell, 1948). In the online context, although the communication process remains the same (Tang and Guo, 2015) the message receiver lacks many visual and auditory cues that are available to receiver of offline WOM. The wording of the message is especially important when the message is robbed of inferential cues. A priori reasoning suggests that the sender of eWOM, either purposefully or intuitively, is likely to frame the message in a way that they

believe will be effective in persuading receivers of eWOM to either embrace or reject the product that is being endorsed or criticized. One way to achieve this is for the sender to add a reason or a justification to their recommendation.

French sociologists Boltanski and Thévenot (1999; 2006) argue that there are a number of different modes of legitimate evaluation that can be used to justify an opinion or an argument. Boltanski and Thévenot's (1999; 2006) '*orders of worth*' framework of justifications incorporates '*inspiration*' referring to creativity, beauty, and hedonic experience; '*domestic*' refers to a hierarchy of trust, which in a marketing context may include networks, brands and country of origin; *renown* which relates to public esteem and recognition; *civic* suggests that worth of something is due to its benefits to society as a whole; *market* justifications are focused on price; and *industrial* relates to efficiency and reliability. Boltanski and Thevenot's work has had little impact outside of France possibly because their major tome was not translated into English until 2006. However, it has received recent attention in marketing related studies in areas such as service ecosystems (Banoun, Dufour, and Andiappan, 2016), ethical consumption (Pecoraro and Uusitalo, 2014), and direct marketing via farmers markets (Kirwan, 2006). The framework has potential application when different actors may evaluate ideas, products, or actions differently.

Research Questions

This exploratory study seeks to gain insights into the role that justification plays in eWOM recommendations. An initial issue is to ascertain whether or not the communicators of eWOM actually justify their product recommendations. Prior research has established the importance of valence in eWOM (Liao et al, 2015), however, this research has not addressed whether there are differences between positive and negative eWOM recommendations and the use of justification by the eWOM communicator. If it is assumed that communicators of eWOM do justify their product recommendations it then becomes of interest how these communicators justify their eWOm product recommendations, and whether eWOM justification type is consistent across product categories. In other words, would a communicator of eWOM justify a recommendation of new car in the same way that they would justify a hair stylist?

Method

In order to address the research questions a content analysis approach was adopted. Data was collected from a forum hosted in the United Arab Emirates by www.expatwoman.com. On the day of data collection, the website's communities had 46,369 members. Given the nature of the forum it is assumed that most of the forums members are female and expatriate, although this is impossible to ascertain. The forum "Dubai and the Northern Emirates' had hosted a total of 84,024 threads. 200 threads were downloaded from the specified forum as it was the most popular on the site, allowing for the widest variance in content and opinions (Kozinets (2002). For expatriates, eWOM is an important source of product information. The move to an unfamiliar environment poses many challenges for consumers. Consumers may not know where to find familiar products and brands, may be unfamiliar with local goods and services, and may not have established offline social networks to help them acclimatize to the new environment (Gilly, 1995; Gregersen and Black 1992). A particular form of eWOM that is actively sought out by many expatriates is product opinions posted in online forums. Importantly the posters in the forum do not possess any specialist expertise, and therefore may be characteristic of 'consumers' in general, with the caveat that most are likely to be both female and expatriate.

The 200 threads were initially screened to establish whether any product recommendation was made on the thread. This left a total of 92 threads that contained at least one product recommendation. In total 341 product recommendations were identified. Each product recommendation was coded deductively based on Boltanski and Thévenots' (1999; 2006) orders of worth framework. The coding process sought to gauge how often each order of worth is used to justify product recommendations and evaluation in total and in relationship to specific product categories, and the consistency of individual posters.

Findings

92 of the 200 threads that were analysed were judged to contain at least one product recommendation. In total 341 posts were identified that contained a product recommendation that was either positive or negative. 59 posts made a product recommendation without any justification. This left 282 posts that contained a product recommendation that was justified. 57 posts contained more than one type of justification. In total there were 346 justifications for a product recommendation found in the data. Only 60 posts or around 15 per cent of posts contained negative product recommendations. Of the negative product recommendations only one was not justified in any way. In comparison 58 out of 345 positive product recommendations were not justified. This indicates that senders of eWOM are significantly more likely to justify a negative product recommendation than a positive eWOM recommendation ($X2=9.4196$, $p=002147$). Thus valence is important in predicting the likelihood of justification.

Table 1: Positive and Negative Recommendations by Justification Type

	Civic	Domestic	Industrial	Inspired	Market	Renown	None	Total
-ve	3	7	30	4	12	3	1	60
+ve	1	41	123	48	69	5	58	345
Total	4	48	153	52	81	8	59	405
% +ve	75%	85.4%	80.4%	92.3%	85.2%	62.5%	98.3	85.7%

The most common type of justification employed was industrial, accounting for around 44 per cent of justifications across all product categories. Market justifications (23.4%) was the second most frequent category of justification, followed by inspired (15%) and then domestic (13.9%). The least frequent justifications employed were renown and civic justifications that accounted for around 3.5 per cent of justifications between them.

The results reported in Table 2 suggest that there is substantial variation in the type of justification employed dependent on product type. Although the industrial order of worth was most commonly evoked overall, for certain product types other orders of worth were utilized more frequently when justifying a product recommendation. In the clothing and homewares categories the market order of worth was most frequently used. When recommending different food products the inspiration and market orders of worth predominated. In the gifts category the domestic order of worth assumed the greatest importance, and in the travel sector the inspiration order of worth was most commonly used.

Table 2: Justifications for Product Evaluation by Selected Product Categories

	Civic	Domestic	Indust.	Inspire	Market	Renown	None	#*
Restaurants	-	25%	33.3%	16.7%	16.7%	-	8.3%	12
Beauty	-	3.4%	55.2%	20.7%	20.7%	-	-	29
Clothing	-	4.5%	13.6%	27.2%	45.5%	-	9%	22
Counterfeits	9.5%	-	33.3%	4.8%	23.8%	19%	4.8%	21
Fitness	-	-	66.6%	-	8.3%	-	16.7%	12
Food	-	8.3%	16.7%	33.3%	33.3%	-	8.3%	12
Children	-	12.8%	42.5%	8.5%	14.9%	-	21.3%	47
Medical	-	17.2%	68.9%	-	-	-	13.8%	29
Parenting	18.2%	-	81.8%	-	-	-	9%	11
Schooling	-	20.8%	50%	8.3%	8.3%	8.3%	4.2%	24
Gifts	-	46.2%	-	7.7%	-	7.7%	38.5%	13
Hardware	-	6.3%	37.5%	6.3%	37.5%	-	12.5%	16
Homewares	-	13.3%	20%	13.3%	26.7%	-	26.7%	15
Real Estate	-	16.7%	45.2%	14.3%	19%	-	4.8%	41
Travel	-	3.6%	3.6%	39.3%	-	-	32.1%	28

*number of recommendations per product category

Discussion

The results of this exploratory study suggest that eWOM product recommendations are usually accompanied by a justification. In the particular context studied, a forum mainly populated by expatriate women in the United Arab Emirates, a vast majority of the eWOM product recommendations were overwhelmingly positive. In part, this can be explained as many eWOM product recommendations were made in response to requests for a recommendation made by another forum member. Virtually all negative eWOM product recommendations were justified, which may be reflective of the observation that almost all negative WOM stems from personal experience and a desire to share that experience (Richins, 1983). The data also showed that the two most commonly invoked orders of worth were the industrial and market forms. The focus on the functional quality of products (industrial) is not surprising. The lack of familiarity that many expatriates have with local goods and services, as well as a wide variance in actual quality of goods and services in Dubai, means that a premium is placed on sourcing products that are fit for purpose. The importance placed on the market order of worth reflects the importance that consumers place on price in their decision making (e.g., Völckner and Hofmann 2007; Zeithaml 1988). The lack of importance placed on the civic and renown orders of worth was somewhat surprising. The civic order of worth was most frequently employed in negative eWOM product recommendations, particularly in the context of counterfeit products where legal risks and other perceived harms were used a reason for avoiding such goods. The renown order of worth also surfaced in the context of counterfeits where several forum participants remarked on the positive responses they got from conspicuously displaying their wares.

That there was variance between different product categories in terms of justification is not surprising. Understanding how products are recommended in an organic and natural setting could help marketers to understand what is valued in respect of different product categories, and may help marketers to tailor their offers accordingly. For example, the finding in this exploratory study that the inspiration order of worth was used to justify recommendations of travel products such as hotels and/or destinations might suggest to marketers that they

emphasise ideas such as inspiration and beauty. These findings suggest that justification could be considered integral to an assessment of argument quality in eWOM.

Limitations and Future Research

An obvious weakness of this research project is that data is sourced from one website where discourse is dominated by expatriate females living in the Middle East. As such the generalizability of any results is questionable. Extending this research to cover a more representative sample of online and offline WOM would be beneficial, as would increasing the number of threads analysed. Whilst the research described in this paper helps to establish the potential usefulness of the orders of worth framework for understanding how consumers construct eWOM, it does not evaluate the effectiveness of different forms of justification on subsequent consumer choice. Future experimental research is anticipated that tests consumer reaction to different justifications and how they are moderated by factors such as the intensity of the message. Another issue with this research is that it does not fully take into account the richness and complexity of the conversations that can occur online. For example, when contemplating where to live, a reader of the expatwoman forum might be more influenced by descriptions of life for three days without air conditioning than a well justified recommendation of a housing development. In other instances a justification might be able to be inferred from the context of the conversation even when a post does not specifically contain a recommendation and/or a justification.

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Consumers' perceived benefits in peer-communication through social advertising

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Abstract
Peer-communication is a fundamental premise of social media. Social advertising, a form of online advertising, uses peer-communication to diffuse advertising messages to consumers on social media. Advertisers are realising they need to use this phenomenon if they are to see a significant return on their social advertising efforts. This study examines the influence consumer's perceived benefits had on social advertising peer-communication. Data from 393 respondents were collected through an online survey distributed to social media users in Indonesia. Findings showed social and economic benefits were significant predictors of social advertising peer-communication, although entertainment benefits were not. This study provides an extended understanding of consumer socialisation and its implications for managers wishing to develop social advertising content that improves peer-communication among consumers.

Keywords: Social advertising, social media, peer-communication, perceived benefit

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media / Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

Online advertising can deliver personalised advertising that targets consumers based on their recorded interests or historical behaviour. Such personalised advertising improves consumers' browsing experiences and increases advertising effectiveness (Goldfarb and Tucker, 2011; Yan et al., 2009). Unlike other forms of personalised online advertising that use tracking mechanisms, such as cookies, social advertising uses data from social media profiles and consumer socialisation behaviours to deliver relevant advertising to target consumers through social media (Bakshy et al., 2012). Consumer socialisation is '*the process by which young people develop consumer-related skills, knowledge, and attitudes*' (Moschis and Churchill Jr, 1978, p. 599), which suggests consumers learn about consumption-related matters by socialising with others. It can occur through peer-communication on social media, when consumers like, mention, share, or comment on social advertising. This peer-communication, which is a form of an endorsement of an advertisement to peers (Li, Lee and Lien, 2012), is often treated as a source of data by a social networking site (SNS) and is used to profile consumers and to deliver relevant advertising messages to individual consumers.

Social advertising uses consumer peer-communication and social profile data to diffuse advertising messages to consumers through the SNS (Tucker, 2012). This approach seems to be more effective and efficient than most others, as it enables peer-endorsed advertising messages to spread rapidly to relevant consumers (Li, Lee and Lien, 2012). Consumers communicate social advertising messages to their peers through the communication tools available on social media (e.g. liking, commenting, mentioning, and sharing). Previous studies suggest social media peer-communication is initiated by social influence (Wang, Yu and Wei, 2012; Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004). However, consumers may also differ in the benefits they obtain from peer-communication through social advertising (Gummerus et al., 2012). Thus, some consumers may peer-communicate through social advertising as a result of its perceived benefits; a potential antecedent that is, as yet, poorly understood.

A background to the study

This study drew on a Wang, Yu and Wei (2012) study that investigated consumer socialisation through peer-communication on social media, focusing on social influence antecedents and product attitude outcomes. From a consumer perspective, peer-communication through social advertising may be motivated by satisfying needs and gaining benefits from the behaviour itself (Gummerus et al., 2012). Thus, this study explored consumer perceived benefits of peer-communication in a social advertising context.

Consumers may socialise in social advertising contexts by discussing the content of an advertising post, communicating and discussing opinions with peers, being entertained or expecting a reward from an advertiser (Gummerus et al., 2012; Wang, Yu and Wei, 2012). In previous studies, social factors, such as tie strength and identification with the peer groups, have been examined (Wang, Yu and Wei, 2012). Here, we suggest perceived benefits may also be antecedents.

Social media peer-communication enables consumers to converse with each about, among other things, consumption-related matters ('consumption-related peer-communication'). The term '*advertising-related peer-communication*' is used to describe the types of peer-communication through social advertising in which consumers participate. Advertisers use consumers' social profiles provided by SNSs (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram) to target audiences for their advertisements. These social profiles include demographic, network,

connection, interest and behaviour data (Ganguly, 2015). The more a consumer is active, the more data is recorded (Ganguly, 2015). As advertising-related peer-communication becomes more common on social media, it is important to understand its underlying antecedents, beyond the social influence factors suggested by Wang, Yu and Wei (2012).

Perceived benefits of advertising-related peer communication
Previous research suggests consumers undertaking advertising-related peer-communication might be seeking social, economic or entertainment benefits (Gummerus et al., 2012; Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004). Social benefits are an important outcome of and motivation for engagement with online communities (Gummerus et al., 2012). Several studies have shown people's behaviour in engaging, socialising and participating in discussions about a product with peers, other consumers, producers, distributors, or even advertisers, is driven by expected social benefits (Gummerus et al., 2012; Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004). These social benefits are derived from establishing and maintaining contact with others, and include social support, friendship and intimacy (Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004)(. In other words, people's advertising-related peer-communication may be initiated as a result of their need for social support, to exchange ideas and information, to make new friends and to develop intimacy with others, suggesting:
H1: Perceived social benefits positively influence advertising-related peer-communication

Economic benefits include discounts, lucky draws and competitions (Gummerus et al., 2012). Advertisers often encourage consumers to communicate with their peers through social advertising by offering monetary benefits. Non-monetary benefits might also be anticipated, as advertising-related peer-communication can result in them receiving a more personalised advertising experience on an SNS (Ganguly, 2015). This suggests:
H2: Perceived economic benefits positively influence advertising-related   peer-communication

Entertainment benefits are gained by participation in online communities (Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004). Such benefits include the fun and relaxation experienced when interacting with others. Indeed, Gummerus et al. (2012) argued entertainment is an experiential value that a consumer acquired from their engagement in social media brand community. Thus, some consumers may use peer-communication through social advertising to satisfy their needs for fun, relaxation and entertainment. This suggests:
H3: Perceived entertainment benefits positively influence advertising-related   peer-communication

These hypotheses led to the model shown in Figure 1, which was examined in the present study in the ways that are outlined in subsequent sections.
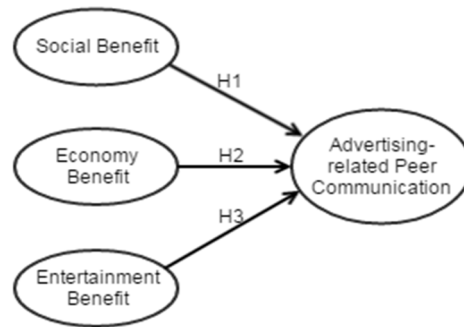
Figure 1: The Research Model

The Present Study

Data were collected from Indonesian social media users by means of an online survey that was open between October and November 2015. Respondents were social media users who had experience in peer-communication through social advertising. Social media users included people who used any of a range of SNSs, including Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, or any others the respondents named. A questioning process was used to ensure respondents had communicated through social advertising. Prior to asking these questions, three visual examples were given to show the kinds of peer-communication that could be used across several SNSs. Potential respondents were initially obtained from Telkom University's students and alumni network and from PT Telkom Indonesia employees, who were contacted through email or an SNS messaging service. A prize draw with ten shopping vouchers worth IDR 500,000 was used as an incentive. Snowball sampling was used to recruit more respondents, as it is a useful way to locate information-rich informants and drew on the peer-to-peer nature of online SNSs (Li, Lee and Lien, 2012). There were 393 usable responses, of whom 55% were female and 45% were male. A partial least square (PLS) approach was used to test the relationships. In this case, the analysis was carried out using the WarpPLS 5.0 program (Kock, 2015).

The Measures

Respondents were asked about the types of social media they used and the social advertising they often communicated with peers. These responses were used in subsequent questions about the constructs. Some background questions were also asked at the conclusion of the survey. Prior research was reviewed to identify scales that could be used to measure the model's four constructs, with some minor changes being made to take account of the present social advertising context. Gummerus et al.'s (2012) scales were used to measure the social, economic and entertainment benefits from social media brand community engagement. Advertising-related peer-communication was measured through Wang, Yu and Wei's (2012) consumption-related peer-communication scale.

The Results

Most respondents used Facebook (66%), with fewer using Instagram (20%), Twitter (6%), Google+ (3%), LinkedIn (0.5%) or Pinterest (0.3%). Four percent of respondents chose 'other social media' (i.e. YouTube (n=5), Path (n=5), Line (n=2), Weibo (n=1) and Groupon (n=1)).

Validity and reliability

All of the scales were initially evaluated for validity and reliability. All of the items were factor analysed to better understand their relationships with the various constructs. A principal

component analysis (PCA) was used in this case. Five items were excluded as they had low factor loadings (below 0.60), which left the economic benefit and social benefit constructs with three indicators.

Table 1. Measurement item factor loading

	Construct	Indicators	Mean (n=393)	Std. Dev.	Factor Loading
		Statements for Perceived Benefit began with: I engage (through like, share, comment, etc.) to <the-brand> social advertising in <social-media>…			
		Economic Benefit (Gummerus et al. 2012)			
	Q15_4	because I want to get reward	4.05	1.70	0.92
	Q15_5	because I want to participate in lucky draw	4.30	1.70	0.80
*	Q15_6	because I want to get better service	5.00	1.54	0.51
	Q15_7	because I want to get fast responses	4.44	1.62	0.66
		Entertainment Benefit (Gummerus et al. 2012)			
	Q15_8	because I want to get entertained	4.74	1.54	0.86
	Q15_9	because I want to relax	4.45	1.56	0.76
	Q15_10	because I want to pass time when I am bored	4.57	1.56	0.87
		Social Benefit (Gummerus et al. 2012)			
*	Q15_11	because I want to get to know other users	4.13	1.58	0.53
	Q15_12	because I want to help other users	4.83	1.43	0.88
*	Q15_13	because I want to feel needed by the other users	3.66	1.61	0.39
*	Q15_14	because I want to get help from other users	4.49	1.59	0.56
	Q15_15	because I want to provide information to my peers	4.99	1.43	0.87
	Q15_16	because I want to share my ideas with my peers	4.94	1.38	0.85
*	Q15_17	because I want to stay in touch with my peers	4.38	1.60	0.55
		Peer Communication (Wang, Yu and Wei 2012)			
	Q20_1	I would like to discuss about <the-brand> products or services with my peers on <social-media>	4.61	1.35	0.87
	Q20_2	I would tell my peers on <social-media> about buying <the-brand> products or services	4.68	1.37	0.88
	Q20_3	I would like to hear advice from my peers on <social-media> about <the-brand> products or services	4.92	1.33	0.85
	Q20_4	I would to receive product information from my peers on <social-media>	4.83	1.32	0.79
	Q20_5	My peers on <social-media> would encourage me to buy <the-brand> products or services	4.20	1.44	0.79
		*item is deleted due to its low loading factor			

After the deletion of the low loading items, Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) scores were computed and are shown in Table 2. All exceeded the minimum suggested 0.70 CR level, suggesting the scales were reliable and all exceeded the minimum suggested AVE score of 0.50, suggesting convergent validity can be assumed (Hair et al., 2012). Further, all of the AVE scores were greater than the highest squared correlation between any two constructs, suggesting all of the constructs had discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).   Thus, the constructs all had good measurement properties and could be used with some confidence.

Partial Least Squares Analysis
The final step of the analysis was to examine the relationships in the suggested model. As can be seen in Table 3, the three predictor variables explained 65% of the variation in advertising-related peer communication, suggesting benefits are important antecedents. Estimates of the path coefficients and their significances (p-values) can also be seen in Table 3. As the constructs VIF scores were all well below 3.3, it seems multicollinearity is not an issue and the coefficients can be examined with confidence (Kock, 2015). Interestingly, the entertainment

benefit construct was not significant and the economic benefit construct's path coefficient was considerably smaller than the social benefit construct's path coefficient, suggesting social benefits are the most important drivers of advertising-related peer communication and that advertisers need to think carefully about how to deliver such benefits.

Table 2. Reliability and validity tests

Variables (n=393)	Mean	SD	Skewness	CR	Cα	AVE	EcoB	EntB	SocB	AdComm
Economic Benefit	4.26	1.38	-0.37	0.78	0.77	0.55	0.74			
Entertainment Benefit	4.59	1.32	-0.58	0.81	0.81	0.58	0.50*	0.76		
Social Benefit	4.92	1.24	-0.86	0.85	0.85	0.66	0.42*	0.45*	0.81	
Advertising-related Peer Communication	4.65	1.14	-0.64	0.89	0.89	0.63	0.45*	0.42*	0.80*	0.79
Significant at < 0.001 level										

Table 3. PLS analysis results

Criterion	Predictors	R2	Path Coefficient	Sig	p-value	VIF
Advertising-related Peer Communication	Economic Benefit	0.65	0.12	**	0.01	1.46
	Entertainment Benefit		0.03		0.29	1.47
	Social Benefit		0.74	***	0.00	2.91
*Significant at < 0.05 level, **Significant at < 0.01 level, ***Significant at < 0.001 level*						

Discussion and Conclusion

Extending the work of Wang, Yu and Wei (2012), this study suggests people's willingness to communicate through social advertising can be explained by the perceived benefits of peer-communication. Besides the social structural antecedents suggested by Wang, Yu and Wei (2012), peer-communication about advertising can be explained by the social and economic benefits people feel they obtain, although social benefits seem more important.

It is crucial that SNSs and advertisers offer social and economic benefits through social advertising, as these stimulate consumers' peer-communication (Gummerus et al., 2012). This study extends a previous consumer socialisation study, by explaining which benefits are more significant in affecting peer-communication (Wang, Yu and Wei, 2012). As already noted, social benefits are the most influential driver. Perceived social benefits are those arising from the provision of social support, making new friends or deepening intimacy with others (Dholakia, Bagozzi and Pearo, 2004; Gummerus et al., 2012). For example, the ALS Ice Bucket Challenge is a powerful example of a successful social advertising campaign that provided social benefits. Where 'consumers' communicated with each other through the advertisements, the awareness of Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) disorder improved and donations increased (Chowdhry, 2015). Perceived economic benefits, such as seeking prizes, participation in lucky draws and the need to obtain rapid brand-related responses from peers or the advertiser, were also identified as a significant driver. Managers should offer these economic benefits if they wish to increase peer-communication around their advertising.

Future studies can build on this research by, for example, examining the role self-disclosure antecedents, such as trust or privacy concerns, play, Previous research by Wang, Yu and Wei (2012) made the link between peer-communication and product attitude, and even intention to purchase. These relationships could also be tested in the context of peer-communication through social advertising. The method used in this study was a self-report survey. There is scope for experimental research, which could use complementary and even longitudinal data to shed more light on peer-communication through social advertising. Finally, this study is

unique in that it used a developing economy sample (Indonesia). Consequently, comparative research in developed economies might be useful.

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Donate, smile and share? Exploring motivations to share online donor recognition on Facebook

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Abstract

Not-for-profit organisations (NFPs) are increasingly turning to online platforms to engage and recognise donors. However, overall sharing rates of donation activity to social networking sites (SNSs) are low. Existing research has predominantly taken an aggregated approach to understanding SNS sharing, therefore this study explored; Why do donors choose to share (or not share) donor recognition on social networking sites? To address the research question, a qualitative research design was employed using interviews (n=20) with Australian donors of blood, time and money aged 18 to 40. Overall, social norms, social risk, cause involvement, NFP advocacy and tendency for self-disclosure were identified as potential influencing factors on donors' decision to share online donor recognition. This study extends understanding around topic-specific online self-disclosure (i.e. donation activity) and firm-generated electronic word-of-mouth (i.e. online donor recognition), and provides strategic direction for solicitation efforts by NFPs to encourage donors to share online donor recognition on SNSs.

Keywords: Firm-generated eWOM, donor recognition, Facebook, self-disclosure motivations

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Sharing promotional messages on SNS websites: The role social ties, temporal distance, and message concreteness.

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Abstract
While much is known about how e-WOM impacts its receivers, considerably less is known about how consumers decide to share messages on social network services (SNS) platforms, and what may influence them as the senders of e-WOM communication. In this study, we investigate how the perceived tie strength between senders and receivers, temporal distance, and the concreteness of a promotional message may shed light on the consumer's intention to share messages on SNS. Specifically, we found that consumers are more likely to share more concrete messages with their friends rather than general public if they anticipate the purchase to occur soon. On the other hand, consumers are more likely to share more abstract messages with their friends, if they anticipate the purchase to occur in a distant future. The findings offer novel theoretical insights and managerial implications for developing SNS-based marketing strategies.

Keywords: e-WOM, SNS, senders, social tie, construal level theory

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Managing the paradox of growth in brand communities through social media.

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Abstract
The commercial benefits of online brand communities are an important focus for marketers seeking deeper engagement with increasingly elusive consumers. Managing participation in these socially bound brand conversations challenges practitioners to balance authenticity towards the community against corporate goals. This is important as social media proliferation affords communities the capacity to reach a scale well beyond their offline equivalents and to operate independently of brands. While research has identified the important elements of engagement in brand communities, less is known about how strategies required to maximise relationships in these circumstances must change with growth. Using a case study approach, we examine how a rapidly growing firm and its community have managed the challenges of a maturing relationship. We find that, in time, the community becomes self-sustaining, and a new set of marketing management strategies is required to move engagement to the next level.

Keywords: Brand community, engagement, Facebook, social media

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Introduction

Brand communities are largely imagined collectives explicitly structured around consumption that provide cognitive, emotional or material benefits to their members (Kozinets 1999; McAlexander, Schouten & Koenig 2002; Muniz & O'Guinn 2001). With the arrival of online media channels, brand communities have begun to occupy the digital space facilitated by a growing array of social platforms. The proliferation of these platforms and the fragmentation of media and audiences have significantly enhanced the value of these communities as conduits for marketers seeking access to the conversations taking place around their brands. These collectives are reorienting the power balance in the relationship between the brand and consumer and the way they interact through digital technology (Hatch & Schultz 2010; Quinton 2013).

The desire to foster these communities is, therefore, a key driver in relationship management practice (Muniz & O'Guinn 2001) but somewhat problematic for firms where growth of the community is good for business but may come at a price. Specifically, how do companies ensure that the loyalty of the brand evangelists that aided such growth can be maintained in the longer term? The paradox for many organisations is that the attainment of success often comes at the expense of engagement with the fans that made it possible (Hatch & Schultz 2010), thus making it difficult to retain the important relationships needed for continued success. The literature has yet to examine in any detail what happens when these groups become so large that they may no longer meet the needs of the firm, or the fans that once supported it (see Dessart, Veloutsou & Morgan-Thomas 2015; Wirtz et al. 2013). This exploratory study examines how social media is used to manage relationships within a brand community with the specific objective of understanding how the effects of growth of both the brand and its community alter the relationship dynamic and impact the management style. The study uses empirical data taken from the Facebook page of Australia's leading online fashion retailer collected over two separate years, two years apart. This study will, therefore, be of interest to brand managers in the development of operational strategies to balance the commercial needs of the firm for continuous growth against those of the community whose motives are generally more social and substantially more diverse.

In the following sections we present an examination of the extant literature in relation to brand communities and their characteristics followed by an outline of the methodology, data collection and analysis techniques used. In the final sections, we discuss our findings and their managerial implications before concluding with some directions for future research.

Literature Review

The literature attributes the origins of brand communities to the post-modern condition as consumers sought meaning from consumption and its inherent symbolism (Cova 1997; Firat & Venkatesh 1993) through the development of symbiotic relationships with products, brands and other consumers (McAlexander, Schouten & Koenig 2002). Later research refined this definition with a typology distinguishing online communities from consumption, brand and marketplace communities (Kim et al. 2008). Though recognised for their dynamic, often unstable nature (Kozinets 1999) they have been described as enduring phenomena bound by a shared passion (Veloutsou & Moutinho 2009) where the social links between members are of key importance. When paired with contemporary online social networking platforms, these interpersonal links can become a powerful commercial force. Their potential to foster positive word of mouth (Scarpi 2010), facilitate customer engagement (De Vries & Carlson 2014), increase brand commitment (Algesheimer, Dholakia & Herrmann 2005) and positively affect brand advocacy (Stokburger-Sauer 2010) have been the basis of a growing body of research.

The development of online brand communities, therefore, is a key focus for many firms seeking to strengthen relationships with consumers.

One branch of the strong academic interest in online brand communities has led to research examining the important elements for their successful engagement, chief amongst which include participation, intimacy and a proactive management approach. Firstly, in relation to participation, customers who contribute to brand communities develop a strong sense of obligation and commitment to the firm and as a result reciprocate the firm's relationship building efforts (Kim et al. 2008). Secondly, participation fosters intimacy and allows members to "feel a sense of proximity and brand ownership"(Ind 2014 p.737), an important element in the bonding process. And lastly, proactive social media strategies are recognised as being generally more effective but require the regular creation of content and maintenance of on-going conversations, with firms often empowering staff in the management of this persistent dialogue (Smith, Fischer & Yongjian 2012).

Despite their appeal as a low-cost solution to maintaining ties with customers (Royo-Vela & Casamassima 2011), the potential for marketers to leverage online communities to build commercial relationships using these components is, in an operational sense, dependent on the availability of resources to manage the association (i.e. time, people, money and effort). For firms starting out, this can be a more significant burden than much of the popular literature leads us to believe. Further, as companies grow, goals change and strategies are adjusted in response to a wide range of internal and external variables which can impact the development of relationships. It is somewhat surprising, therefore, that given their potential importance in the marketing mix and the dynamic nature of communities (McAlexander, Schouten & Koenig 2002) that research has yet to explore the impact of rapid company or brand community growth and the management of online brand communities.

What we know so far, is that structural elements regarding community size affect online community development, though size remains a somewhat indeterminate construct in the literature. Algesheimer et al (2005) developed a conceptual model of brand community relationships, which notably was conceived in the pre-Facebook era, and determined that in large communities members identify with the community rather than any individual members. This finding was later verified by Scarpi (2010) who also noted that community size is a moderator of relationship strength in web-based communities. We would suggest, however, that the network effect in contemporary social media settings such as Facebook places far greater pressure on firms to remain at the centre of conversation as this platform's emphasis is substantially weighted to peer-to-peer interactions. More recent research in online brand communities has determined that situational factors such as community size are moderators of engagement (Wirtz et al. 2013) which has been found to decline as the size of communities increases (Dessart, Veloutsou & Morgan-Thomas 2015). We know that the engagement of consumers is a critical success factor for firms, but that this diminishes with the growth of communities presents a problem for marketers and in this study we seek to understand how this is managed by firms.

Method
To understand how the engagement of an online brand community changes as the company grows, this exploratory study used a case study analysis to document the practices of a firm and their impact on a community of Facebook fans over a period of time. This method was chosen to permit an unobtrusive non-participant observation of the exchanges between the

players in the community in order to preserve the context of the message and is commonly applied in research of this nature (Yin 2014).

In order to diminish the impact of physical variables from the analysis and to provide temporal parameters, the researchers sought an exemplar firm whose business practices were conducted wholly on line and that had demonstrated strong growth over a relatively short period. Our search identified a Brisbane based fashion retailer, Black Milk Clothing (BMC). The fashion context was deemed an appropriate empirical setting as hedonically driven self-expressive products offer richer post consumption experiences (Carroll & Ahuvia 2006) and potentially richer dialogue. BMC was founded in 2009 and has developed a reputation for excellence in social media management (Redrup 2014) participating across 16 different platforms (Huynh 2014) with a dedicated group of followers who refer to themselves colloquially as *Sharkies*. Externally verifiable data and popular media attest to a strong growth since the brands' inception six years ago (Korporaal 2014). This growth was further verified by the researchers who collected data from the company's Facebook page for a one-month period in August 2013 and again for the month of August 2015 allowing a two-year interval between measurements. During the first phase of data capture the Facebook page had 573,975 fans, which had grown to 696,975 fans in August 2015.

The data comprised every post for each of the two data collection months both from the company and the community; a total of 2,988 posts. We also examined the comments these posts elicited from the brand community as well as the comments on comments; a total of 41,503 comments. In addition, we observed the behaviour of the organisation from a netnographic point of view regarding its social media management practices both within and outside the data collection period.

Findings

The descriptive statistics derived from the data are presented in Table 1 and show that despite a significant increase (17%) in the number of fans during the collection period, the overall level of activity declined both from the firm and the allied community. The two main points of interest here are the dramatically diminished number of posts and the decline in the volume of comments as metrics of engagement and markers of user efficacy.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics August 2013 Vs August 2015

	BMC Originated				Community Originated				Total			
	2013	2015	Var	Var %	2013	2015	Var	Var %	2013	2015	Var	Var %
Posts	195	79	116	59.5	2,443	271	2,172	88.9	2,638	350	2,288	86.7
Comments	4,148	1,875	2,273	54.8	21,471	14,009	7,462	34.8	25,619	15,884	9,735	38.0
Likes	1,321	103	1,218	92.2	209,745	80,417	129,328	61.7	211,066	80,520	130,546	61.9
Engagements	5,664	2,057	3,607	63.7	233,662	94,746	138,916	59.5	239,326	96,803	142,523	59.6
Unique Engagements	1	1	0	0	59,112	18,924	40,188	68.0	59,113	18,925	40,188	68.0
Shares	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	15,091	1,975	13,116	87

Firstly, in relation to posts, our observations revealed that BMC maintained firm control over the moderation of fan content posted on the Facebook page over the two year period. Company activity for this metric declined during the period, but the community volume decline was greater. What this tells us about the community relationships may speak more to the firm's management of resources than it does to fan commitment. To demonstrate this we turn to our analysis of the company's comments, each of which are signed by BMC staff members using their own unique moniker. This revealed that during the 2013 data collection period seven different BMC staff members were highly active on the Facebook page, answering community questions and responding to fan comments. In the 2015 data collection period, the number of staffers had reduced to three despite the increase in fan numbers. While the relationship

between declining community posts and fewer attendant staff was not specifically explored in the study and will likely form the basis of future research, we suggest that this may be an acknowledgment by the firm of a self-sustaining tipping point.

Maintaining a persistent dialogue through systematic posting activity is important (Sawhney, Verona & Prandelli 2005) as we know that this type of proactive approach yields more effective social media campaigns (Smith, Fischer & Yongjian 2012). A different story is revealed by the data in Table 2 which leads us to believe that a new momentum has emerged in 2015. This new impetus appears to be driven by the network effect generated by the users of the Facebook platform and not by the firm.

Table 2. Comparative Impact of Company Posts

	Aug-13	Aug-15
Average number of engagements generated by one post	96	282
Average number of comments generated by one post	10	45
Average number of likes generated by one post	80	230
Average number of shares generated by one post	6	6
Most comments generated by one post	1549	2472

The data suggests that the true value for the firm in the increased number of fans lies not in the measure itself but in the ability of each fan to draw in additional users from their networks. The mean number of Facebook friends in 2014 was 350, though much higher amongst the 18-29 year old age group which constitute BMC's core market (Statistica 2014). The incremental gains in the firm's fan base have led to a substantial expansion in their sphere of influence which aids the contagion of the brand message. We suggest that this accounts for the greater engagement per post in 2015 compared to 2013. Again this is supported by our analysis of the user comments posted during the second data collection phase which were primarily directed at user's networks and not at the company specifically as users tagged and forwarded comments to friends.

Discussion

So what does this mean in the context of the management of BMC's Facebook community? It would appear that the firm has reached a point in its evolution where the community has become self-sustaining and the need for the company staffers to 'stoke the furnace' of engagement has diminished. This is consistent with the literature suggesting that small communities require more control (Parmentier, 2015) as they seek to establish their brand identity. Young firms in their nascent years must focus on establishing a fan base to assist them in the dissemination of the brand and its values. Central here is the development of an intimate relationship with fans which is achieved by providing ample staff on hand to nurture the relationship creating the impression of proximity and accessibility.

BMC's focus during their primary phase of operations was directed towards establishing the company credentials and the development of the core values of the brand. The firm employed a wide range of techniques across their various social media platforms to engage the initial nucleus of dedicated fans. Multiple opportunities were provided for collaborative participation in an egalitarian setting in line with contemporary relationship management theory (Quinton 2013). It would appear that the fans who effusively evangelised the brand to recruit like-minded consumers have largely fulfilled their role. We suggest, therefore, that the organisation has now

entered a second phase of development where the community is well established allowing the firm to rely on the inherent characteristics of Facebook as a social networking domain to now promulgate the message. This is supported both by our examination of the user comments posted in August 2015 as well as our observations of the firm's operational practices during this period. This analysis identified a major expansion phase for BMC with the commencement of a dedicated US website, the opening of their first physical store in Los Angeles and the abandonment of domestic face-to-face user meet ups including an annual fan convention known as "Sharkie Con". This new strategic focus coincided with a major reorientation of the firm's brand community relationship management practice leveraging its scale to promote the dissemination of brand messages.

BMC's response to the brand community growth paradox is ongoing and initially based on a reduced proximity to the fan base. To date our observations have noted that the second phase of development has been characterised by a generally more firm centric view with a reduced emphasis on community cultivation. In addition to an apparent growth focus, several recent incidents, some which attracted negative publicity for the firm (Granshaw 2014), have revealed a less conciliatory approach to community relations, with the firm asserting its authority over users. This is something of a departure from the highly collaborative view of the community as co-owners of the brand which characterised the company's earlier social media management approach and, therefore, its success cannot yet be determined.

For marketing practitioners the implications drawn from this case centre on the firm's ability to determine the appropriate point in time to modify strategies relating to the management of their brand communities. This requires an innate connection to the community built on intimacy and proximity and a cooperative embrace of fans as partners in the brand's development. Leveraging the inherent properties of social media networks in the dissemination of communication will permit companies and their brand strategies to evolve and can be achieved through early cultivation of community attitudes towards the brand.

Conclusions and Future Research
The researchers acknowledge that the use of a single case study limits the generalisability of the findings outlined in this paper. We again point out that this is an exploratory study aimed at gathering initial evidence for the purpose of collegial discussion via the ANZMAC forum that can contribute to future theory building. With this in mind we identify two specific opportunities for research. Firstly, working with the firm to access internal corporate data as a source of triangulation. And secondly, to further explore the concept of control in online brand communities as one which will ultimately provide pragmatic solutions for marketers in the evolution of relationships with Facebook fans. Relinquishing any degree of control of a community which has been nurtured by the firm from an early stage can be a challenging and complex task and is an area about which there is little guidance in the literature. It would appear that the issue of community governance is an important factor in managing the paradox of growth in Facebook communities and therefore one which warrants further research.

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Sentiment analysis for brand-related social media conversations

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Abstract

With the wide adoption of social media, and the soaring volumes of brand-related social media conversations, manual approaches to content analysis are no longer practical. Instead, automated computational methods are now required to efficiently analyse the large volume of content data. A recent trend is to classify content according to consumers' feelings and opinions about brands by deploying content analysis techniques for sentiment classification. We argue existing techniques used in academic research and industry practice do not fit the type of data social media provides. This study compares the lexicon-based approach to sentiment analysis with computer supervised learning approach using Facebook data. Results show the two approaches are similar in accuracy but differ substantially in their classification ensembles. To rectify the differences, this study combines the two approaches and demonstrates improved outcomes.

Keywords: social media, marketing analytics, sentiment analysis, big data

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Introduction

The considerable development of social media during the last decade along with the profusion of digital channels, such as social networking sites (e.g., Facebook), microblogs (e.g., Twitter) or media sharing (e.g., Instagram), have revolutionized not only the way brands communicate with their consumers, but also the roles of consumers as they gain an important voice brand managers can no longer afford to ignore (Gensler et al., 2013). Social media gives consumers more control, information and power over the marketing processes, creating serious dilemmas and challenges for marketers (Constantinides, Romero and Boria, 2009) as well as new opportunities to tap into the unfettered Consumer Generated Content (CGC). Digital marketing is now treated as a "conversation" between businesses and consumers instead of the traditional, one-way business-to-consumers transmissions (Lusch et al., 2010).

A recent trend in the digital marketing analytics sphere is to track and analyse consumers' feelings and opinions about specific brands, products or services attributed to the CGC on social media (Hemann and Burbary, 2013). The objective is to classify the emotional valence of each CGC, typically text-based, according to some manual or automated classification method. For example, marketers can retrieve timely feedback on a new product by evaluating consumers' emotions expressed in the comments on a Facebook post or tweets with a specific hashtag related to the product. Sentiment analysis has long been conducted to find the opinions or feelings consumers about products and services using opinion polls, surveys, and focus groups (Liu, 2010). However, using these methods, participants may be unwilling to invoke or revisit emotionally charged memories (Cohen, Pham and Andrade, 2008). Furthermore, the quality of the content relies on the participants' ability to verbalise their emotions (Cooke and Buckley, 2008). Today, social media platforms are popular vehicles to study consumers on a large scale and in a natural setting (Kivran-Swaine et al., 2012). Researchers focus more on consumers' comments, reviews and complaints on social media to conduct sentiment analysis because they find them very appealing in terms of consumers' emotions due to the significant share of online conversations expressing emotions about products and brands (Jansen et al., 2009).

The creation of considerable amounts of social media conversations raises the need to develop automated tools for identifying and analysing people's emotions expressed in text (Wang et al., 2012). Automated classification of expressed emotions in social media conversations is challenging for several reasons. First, CGC content typically reflects the instant and informal nature of communication on social media (Canhoto and Padmanabhan, 2015). The content typically is free-flowing text, casual in its word and grammar usage (Tirunillai and Tellis, 2014), commonly includes abbreviations, misspellings, emoticons, emojis and often use SMS-like syntax, which current sentiment analysis methods do not adequately support. Additionally, particular platform features, like the 140 character limit for Twitter messages, impede the effectiveness of current automated sentiment analysis tools (Kiritchenko, Zhu, and Mohammad, 2014). Finally, the sheer volume of social media conversations is a significant challenge. Automated technologies turn that challenge into an opportunity by obviating the need for costly and risk-prone manual analysis, instead leveraging computerised procedures to draw insights from social media conversations.

Supported by most automated text classification tools, sentiment analysis can be used by marketers for a rapid, scalable and effective way of gauging consumer's feelings. However, Canhoto and Padmanabhan (2015) have undertaken a comparative study of automated vs. manual analysis of social media conversations. Their findings show low levels of agreement between manual and automated analysis, which is of "grave concern given the popularity of

the latter in consumer research" (Canhoto and Padmanabhan, 2015, p.1141). The fact that manual analysis performs better than the automated one is not surprising. However, it is crucial to further investigate the effectiveness of automated sentiment analysis by taking into account the two main approaches to automated sentiment analysis that exist to date. This is even more crucial to investigate as the evaluating of sentiment analysis tools on social media is challenging (Maynard and Bontcheva, 2016). The lexicon-based approach (Taboada et al., 2010) is the most widely used in the marketing research community. The approach generally relies on a dictionary of opinion words to identify and determine sentiment orientation as positive or negative. The supervised learning approach to sentiment analysis (Pang et al., 2002) is often reported to be more accurate (Chaovalit and Zhou, 2005). By using a fraction of the full data as a manually classified training dataset, the approach trains classifiers to learn by examples, thus "supervising" the classification and without relying on any prior lexicon. As each of these methods has its advantages and limitations, marketers and researchers need to carefully verify the accuracy of the classification (Brown et al., 1990) to avoid acting on inaccurate data analysis outcomes (Canhoto and Padmanabhan, 2015).

The purpose of this paper is to address three questions: 1) Are existing sentiment analysis techniques appropriate for the analysis of social media conversations? 2) To what extent do the results from the two approaches differ? 3) Does a combined approach improve the overall accuracy of the results and how? To answer these questions, we first summarise text classification methods for sentiment analysis used today on social media data. We then outline the research method and empirically evaluate the lexicon-based and supervised learning approaches using a large sample of consumer comments (CGC) on Facebook brand pages. Although results show the two approaches produce relatively similar levels of accuracy for predicting positive and negative sentiment, they produce quite different ensembles of positive and negative comments. We then demonstrate that combining the two approaches leads to better results both in terms of precision and recall of the sentiment analysis.

Sentiment analysis: a text classification problem
Text categorisation techniques are used to classify any text-based document into predefined categories reflecting the valence, emotions or topics referred to in the text. Both lexicon-based method and supervised learning approaches to sentiment analysis typically classify any given text into positive or negative sentiment according to the polarity of the content. The lexicon-based approach uses emotion words often compiled into a sentiment lexicon, also known as a sentiment dictionary. A standard lexicon like the Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC) includes such a sentiment dictionary. While different bodies of sentiment lexicon can be created for specific subject matters, sentimental words included in most lexicon-based sentiment analysis tools are not specific to a particular topic (Godbole, Srinivasaiah and Steven, 2007). Furthermore, misspellings, colloquialisms, foreign words, and abbreviations are usually not included in the used lexicon.

Since building lexicon-based text classifiers by hand is difficult and time-consuming, it is advantageous to use supervised learning methods that employ training datasets for automating data classification. The supervised learning approach typically trains sentiment classifiers using features such as unigrams or bigrams (Pang et al. 2002) by applying different learning techniques such as Naive Bayes, Maximum Entropy or Support Vector Machines. These methods need manual labelling of training examples which can be time consuming. However, limiting the size of the training dataset leads to poorer classification accuracy. The choice of which approach to use is crucial as it impacts the accuracy of the sentiment classification and

should be carefully aligned with the type of data being analysed. Most studies, however, adopt a particular approach for its convenience and ease of use with few questioning whether the sentiment classification approach is appropriate and actually "fits" the data.

Research Method
Data collection and sampling
Luxury fashion brands were considered an appropriate context for the study given the emotional value consumers attach to the fashion industry (Theng, Grant and Yap, 2013). The Fashion 2015 Digital IQ Index® from L2 Inc was used to select a sample of 83 luxury fashion brands highly active on Facebook social media platform. Facebook Graph API was used to collect all posts published and their associated CGC (comments) on the selected brands' Facebook brand pages over a 9 month period. From the initial data collected, the most relevant comments for each post, also called "top comment", were identified using the comment ranking algorithm introduced by Facebook back in 2012. The choice of top comments is crucial as it reflects not only the most meaningful comments but also the most viewed comments. Indeed, top comments are always visible under a post which means top comments are the most likely to have an impact on other consumers, and thus play a role in stimulating emotion laden brand conversations and the most likely to require content analysis for marketers to gain insights into consumers' feelings, thoughts and opinions.

Supervised learning method for sentiment analysis
RTextTools is a machine learning package in R for automatic text classification. The package includes several algorithms for ensemble classification including maximum entropy, random forests, SVM, bagging, decision tree, etc. We tested the different algorithms and chose the best performing ones: Maximum Entropy Modelling for predicting positive sentiment and the Bagging method for predicting negative sentiment. Maximum Entropy Modeling (Maxent), uses a low-memory multinomial logistic regression with support for semi-automated text classification (Jurka, 2012). Bagging (Breiman, 1996) is a "bootstrap" (Efron and Tibshirani, 1993) ensemble method that creates individuals for its ensemble by training each classifier on a random redistribution of the training dataset.

A manually classified dataset included 850 top comments, half of which was used as a training dataset and the other half reserved as a testing dataset. The training dataset was fed into the Maxent and Bagging supervised learning algorithms to train and test two classifiers, one for positive sentiment and one for negative sentiment. Each distinct word, emoji or emoticon corresponds to a feature, with the number of times a feature occurs in the document as its value. The resulting representation scheme, generated by the RTextTools package in R, is a term matrix of 221 terms from the training dataset such as "cute", "elegant", "horrible", etc., but also emojis and emoticons. Each of the trained classifiers uses a subset of those terms, automatically selected and weighted by the Maxent or the Bagging algorithms.

Lexicon-based approach to sentiment analysis
To assess the sentiment expressed in CGC content automatically without requiring manual classification of a training dataset, we used LIWC2015 (Pennebaker et al. 2015), a text analysis software that calculates the degree of use for various categories of words in text-based documents. Among those categories, LIWC supports a sentiment lexicon for positive and negative emotions. LIWC has been widely used in psychology and linguistics (Tausczik and Pennebaker, 2010). For each emotion polarity the software calculates the relative frequency with which words related to that polarity occur in a given text sample (e.g., the words "love",

"nice", or "sweet" are counted as representatives of positive emotion, while the words "hurt", "ugly", "nasty" are counted as representatives of negative emotion).

Analytics
The reserved testing dataset was used to test the two approaches of text analysis for sentiment classification and compare their results. To measure performance, the standard evaluation measures of precision (p), recall (r) and F-score (F), $F = 2 p r / (p+r)$. The F-score combines recall with precision, and is used as a single performance indicator that is high if both p and r are high and low if either p or r are low.

Findings

Table 1 summarises the performance results of the classification models. While supervised learning classification methods are claimed to be more accurate (Chaovalit and Zhou, 2005), the results show that, when aiming at maximising accuracy (highest F-score), both approaches to sentiment analysis perform similarly, though both are more accurate at classifying positive sentiment than negative. The low level of accuracy in classifying negative sentiment, below 0.5, is explained by the well-recognised limitations of automated sentiment analysis when it comes to analysing sarcasm, which is often a limitation for manual approaches too (Maynard and Greenwood, 2014). Therefore, the existing sentiment analysis techniques are appropriate for predicting positive sentiment, and limited for predicting negative sentiment, from the analysis of social media conversations.

Table 2. Comparison of comment sentiment classification approaches

	Positive sentiment				Negative sentiment			
	%	p	R	F	*%*	p	r	F
Manual classification	63.8%	1	1	1	17.6%	1	1	1
Lexicon-based approach	52.9%	0.85	0.71	0.77	46.1%	0.31	0.81	0.45
Supervised learning approach	56.2%	0.83	0.73	0.78	13.4%	0.54	0.41	0.47
Combined approaches	71.1%	0.79	0.88	0.83	52.2%	0.31	0.91	0.46

Figure 4. Venn diagrams illustrating the agreement among approaches
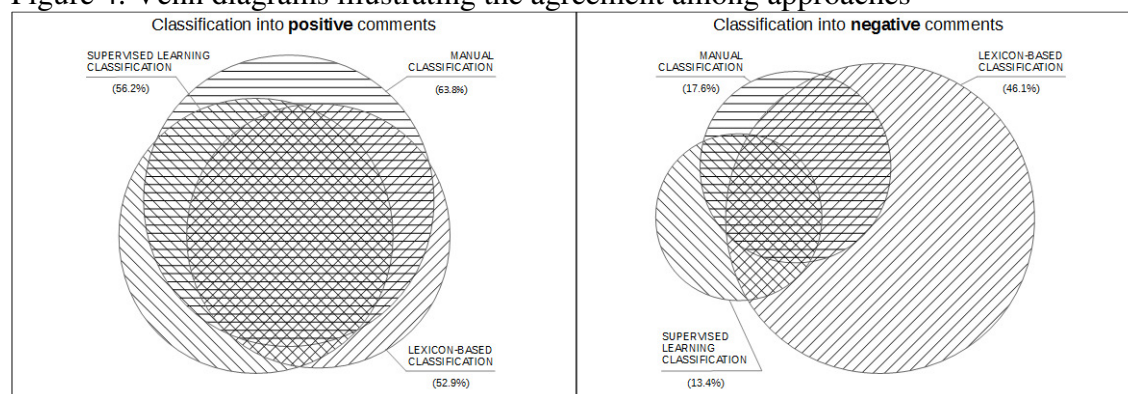
By matching manually classified comments and the automated classifications outcome, the lexicon-based and the supervised learning approaches agree on 63.6% of correctly classified positive comments and 35.3% of correctly classified negative comments, as illustrated in the Venn diagrams of figure 1. This indicates that one approach is complementing the other and that a combination of the approaches may produce a better outcome. Given the apparent

complementarity of the ensembles produced by the two approaches, a combination of the results would be a sensible way of improving the results. Table 1 shows the results of the combined approaches in which the union of the ensembles are considered. The F-score for classifying positive sentiment increased substantially, scoring 83% accuracy, but accuracy in classifying negative sentiment stayed relatively the same when using a combined approach. This indicates that, by combining the two approaches, the overall performance of sentiment classification is greatly improved for classifying positive sentiment. Furthermore, the combined approach has the merit of being simple to implement using existing tools, and combining their results.

Conclusions and implications for future research

Among the variety of data analysis methods and techniques, the use of sentiment analysis for gauging public opinion is widely adopted by companies and researchers. Marketers apply these methods without evaluating their effectiveness at classifying the emotional valence of certain social media data sources, such as conversational data in the form of comments or tweets. In this paper, we have investigated the fit between the two main sentiment analysis approaches, as well as their combination, using conversational social media data consisting of Facebook comments. To extend our study results, the combined approach needs to be applied to other kind of conversational data such as tweets and microblogs and empirically explore the potential differences in performance of sentiment analysis approaches across social media platforms. Although the fields of natural language processing, computational linguistics, and text analytics continue to mature, they arguably remain unable to match the ability of humans to take subtle aspects of the context into account and make fine distinctions when interpreting the content data (Conway, 2006) as empirically verified in this paper by the relatively low levels of accuracy for negative sentiments. For these reasons, further research is required to guide marketers on how to select and match the various text analysis approaches with the different social media data sources to generate precise and accurate outcomes.

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Text mining the expression of "brand love" in user-generated social media content.

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Abstract
The popularity of social media websites has led to an exponential growth in the volume of user-generated content (UGC). UGC represents a valuable source of consumer information for research in various areas of marketing. However, the manual analysis of UGC datasets is an overwhelming challenge because they are voluminous and unstructured. Advances in digital text mining allow us to deal with this challenge. This paper presents an exploratory study where we text mine the expression of brand love in UGC. Our findings highlight the value of UGC as a source of research data by uncovering a previously unexplored link between consumer intention to receive an extrinsic reward and the expression of brand love.

Keywords: text mining, user-generated content, brand love, latent semantic analysis.

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Introduction

The rapid growth of social media websites has changed the way people engage online, which has led to an increase in the volume of user-generated content (UGC) (Gangadharbatla; Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016). UGC is content created by people without any direct commercial purpose, and published on publically accessible websites (Wunsch-Vincent & Vickery, 2007). UGC from social media websites such as Facebook represents a valuable repository of consumer information useful for research in various areas of marketing (Eusebius, Parackal, & Gnoth, 2014). According to Arnhold (2008) a significant amount of UGC on social media is brand-related, and consumers are increasingly using these platforms to share their opinions about products (Tirunillai & Tellis, 2014). Moreover, because of the disinhibition effect, or the feeling of anonymity people have online, they tend to self-disclose more about themselves online (Suler, 2004). Compared to a pre-digital age, people are now more prone to express their opinions publically, and do so on social media, leading to what Belk (2013) refers to as the "public presentation of the self"(p.490). Consequently UGC is a rich collection of people's opinions about a wide range of subjects (Romano, 2011). Additionally, UGC is not generated by the users in response to a structured marketing research query. It is widely available, temporally disaggregate (days, hours, minutes), and represents a collective opinion, because it is an aggregation of hundreds of thousands of customer contributions (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016; Tirunillai & Tellis, 2014).

However the proliferation of UGC can also be overwhelming (Chakraborty, Pagolu, & Garla, 2014). UGC datasets are often voluminous, and in text form. Text-based UGC ignores the rules of grammar, and is rife with abbreviations and emoticons. Hence, it is considered noisy and unstructured (Boiy & Moens, 2009; Mostafa, 2013). As such, the manual examination of these datasets is impossible. However, advances in the disciplines of digital text mining, natural language processing and information retrieval has led to the emergence of software (e.g.: SAS® Enterprise Miner™ 12.3) that can help us accurately analyse unstructured text, and present customer centric insights to guide theory development in marketing.

This paper presents a study which highlights the value of UGC as a source of consumer information that can drive research in various areas of marketing. This study explored the expression of *brand love* in UGC from Facebook. Brand love and the reasons for selecting it as the construct to be explored are explained in the following section, after which the methods and results will be presented and discussed.

Brand Love - the test construct

"Brand love" is defined as the deep emotional attachment consumers have with a certain brand (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Roberts, 2005). Brand love is an important theoretical construct in marketing, and has been positively associated with an increased inclination to pay a price premium (Thomson, MacInnis, & Park, 2005), word of mouth (WOM),brand loyalty (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006) and propensity to forgive brand failures (Bauer, Heinrich, & Albrecht, 2009). The primary reason for the selection of brand love for this study is its abstractness. According to both Albert, Merunka, and Valette-Florence (2008) and Batra, Ahuvia, and Bagozzi (2012) consumers rarely label their relationship with a brand as "love" until a researcher questions them about it. This is contrary to our observations on social media where users freely expressed their "love" for a brand without any explicit stimulus requiring them to do so. We posit that this is a result of the disinhibition effect, and is a phenomenon that deserves further investigation. Furthermore, Brand love is a tacit mental construct which is best studied when the consumer uses it naturally (Batra et al., 2012). A naturalistic enquiry focuses on studying behavior when people are engrossed in genuine life experiences in a natural setting (Frey, Botan, & Kreps, 2000).We believe that because of the reasons stated previously, UGC from

social media is an ideal source of data for such a naturalistic enquiry.

Method

Text mining, which has its origins in quantitative content analysis, is the technique used for analysis. The analysis is carried out using the Text Mining module of SAS® Enterprise Miner™ 12.3.

The dataset used for this study is part of a larger one collected for a doctoral research project. The researchers adopted the role of a non-participative observer, and collected publically available UGC in the text form from the Facebook page of a popular confectionary brand in New Zealand. The dataset used in this study contains 14390 comments drawn from all the publically available user generated comments posted over the year 2015 on the Facebook page of the brand. To protect the privacy of users, the data is anonymized, no demographic information is collected, and the brand is referred to with the pseudonym "BrandX".

This dataset (or corpus) is a collection of UGC in the text form, it is reasonably voluminous and unstructured. Text mining helps researchers extract patterns, and provide structure to unstructured textual data (Chakraborty et al., 2014), Primarily, text mining attempts to generate a quantitative representation of text documents. Once that has been achieved, statistical or data mining techniques can be applied to generate insights about the structure, and patterns of text present in the corpus. It must be mentioned that, for this study, the goal of text mining was exploratory. Therefore, we refrain from excessive manual manipulation of the data and apply most discovery algorithms in their default form.

Stages of text mining

Data Entry: A SAS data table is imported into the Text Mining module of SAS® Enterprise Miner™ 12.3. Each comment is treated as a separate unit of analysis or document.

Text Parsing and Transformation: The parsing node of the text miner breaks down sentences into tokens which are either words, numbers or punctuations. The words are lemmatised into their root form (loved=love), and the default SAS® settings are used to remove stop words ("a", "the", "be" etc.) and parts-of-speech (auxiliary verbs, conjunctions, determiners, etc.) that have low informational value. This reduction of terms is recommended for optimising the following stages of text mining (Chakraborty et al., 2014).The text is then transformed into a numerical representation by the creation of a term-by-document matrix (TDM) where rows represent terms and columns represent documents (comments). The cell values represent the frequency that each term appears at in a particular document (comment).

Text Filtering: Large text datasets have many terms which are irrelevant to the analysis, and can be removed at this stage. We refrained from excessive manual manipulation of data as we wanted to keep the mining exercise mostly unsupervised. After manually browsing through the term list, only the following terms were dropped: "ya", "It_s", "cos", "mmm", "mmmmmm", "mmmmm", "Tho", "sooooo", "ur".

Text Mining: The topic mining algorithm of SAS® Enterprise Miner™ 12.3 was used to generate insights about the patterns of conversation present in the corpus. This algorithm helped in the discovery of topics within a corpus by using Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA). Originating in digital information retrieval (Deerwester, Dumais, Furnas, Landauer, & Harshman, 1990), LSA has been shown to mirror the way the human brain distils meaning from text (Sidorova, Evangelopoulos, Valacich, & Ramakrishnan, 2008). It uses a method of matrix decomposition known as the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) on the TDM. Similar to Principal Component Analysis, SVD produces principal components or factors along

with the factor loadings for both terms and documents. Each principal factor represents the topics within the corpus. Similar to classical factor analysis the set of high loading terms and documents can be assessed to facilitate factor or topic interpretation. As this analysis was exploratory in nature our goal was to extract topics at a high level of abstraction to identify the broad themes being discussed in the corpus. The level of abstraction is also referred to as semantic granularity in data mining (Albertoni, Camossi, De Martino, Giannini, & Monti, 2011), and a two topic resolution of a corpus is associated with a high level of semantic granularity in text mining (Winson-Geideman & Evangelopoulos, 2013). Hence we set the topic mining algorithm to discover the two main topics in the corpus. We explored the topics further by using concept linking a technique that allows us to understand the strength of association between words based on their co-occurrence within a corpus(Chakraborty et al., 2014).

Results

The topic mining was set to identify the two main topics in the dataset. As is standard practice (Evangelopoulos, Zhang, & Prybutok, 2012), high loading terms are qualitatively assessed along with the high loading documents (comments) associated with each topic to identify a common underlying theme which is then used to create a label for each topic. Consequently the first topic is labelled as "brand love" whereas the second topic is labelled as "brand preference". This indicates that at a high level of abstraction the two topics driving UGC on the brand's Facebook page were "brand love" and "brand preference". Whereas the main topic driving the conversation is "brand love", indicating that people have a deep emotional attachment with the brand under consideration.

Given the focus of this study, we gathered all the comments that were classified by the miner under the topic of "brand love" into a new corpus. Then we used concept linking to further analyse the comments that were classified by the miner under the topic of "brand love". We selected the keyword "love", and generated a concept link diagram to identify the key terms associated with "love". The output is shown in *Figure 1*. The thickness of the connecting lines indicate the strength of association between the terms and "love".

Term	Example of usage
win	"Yes please, we love BrandX...dark ghana...sounds really amazing...love to be in the draw to win thanks"
pear	"Love the pear and manuka honey...and the salty caramel. Did I mention I love chocolate and chilli too..."
mum	"BrandX favourites...I will take out to cemetery and share with my mum and dad they loved chocolate!"
husband	"My husband loves chocolate eats it like it's going out of fashion"
friend	"..I even took bags of your Honeycomb across to the USA for friends & they loved it."
range	"I love the vegan range too! Thanks for your awesome chocolate."
absolutely	"My favourites are hawkes bay braeburn apple with vanilla (Absolute number1)...absolutely love those flavours.."
salt	"Oooooo dear chocolate...I love it when you talk to me. Say Sea Salt and Caramel Brittle, but in a French Accent while I light some candles...olala"
vanilla	"..love BrandX chocolate. But not..the Pear and Manuka honey..struggled to finish one piece..tried the apple and vanilla, it was a bit better..I'll just stick to the macadamia."

Figure 1: Concept links for "love"

It is interesting to observe here that three of the key terms associated with love; "mum", "husband" and "friend", indicate that the expression of love in UGC seems to be associated with people sharing the consumption experience with family member or friends. Family members are considered to be a part of the extended self, whereas friends are considered to be a part of the aggregate extended self (Belk, 2009; Belk, 1988). Sharing with family members and friends is most likely driven by the desire to express care, and to experience a feeling of unity (Belk, 2009). Therefore, we posit that the "love" people feel for the brand is driven by the fact that the brand facilitates this sharing. Batra et al. (2012), in their conceptualisation of brand love, refer to this phenomena under the dimension of self-brand integration. They postulate that a brand is loved when it creates intrinsic rewards, such as the feeling of unity in this case, and reinforces the consumers' desired self. Albert et al. (2008), in their study of brand love, refer to the same phenomena as "self-congruity"

Three other key terms associated with love, "pear", "vanilla", "salt" and "range"; indicate an association with product variety. As can be seen in the examples in Figure 1. People use these terms when expressing their love for various flavours of the product provided by the brand. In this case it can be assumed that the love for this brand is driven by the experiential benefit or sensory pleasure people derive from the consumption of their preferred flavour (e.g.: Dark chocolate block is *delicious)*.Albert et al. (2008) and Batra et al. (2012) associate intrinsic rewards such as sensory pleasure with a preferred psychological state, for example: happiness. They state that experiencing these rewards is considered part and parcel of using the brand, and is a factor that drives brand love.

The term "absolutely" which is also associated with the term love in the corpus is an indication of valence or the strength of the emotional affinity that people have for the brand. Since brand love is considered a form of emotional attachment (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Roberts, 2005). It is natural for different people to feel it at different levels, and hence valence or strength is considered a core aspect of brand love. Batra et al. (2012) refer to the level of emotional connectedness that people have with a brand as "emotional bonding".
The most interesting observation here is that the term "win" is the one most strongly associated with love in this corpus. As can be seen in the example in Figure 1, people often express their love for the brand while putting their names up for an online competition with the intention of winning a prize, an extrinsic reward. This contradicts our current understanding of brand love

where intrinsic rewards like happiness are considered to be the key contributing factor (Batra et al., 2012). It is not that extrinsic aspects such as performance, reliability, and service quality have been ignored by research on brand love. Research (Albert et al., 2008; Batra et al., 2012) has treated these extrinsic aspects as antecedents of brand love. However, the effect of consumer intention to win an extrinsic reward, such as a prize, and its influence on brand love is an aspect that, to the best of our knowledge, has not been analysed in research on brand love.

Discussion

We explored the expression of brand love in UGC which was not generated in response to a structured marketing research query. We found connections between brand love and dimensions such as self-brand integrity, intrinsic rewards, emotional bonding and consumer intention to win a reward. From a managerial perspective, our findings exemplify the value of research on UGC by highlight themes that brands in the confectionary industry, such as BrandX, can use in their marketing communications to promote the growth of brand love. For example: by promoting the theme of sharing with family and friends, a brand can reinforce self-brand integrity, and hence increase the possibility of forming deep emotional bonds with its customers. From a theoretical perspective, the contribution of this study was to highlight the previously unexplored link between consumer intention to win an extrinsic reward, like a prize, and the expression of brand love.

Conclusions

In our exploratory study, previously established connections between brand love and dimensions such as self-brand integrity, intrinsic rewards and emotional bonding are also observed in UGC from Facebook. This reiterates the role of these dimensions in the formation of brand love. However, it is also revealed that the expression of brand love in UGC from social media has a strong link with the consumer intention to win online competitions. This is an area that has not been studied so far in research on brand love. The discovery of this link highlights the value of UGC as a repository of consumer information for the naturalistic enquiry of marketing constructs. It exemplifies how research on UGC can guide knowledge development in marketing by uncovering aspects that need further research.

Our future research would continue the exploration of the link between consumer intention to win a reward and brand love on UGC in order to improve the theoretical understanding of the construct of brand love. To deconstruct this link further, we aim to conduct a more detailed topic analysis to investigate whether the intention to win is an antecedent or consequence of brand love.

Limitations

This research was exploratory in nature, and analysed UGC from a single brand's Facebook page. Exploration of UGC across multiple brands would enhance the analysis further. Moreover, the topic mining was carried out at a high level of abstraction, and only two main topics were extracted. A more detailed topic analysis supplemented with a sentiment analysis would enable a more nuanced exploration of the expression of brand love in UGC. We aim to address these limitations in future research.

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Role of Consumption Heterogeneity in Pricing Digital Services

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Abstract

Many technology products and services consumed in multiple units feature simple pricing, a single Pay as you Go plan (one per-unit price), a single All you can Eat plan (one at-fee), or a combination of both (either a two-part tariff, or a choice be- tween per-unit and buffet price). This paper compares most commonly used simple pricing plans by developing a consumer demand model that is analytically tractable, rigorous, and parsimonious. We and that traditional valuation heterogeneity alone is not sufficient to model multi-unit consumption goods, and that satiation hetero-geneity, caused by variation in rate of satiation, is far more consequential in plan design. We develop a series of results around a new metric, RSH, which measures heterogeneity in satiation relative to heterogeneity in valuations. We show that the profit advantage of a two-part tariff over per-unit and buffet pricing is significant only when RSH is moderate. Per-unit pricing works quite well when RSH is high, while buffet pricing does well when RSH is low.

Keywords: Per-unit pricing, Buffet pricing, Two-Part tariffs, Satiation Heterogeneity

Track 05: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Introduction

Many products feature multi-unit consumption. Common examples include digital services such as telephone calls, home internet service, mobile data, web hosting, application hosting, etc.

Despite addressing a large heterogeneous market, such products are often sold under \simple" pricing schemes, either a single Pay as you Go plan (one per-unit price), a single All you can Eat plan (one buffet price), or a combination of both (a two-part tariff). In theory, sellers should maximize revenue by employing \complex" non-linear pricing, such as a large menu of two-part tariffs, from which consumers self-select according to their preferences (Maskin and Riley, 1984; Wilson, 1993). In practice, however, the optimal menu is often tweaked or simplified because revenue gains from lager menu diminishes quickly with the menu size (Wilson, 1993; Miravete, 2007; Bagh and Bhargava, 2013) and due to other practical considerations such as the administrative and implementation costs of a complex pricing scheme (Murphy, 1977).

Indeed, numerous firms offer only "simple pricing" schemes that have just one or two parameters, with a single offer to all consumers (Essegaier, Gupta, and Zhang, 2002). Sellers must still grapple with whether to employ access fees or usage fees, and how to combine both (Jain and Kannan, 2002; Lehmann and Buxmann, 2009). This tension is evident in the software industry, where _rms have transformed their selling models from outright sales of software licenses to usage based pricing. Some firms use access-only pricing (i.e. unlimited-use \buffet price"), often in a subscription model tied to a particular time duration such as a day or month. Examples include consumer oriented services (e.g., Netflix), and enterprise variations of \software as a service" (e.g., AutoDesk). At the other pole of simplicity is a per-unit plan. Charging for usage rather than ownership |i.e, pay only for what you use has been a vital aspect of servicification of products, especially for information and computing goods. Per-unit pricing is also used to sell digital goods to consumers (e.g., movies from iTunes). But extreme simplicity can be very limiting when consumers are highly heterogeneous. In such environments, firms can combine these two methods into a two-part tariff that has both a fixed membership or access fee, and a per-unit fee for actual usage (Oi, 1971). Two-part tariffs are common in clubs (club membership plus per-use fees) and telephony (monthly access or rental fee, plus a per-minute rate for calls). Google's Project Fi offers mobile phone service under a two-part tariff, charging $20/month (access fee) plus $10 for every Gigabyte of data (per-unit fee).

Iyengar and Gupta (2009) identify consumer heterogeneity as the most important factor influencing nonlinear pricing design for zero marginal cost goods. For durables or goods with single-unit demand, there are tractable models for evaluating the effect of heterogeneity (captured via a continuous or discrete distribution of consumers' valuation v(x)) on price design. However, this approach is insufficient for multi-unit goods because each consumers' marginal valuation (now v(x; q)) can also vary by q, and it is typically diminishing (rather than constant) until the consumer's appetite is satiated, and then it remains at zero (Sundararajan, 2004). This level of satiation, (Hui et al., 2012), itself may vary across consumers. Therefore, demand models for multi-unit goods must incorporate both traditional value heterogeneity (valuation for the first unit) and satiation heterogeneity, which reflects the difference in satiation levels.

We introduce a new metric, RSH, which measures heterogeneity in satiation relative to heterogeneity in valuations. The metric is relevant because it varies across different business applications for simple pricing and it is significant to the choice and performance of different

pricing schemes. For instance, consider heterogeneity in demand for customer leads (i.e., contact information about a potential buyer) in two separate markets, sales of automobiles and wine.

In the US, there are about 18,000 automobile dealerships, and about 8,400 wineries. Based on profit margins, conversion rates, and other factors, wineries exhibit some variation in willingness to pay per lead. However, they exhibit even greater variation in satiation for leads: based on data from wine industry sources, production and sales at each of the largest thirty wineries are over 1,000 times that of typical smaller wineries (the vast majority). In contrast, due to relatively low variation in dealership size, automobile dealerships exhibit a lower ratio of satiation heterogeneity relative to valuation heterogeneity. Hence, a model for simple pricing must not merely include both forms of heterogeneity, but it should also provide insights based on the relative magnitude of the two heterogeneities. Capturing and varying these two forms of heterogeneity jointly creates a technical challenge in balancing richness of representation and computational tractability (Hui et al., 2012; Lambrecht, Seim, Vilcassim, et al., 2012; Schlereth, Stepanchuk, and Skiera, 2010; Essegaier, Gupta, and Zhang, 2002). Addressing this challenge is a key objective of this paper.

The paper makes two main contributions. First, we develop an analytically tractable framework that allows us simultaneously to vary both value and satiation heterogeneity. We show that this framework is more successful, relative to past literature, at balancing richness of representation with tractability. Second, we use this framework to generate a series of insights regarding the impact of both forms of heterogeneity. For instance, we show that satiation heterogeneity is more consequential to the choice of pricing scheme than traditional value heterogeneity. A two-part tariff delivers significant profit advantage over per-unit and buffet pricing only when RSH is moderate.

Modeling Framework

Many researchers have adopted canonical forms for the v and G functions to facilitate analysis of multi-unit goods. The quadratic value function $V(x; q) = xq \Box 1 2q2$ (or $V(x; q) = xq \Box\_ 2 q2$, with $\_=1$ without loss of generality) is widely used in literature (Schlereth, Stepanchuk, and Skiera, 2010; Lambrecht, Seim, and Skiera, 2007; Iyengar and Gupta, 2009), and corresponds to linear marginal valuations $v(x; q) = x \Box q$. This formulation accounts for diminishing marginal utility from increasing consumption, and also captures consumer heterogeneity. However, it does so in a restricted form because marginal valuations of di_erent consumers are implicitly assumed to diminish at the same rate for all consumers (e.g. demand curves are parallel), and hence variation in satiation levels is identical to variation in first-unit valuations. Generalization requires considering the cases where marginal valuations vary across consumers (either increasing with x or decreasing with x), so that satiation levels can either vary in a proportion greater than, or less than x. One intuitive direction is to adopt a bi-variate distribution (on x and q), however this approach loses tractability because it violates the Spence-Mirrlees single crossing property (Schlereth, Stepanchuk, and Skiera, 2010; Hui et al., 2012). Hence, instead of assuming a joint distribution for valuation and satiation heterogeneity, we operationalize satiation heterogeneity by modifying the marginal value function.

We extend the traditional marginal valuation function by adding a new parameter , which measures across-consumer disparities in rate at which their appetite is satiated. Our model,
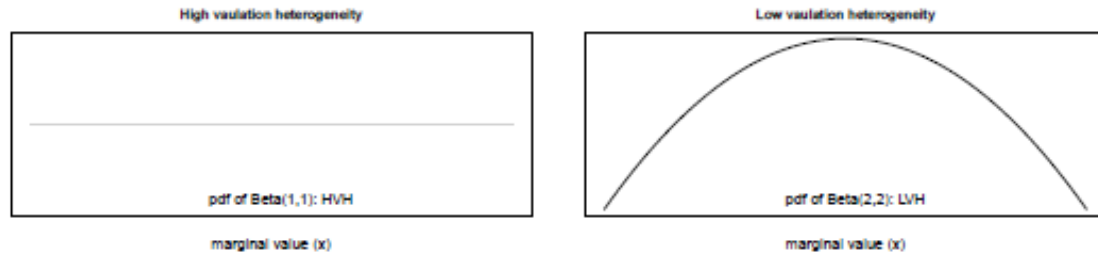
Figure 1: Two distributions that explore different extent of first-unit valuation heterogeneity. then, has the following key elements,

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text{marginal valuation} & v(x,q) = x - q + \xi xq & \xi \in (-\infty, 1) & \text{(1a)} \\
\equiv \quad \text{individual demand} & q^*(x,p) = \dfrac{x-p}{1-\xi x} & & \text{(1b)} \\
\Rightarrow \quad \text{satiation S(x)} & q^*(x,0) = \dfrac{x}{1-\xi x} & & \text{(1c)}
\end{array}
$$

where $q\_(x; p)$ is the individual-level demand for consumer x at price p, computed by inverting net-marginal valuation function $(v(x; q) \square p)$ with respect to the quantity (q). Consumer x's satiation S(x) is $q\_(x; p)$ at p=0. This formulation of marginal valuation parsimoniously incorporates both types of heterogeneity, the first via the distribution G(x), and the second via the parameter _ which measures consumers' relative rate of satiation (compared to their valuation for the initial unit).

The impact of heterogeneity in first-unit valuations is analyzed by considering variants of G(x) that differ only on the extent of heterogeneity (Head, 2011). We employ symmetric Beta distributions B(_; _). An increase in _ makes the density more concentrated in the middle representing a more homogeneous market. In Fig. 1, the left panel corresponds to B(1; 1), a uniform distribution on x 2 [0; 1], which we refer in the paper as high valuation heterogeneity (HVH). The right panel corresponds to B(2; 2), a unimodal distribution on x 2 [0; 1], which is referred to as low valuation heterogeneity (LVH). Both distributions are symmetric around the mean value, hence the only difference is that HVH exhibits more heterogeneity than LVH.

Heterogeneity in satiation is captured by the interaction of _ and G(x). When _=0, satiation heterogeneity mimics the valuation heterogeneity (see middle panel in Figure 2); otherwise, lower _0s (_<0) imply lower relative satiation heterogeneity and vice versa. Thus, we interpret as a measure of heterogeneity in satiation relative to heterogeneity in valuations.1 For exposition of our results, it is more useful to capture relative satiation heterogeneity (RSH) with the transformation e_. This transformation has a positive range, e_ 2 (0; e); where RSH=1 conveniently represents the _=0 case, when satiation heterogeneity is same as the valuation heterogeneity.

[1]Note, the sign of $\_$ is the same as the sign of $\partial_2 S(x) \partial x_2$, hence reflects rate of increase in satiation relative to rate of increase in valuations.
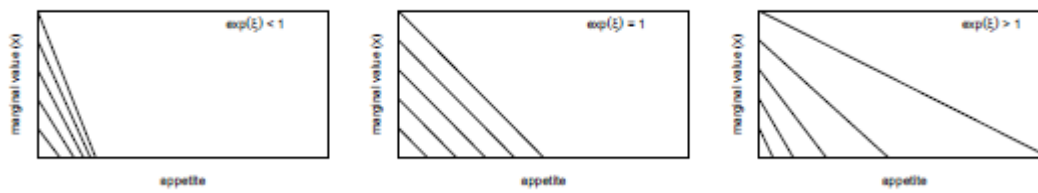
Figure 2: The three panels convey varying (increasing) levels of relative satiation heterogeneity.

Role of Relative Satiation Heterogeneity

A central goal of this paper is to establish how the plan design and properties vary across a spectrum of satiation and valuation heterogeneity. We compare the performance of different pricing schemes and present the results visually to facilitate comparison along the two dimensions of heterogeneity. Valuation heterogeneity varies across panels and relative satiation heterogeneity varies with x axis in both panels. First, consider the profit performance of the three pricing schemes. Since the 2PT generalizes buffet and per-unit pricing, it naturally has the highest profit because the usage fee s captures revenue from more consumption, while the fixed fee F collect remaining surplus of marginal buyers. This feature becomes less useful as satiation heterogeneity grows, because the firm now has to rely more on the usage fee to address the greater variation in quantity demanded. In order to analyze this comprehensively, we compute the percentage loss in profit from employing each single-parameter plan, relative to the optimal two-part tariff. We find that the relative performance of buffet and per-unit pricing flows in opposite directions as satiation heterogeneity changes.
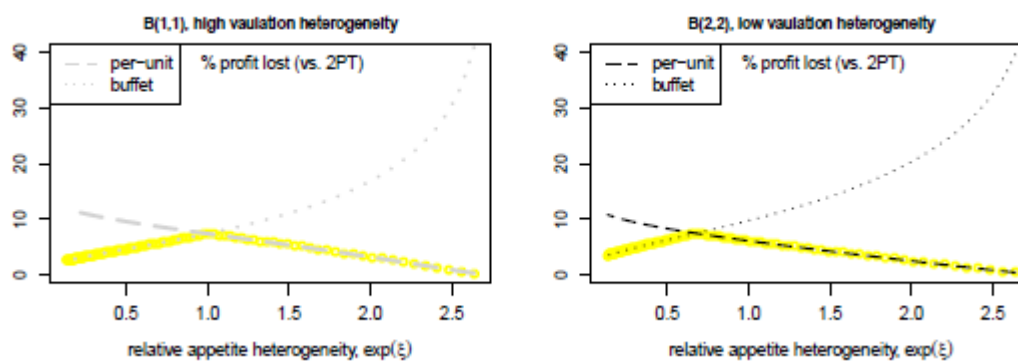
Figure 3: Impact of value and satiation heterogeneity on loss in profit, for per-unit and buffet plans compared to 2PT plan.

Fig. 3 displays the loss in profit from the simpler plans relative to the 2PT, as well as the lower envelope of the loss. More importantly, it demonstrates that the overall advantage of the two-part plan over the simpler plans is most prominent when both forms of heterogeneity are roughly similar.

Proposition 1. The 2PT plan's dominance over the single-parameter plans is more sensitive to relative satiation heterogeneity compared to heterogeneity in first-unit valuation. The profit advantage of 2PT over buffet pricing (respectively, per-unit pricing) is highest under high (resp. very low) relative satiation heterogeneity. Compared with the better of the two single-parameter plans, the advantage of 2PT is negligible when relative satiation heterogeneity is either very low or very high.

An implication of the proposition is that regardless of the distribution of valuations (LVH or HVH) the per-unit pricing beats buffet pricing handsomely under high level of satiation heterogeneity. Conversely, when satiation heterogeneity is low, the buffet pricing beats per-unit pricing handsomely, again regardless of the distribution of valuations. In other words, the relative performance of the per-unit and the buffet pricing depends largely, only on relative satiation heterogeneity, rather than how valuations are distributed. These comparisons highlight an important finding made possible by the separation of valuation and satiation heterogeneity: the choice of pricing scheme depends primarily on relative satiation heterogeneity, while the distribution of first-unit heterogeneity is not consequential.

The proposition also highlights an additional insight, that while the 2PT truly pays o_ in some conditions, it doesn't really matter for others (see in Fig. 3 the % profit loss for per-unit plan when satiation heterogeneity is high). Therefore, a single-parameter pricing can often be an excellent compromise between simplicity and profit, and if the firm is aware of the nature of heterogeneity in the market, it can easily make a prudent choice between buffet and per-unit pricing. The per-unit plan is a reasonable choice under high satiation heterogeneity because the unit fee can address the high variation in quantity demanded and generate revenue proportional to consumption (whereas buffet pricing requires a stark trade-o_ between volume and margin). Buffet pricing displays the opposite behavior, and works best when usage levels are more homogeneous, because the fixed fee is tied to the consumer surplus of marginal buyers.

Conclusion

In this paper we analyzed four widely used pricing plans for services and information technology goods, and characterized the impact of value and satiation heterogeneity on their relative performance. While past researchers have recognized the importance of both these forms of heterogeneity, the academic literature provides scanty insights regarding how they jointly affect the design and performance of different pricing schemes. We address this gap by developing a series of insights regarding the impact of value and satiation heterogeneity. Our findings provide guidance to firms in choosing and designing simple pricing schemes. We show that within the two simplest plans, a \Pay as you Go" per-unit and \All you can Eat" buffet pricing, per-unit pricing is more profitable when there is high relative satiation heterogeneity, while buffet pricing is better when heterogeneity is primarily on per-unit valuations.

A judicious implementation of any pricing scheme requires that managers understand the nature of customer heterogeneity in the market. We show that, with respect to the profitability, the relative satiation (vs. value) heterogeneity is consequential to the choice of pricing scheme, rather than the distribution of value heterogeneity. As noted earlier, the race between buffet pricing and per-unit pricing hinges on relative satiation heterogeneity. Similarly, whether or not the 2PT produces significantly higher profit than these single-parameter plans depends on relative satiation heterogeneity. Hence our analysis extends the traditional approach of understanding heterogeneity via the distribution of customer valuations, and uncovers a need for managers to understand and estimate heterogeneity in customers' satiation levels.

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Sensory congruence and semantic association in the online shopping environment: Can colour enhance haptic properties?

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Abstract

Recent research in sensory marketing has demonstrated the powerful effect our senses have on decision making. By examining previous literature I suggest that semantic associations can be achieved by using product package colour to represent the haptic property of temperature in an online environment. The research builds upon the consumer theory of sensory congruence which leads to enhanced product evaluations. Through three experiments some evidence of semantic association activation is demonstrated, in turn leading to higher purchase intentions and product evaluations. The research also demonstrates that colour preference, in the absence of priming information, leads to purchase intentions. The findings have implications for online retailers and advertisers.

Keywords: Sensory Marketing, Sensory Congruence, Semantic Association, Colour, Haptic

Track: Digital Marketing

Achieving consumer trust:
An analysis of asymmetric versus symmetric CSR communication approaches on Twitter

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Abstract

Corporations are under increasing pressure to communicate about their position and policies with regard to corporate social responsibility, informing consumers about the corporations's good intentions and actions to appear trustworthy. Corporations have been asked to engage in a dialogue with their consumers. However, academic literature still lacks empirical research that examines how consumers react to asymmetrical versus symmetrical communication strategies. The present paper closes this gap and evaluates how consumers (N = 507) react to different CSR communication approaches on social media, specifically on Twitter. Our main finding is that an asymmetric communication approach performs generally better than a symmetric communication approach. However, consumers' involvement and their information processing mechanisms also play a significant role when evaluating the trustworthiness of corporations. Thus, the study provides insights in how corporations should communicate with consumers on Twitter and what characteristics they should take into consideration to achieve consumer trust.

Keywords: CSR communication, communication strategy, social media, stakeholder engagement, consumer trust

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Introduction

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has emerged as one of the most important topics for organizations in the past decades. CSR has become an important driver of public opinion (Podnar & Golob, 2007). CSR communication efforts help companies to build a more positive reputation with stakeholders (Chernev & Blair, 2015), and to achieve superior financial performance (Porter & Kramer 2006). In turn, effective CSR communication leads to higher levels of purchase intention among consumers, and generates positive evaluations among the stakeholders of an organization, which then improve the organization's image and reputation in the long term (Du et al. 2010). Research has shown that understanding the corporation's relationship with consumers is mainly dependent on consumer's trust in corporate behavior, which becomes especially important with regard to CSR efforts (Martínez & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2013).

The ways in which corporations are communicating their CSR efforts to appear reliable and trustworthy is changing with the advent of social media. The adoption of social media tools is reinventing communications between corporations and society (Fieseler et al., 2009). The social media platform is one of the most important social media channels for realizing new way of stakeholder communication (Stelzner, 2015). Many brands have adopted Twitter as a marketing strategy and furthermore are sharing information about their CSR on the social networking service (Lyon & Montgomery, 2013). The platform also enables stakeholders to engage with companies, be it regarding CSR or not, more quickly and on a much larger scale than before which creates new challenges for marketers to face. It would be expected, therefore, that effective CSR communication would also require effective usage of social media. However, despite the importance of CSR, research on how organizations engage with stakeholders about CSR on social media is still beginning to emerge. It still lacks in showing how organizations, as part of their public relation activities, should use social media to create, reinforce or expand a trustworthy relation with stakeholders through CSR communication.

Previous studies have researched CSR in social media, proving the presence of an interest in CSR within social media as well as exploring strategies for using social media to communicate CSR activities (Lee et al., 2013; Colleoni, 2013). Companies are indeed using Twitter in particular for CSR communication purposes; Etter (2014) found that a quarter of companies Tweets refers to CSR efforts. As the literature on CSR and social media mature, this paper aims to add to such literature by exploring companies' CSR communications on the social networking site Twitter. Adopting such an approach allows us to advance CSR communication research in several ways. Firstly, it updates emerging research on social media by focusing on a better understanding of stakeholder perceptions on CSR communications on Twitter. Secondly, by exploring how stakeholders perceive and react to specific CSR communications, as proposed by Morsing and Schultz (2006), the present study investigates the most effective CSR communication strategy for enhancing consumer's trust. To summarize, the present study will examine the impact of communication strategies and seeks to answer the following research question: *How do asymmetric vs. symmetric CSR communication efforts affect consumers' trust in the corporation?*

Theoretical background and hypotheses development

Consumers' role in CSR communication

Consumers as external stakeholders of corporations play a key role for evaluating CSR communication. By deciding to buy certain products consumers can influence the

achievements of a corporation on the market, they can either encourage or sanction corporate behavior (Schoeneborn, 2009). Consequently, research has found empirical evidence for business benefits when corporations implement CSR (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Furthermore, an increasing interest among consumers in socially produced goods can be recognized (Brunner et al., 2012). However, consumers demand transparency from corporations, especially with regard to CSR. Such demands are especially present on social media as it allows consumers to communicate co-equally with corporations (Castello et al., 2016). Studies have shown that positively perceived CSR influences stakeholders' trust in the corporation (Martínez & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2013). CSR can even affect purchase intentions more strongly than the price of products does (Mohr & Webb, 2005). Achieving trust through CSR communication can finally impact the success of a corporation enormously as "CSR generates trust" (Pivato et al., 2008, p. 8). We thus define consumer trust in CSR as a belief that the corporation can be relied upon in terms of CSR and, further, that the corporation will behave in the long-term as communicated to the consumers (cf. Martínez & Rodríguez del Bosque, 2013).

Asymmetric vs. symmetric CSR communication strategies on social media
Based on Grunig and Hunt's (1984) characterization of models of public relations, Morsing and Schultz (2006) developed three CSR communication strategies: (1) the stakeholder information strategy, (2) the stakeholder response strategy, and (3) the stakeholder involvement strategy. Considering the specifics of CSR communication, the dialogue-oriented stakeholder involvement strategy has been identified in the literature as the outstanding way of CSR communication strategy, and thus there is an increasing drive to implement such communication strategies in the daily activities of organizations (Johansen & Nielsen, 2011). The idea behind the involvement strategy is to evolve a mutually beneficial dialogue: ideally, "the company as well as its stakeholders will change as a result of engaging in a symmetric communication model, i.e. progressive iterations of sensemaking and sensegiving processes" (Morsing & Schultz, 2006, p. 328).It has been found that companies are reluctant to interact with stakeholders about CSR issues online (Moreno & Capriotti, 2009) and also that companies broadcast positive CSR content on social media, reminiscent of traditional advertising strategies (Colleoni, 2013). Etter (2014) goes a step further and describes broadcasting as one-way communication, disseminating information to an anonymous public, whereas the reactive and the engagement strategy imply a two-way communication approach. However, the reactive strategy just answers to questions and remarks while the engagement strategy promotes a proactive communication strategy with questions and approaches to other Twitter members. Following the given theoretical framework the information strategy can be categorized as asymmetric communication as the sender has power over the communication content. The response and involvement strategy can be categorized as symmetric communication. We therefore hypothesize:
H1: *Asymmetric vs. symmetric CSR communication strategies will impact consumers' trust in the corporation in a different way.*

Consumers' processing of CSR communication
It is assumed that certain consumer characteristics influence how CSR communication is processed and evaluated (Du et al., 2010). For example, Mohr and Webb (2005) found that environmental CSR has a stronger effect on peoples' evaluation of a company based on high scores on a scale of social responsible consumer behavior compared to people scoring low on this trait. Likewise, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) propose, consumers are likely to identify with a company that offers them a positive and meaningful social identity. In other words, identification is enhanced when consumers perceive the corporation's character congruent to their own character. Consequently green consumers should evaluate in mutual communication

CSR efforts positively (Haws et al., 2010). Green consumer are those who consider the environmental impact of their purchase and consumption behaviors. However, Bögel (2015) investigated that highly involved stakeholders are particularly skeptical toward CSR. Such skepticism is further triggered when consumers face asymmetries of information in regard to CSR activities (Pomering & Johnson, 2009). To address these demands and to take such skepticism seriously, Morsing and Schultz (2006) emphasize the importance of two-way, symmetrical communications between firm and stakeholder, thus creating a relationship where there is mutual understanding. Taking these theoretical assumptions into consideration we hypothesize:

H2: Consumers trust is higher among consumers with high involvement (those being a "green" consumer) in symmetrical communication.

To develop it further, not only the consumer's personal commitment toward CSR but also how consumers process given information is important for evaluating CSR communication efforts and building trust. Because of the complexity and polyphony constituting the CSR character firms target at providing concise and credible messages. Grounded in information processing concepts we assume that a message on social media platforms, which is neither informational nor exceptional or transformational will not influence the consumer's perceptions of the corporation and will not contribute to consumers' trust (cf. Puto & Wells 1984). One on hand, Informational messages provides factual, relevant brand data while transformational is associated with the brand experience

*H3: Consumers trust is higher among consumers who regard tweets as **(a)** informational and **(b)** transformational.*

Methods and results
The study is based on a sample of 507 students in the UK, representing a well-educated population with an affinity to social media, and was conducted in February 2015. The sample was divided into two sub-samples, one getting a set of tweets with an asymmetrical CSR communication approach (N = 242), the other one with a symmetrical CSR communication approach (N = 265). The questionnaire consisted of (1) a demographic module incl. a scale on CSR commitment, (2) a set of tweets within an (a) asymmetrical or (b) symmetrical communication strategy from a fictive, beverage-selling corporation we created to avoid predefined attitudes toward the communicating corporation, and (3) scales on information processing (Puto & Wells, 1984) of the given content and consumers trust in the corporation. We pretested the questionnaire with experts in the marketing area as well as with students to ensure the communication strategies differ remarkably. In both settings the participants received three different tweets and could choose to not react, retweet or like the message, or to state a positive or negative comment. Participants in the asymmetrical strategy got tweets that simply broadcasted CSR information from a fictive company, so the company did neither react to comments nor directly address other Twitter users. The fictive corporation in the symmetrical strategy engaged into the conversation addressing others (through @-mentions and a direct approach, e.g. "What about you?") and reacted towards consumer's reactions.

To examine if the CSR communication strategies impact consumers trust differently, we performed an independent sample T test revealing a statistically relevant difference between the groups ($p < .05$). We thus can confirm our hypothesis 1. Surprisingly, the asymmetrical communication strategy has a significantly higher impact (Mean 4.16; SD .89) than the symmetrical communication strategy (Mean 3.99; SD .91). To test H2, H3(a), and H3(b) we applied a linear regression model and split the outcome of the file to compare the results of the two groups. We further included the control variables age, gender, twitter usage, perceived

general credibility of corporate tweets (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998), and the person's need to evaluate (Jarvis &Petty, 1996). The results are displayed in table 1.

Table 1
Dependent variable: Consumers trust

	Std. coefficients (SD)	
	Asymmetrical comm. strategy	Symmetrical comm. strategy
Age	-.056 (.025)	-.134** (.023)
Gender	.037 (.096)	.039 (.093)
Frequency of Twitter usage	.046 (.023)	.046 (.022)
Credibility of corp. tweets	.240*** (.047)	.280*** (.046)
Need to evaluate	.069 (.061)	.080 (.056)
Being green	-.015 (.039)	.098* (.039)
Informational processing	.247*** (.090)	.194*** (.078)
Transformational processing	.239*** (.062)	.283*** (.062)
R Square	.319	.405

Significant levels: * p<.05; ** p<.01; *** p<.001

As hypothesized being a "green" consumer positively influences consumers' trust after receiving the tweets, however, in line with our theoretical prediction, the influence is only significant within the symmetrical communication approach. Hence, we can confirm our hypothesis 2. Furthermore, we found that informational as well as transformational processing of the tweets has a significant effect upon consumers' trust, which confirms our hypotheses 3a and 3b. Taking a look at the coefficients, informational processing seem to be more important than transformational processing in asymmetrical communication situations whereas transformational processing seems to have an higher impact in symmetrical communication. Additionally, we investigated a positive influence of age within the symmetrical communication strategy.

Discussion
The aims of this paper were to explore the impact of asymmetrical vs. symmetrical CSR communications on Twitter. The purpose is to gain insights into the ways in which companies' should communicate CSR on Twitter and how such approaches impact consumers' trust in corporate behaviour. In line with the literature review on previous research about CSR communication our analysis reveals a significant gap between asymmetrical and symmetrical communication approaches on Twitter. However, in contrast to theoretical assumptions promoting symmetrical CSR communication (Morsing & Schultz, 2006) the asymmetrical communication efforts of the fictive corporation performed significantly better and lead to higher trust rates. Consequently, our study contributes to recent research by questioning proposed success of mutual, symmetric communication strategies (Trapp 2014; Johansen & Nielsen 2011; Etter 2014; Morsing & Schultz 2006). At least on social media platforms such as Twitter additional circumstances have to be considered when approaching consumers. Our findings reinforce the assumption that Twitter users are especially interested in messages that are rich in informational content and not so much in transformational content (Araujo *et al.*, 2015). It also has to be pointed that consumers do not appreciate when they feel a company is engaging in excessive self-promotion (Lyon & Montgomery, 2013). Furthermore, direct approaches from the corporation on Twitter might be perceived as to invasive. Although

Twitter enables such approaches, consumers might it find irritating when directly addressed as they are not 'friends' with the corporation and want to keep their privacy. Future research should investigate the underlying cognitive mechanisms. First hints are given by the confirmation of our hypothesis 2. The findings suggests that consumers who are already involved and committed toward the topic are more likely to trust in corporate behavior within the symmetrical communication strategy. Consequently, symmetrical communication strategies as especially useful for highly involved consumers, particularly when they are young. Within the asymmetrical strategy such influence cannot be investigated. Managers could use these finding to further develop their CSR communication via twitter, perhaps focusing on broadcasting, asymmetrical strategies to an older audience, and making using of a more dialogic approach with the younger audience. However, independently on the applied strategies corporations have to ensure that their consumers process the informational as well as transformational content. Thus, our findings support previous research on information processing concepts (Bögel, 2015) as it discusses empirically, how an asymmetric approach, usually not favored by CSR communication scholars and practitioners, could be beneficial to corporations.

To further develop the present research and to overcome one of its limitations, it would be very interesting to conduct this study with consumers with a diverse educational backgrounds. Another possible avenue, is to run a case study example with an actual company and its consumers.

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Does the Crowdfunding Platform Matter?
Risks of a Negative Attitude towards the Platform in a Two-Sided Market

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Abstract
Despite the growing interest in crowdfunding, a major issue is the campaign success rate. Less than half of the campaigns are able to reach their goals. However, previous studies have neglected that the creator's open calls towards the contributor population involve an Internet platform. To fill the gap, this study investigates the impact of the platform on the contributor participation in the campaign. Drawing on two-sided market theory, the empirical study reveals that crowdfunding platform plays a central role beyond the communication function of a website. Results are consistent with this view and demonstrate the effect of risk factors that increase the negative attitude of contributors by acting on the degree of usefulness and perceived difficulty of the platform. Finally, a negative attitude towards the Internet platform reduces both the willingness to support and to share word of mouth about a project.

Keywords: Crowdfunding, willingness to support, word-of-mouth, two-sided market

Track: 5. Digital Marketing and Social Media

Introduction

By funding projects with contributors, crowdfunding offers new possibilities for creators in the development of products and services. The principle of crowdfunding is that the project creator appeals to individuals for financial support, using specific Internet platforms to publicise the request and state the compensation offered for a given level of the contribution (Belleflamme, Lambert, & Schwienbacher, 2014). While crowdfunding is still nascent, the practice is estimated at 34.2 billion dollars in 2015 worldwide (Massolution Report1) and is significantly on the rise (+ 167% compared to 2013).

To raise funds, project creators use an Internet platform to reach contributors. This system refers to a two-sided market, that is

"one platform enables interactions between end-users and try to get the two (or multiple) sides "on board" by appropriately charging each side" (Rochet & Tirole, 2006, p. 645).

In a two-sided market such as crowdfunding, the platform plays a central role as an intermediary beyond the role of traditional communication of a website. For the project creator, the platform is both a service provider and a media channel. For the services offered to project creators the platform contributes to the project finalisation and provides support for marketing choice. Furthermore, it organises the contractual relationship between the project creator and contributors, guaranteeing the reality of the contributor commitment by collecting its payment according to the different modes: giving, reward-based, lending and equity crowdfunding A platform in a two-sided market also plays a role of a media channel by allowing the project creator to access the *internal social capital* of the platform, i.e., the social relations developed within the platform's community (Colombo, Franzoni, & Rossi-Lamastra, 2015).This role of a media channel is both directly produced by the exposure of users to the project and indirectly through the facilitation of the spreading of word-of-mouth from those users. It offers for example interactions based on the comments, informs contributors when their ideas are integrated into the project with a system of "updates" and centralises the interactions performed outside the platform (Mollick, 2014).

With less than half successful campaigns, improving the campaign success rate is a key challenge (Hu, Li, & Shi, 2015). A key element of a successful campaign is the importance of the social capital provided by the platform (Colombo, Franzoni, & Rossi-Lamastra, 2015). The social capital can be broad and undifferentiated for generalist platforms (e.g. Kickstarter) or be representative of interests for specialised websites (e.g. My Major Company) according to the project content (music projects, sports and cultural) or characteristics of the project creator (community, geographic proximity). For the Internet platform as the project creator, a positive attitude from potential contributors towards the platform is critical because it leads to a higher participation. However previous studies have addressed only success factors in terms of project presentation (presence and video quality, length of the description), the number and the type of updates performed by the project creator (Mollick, 2014) or value of rewards given (Hu, Li, & Shi, 2015).

To fill the gap, this article investigates what is the impact of the attitude towards the platform regarding contributor participation and sharing word-of-mouth? Two contributions are expected. First, a better understanding of the interactions in a fundraiser through crowdfunding by highlighting conditions where the platform can influence the success of a campaign. This

1 Massolution Crowdfunding Industry Report (2015), available at www.crowdsourcing.org

2 view challenges the idea that raising funds through crowdfunding is mostly explained by project characteristics (Mollick, 2014). Second, this study measures the relative importance of risk factors that can reduce the contributor's attitude for using the platform and to participate

or share word-of-mouth about the project. The rest of the article is organised as follows. The first section presents the conceptual framework and research hypotheses. The second section presents the methodology and the third results. The last section discusses the results, highlights the limits and provides several avenues of research.

Conceptual Framework
Conceptually, crowdfunding acts as a platform among a two-sided market. Derived from economic sciences, the theory of the two-sided market refers to markets where several networks are connected with a platform (Rochet & Tirole, 2006). Examples of two-sided markets are often encountered in advertising industry (e.g., a TV channel is a platform between viewers and advertisers) or in the digital economy (e.g., a crowdfunding platform between creators and contributors). The attractiveness of the Internet crowdfunding platform for project creators lies in the value that it brings by its social capital of contributors.

Studies in two-sided markets show that platform utility depends on the number of users on each side (Albuquerque, Pavlidis, Chatow, Chen, & Jamal, 2012) but have neglected the impact of the platform when each side of the market is in direct interaction within the platform (such as in a crowdfunding platform). Drawing on the technology acceptance model (Davis, 1989) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1985), this study argues that in a two-sided market, the platform can impact the contributor participation in the campaign.

These theories suggest that the behaviour results mainly from the attitude towards the behaviour to support a project on a platform. The theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) shows first that the realisation of a behaviour depends on the intention of the individual to achieve this behaviour. To support a project, a contributor can participate and share word of mouth about a project. Thus, a negative attitude towards the Internet platform negatively influences intent to participate (Hypothesis 1a) and sharing word of mouth on the project (Hypothesis 1b).

To explain the attitude towards the Internet platform, TAM factors (Technology Acceptance Model) are (1) the perceived usefulness of the platform and (2) the perceived difficulty of use (Davis, 1989).
- *The perceived usefulness* arises from the belief that using Internet platform enables to reach a project creator, i.e., with the support of a project. Contributors use the Internet platform for a specific task (support a project) or without a specific objective, to monitor and keep abreast of new projects (Belleflamme et al., 2014). The degree of perceived utility of the platform positively influences the attitude of the contributors towards the Internet platform (Hypothesis 2a) and, following the TAM, intent to participate in a project (Hypothesis 2b).
- *The perceived difficulty* in using the platform is the level of effort required to use the platform. Research has shown that websites are evaluated negatively when they require many efforts to understand the operation and time to master the interaction with the interface and treating the frequency and importance of technical problems (van der Heijden, 2003).The perceived difficulty of use negatively influences the attitude towards the Internet platform (Hypothesis 3).

Beyond these interaction factors with the platform, beliefs of utility and perceived difficulty of use are also influenced by several *external factors*. The participation of contributors depends on the benefits they derive from their participation in the campaign. It is first rewards offered in the campaign depending on the amount of the contribution. These awards provide a direct economic value such as for example the purchase of a product or service on preferential terms

(Hu, Li, & Shi, 2015).The economic value proposed positively influences the perceived usefulness of the Internet platform (Hypothesis 4). Contributors can also get an image benefit on altruistic dimension when the campaign appealed to the generosity to support a cause. The theory of financial giving explains the participation of donors by the desire to enhance their social identity and to feel a sense of well-being from the donation (Aaker & Akutsu, 2009).The altruistic benefit associated with participation in a project positively influences the perceived usefulness of the Internet platform (Hypothesis 5). Finally, the crowdfunding platform is also a space of social visibility for contributors in the digital social network composed by the user community (Aaker & Akutsu, 2009). Sensitive contributors to social interactions receive a valuation by participating from their social groups. The Internet platform is assessed most useful by individuals with high social sensitivity to achieve their goals (Hypothesis 6).

The participation of contributors to a crowdfunding project mainly involves a financial payment by credit card. This online payment method favours immediacy and impulsivity behaviours that result in higher amounts collected compared to other payment instruments. However this online payment method also induces significant risks for the contributor (credit card fraud, fraudulent website) that inhibit its use (van der Heijden, 2003). The perceived risk of the financial transaction has a positive influence on the perceived difficulty of using the platform (Hypothesis 7). Previous studies show that women give in greater amount than men due to a higher empathy (Lee & Chang, 2007). The effect of an altruistic image benefit on the perceived usefulness of the platform is higher among women than men (Hypothesis 8).

Empirical Study
Data collection is conducted in an online survey of a convenience sample consisting of French Internet users in an instantaneous cut. The sample size is $n = 218$ (46% of women; age in average: 59 years). This study uses a scenario based approach. Respondents begin by reading a description of how a crowdfunding platform works and next a crowdfunding projects is presented. The proposed project is about the financing of clothing whose interest in the nature of the product is controlled. Finally, respondents complete a survey about their willingness to participate and to share word of mouth.

Items are adapted from literature and measured on 7 points Likert scales. *The attitude towards the platform* is measured using the scale developed by Chen (1999), (sample item: « I have a positive feeling towards this platform ») ; *perceived usefulness*(Davis, 1989), refers to the utility level of the platform to interact with the project (sample item: « Using the platform to share my feedback satisfies me») ; *perceived ease of use* refers to the effort required to make financial contributions to the platform (sample item: « use this platform to make a transaction is easy ») measured on the scale of Wolfinbarger and Gilly (2003).The *intent to participate* is measured by the scale of Rodgers (2003), (sample item: « I could participate in this project ») and the *Intent to share word of mouth* using the scale of Maxham III and Netemeyer (2002), (sample item: « I could recommend this project to my friends »). For moderating factors, the *interest for the economic benefit* and *the interest for the altruistic image benefit* are measured on a single-item scale (1 = Not important; 7 = very important). *Social sensitivity* in reference to the importance given by the individual to his social group comes from the scale of Aaker and

Lee (2001), (sample item: « What others think of me is important»). The *perceived risk associated with the financial transaction* uses the scale of Montoya-weiss et al. (2003), (sample item: « Payment by credit card online is safe»). The collected demographic variables are age, income, educational level and occupation.

Confirmatory factor analyses confirm respect of the standard thresholds for the criteria of reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity and invariance (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). On average, the attitude towards the platform is 5.24 / 7, the perceived usefulness is 4.58 platform and its ease of use is 5.48.

Results

The hypotheses are tested with a structural equation model and moderators according to multi-group method. The fit of the model to data is satisfactory (χ^2= 168.3; χ^2/dl= 1.68; NFI= .95; CFI= .97; TLI= 0.97; GFI= .97; RMSEA= .06). The results confirm the central role of the attitude on the expected behaviour: a negative attitude towards the Internet platform for contributors reduces intent to participate in a project (H1a is validated) and intent to share word of mouth about a project (H1b is validated). The theoretical framework is also validated. The perceived usefulness of the Internet platform positively influences attitude towards the platform (H2a is validated) and intent to participate in the project (H2b is validated). Difficulty using the platform negatively influences the attitude towards the Internet platform (H3 is validated).

The influence of external factors on the perceived usefulness is not completely confirmed.
The perceived usefulness of the platform is influenced by the interests of contributors for an economic benefit (H4 is validated) and an interest for altruistic image benefit (H5 is validated, p-value marginally significant). But sensitivity to social reactions does not influence the perceived usefulness of the platform (H6 is rejected). Regarding the perceived difficulty of use, the positive effect of the risk associated with the transaction is confirmed (H7 is validated). Finally, the effect of gender on the altruistic image benefit is rejected (Z >0.05; H8 rejected). Results of the model are presented in table 1.

Table 1: Effects of the attitude towards the crowdfunding platform on the support of a project

Hypotheses			Coefficient	Standard Error	p-value
H1a	Negative att. / Ptf.	→ Participate	-0.55	0.04	***
H1b	Negative att. / Ptf.	→ Word of Mouth	-0.52	0.05	***
H2a	Negative att / Ptf.	→ Att. platform	0.31	0.12	**
H2b	Perceived usefulness	→ Participate	0.37	0.08	***
H3	Difficulty of use	→ Att. platform	-0.34	0.07	***
H4	Economic value	→ Perceived usefulness	0.14	0.06	*
H5	Altruistic benefit	→ Perceived usefulness	0.10	0.06	*
H6	Social sensivity	→ Perceived usefulness	0.02	0.04	n.s.
H7	Transaction risk	→ Difficulty of use	1.26	0.07	***

*p < 0.05 ; ** p < 0.01 ; *** p < 0.001 ; n.s. = not significant ; Ptf. = Platform.

Discussion, Limitations and Areas for Further Research
In a two-sided market, does a crowdfunding platform can reduce the chances of success of a project? The research answers this question by assessing the factors that influence the attitude towards the platform and testing their effects on the willingness to participate and share word of mouth. Several contributions can be highlighted.

First, this study supports previous research in information technology (Davis, 1989) by extending their validity on crowdfunding platforms. The attitude towards a website such as an online crowdfunding platform may be less favourable when the platform is not seen as useful to support a project and that it is not perceived as easy use. Especially the risk of the financial transaction is one of the most important factors. The platform payment system must therefore be considered as the factor reducing the more the contributor's attitude towards the platform. The results show the existence of other factors influencing the attitude formation. Contributors seeking economic interest tend to evaluate the platform as being more useful because it allows them to receive rewards. Contributors looking for an altruistic image benefit find the platform useful through public donations within an online community. However, this effect is not found among individuals with a high social sensitivity. They tend to emphasise external social networks for the platform rather than the platform itself as a way of enhancing their participation (Hui, Greenberg, & Gerber, 2014).

Second, this study shows that a negative attitude towards the platform reduces the support of a project. Previous studies have found that the Internet platform had an internal social capital that may provide the first funds in projects (Colombo et al., 2015). This study extends these results by showing that the platform can also be an obstacle to fundraising when users have a negative attitude. This effect is found on both intend to participate in a project presented on the platform and in the intention to share word of mouth. The results therefore show a favourable attitude towards the platform significantly fosters participation and word of mouth sharing. Participation directly contributes to a successful project while the word of mouth indirectly by influencing the receivers (Gauri, Bhatnagar, & Rao, 2008).

At the managerial level, the conclusions of this research suggest to Internet platforms several ways to improve the attitude of their potential contributors. The consideration of each risk factor involves developing easier crowdfunding platforms in the payment system and, more useful for contributors, for example by showing that it is a way to receive an economic value as an altruistic image benefit. For the project creator the results can lead to an adaptation of the campaign by raising inhibitors of contributors to use the Internet crowdfunding platform and eventually lead to present their projects on specialised platforms. This niche strategy can reach contributors with a more favourable attitude towards the platform and the type projects presented that leads to a higher monetary participation (Hu, Li, & Shi, 2015).

There are several limitations to this study, suggesting areas for further research. The theoretical model used takes into account mainly the utilitarian dimension in order to participate in the Internet platform (Davis, 1989) while others including affective dimensions such as perceived enjoyment during the visit, could be integrated (van der Heijden, 2003). Beyond the moderating effects of demographic variables other individual variables can be incorporated as the level of online shopping experience of the user. Finally, the relative contribution of the attitude towards the platform and the nature of the project remains an open question.

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Emotional Contagion in Computer-Mediated Communication: The Effects of Smileys on Receivers' Emotions
*** Best Paper of Track ***

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Abstract
Computer-mediated communication has become an inherent part of consumers' daily interactions. However, its text-based nature and the limited options to express emotions impair interactions through computer-mediated channels. Thus, the use of emotional cues, e.g. smileys, is getting more and more import to overcome these shortcomings. While existing research explores the impacts of smileys on communication little attention has been paid to investigate the effects of smileys on the receivers' emotions, and consequently, on the interactions between communication partners. We address this issue and estimate whether smileys can cause emotional contagion, which is known to foster harmonic interactions and to strengthen the relationship between interaction partners by sharing emotions.

Results from an online experiment with 1.804 participants support the assumptions that smileys have an impact on receivers' emotions through process of emotional contagion and that these effects depend on receivers' susceptibility to emotional contagion.

Keywords: Computer-Mediated Communication, Smiley, Emoticon, Emotional Contagion

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

The Impact of Celebrity Endorsement on Online Brand Engagement

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Abstract

Although the new celebrities−social media influencers have been playing an increasing role in modern marketing, there is a lack of research on how social media influencers can impact consumers and their behaviour. To fill the gap, this paper studies the different impact of the endorsement by the new and traditional celebrities on online brand engagement. Based on social distance theories, we construct a conceptual framework and testable propositions to provide a deep understanding. We show that the type of celebrities can cause not only different degree of engagement but also how consumers are going to engage with the brand. We further show that the product characteristics also influence the effectiveness of the different types of celebrity endorsement.

Keywords: social media; Instagram; online brand engagement; social media influencers; celebrity endorsement

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Receptivity to Mobile Marketing Adoption: Empirical Evidence from South African Manufacturing SMEs

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Abstract

This study analysed South African manufacturing SMEs' receptivity to the adoption of mobile marketing, based on the characteristics of the technology. A conceptual model that examines the effect of perceived relative advantage, perceived complexity, and perceived cost on non-adopting manufacturing SMEs' intention to adopt mobile marketing was proposed and empirically tested with data randomly sourced from SMEs in the South African manufacturing sector. The results of the analysis show that the proposed model provides a reasonably good explanation of SMEs' intention to adopt mobile marketing. The results further identify perceived relative advantage and perceived cost as significant factors influencing SMEs' receptivity to the adoption of mobile marketing.

Keywords: Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), mobile marketing, adoption intention, South Africa

Track: Digital marketing and social media

Introduction

The contemporary business climate is characterised by globalisation and hyper-competition (Onetti et al., 2012). Businesses have to nimble, therefore, in responding to the changes in their environments if they are to succeed. In this regard, businesses rely heavily on knowledge and information technology (IT) in order to appeal to their markets and remain competitive (Bharadwaj et al., 2013). Indeed, developments in IT have been a major driver of many of the socio-economic changes taking place in the 21st century (Davenport, 2013). One of the most important technological revolutions of the 21st century is the mobile device, which is making an enormous impact on both individuals and organisations (McNaughton and Light, 2013)

The adoption rate of the mobile device is unprecedented (Lee, 2015). Even in 'third world' countries, where technology adoption tends to be limited, the mobile device has experienced tremendous rates of adoption (Pew Research, 2014). Certainly, most people in the global community have access to one mobile device or another. The successful penetration of the mobile device has opened up business opportunities for companies that leverage the unique characteristics of the device to streamline their business operations and to communicate in a meaningful way with their stakeholders (Looney, Jessup and Valacich, 2004).

One such business application of the mobile device is mobile marketing, which has tremendous potential to enhance the effectiveness of communication between businesses and their customers – an aspect that is of prime importance for remaining competitive in the current business climate (Ktoridou, Epaminonda and Vrontis, 2007). Big businesses have successfully exploited the opportunities presented by mobile marketing to promote their products/services and to facilitate interactive communication with their customers (Merisavo et al., 2007).

The affordability and target-reach of mobile marketing, compared with traditional forms of marketing, make the technology an ideal marketing tool for small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs): they are often under-resourced, limiting them to investing in costly traditional marketing programmes (Maduku, Mpinganjira and Duh, 2016). In spite of the many benefits that emerging technologies like mobile marketing offer SMEs, the rate of adoption of this technology remains low among SMEs (Ghobakhloo et al., 2012). This study aims to understand the factors that influence South African manufacturing SMEs' receptivity to mobile marketing adoption. The findings of the study will provide insight into strategies aimed at accelerating the adoption of mobile marketing among SMEs, and add to the emerging literature on the adoption of marketing innovations from the perspective of SMEs in a developing country which is mostly under-researched.

Conceptual Research Model and Hypotheses

Several empirical findings have emphasised that the characteristics of an innovation are key to its rapid diffusion among its end-users (Rogers, 1995; Premkumar, 2003). One of the most widely-used theories about how the characteristics of an innovation influence its adoption by end-users is the innovation diffusion theory (Rogers, 1995). In spite of this, researchers (Premkumar, 2003; Ramdani, Kawalek and Lorenzo, 2009) have argued that only a limited number of studies have examined how the characteristics of an innovation influence its adoption specifically in the context of SMEs. This study aims to help to bridge this gap by examining how the characteristics of the mobile marketing innovation affect the receptivity of SMEs' decision-makers/managers to its adoption.

Innovation adoption literature has identified five perceived characteristics of an innovation that influences its adoption, however, relative advantage and complexity have been found to

resiliently be associated with adoption (Agarwal and Prasad, 1998; Wu and Wang, 2005). Moreover, cost is also identified as one of the most critical factor that influences SMEs adoption of technology due to the financial constraints that they face (Ramayah et al., 2016; Wu & Wang, 2005). Thus this study proposes a conceptual model (Figure 1) that posits that perceived relative advantage, perceived complexity, and perceived cost are directly related to mobile marketing adoption intention among South African manufacturing SMEs. The relationship between these constructs and the corresponding hypotheses are discussed below.

Perceived Relative Advantage
'Relative advantage' denotes "the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being superior to the idea it supersedes" (Rogers, 1995, p.16). A number of empirical studies have underscored a positive direct relationship between the relative advantage of an innovation and its adoption (Ramdani et al., 2009; Maduku et al., 2016). Thus, when mobile marketing is perceived to provide superior marketing results over the current marketing approaches used by SMEs, decision-makers/managers will develop a positive intention to adopt the technology. The following hypothesis is therefore proposed:
H1:   Perceived relative advantage will have a significant positive effect on   SMEs' intention to adopt mobile marketing.

Perceived Complexity
Another important characteristic of an innovation that influences its adoption is its perceived complexity. Complexity is defined as "the degree to which an innovation is perceived as relatively difficult to understand and use" (Rogers, 1995, p.16). Owing to the limited resource capacity of SMEs, the complexity of an innovation is a major deterrent against its adoption among SMEs (Thong, 1999). Previous research has found a significant direct negative relationship between perceived complexity and adoption innovations among SMEs (Gangwar, Date and Ramaswamy, 2015). Thus, if South African manufacturing SMEs perceive the use of mobile marketing to be complicated, they will be less likely to be receptive to its adoption. Hence this study proposes:
H2:   Perceived complexity will have a significant negative effect on   SMEs' intention to adopt mobile marketing.

Perceived cost
The cost of acquiring an innovation may pose a significant barrier to its adoption in SMEs (Kuan and Chau, 2001). Previous studies (e.g. Shah Alam, 2009; Seyal and Rahim, 2006) have found a significant negative relationship between the cost of acquiring an innovation and its adoption. SMEs often experience financial constraints. So South African manufacturing SMEs will be less receptive to the adoption of mobile marketing if they perceive the innovation to be expensive to acquire. This study proposes:
>   **H3**:   Perceived cost will have a significant negative effect on SMEs' intention to
>   adopt mobile marketing.

Methodology
Measures
The items used for measuring the constructs in this study were selected and adapted from related earlier studies. Perceived relative advantage and perceived cost were both measured using four items adapted from Lian Yen and Wang (2014). The four items used in measuring perceived complexity were adapted from Oliveira, Thomas and Espadanal (2014). Finally, the three items used to measure adoption intention were adapted from Mishra, Akman and Mishra (2014). All of the items were measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale with anchors ranging

from 1 ('strongly disagree') to 7 ('strongly agree'). To ensure content validity, the items were reviewed by experts in information systems research.

Survey design and data collection
The population for this study was decision-makers/managers of SMEs in the manufacturing sector in the Gauteng Province of South Africa. The sampling frames identified for this study were the Gauteng Small Business Directory and the telephone directory. These lists were scrutinised by the researcher in order to remove duplications.

A stratified sampling technique was then used to categorise the enterprises into 'small' and 'medium' enterprises, based on the number of full-time employees in line with the South African definition of SMEs. The list yielded 220 sample units that were successfully stratified into 125 and 95 small- and medium-sized businesses respectively. Next, a simple random sampling procedure was used to draw the sample from each stratum. To select a sample from the small business stratum, random numbers between 1 and 125 were assigned to the elements. The entire data file was re-organised accordingly, and the first 95 enterprises in the small business stratum were selected. This process was repeated for enterprises in the medium-sized stratum, where 80 enterprises were included in the sample. Thus the overall sample consisted of 178 SMEs.
Trained survey assistants approached the decision-makers/managers in the selected SMEs with a paper-based questionnaire, visiting them in their offices and seeking their consent to participate in the study. The willing respondents had the option of either completing the questionnaires by themselves or having the questions read out to them by the survey assistant, who then recorded their answers on the questionnaire. Of the 178 SMEs included in the sample, 156 participated – an effective response rate of 87.6 per cent. The respondents consisted of 94 users and 62 non-users of mobile marketing. However, the focus of this study was on the non-users.

Data analysis
In testing the measurement and structural models, a structural equation model using the partial least squares (PLS) estimation approach was used. The SmartPLS 3.0 program was used to conduct the PLS estimation approach (Ringle, Wende and Becker, 2015). SmartPLS is robust, and capable of carrying out very good path estimates even with sample sizes as small as 40 (Janno et al., 2014). Owing to the small sample size of the study, SmartPLS 3.0 was considered appropriate for the analysis.

Results and Discussion
Assessment of the measurement model was carried out using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Hair et al., 2010). Thus the measurement model was assessed for its convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity was examined using standardised factor loading, Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability, and average variance extracted (AVE). The results of the CFA show that all the factor loadings for all the items were between 0.928-0.998 – well above the recommended threshold of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010). The estimates for the Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability also exceeded the widely recommended threshold of 0.7. Lastly, the AVE estimates computed for the constructs ranged from 0.928 to 0.987, far exceeding the recommended cut-off point of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2010). These results generally indicated good convergent validity for the measurement model.

The discriminant validity of the measurement model was estimated by following the approach recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981). The results of this assessment (Table 1) show

that the square roots of the AVEs were greater than the correlations among the constructs, thus providing evidence of good discriminant validity.

Table 1: Discriminant validity

	Construct	AVE	1	2	3	4
1	Adoption intention	0.969	**0.985**			
2	Perceived complexity	0.928	-0.326	**0.963**		
3	Perceived cost	0.951	-0.519	0.509	**0.975**	
4	Perceived relative advantage	0.987	0.660	-0.513	-0.441	**0.993**

Diagonal bold estimates are the square root of the AVEs the others are the correlation estimates After confirming the good validity of the measurement model, the hypothesised structural model was examined. The results of this examination are presented in Figure 1. They indicate that perceived relative advantage (β =0.558, p<0.001) has a significant positive effect on the intention of SMEs in the manufacturing sector to adopt mobile marketing, providing support for H1. The relationship between perceived complexity and adoption intention is insignificant (p>0.05); thus H2 is not supported. However, the result showed that perceived cost has a significant direct negative effect on the perceived cost of the intention to adopt mobile marketing (β=0.334, p<0.05). Thus H3 is supported. The significant factors together explain 51.4 per cent of the variance in the intention to adopt mobile marketing.
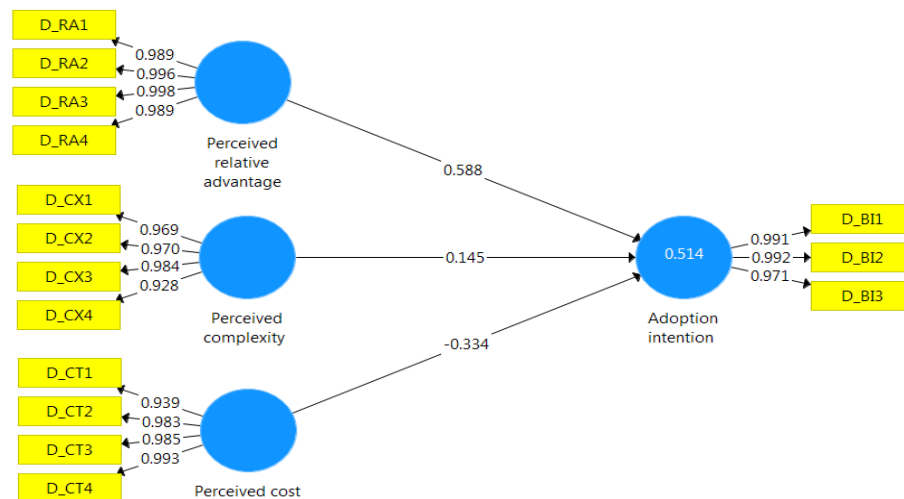
Figure 1. Measurement and structural models analyses.

The findings of this study about the direct effect of perceived relative advantage on the intention to adopt is consistent with previous studies that have consistently established a direct positive relationship between perceived relative advantage and potential adopters' intention to use a particular source technology (Ramdani et al., 2009; Maduku et al., 2016). Thus SMEs in the South African manufacturing sector will not be inclined to adopt and use mobile marketing approaches unless they believe that the technology will significantly improve their marketing efforts. For this reason, a good strategy to increase their receptivity towards the adoption of the technology would be to develop mobile marketing innovations that include benefits that would solve the SMEs' marketing problems, and to communicate these benefits consistently to them in clear and simple ways.

The study's findings that perceived complexity is not significantly related to mobile marketing adoption intention among participating SMEs in the South African manufacturing sector is inconsistent with previous findings that have shown that perceived complexity is significant and is inversely related to adoption intention (Gangwar et al., 2015). A plausible explanation for this finding may be attributed to respondents' familiarity with the mobile medium, thus

leading them to perceive the use of the mobile marketing technology to be free from both physical and mental effort. Vendors of mobile marketing can capitalise on this finding to promote the receptivity of SME decision-makers/owners towards the adoption of the technology.

The study found perceived cost to be significant and negatively associated with mobile marketing adoption intention. This finding corroborates the findings of earlier studies (Shah Alam, 2009; Seyal and Rahim, 2006). Thus SME decision-makers/managers will be less receptive to the adoption of mobile marketing if they perceive it to be expensive. To increase SMEs' receptivity to the technology, and thus to increase their intention to adopt, developers of the technology should endeavour to develop mobile marketing platforms that are affordable for their target SMEs. Most SMEs are resource-challenged; so, unless the mobile technology is positioned as a superior value-for-money approach to marketing, decision-makers/managers will resist its adoption.

Conclusion and Future research

The aim of this study has been to ascertain the effect of perceived relative advantage, perceived complexity, and perceived cost on the receptivity of decision-maker/managers in South African SMEs in the manufacturing sector to the adoption of mobile marketing. Data for the study was obtained from a random sample of SMEs in the Gauteng Province of South Africa. The results of the analysis identified perceived relative advantage and perceived cost as significant factors explaining the receptivity of decision-makers/managers to the adoption of mobile marketing technology. Interestingly, however, perceived complexity was not significantly related to adoption intention. This may possibly mean that if SME decision makers' perceptions of relative advantage is high and cost is low, the complexity of the innovation may not be relevant. The conceptual model proposed for this study offers an acceptable explanation of adoption intention, as it is capable of explaining 51.4 per cent of South African manufacturing SMEs' intention to adopt mobile marketing. The findings of this study add to the emerging body of research on mobile marketing adoption from the SME interface, and also provide managerial insights into efforts aimed at fostering the enthusiastic adoption of this source technology.

In spite of the study's theoretical and managerial contributions, its limitations provide scope for future studies. The study took place among manufacturing SMEs in the Gauteng Province of South Africa. Even though this is the economic hub of the country, it is largely urban. Thus the results of this study might be different if undertaken among SMEs in rural areas of South Africa. Moreover, the sample size is relatively small. Future studies could consider using larger sample sizes with broad-based responses that include respondents from SMEs in the rural areas of South Africa. Future studies could also consider increasing the variables used in the study by including factors in the external environment of SMEs that might influence their receptivity to the adoption of mobile marketing.

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The impact of Social Media Engagement on Customer Brand Perception: The Mediating Effect of electronic Word-of-Mouth

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Abstract

Never before have social media platforms been more powerful in engaging customers in their daily life with the user-generated contents shared by like-minded consumers. However, there have been very few scholarly attempts to identify the impact of social media engagement on customer attitude and behaviour toward the brand. Accordingly, drawing on social information processing theory, the principal focus of this study is to develop the propositions regarding the influence of social media engagement on customer perception toward the brand, and, subsequently, on the intention of purchasing the brand product/services. Further, the study argues the mediating effect of the adoption of electronic Word-of-Mouth on engaged users in driving their brand perception when they utilise the shared information on social media to shape their perception about the brand competence and warmth in deliver its brand promise. In addition, the research also examines the moderating roles of online savviness and social media credibility.

Keywords: Customer Engagement, Social Media, Electronic Word-of-Mouth, Brand Perception

Track: Digital marketing and Social Media

Introduction

Social media changes the way customers perceive the information about the brand. Customers are not only searching for the brand information, but they also compare and review other like-minded customer evaluations about the brand. Accordingly, this study aims to explore the extent to which brand discussions on social media platforms shape customer brand perceptions and purchase intentions. The theoretical foundation underpinning this study is social exchange theory, which explains the reasons that engaged members adopt electronic word-of-mouth from social media platforms. According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), if the social media platforms provide exceptional benefits to its engaged members, and members perceive exclusive benefits social media platforms, this will, subsequently, trigger members' favourable attitudes and behaviours towards the shared information from like-minded about the specific brands. The more engaged members there are interacting with other members, the more they perceive the interpersonal knowledge shared through ongoing interactions over time. Therefore, this paper argues for the influence of engagement with social media on the word-of-mouth recommendations of online members, their brand perceptions and purchase intentions.

Conceptual Foundations

Customer Engagement in Social Media Platforms

The term customer engagement has been increasingly discussed in the marketing literature (Hollebeek, 2011). Customer engagement represents the strength, health and fruitfulness of the relationship between customers and focal objects (Brodie et al., 2011). Engaged customers represent their pro-active role in creating an interactive and co-creation process with the focal object in order to build up customer value (Vivek, 2009, Brodie et al., 2011). Scholars argued that customer engagement differs from other customer relationship constructs (such as commitment, involvement, or loyalty) for its implication of the two-way interaction between customers and the focal object, in which the customers' focal object-related reciprocity is critical for the strengthening of the relationship beyond the exchange situation (Brodie et al., 2011, Hollebeek, 2011). In particular, most of the engagement studies focus on how customers engage in branding process where they interact with the brand majorly as a focal object (Hollebeek, 2011, Brodie et al., 2013, Dolan, Conduit and Fahy, 2016).

Further, the observation from engagement concept in marketing literature reveals that there is no consensus on definition and underlying components of customer engagement. Van Doorn et al. (2010) and Dolan et al. (2016) viewed customer engagement as a physical aspect of customer behavioural manifestations on a brand moving beyond purchase. Further, while Higgins and Scholer (2009) examined customer engagement as a cognitive state when customers are interested in and involve with a focal object, Heath (2009) perceived engagement as an emotional phenomenon when customers have subconscious feeling going during the advertisements. In particular, majorities conceptualise customer engagement as a multidimensional psychological state including all cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components (Brodie et al., 2011, Hollebeek, 2011, Nguyen et al., 2015).

The emergence of online social media offers customers a number of alternative touch-points to engage with the brand or the company. Social media is defined as 'a group of internet based applications that builds on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and it allows the creation and exchange of user-generated content' (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010, p.61). It includes wide ranges of online interactive platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, Youtube, Instagram, Snapchat, Flickr, Linkedin, Pinterest, online forums …ect. In 2015, there are more than 3.4 billion consumers used online platforms for product/service browsing, and

68% of them were active members of at least one social media platform (Wearesocial.sg, 2016). Thus, social media is considered an important platform for consumers to interact with other people and the brand. In fact, customers who are engaged with a brand spend more time online seeking brand-related information and activities (Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie, 2014, Nguyen et al., 2015, Dolan et al., 2016). brand-engaged customers, through their dynamic interaction with other customers in cyberspace, engage with a brand in various social online activities such as get-together events in fan pages, learning courses, or video live-stream on Youtube organised by the brand, the discussion in online consumer forums in order to get updated and share brand-related information…*etc.*, thereby developing the long-term reputation of a brand (Brodie et al., 2013, Dolan et al., 2016).

Although there were a number of studies on customer engagement on social media, these studies focus on the way customers using social media platforms as a new touch-point to engage with the target brand. Very few studies explore whether customers engage with social media platforms as parts of their daily life and, as a result, exposed to various brand-related information shared by others. These social media platforms, which is not belong to any particular brand, provide like-minded customers sharing psychographic commonalities opportunities to collaborate, share information, create and develop user-generated contents about the particular products, services. For example, customers who love new technology may engage with an online group such as CNET forum where they can interact with like-minded people for the reviews and relevant discussions of high-tech products such as smartphone, laptop, tablet, get update news about latest technology using in some products/industries. However, during their engagement, they may expose to different brands shared by others that would, in turn, change their perception and subsequent decisions about these brands.

Accordingly, we adapt the widely accepted definition of customer brand engagement by Hollebeek (2011, p.565) to define social media engagement (SME hereafter) as an 'individual's cognitive, emotional and behavioural investment in the interactions with a social media platform'. SME is focus on customer engagement with social media as the focal object regardless of their relationship with the brand. Thus, it is argued that SME is different from any term in the literature such as 'customer engagement in brand community' (Brodie et al., 2013, Wirtz et al., 2013), 'online brand community engagement' (Baldus, Voorhees and Calantone, 2015), 'social media engagement (behaviour)' (Dolan et al., 2016), and 'online customer engagement', (Marbach, Lages and Nunan, 2016) since these studies examined online touch-points such as brand communities, Facebook groups that belong to specific brands. These platforms are insufficient to represent a wide range of social media including both brand-related and non-brand-related platforms. In addition, in line with the argument from Dolan et al. (2016), we name the person who engaged with social media as an 'engaged user' rather than a 'engaged customer' since he/she was not necessary engaged in any relationship with the brand.

Engaged users works as multiple roles in social networks, including those of learner, experience and knowledge sharer, and social media platform co-developer (Dolan et al., 2016, Maslowska, Malthouse and Collinger, 2016). They tend to behave as active netizens by voluntarily helping other users who need supports for product/service usages, thereby enhancing the values of the social media group (Nguyen et al., 2015) and creating the group identification (Wirtz et al., 2013). Further, they support their online group to adjust the contents of their posts timely according to user feedback, opinion (Nguyen et al., 2015). In this study, we argue that SME provide the brand opportunities to foster the positive brand perception and purchase intention, taking into consideration the mediating effect of eWOM and moderating

effects of online savviness and social media credibility. The propositions for the conceptual framework in figure 1 will be discussed next.

Figure 1: Summary of Conceptual relationships
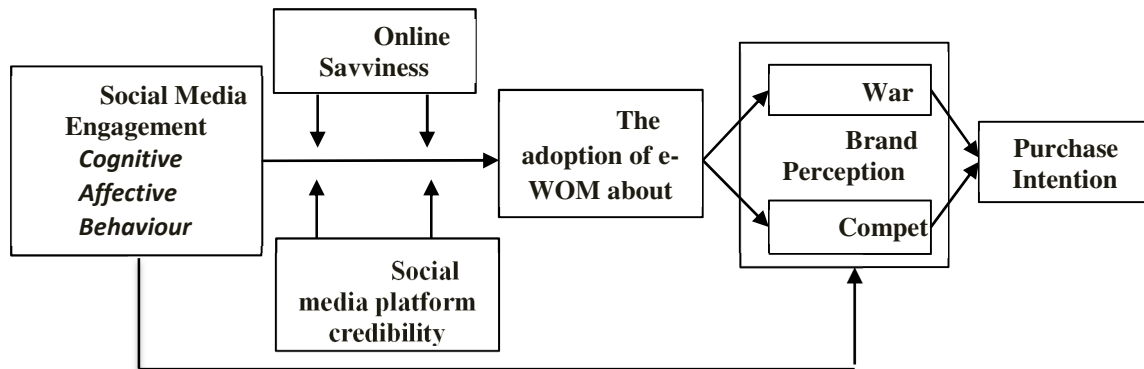
The adoption of Electronic Word-of-Mouth related to the brand on Social media
Electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM hereafter) refers 'all informal communications directed at consumers through Internet-based technology related to the usage or characteristics of particular goods and services' (Litvin, Goldsmith and Pan, 2008, p.461). eWOM is considered as a reliable and transparent source of information creating stronger influence on consumer perception and behaviour toward a particular brand, product/service (Litvin et al., 2008, Serra Cantallops and Salvi, 2014). One of the reasons is because customers consider advertising and marketing campaigns as unreliable sources providing bias information to promote the brand (Ladhari and Michaud, 2015).

Several scholars embed eWOM as behavioural manifestation of customer engagement which refers to the contributions such as postings, comments, reviews to promote the focal objects (Dolan et al., 2016, Maslowska et al., 2016). In this study, we examine the other aspect of eWOM as the adoption of the collective information shared by other users on social media sites about a particular brand, its product or service. With the emergence of social media, consumers are able to access a huge quantity of shared information with multiple perspectives of a particular brand including its popularity, price, quality, service, usage experiences (Serra Cantallops and Salvi, 2014). By utilising user-generated contents on social media such as Facebook, Twitter, Youtube… etc., customers are able to familiar with the brand, to get an overall service evaluation of the brand, and, subsequently, to make decisions to select the brand (Ladhari and Michaud, 2015).

In particular, the impact of e-WOM is more effective to members who visit the social media platform regularly (Dolan et al., 2016). Since engaged users identified themselves as the representative of the social media platform they belong to (Brodie et al., 2013), they tend to join all discussions with like-minded people concerning the particular brand/products. Accordingly, they may be influenced by others' opinions, trending discussions, reviews (Wirtz et al., 2013, Nguyen et al., 2015). In line with this discussion, we argue that engaged members, who visit online platform frequently are more exposed to eWOM in regular interactions with others and, in turn, are influenced by these eWOM about the product/services. The more a user is engaged with social media platforms, the more influence the e-WOM has on them. It is proposed that:
Proposition 1: SME is related to the adoption of e-WOM about the brand

Brand perception
Brand perception refers to customer understanding about what the brand represents and offers to customers (Berger, Draganska and Simonson, 2007, Kervyn, Fiske and Malone, 2012). Literature has identified two fundamental components generating customer brand perception: competence and warmth (Berger et al., 2007, Kervyn et al., 2012). Competence refers to the brand ability/capability to deliver its functional intentions to customers (Kervyn et al., 2012). If the brand can meet customer expectations for its function, it is perceived as competent and capable, whereas failing to achieve its intentions is regarded as incompetent. Warmth refers to the friendliness and trustworthy that customers can perceive when experiencing the brand (Berger et al., 2007).

Engaged members who spend more time on social media platforms often receive information about brand experience and quality (Wirtz et al., 2013) It allows them to increase the knowledge about the brand. The more frequency they visit the social media sites, the higher magnitude of their exposure to various shared information, reviews, comparison including the brand experience, its trustworthy, and quality in order to meet and exceed customer expectation. Accordingly, they may change the perception toward the brand if they perceive the social group to be more accepting of the brand. It is argued that:
Proposition 2: Social media engagement is related to customer brand perception

In addition, users who engage with social media are more likely to join group activities to interact with others in order to strengthen their engagement (Wirtz et al., 2013). Previous research found that internet users tend to rely on online reviews, opinions to shape their perceptions toward the brand, especially those who have limited prior experience to evaluate the brand performance (Ladhari and Michaud, 2015). While interacting with others, engaged users are aware of the capability of the brand in delivering its brand promise (Litvin et al., 2008). They are willing to change their attitude toward a particular brand if the online reviews endorse the competence and warmth of the brand, and, thus, make recommendations of the brand (Serra Cantallops and Salvi, 2014). Further, when customers perceive that the brand is able to provide great competence and warmth, they are more likely to make decisions to purchase it (Kervyn et al., 2012). This leads to the following proposals:
Proposition 3: The adoption of e-WOM about the brand mediates the relationship between social media engagement and customer brand perception (competence, warmth)
Proposition 4: Customer perception about the competence and the warmth of the brand is related to customer purchase intention

The moderating effects of online savviness and social media platform credibility
It is argued that the savviness of online members and social media credibility influence the impact of social media engagement on the adoption of e-WOM about the brand. Consumer online savviness is 'the competency of consumers across an array of practical skills and knowledge to respond to a constantly changing, networked environment' (Macdonald and Uncles, 2007, p.499). Savvy online users have both technology competency in adopting the new and complex technology and network competency in dealing with online relationships (Macdonald and Uncles, 2007). Since engaged users are pro-active in seeking new ideas and adapting online information to widen their knowledge (Garnier and Macdonald, 2009), the online savviness level may influence their acceptance of e-WOM toward the brand.

Further, credible sources provide more precise and customised knowledge to customers (Rains and Karmikel, 2009). Information from well-established online sources has a stronger effect on customers' attitudes when they seek information online and motivates customers to read and follow the advice given (Kim, Mattila and Baloglu, 2011). Therefore, this study proposes that social media platform credibility influences the effect of social media engagement on the adoption of e-WOM about the brand. This leads to following proposals:

Proposition 5: Online savviness moderates the impact of SME on the adoption of e-WOM about the brand.

Proposition 6: Social media platform credibility moderates the impact of social media engagement on the adoption of e-WOM about the brand.

Methodology

The research design for this study involves a multi-step approach of both qualitative netnographic and quantitative methods. The first phase involves the netnographic approach to explore the member engagement, participation in several social media platforms. Further, the observation will examine the online discussions about the specific brands and its impact on members' perception and actions. The qualitative results will reconfirm the proposed conceptual framework. Subsequently, in the second phase, online quantitative survey with online members will be conducted to test the relationships in the proposed framework.

Contributions and Conclusions

An important contribution of this research is exploring the concept of SME in the emerging social media platform to validate customer engagement concept in different environment. Specifically, the research results will examine the impact of SME on customer perception toward the brand. Further, the research results will examine the extent to which the adoption of e-WOM from that social media platform have significant impacts on engaged users in relation to customer brand perception, and result in their purchase intention.

In terms of practical implications, the research results could provide practitioners better understanding on the role of social media engagement, e-WOM in fostering customer perception toward the brand and, as a result, leading to customer purchase intention.

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Enhancing User Generated Content Credibility

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Abstract

The Internet makes it easier for consumers to obtain and to broadcast information on any topic in any location across the globe. Credibility of User Generated Content (UGC) has recently been challenged following multiple cases of falsification. This research examines factors associated with UGC credibility. The research was conducted using an online survey of 953 Australian respondents. Results suggest that reviewer's place high importance on opinion syntax, proof, positive and recent opinion when judging the credibility of online reviews. Marketing implications, limitations and future research directions are outlined.

Keywords: UGC Websites, False Advice, Deceptive Reviews, Social Media, Credibility, e-WOM.

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Perceptions of Social Benefit Related to Electronic Word-of-Mouth: The Development of a Brief Scale

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Abstract
Understanding how consumers' perceptions of social risk and benefit interact to determine the motivation to share electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) will inform marketing campaign designs. There is evidence that perceptions of social risk negatively impact individuals' willingness to share eWOM, but the role of perceived social benefit related to sharing has not been explored. To address this issue a scale to measure consumers' perceptions of the social benefits associated with sharing eWOM is required. This paper outlines the development of the Perceived Social Benefits of Sharing Scale, including the construction of preliminary items and the validity and reliability of the final scale. This scale can be used in future research to examine the role of perceived social benefit in determining what eWOM individuals will share, as well as how the interaction between perceptions of social risk and benefit determine where, when, and with whom eWOM will be shared.

Keywords: online word-of-mouth, viral marketing, social transmission

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Introduction
Sharing electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) can have negative and positive social consquences for the sharer. People like to share eWOM that makes them look good, but are also aware of the social dangers of sharing. For example, the "humblebrag", a veiled attempt at self-promotion, is an increasingly common online phenomenon (Alfano and Robinson, 2014). Individuals humblebrag because they want the social reinforcement that can result from sharing something they think sounds impressive, but wish to negate the backlash that can result from boasting by adding a complaint or a relatable anecdote (Sezer, Gino, and Norton, 2015). For example, rather than announcing "I just bought the newest iPhone!" a humblebragger might share: "exhausted from standing in line for three hours – this new iPhone better be worth it!". The recent proliferation of online humblebragging suggests that individuals are aware of the social consequences of engaging in eWOM, and that their perceptions of these social risks and benefits play a role in choosing what to share with others.

Accordingly, previous research has demonstrated the role of consumers' perceptions of social risk - the risk of disapproval or embarrassment as a result of sharing - in determining their likelihood to share word-of-mouth (WOM). Generally, eWOM is perceived to be more socially risky than face-to-face WOM, as eWOM is more visible and shared with a larger audience (Mandel, 2003). With increased perceived social risk, individuals' likelihood to share eWOM decreases (Eisingerich et al., 2015). However, perceived social risk is not always a barrier to online sharing. For example, prefer to share eWOM, rather than face-to-face WOM, that casts them in a positive light (De Angelis et al., 2012).

As with perceptions of social risk, individuals' perceptions of social benefit - the opportunity for social reinforcement or bonding - may fluctuate across different communication channels with changes in accountability and audience size (Barasch and Berger, 2014). Therefore, while the risk of embarrassment or disapproval increases in online contexts, the increased visibility and reach associated with eWOM may also present a greater opportunity to reap the social benefits resulting from sharing.

The possibility that online environments impact the perception of social risk *and* benefit highlights the question: how does the interplay between social risk and benefit influence what eWOM people will share? Understanding the relationship between perceptions of risk and benefit, as well as the impact of these factors on consumers' willingness to share eWOM, will allow marketers to more effectively produce shareable content and communication campaigns. To explore this research direction, a measure of how individuals perceive social benefit related to eWOM was required to compliment the existing measure of perceived social risk (Eisingerich et al., 2015). The current paper outlines the development of a brief scale that measures perceptions of social benefit associated with eWOM.

Item Development
To compile a list of possible items to measure individuals' perceptions of social benefit, we searched the literature for factors that relate to the benefits of sharing eWOM, and constructed a preliminary 17 item measure. The review of the literature demonstrated that the benefits of sharing eWOM can fall into three categories: sharing to benefit the self, sharing to benefit others, and sharing to benefit relationships with others. The following sections will describe these categories, make a case for which of these benefits are socially derived, and provide examples of the preliminary items that were adapted from the literature.

Sharing to benefit the self
Individuals are inherently motivated to engage in behaviour that verifies and enhances their self-concept, which is the set of beliefs they hold about who they are (Markus and Wurf, 1987). Social interactions provide an opportunity to engage in self-verification (communicating to express self-identity) and self-enhancement (communicating in order to "look good"; Banaji and Prentice, 1994). Engaging in eWOM provides individuals with an opportunity to self-verify. For example, the Facebook activities of many consumers have been shown to centre around communicating their self-concept to others through the brands that they interact with (Hollenbeck and Kaikati, 2012). Individuals are also aware that eWOM can be self-enhancing. People will often share experiences or recommendations that they perceive will foster impressions of expertise or connoisseurship, and their motivation to do this is greater when the communication is online rather than face-to-face (De Angelis et al., 2012; Lovett, Peres, & Shachar, 2013; Packard and Wooten, 2013).

Four items employed in previous research that examined the social motivations underlying luxury purchasing behaviour were adapted to measure the perceived benefits of eWOM to self-verification (e.g., *sharing would help me communicate my self-identity*; Wilcox, Kim, and Sen, 2009; see Table 1 for items). The three items used to measure perceived social risk in previous research were reversed to measure the perceived social benefits of eWOM to self-enhancement (e.g., *sharing would make me look good*; Eisingerich et al., 2015).

In addition to being self-enhancing and self-verifying, sharing eWOM can reduce social anxiety. Online communication can be more comfortable for individuals who have difficulty relating to others, as the nature of online communication is less synchronous and easier to compose than face-to-face communication (Caplan, 2002). While it is possible that eWOM is beneficial to some individuals as it facilitates social interactions for those who struggle to relate to others, it is unclear whether the computer-mediated nature of eWOM provides a perceptible social benefit to consumers in general. To explore this possibility, two items were adapted from the Generalised Problematic Internet Use scale (*I would feel confident sharing*; *I would feel comfortable sharing*; Caplan, 2002), and one item was derived from a measure of the sociability and usability of online brand communities (*I would enjoy sharing*; Jin, Park, and Kim, 2009).

Sharing to benefit others
Individuals share their experiences and opinions to the benefit of others. When consumers share their negative experiences they warn others to avoid making similar choices, and sharing positive eWOM can guide purchasing decisions (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). It is unclear whether sharing eWOM to warn or guide others is purely altruistic, or whether individuals perceive that a reciprocal social benefit will occur if they share eWOM to benefit others. To examine whether sharing for others' benefit is perceived as a social benefit related to eWOM two items were adapted from the knowledge sharing literature (e.g., *sharing would benefit others*; Kankanhalli, Tan, and Wei, 2005).

Sharing to benefit relationships with others
Sharing eWOM can benefit social relationships and feelings of community membership (Cheung and Lee, 2014). In online social networks, individuals' eWOM frequency has a positive relationship to the strength of their relationships with others in the network, as well as to levels of reciprocal trust and influence (Chu and Kim, 2011). Therefore, the preliminary measure included five items that were adapted from the previous literature to measure

participants' perceptions that sharing eWOM would benefit their relationships, social status, and feelings of belonging (e.g., *sharing would make me feel connected with others*; Ellison, Steinfield, and Lampe, 2007).

Table 1: Preliminary 17-Item Measure

Sharing to Benefit the Self	
1. I feel that sharing would benefit me	Eisingerich et al. (2015)
2. I feel I will gain approval if I share	
3. Sharing would make me look good	
4. I would enjoy sharing	Jin, Park, and Kim (2009)
5. I would feel confident sharing	Caplan (2002)
6. I would feel comfortable sharing	
7. Sharing would reflect the kind of person I see myself to be	Wilcox, Kim and Sen (2009)
8. Sharing would help me communicate my self-identity	
9. Sharing would help me express myself	
10. Sharing would help me define myself	
Sharing to Benefit Others	
11. Sharing would benefit others	Kankanhalli, Tan, and Wei (2005)
Sharing to Benefit Relationships with Others	
12. Sharing the story would benefit my relationships with others	Wilcox, Kim and Sen (2009)
13. Sharing would improve my social status	
14. Sharing would help me to fit in	
15. Sharing would make me feel as if I am contributing to a community	Ellison, Steinfield, and Lampe (2007)
16. Sharing would make me feel part of a community	
17. Sharing would make me feel connected with others	

After developing the preliminary items, a study was conducted to examine the underlying structure of the 17-item measure. This study also aimed to develop a scale appropriate for use in future research.

Method
Participants were recruited using Amazon Mechanical Turk (AMT), which is an online labour market. To be eligible to take part in the study, participants needed to have active email and Facebook accounts. The final sample consisted of 100 North American participants, 46% female, and with an average age of 32.6 years (ranging from 18-62 years). For taking part in the experiment, participants were compensated at a rate of US$6/hr.

Procedure and Measures
The study was an online survey developed using Qualtrics Survey Development software. Participants were first exposed to a brief fictional online news story describing an organic dog

food company's partnership with an animal shelter. Results of an earlier study demonstrated that this story elicits happiness, and is relatively shareable (i.e., participants were more likely to share this story than a story that was emotionally neutral).

The preliminary measure of perceived social benefit was then employed, and participants were instructed to respond to the items (see Table 1) in reference to the online news story that they had read (e.g., *I would enjoy sharing the story*). The order of the items was randomised, and participants responded using a six-point scale (*strongly disagree – strongly agree*). Higher scores indicated greater perceptions of social benefit. Participants then completed the perceived social risk measure reported in Eisingerich et al. (2015). These items were scored on a six-point scale (*strongly disagree – strongly agree*), with higher scores indicating greater perceptions of social risk.

Results

Preliminary analyses were conducted to confirm sampling adequacy and the factorability of the data. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (χ^2 (253) = 253, p < .001), and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value was .91 (exceeding the suggested cut-off of .6; Field, 2013) demonstrating sampling adequacy and that the items were highly factorable. Further, all 17 variables were correlated at .43 or higher, however, were not so highly correlated as to suggest multicollinearity (no correlations exceeded .9; Jolliffe, 2002).

As sampling adequacy and factorability was confirmed, a principle axis factor analysis was conducted to explore the underlying structure of the preliminary scale (Costello and Osborne, 2005). Two factors had eigenvalues of 1 (meeting Kaiser's criterion; Kaiser, 1958) and together these factors explained 73.84% of the variance. Following the recommendation of Field (2013), the rotated factor loadings (varimax) were inspected to determine which items should be retained. Nine items clustered onto Factor 1, and these items indicated perceptions of social benefit related to gaining social approval, expressing self-identity, and benefiting relationships with others (see Table 2). Items relating to sharing for enjoyment, comfort, or the benefit of others clustered onto Factor 2, or did not cluster onto either factor. A number of the items that clustered onto Factor 2 duplicated items which loaded onto Factor 1 (e.g., Item 16 vs Item 17). The remainder of the items that clustered onto Factor 2 were more tenuously indicative of perceptions of social benefit than those that clustered on Factor 1 (i.e., Items 4, 6, 5, and 11). Therefore, the items that clustered onto Factor 2 were not retained. The final measure, the Perceived Social Benefits of Sharing Scale (PSBSS), consisted of nine items (these are shaded in Table 2), and was highly internally consistent (Cronbach's α = .95).

Table 2: Rotated Factor Loadings of the 17 Preliminary Items

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
13. Sharing the story would improve my social status	.826	
14. Sharing the story would help me fit in	.822	
12. Sharing the story would benefit my relationships with others	.801	.345
10. Sharing the story would help me define myself	.768	.376
2. I feel I will gain approval if I share the story	.750	
1. I feel that sharing the story would benefit me	.731	.370
3. Sharing the story will make me look good	.677	.367

8.	Sharing the story would help me communicate my self-identity	.672	.561
16.	Sharing the story would make me feel part of a community	.629	.515
4.	I would enjoy sharing the story	.305	.882
6.	I would feel comfortable sharing the story		.820
5.	I would feel confident sharing the story		.803
7.	Sharing the story would reflect the kind of person I see myself to be	.469	.699
15.	Sharing the story would make me feel as if I am contributing to a community	.532	.676
17.	Sharing the story would make me feel connected with others	.606	.630
9.	Sharing the story would help me to express myself	.566	.624
11.	Sharing the story would benefit others	.444	.560

Note. Loadings less than .2 have been suppressed. Items retained in the final Perceived Social Benefit Scale are shaded.

There was no significant relationship between participants' mean scores on the PSBSS and their mean scores on the three perceived social risk items ($r = -.02$, $p = .41$) suggesting that the two are conceptually distinct. In relation to sharing the happiness-eliciting online news story, participants' perceptions of social benefit ($M = 3.39$ out of 6; $SD = 1.13$) were greater than that of their perceptions of social risk ($M = 1.92$ out of 6; $SD = 1.01$). These findings suggest that perceptions of social benefit do not necessarily occur only when there is an absence of perceived social risk, nor does perceived social risk imply that there is an absence of perceived social benefit. Participants' scores on the PSBSS were not significantly related to age ($r = .06$, $p = .54$), and did not differ depending on gender ($t(98) = -.37$, $p = .71$).

Discussion

How perceptions of social benefit drive sharing behaviour, and how these perceptions interact with perceptions of social risk, is not yet understood. Understanding this interaction between perceived social risk and benefit may prove central to understanding eWOM behaviour. Compared to face-to-face communication, online environments result in increased perceptions of social risk (Eisingerich et al., 2015). However, the greater visibility and audience size that produces these increased perceptions of social risk may also provide a more salient opportunity to enjoy the social benefits that result from sharing. The PSBSS may be utilised in future research that aims to examine the impact of perceptions of social benefit on what individuals will share, as well as how perceived social benefit and perceived social risk interact to determine where, when, and with whom, individuals will share eWOM.

The factor analysis demonstrated that the perceived social benefits associated with sharing eWOM are related to the self (e.g., sharing to communicate self-identity), and to relationships (e.g., sharing to benefit relationships with others or feel a part of a community). Items relating to altruistic sharing and sharing for comfort and enjoyment did not cluster with those related to the self or relationships. While altruism, comfort, and enjoyment are positive outcomes associated with eWOM, these may not be perceived to be *social* benefits that can be derived from sharing. This suggests that there is also scope to examine the non-social benefits of sharing which, in addition to altruism and comfort, may include financial benefits such as those derived from incentivised sharing (Walsh and Elsner, 2012).

Future research should employ the PSBSS to examine whether perceptions of social benefit influence individuals' likelihood to engage in eWOM, as well as how perceived social benefit interacts with perceived social risk to determine what people will share. For example, in the current study participants' perceptions of social benefit were greater than their perceptions of social risk, but what would occur if perceptions of social risk and benefit were both high? Understanding how these potentially competing factors influence eWOM behaviour will assist marketers to create shareable content that allows their audience to manage the risk and capitalise on the benefits associated with sharing. Further work may also be carried out to demonstrate the validity and reliability of the PSBSS to measure perceptions of social benefit associated with different types of WOM. For example, the study reported in the current paper examined eWOM and the sharing of a brand-relevant news article. Future research may examine the efficacy of these items to measure perceptions of social benefit related to face-to-face WOM or the sharing of eWOM related to actual consumption experiences.

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Conceptualising and Understanding the Drivers of Advertising Intrusiveness

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Abstract

The current study extends previous research by investigating the drivers of advertising intrusiveness from the consumer perspective. Specifically, it employs card sort tasks and depth interviews of 20 young adult consumers (aged 18-28) to examine perceptions of the drivers of advertising intrusiveness and the psychological consequences that result. Two key drivers are identified, namely, temporal disruptions and visual disruptions. The psychological consequences that result from advertising intrusiveness are also discussed. This study further contributes by developing a list of sixteen advertisement types on a scale from least to most intrusive. Offline advertisements are seen as less intrusive than online advertisement types.

Keywords: Intrusiveness, temporal disruptions, visual disruptions, online marketing

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Tweets for Tots: Using Twitter to Promote a Charity and its Supporters

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Abstract

Twitter, with its potential for pass-along of messages, provides an ideal channel for a non-profit organisation (NPO) to spread its message through reciprocal promotion with its supporting brands. This research examines the extent to which one NPO (Toys for Tots (T4T)) uses Twitter to promote the brands that support it and to further its own objectives. The findings show that T4T tweets mentioning a partner were retweeted significantly more often than those that did not mention partners. Nevertheless, the results show surprisingly limited mention of partner brands by T4T, with many never mentioned in T4T tweets. Separate analysis of partner tweets retweeted by T4T reveals additional ways that an NPO can use Twitter to promote its own objectives and those of its partners. The results have important implications for NPOs, suggesting more innovative use of social media could create reciprocal benefits for NPOs and the brands that support them.

Keywords: Twitter, retweet, promotion, social marketing

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Background
Social media have become a powerful and necessary tool for marketers, offering opportunities for brands to connect with consumers in a potentially more meaningful and active way (Muntinga, Moorman, and Smit, 2011). For non-profit organisations (NPOs), social media provide a method for marketers to promote a cause and engage with their stakeholders - including their corporate supporters (Lovejoy, Waters, and Saxton, 2012; Meenaghan, 2013). Social media are an especially attractive channel for non-profit and social marketers because the reach of communications is not only a function of the amount spent, as typically occurs with paid advertising, but also a function of online sharing, which often occurs organically at no cost. Social media's low barriers to entry and low cost per message, therefore offer particular advantages for non-profit organisations, which are usually constrained by a limited marketing budget (Bloom and Novelli, 1981). While not all NPOs are social marketing oriented, this paper considers the case of an NPO that has a social marketing objective – to use marketing tools and techniques to ultimately benefit society (International Association of Social Marketing, 2014). Social media could therefore offer a cost-effective channel for such NPOs as they promote their cause, and also as they promote the corporations that support them - their partners.

The relationship between NPOs and the companies that support them (henceforth 'partners') is particularly important because companies and NPOs are increasingly working together in a strategic manner to attain social goals (Berger, Cunningham, and Drumwright, 2004). Consumers expect a higher level of responsibility toward society, beyond that of product and profit. In supporting NPOs, companies satisfy consumer expectations of social responsibility (Cone Communications and Ebiquity, 2015). NPOs benefit from this support (Park, Hitchon, and Yun, 2004), and in return, companies expect to benefit as well (Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen, 2010). To the extent that NPO alliances benefit the corporate partner, it behooves the company to maintain their NPO support. As such, the NPO has incentive to nurture this relationship. Past research suggests that the promotion of NPO/Company alliances is more positively received when communicated by the NPO rather than by the company (Szykman, Bloom, and Blazing, 2004). Social media is one promising way in which NPOs can communicate about their corporate alliances, thus benefiting the partner in order to nurture the relationship.

Among social media, Twitter would seem to have particular potential for NPOs to promote their corporate partners, because the NPO can 'mention' one or more of its partners' brands in a tweet by referencing the Twitter handle of the partner. A mention means that the tweet will appear in the notifications tab of the mentioned partner, thus encouraging the partner to pass on, or 'retweet' the message to its own follower network (with or without modification). If the mentioned partner retweets the tweet, it will result in wider dissemination of the NPO's message – at a minimum to the partner's network, and potentially to a wider network if the partner's followers retweet the message. At the same time, the NPO's mention serves to promote and endorse the partner organisation by associating the partner brand with the NPO. Thus both the partner and the NPO can use Twitter to provide reciprocal benefits in a win-win strategy.

Promotion of a partner by a non-profit can be particularly beneficial because most corporate support involves an expectation of a return, or reciprocal benefit to the partner brand (with the exception of a purely philanthropic gift without expectation of benefit). Partners typically expect a benefit for one or more stakeholder groups, such as customers, media, internal staff, suppliers, distributors, rights holders or shareholders (Meenaghan, 2013). Specific motives may include increasing brand awareness or managing brand image with customers, aligning or re-positioning the brand alongside the cause, portraying a sense of social responsibility to

multiple stakeholder groups, managing relationships within the supply chain, or encouraging a sense of belonging with employees (Madden, Fehle, and Fournier, 2006; Meenaghan, 2013; Nickell, Cornwell, and Johnston, 2011). In other words, a partner is likely to expect reciprocal benefits from the NPO in return for its support. Social media can provide a mechanism by which an NPO can cost-effectively promote its own cause, spreading the social message to a potentially wider audience, and providing a benefit to its partners. Despite the theoretical attractiveness of social media for non-profits, particularly for social marketing oriented NPOs, there is some evidence that NPOs have been slower than their for-profit counterparts to adopt social media tools (Eyrich, Padman, and Sweetser, 2008). However an emerging body of research is examining how non-profits use Twitter. For example, Lovejoy and Saxton (2012) analysed non-profit tweets and concluded that they show three key functions: providing information, building community and encouraging action.

This paper extends the limited research on how non-profits use Twitter. Specifically, the study explores whether mentioning corporate partners in original tweets or retweeting partners' tweets can provide reciprocal benefits, firstly by increasing the reach of the non-profit's tweets, and secondly, by endorsing partner messages by forwarding them to the non-profit's network of followers. The study examines Twitter use by a major American-based, non-profit, Toys for Tots (T4T), and its network of corporate partners. At the beginning of 2015, T4T had 61 corporate supporters (partners), ranging from 1-star (giving $US25K in cash or $100K in toys) to 5-star ($US1 million in cash or $2 million in toys). Previous research has examined the relative frequency with which T4T mentions its partners (Burton *et al.*, 2015), but in this paper, we go further, to examine potential reciprocal benefits by T4T mentioning partners in original tweets, and/or by retweeting partner tweets, either modified (a 'modified tweet') or without modification. Through the following three research questions, we: (1) test whether mention of a partner brand by the respective NPO (T4T) increases the frequency of retweeting, (2) assess how frequently the NPO retweets partner tweets (with or without modification), and (3) examine which type of partner tweets are retweeted. Finally, we discuss implications for NPOs attempting to use social media to promote their cause and/or support their partners.

Method
US-based T4T Twitter accounts were identified using web and Twitter searches, resulting in a total of 19 active T4T Twitter handles. All tweets from these handles for the period 1/11/14 to 15/1/15 were downloaded using the Twitonomy premium service, resulting in a data set of 1,624 tweets (or an average of 85.5 per active handle (sd = 152.3)) tweets to an average of 727.6 (sd = 1,384) followers. Of these, 824 were original tweets by T4T and 800 were retweets. Retweets were excluded from the first part of the analysis (which examined frequency of retweets of T4T tweets), since retweet counts on Twitter are credited to the original sender, and it is not feasible to determine how many additional retweets result from a retweet by one Twitter handle (such as T4T). Search functions were used to identify 259 T4T tweets containing references to any of the 61 corporate brands that sponsor T4T. Partner tweets that were retweeted by T4T were examined separately to identify what types of partner tweets were retweeted.

Results
The mean number of retweets of T4T's 824 original tweets was low (1.0, sd= 3.4). Only a small minority (12.1%, n=100) of T4T's tweets mentioned one or more partners. Of the tweets that did mention partners, most (40, or 9.3% of all tweets) mentioned only one partner, though 3 tweets mentioned 9, 10, and 12 partners respectively.

Surprisingly, 21 of T4T's 61 corporate partners (including one 5-star partner) were not mentioned in any T4T tweets, although tweets mentioning one or more corporate partners received significantly more retweets ($p<0.001$), with an average of 3.2 retweets, compared to 0.7 retweets for tweets not mentioning supporters. There was also a significant positive monotonic (non-linear) relationship between the number of partner mentions in a tweet and the number of times it was retweeted (Spearman rho = 0.17, $p < 0.001$). These results address research question 1, demonstrating that T4T tweets mentioning partners result in a higher number of retweets. The relationship suggests that mentioning more partners is associated with a higher number of retweets, but the relationship was not strong. For example, the tweet mentioning the highest number of partners (12) (an image of a child being offered a present), was retweeted only three times (including two retweets by mentioned brands, and one by a T4T follower).

The second part of the analysis examined the 107 corporate partner tweets that were retweeted by T4T, addressing research question 2. These tweets were retweeted far more often than T4T's own tweets: the mean retweet count was 29.1 (sd= 86.3), compared to a mean retweet of 1.0 (sd= 3.4) of T4T's tweets, as discussed above. However, this higher retweet rate for partner tweets will be due at least partly to the partners' much larger networks, since partner brands had an average of 194.7K (sd = 606.4K) followers, compared to an average following of 727.6 (sd = 1,384) for T4T. The first key finding from this part of the analysis was that there were *no* modified retweets: that is, all tweets were forwarded directly by T4T without additional comment. These T4T retweets thus implicitly endorsed the partners' tweets by retweeting them, but did not explicitly endorse or acknowledge the support of the partner, which could have presumably increased the benefit to the partner. The second key finding was that T4T retweeted tweets by only a minority of partners (19 out of a total of 61 partners), with those tweets by those 19 partners being retweeted an average of 5.6 times. This failure to promote partners by retweeting their tweets in part reflects many partners' own failure to promote their support of T4T on Twitter; no Twitter handle could be found for 14 partners, but 22 partners who were active on Twitter did not mention T4T in the time period examined. However, the remaining 25 brands did mention T4T in their tweets, yet tweets by only 19 of those partners were retweeted by T4T. In examining the content of retweets of the partner tweets retweeted by T4T, a number of different purposes are evident which address research question 3, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Categories of partner retweets by T4T

Category	Count	Percent
General partner promotion	41	38.32%
Promotion of T4T	33	30.84%
Price promotion	13	12.15%
T4T related promotion	10	9.35%
Christmas message/joke	8	7.48%
Promotion	2	1.87%
Total	107	100%

Figure 1 shows an example of the most common form of retweet, a general partner promotion unrelated to T4T – here, a retweet of a ToysRUs tweet promoting its dress-up range. Figure 2 shows an example of the next most common form of retweet, one promoting T4T, in this case, a Walgreens tweet encouraging donations to T4T at Walgreens. The co-branded tweet,

however, has the additional purpose of promoting the products seen in the image, and encouraging visits to Walgreens, to drop off toy donations, but potentially to make purchases.

Figure 1: ToysRUs promotion, retweeted by T4T

Figure 2: Walgreen tweet driving action to benefit T4T

The third category of retweet was retweets of partners' price promotion messages advising of discounts, coupons and/or free shipping unrelated to T4T. For example, Alex Toys tweeted, and T4T retweeted:

$15 off $60 plus free shipping when you spend $25. Use code: BLKFRIDEAL. Ends tonight!

The fourth category of retweets of partner tweets was tweets that promoted a partner's support of T4T in some form of cause-related marketing arrangement, often by promising a donation to T4T for each purchase of a product, as shown in Figure 3. That tweet, by Duracell, promotes the company's donation to T4T for each purchase of specified batteries, supported by an image of popular media personality Ellen DeGeneres, flanked by two US military (because T4T is run by the United States Marine Corps Reserve). Another example of a cause-related marketing tweet is shown in Figure 4, a tweet where Walgreens says that it will donate $1 to T4T for every photo a consumer posts to a particular hashtag - '#MyMerryMoments'. In this case consumers do not need to make a purchase to trigger a donation to T4T, but the related link directs consumers to the Walgreens website, where they can submit their photos, and at the same time, be exposed to promotional messages by Walgreens. Thus the call for action in this case 'Share a festive photo of your pet' is likely to trigger additional traffic to the Walgreens website.

Figure 3: Duracell tweet, retweeted by T4T

Figure 4: Walgreen's tweet, retweeted by T4T

Discussion

The first key result from the study is surprising, in that T4T did not mention 21 of its partners in its tweets (including one 5-star partner), and only 19 partners had one or more of their tweets retweeted by T4T. This failure to publicly thank, endorse or promote partners in T4T tweets

suggests T4T is not using Twitter as effectively as possible, to either spread its own messages and/or to reinforce its supporter network, potentially jeopardising the support of those partners. This lack of partner mentions is particularly surprising, since the results suggest that an NPO may be able to increase the reach of its tweets by effective mentions of its corporate partners: tweets mentioning partners were, on average, retweeted more than three times as often, presumably because the partner organisations may retweet T4T's tweet to their own followers. Retweeting by a partner has the obvious benefit that the reach of the tweet is extended to the partner's network of followers (invariably much larger than T4T's networks). For an NPO to mention its partners, when appropriate, would therefore seem an obvious and effective way to increase the reach of the NPO's own tweets. This in turn would potentially expand the audience that receives the NPO's message, thus having the potential for greater impact overall. The positive association between the number of partner mentions in a tweet and the number of retweets of that tweet also suggests that one tweet can mention multiple partners, potentially resulting in higher numbers of retweets.

An NPO can also promote and support its partners by retweeting their tweets. The benefits to partners can take two paths. Firstly, by linking a partner's brand with the NPO in tweets, the connection between the brand and NPO is reinforced. This could serve to encourage and support many of the objectives corporate partners seek out, such as an alignment with the NPO's values, managing brand awareness and brand image with consumers, and further communicating the partner's sense of corporate responsibility (Meenaghan, 2013). Secondly, and related to this, is that an NPO retweet of partners' tweets sends those messages to a wider audience (i.e. the NPO's own follower network, and potentially to their followers). Although the NPO follower numbers are in almost all cases lower than the number who follow partners, the networks are likely to be discrete, so retweeting partner messages to the NPO's network would mean partners' tweets are sent to a new audience – and potentially retweeted to the NPO's followers' followers, thus potentially reaching a much wider audience. The analysis of partner tweets retweeted by T4T shows that both results are being achieved, to some extent, by T4T retweeting partner tweets. The examination of T4T's original tweets that mention partners, and the partner tweets that T4T retweets suggests that there are many ways in which an NPO-partner relationship may be reinforced and enhanced, with reciprocal benefits to both parties and to society. While a simple tweet about the partner by the NPO, or a tweet about the NPO by the partner, both serve to reinforce the association between the two, other examples making use of cause-related marketing techniques and encouraging consumer involvement in Twitter conversations were evident here. These examples point to further opportunity and rationale for greater engagement with Twitter by NPOs and their partners. These social media communications can encourage consumers to actively engage with a brand (for example by visiting the brand website to post a photo), including what some authors refer to as 'consumers' online brand related activities', or COBRAs (Muntinga, Moorman, and Smit, 2011). These activities include consumer-to-consumer and consumer-to-brand behavior, eWOM and user-generated content in a social media context, and have been suggested to have a strong, positive influence on firms (Muntinga, Moorman, and Smit, 2011). The NPO-partner Twitter interaction therefore has the potential for each party to expand their message as well and build their brands to their respective networks, and, by encouraging consumer activities such as retweeting, to a far wider audience. Overall while the study considers only one NPO and its corporate partners, the findings suggest there is opportunity for NPOs with a social cause to better engage in social media, to encourage reciprocal benefits via tweets and retweets, inviting audiences of both parties, and a wider consumer base, to engage in the conversation.
Future research could consider multiple cases to gain a stronger sense for similarities and differences in these findings across causes and/or countries, and could also explore the reasons

underlying the limited engagement with Twitter by NPOs and their partners observed in these results. For example, interviews with social media coordinators at NPO and/or partner organisations could be used to obtain information on their social media strategy approach, in an attempt to determine if the limited use of Twitter reported here stems from a specific strategy or from a lack of consideration of the strategic potential of the medium. Research could also investigate if, and if so how, NPOs are using targeted influentials to assist in wider dissemination of their communications on Twitter and/or other social media.

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The growth and decline of the peak oil paradigm:
The lifecycle of 'The Oil Drum' online community

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Abstract
The internal dynamics of internet communities have become an important area of recent study. Interest-based groups such as brand and fan communities have strong marketing implications. To date, however, there is little work taking a longitudinal perspective to understand how online communities form, grow, mature and disband. Our research considers these dynamics through the entire lifespan of The Oil Drum (TOD) community as it explored peak oil issues. We consider TOD as a community based around a dominant paradigm (Kuhn 1962), and show decline in engagement as anomalies around the peak oil paradigm began to accumulate. The analysis demonstrates that the rich data available on the website is amenable to qualitative and content analysis, as well as quantitative analysis approaches. We conclude with suggested methodologies and a brief research agenda that can take advantage of the unique data available from TheOilDrum.com, thereby providing insights into the broader universe of online communities.

Keywords: online communities, social media, lifecycle, corpus analysis, peak oil.

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

The Lifecycle of Online Communities
Serious study of online communities first developed in the early 1990s, and has since grown into a rich and extensive literature (Iriberri and Leroy 2009). Recent work emphasizes factors that affect member participation and online community success (e.g., Preece 2000). Although there is extensive work taking a cross-sectional perspective, there is only small pool of studies that consider how online communities develop and change over time. Our work, therefore, focuses on extending the study of online communities, specifically in relation to their inception, maturation and (in some cases) decline.

The product life cycle is a descriptive model originally developed from work by multiple authors, including Levitt (1965) and Cox (1967). The product lifecycle, a metaphor which suggests that products go through a sequence of phases analogous to the life of an organism, is typically conceptualized as two-dimensional, examining a measure of diffusion (such as sales or usage) plotted across elapsed time. The basic lifecycle is a chronological progression beginning with a pre-launch phase called invention or inception. This is followed by a period of creation or introduction, then growth, maturity, decline, and finally withdrawal or death.

While the classic product life cycle assumes a single peak in diffusion that occurs at the end of the maturity phase, at least 5 other patterns have been identified (Cox 1967, Bayus 1995). It can be applied to different units of analysis, including individual product models, product categories, technologies, or industries (Bayus 1994). This work was later adopted in the information systems literature (Ahituv and Neumann 1982) as an information systems lifecycle, and applied again to online community lifecycles (Iriberri and Leroy 2009). All lifecycle frameworks share a common limitation: they are descriptive rather than explanatory. The lifecycle analogy suggests that a period of growth typically follows introduction, but this may not be the case (as with a failed product). Similarly, the lifecycle suggests a finite lifetime, with inevitable senescence and decline. Here, too, the description falls short, as some products or categories may continue their growth for a century or more (e.g., electricity, airplanes, and telecommunications). In this preliminary study, we found that the chronology (inception, growth, maturation, decline, termination) holds for TOD, but the idealized shape of the lifecycle curve does not.

The Concept of Peak Oil
The beginning of the petroleum age is generally dated to 1858 with the drilling of the first successful well in Titusville, Pennsylvania (Balcilar et al. 2015). The abundance and ease of production of fossil fuels meant that the potential for shortages was not seriously considered until the mid-20th century. Using an intuitive curve-fitting methodology, Hubbert (1956) correctly predicted that American oil production in the lower 48 states would peak in 1970. Later work based on Hubbert's approach (e.g. Deffeyes, 2001) provided further insight, and research on oil depletion began to take on characteristics of a new paradigm (Kuhn 1962). The term "peak oil" was loosely defined as the point at which oil production reaches maximum annual output, followed by an inexorable decline as the depletion rate of existing wells oil exceeds the incremental production added by new wells coming online (Grant 2007). Peak oil is often called a theory, but is more properly seen as a descriptive framework based on empirical observations. Peak oil is an accessible concept and has become a popular lens through which to view issues of oil supply.

The Beginning of the Community: The Peak Oil Paradigm
The Oil Drum (TOD) was a social website founded in March 2005 by a group of academics and researchers to explore the effects of changes in energy availability. Several daily posts

(analysis, news items, or opinion) were placed by the editors, with open comment threads added by the membership. A manifesto was laid out in the second post:

"What do we believe? We all see the petroleum economy is the fundamental linchpin of our present democratic society [and] as cheap oil/energy/gas quietly fades into history, lives around the world will indeed change. This real and tangible crisis of supply and demand is now inevitable. Whether the coming crisis arrives in six months or in four years, whether the crisis arrives in a slow, secular fashion or as a cataclysmic "shock," our purpose is the same: we are here to raise awareness of the reality of the current problem and to attempt to address the real issues that are often hidden by political pandering (Saunders 2005)."

This opening statement includes several key tenets of the community that formed at The Oil Drum: that peak oil is a real phenomenon, coming imminently, bringing difficult social and economic consequences, and requiring serious consideration to anticipate and mitigate ill effects. All of these key ideas are ex-ante assumptions. They are capable of being supported after-the-fact by empirical observation, but can be neither proven nor falsified in advance. These tenets fit well with the concept of a paradigm as shared belief system (Kuhn 1962).

Growth

Membership and activity at TOD grew quickly. A key catalyzing event for the community was the sequence of hurricanes Katrina (landfall 25/8/2005) and Rita (landfall 24/9/2005). These events caused massive damage to Gulf of Mexico oil rig installations, and drove extensive analysis and discussion by members. As a result of these external factors, TOD had its highest level of monthly posts (141 in 9/2005) and posts in a two-month period (265 in 8-9/2005) within the first six months of the community's existence. These postings generated a high level of user engagement, combining fresh news and analysis with speculation and fellowship. Figure 1 shows the number of posts over the period of time the community was active in conjunction with key external events.
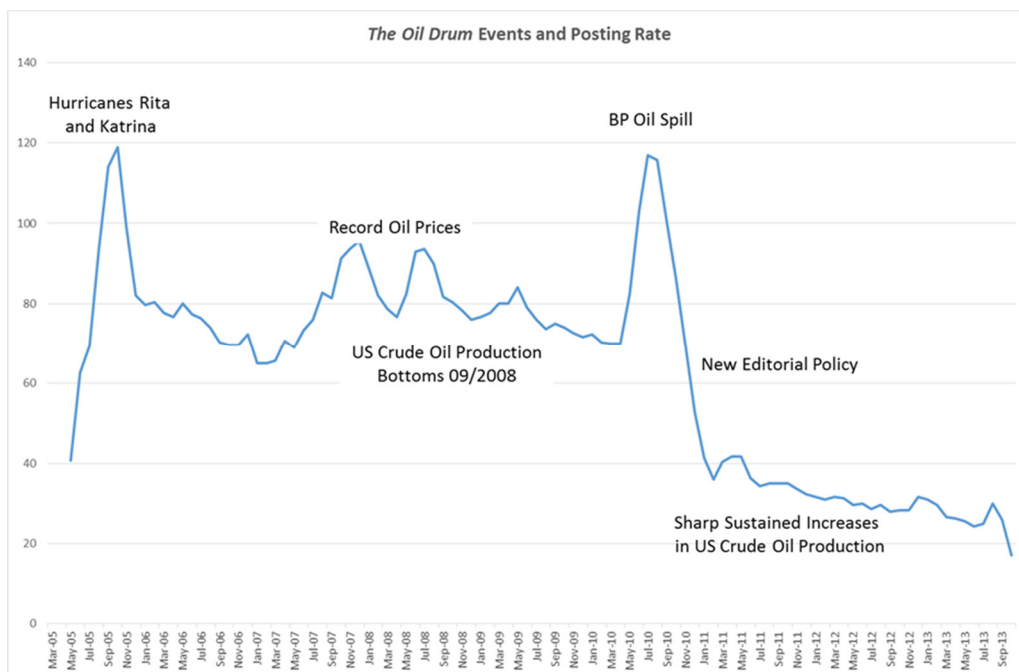

Figure 1: External Events versus Posting Rates (3 month rolling average)

Mindset and Tribal Groups

The TOD community displayed some aspects similar to a brand community including shared consciousness, rituals and traditions, and feelings of moral responsibility (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001). Importantly, however, the community was not centred on a brand they venerated. Oil was viewed as a commodity that humans depend upon, and it evinced reactions that were both positive (valuable and useful) and negative (polluting, in short supply). TOD began to develop its own language, and members used "TOD" to refer to the community as well as the website. Highly technical and arcane language (e.g., "Hubbert linearization") was widely used on the site and generally understood by the members. Within the community, a range of different subgroups emerged. A key constituency was members (roughly 75%) who believed that oil supply would soon fall rapidly. They often described themselves as "doomers," a term used in 1236 posts. Doomer was not a term of derision within the group (though it was used as an insult by those with a different belief structure). At the opposite end of the spectrum, those who believed that oil supplies were not constrained were scornfully branded as "cornucopians." This term, occurring in 1720 posts, was often applied to prominent nonmembers and seems to be used almost exclusively as an insult aimed at those reject peak oil ideas. These constituencies shared some aspects of tribal identity (Maffesoli, 1996), but the analogy is limited. TOD relationships were virtual, and it is unlikely that membership in one of these groups had the types of lifestyle manifestations that are usually visible in neo-tribes.

Crisis: Violation of the Assumptions

Peak oil, as a descriptive theory, is not well suited to dealing with complex market dynamics. It evolved from the work of Hubbert (1956), who looked exclusively at the geological aspect of declining production over time, with an unstated assumption that technology would remain essentially unchanged. Crude oil production in the United States peaked in 1970 (as Hubbert had correctly predicted) at 9.6 million barrels per day (MBPD), then fell almost nonstop to a low of 5.0 MBPD in 2008. Thus, for the first 3 years of the TOD community, members saw the continuation of a seemingly inexorable decline that had extended over more than 30 years. This was consistent with the community expectations, and the great majority of TOD users expected this trend to continue or accelerate.

The TOD community shared and embellished the new peak oil paradigm. This was exciting and groundbreaking, but the community did habituate to their shared viewpoint. TOD developed its own version of "normal science" which "seems an attempt to force nature into the preformed and relatively inflexible box that the paradigm supplies" (Kuhn 1962, p.24.). Kuhn suggested that paradigms break down when anomalies occur that the dominant theories cannot account for. The peak oil community expected three key outcomes: a peak in world and regional oil production, followed by inexorable declines in output, resulting in price volatility with sustained price increases. However, beginning around 2009, there was a dramatic interaction of two technologies (horizontal drilling and hydraulic fracking) that were capable of increasing oil output. These two technologies, combined with new production fields and the availability of capital at record low interest rates, created a renaissance of oil output in the United States, with production nearly doubling between 2008 and 2015 (though not yet surpassing the 1970 peak). This trend reversal violated two assumptions of the peak oil paradigm: the expectation of a peak followed by continued production declines.

The third assumption behind the peak oil paradigm is the expectation of generally increasing oil prices. The higher output beginning in 2009 occurred in a time of lower demand for oil as a result of the global financial crisis. Because of high supply and low demand, prices fell

dramatically (from $134 in June 2008 to $39 in February 2009) and stayed low, at a fraction of peak level. This trend reversal was another important anomaly that did not fit with peak oil expectations. Thus, three articles of faith among the peak oil community—that oil supply would first peak, then drop, and prices would rise—were definitively refuted.

Data analysis

We began by exploring the effects of two critical incidents, Cyclone Katrina and the BP oil spill. The second of these (the BP oil spill) was, in retrospect, a seminal moment, signalling the beginning of the end for this community. We collected a large sample of website postings (n=72) from April 29th, 2010 until the end of May, 2010 in order to explore thematically what was salient at that time. Leximancer, a semantic analysis program, offers a broad lexicographic analysis of texts (Young, Wilkinson & Smith, 2015). For our initial analysis of the final peak in postings (associated with the BP oil spill) we used Leximancer V4 (www.leximancer.com) to generate a conceptual map (**Figure 2**). The key themes "oil" (1508 mentions), "pressure" (598), "energy" (545), "likely" (496) and "work" (162) in descending order, dominated the community discourse immediately after the spill was announced. We began this initial analysis by drilling down into the data associated with this incident to examine how external events affect internal dialogues. The concept map shows that all other themes are heavily overlapping with and connected to the central theme of "oil."
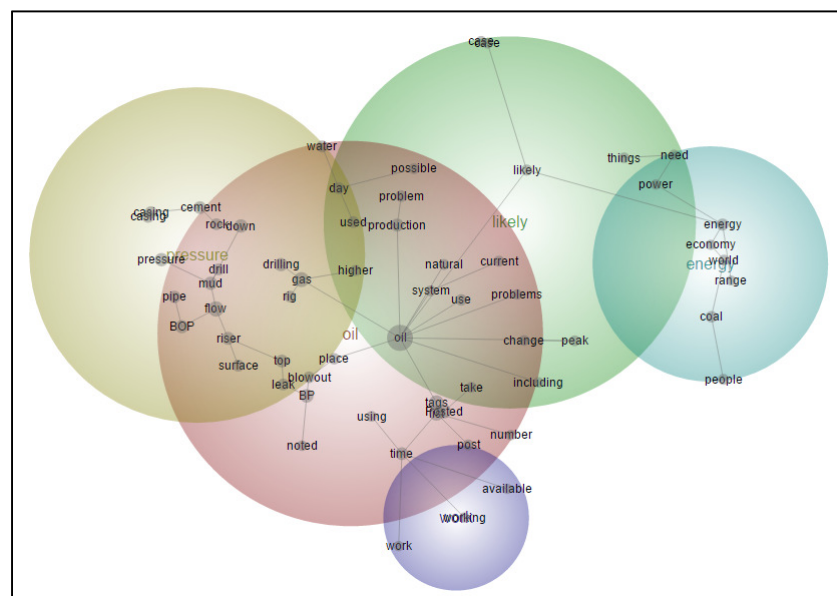
Figure 2: Concept map (visible concepts 100%, theme size 56%)

To add to the insights gained by using Leximancer, we supplemented our analysis of this corpus of texts by using a corpus analysis approach, using AntConc (Anthony, 2014), to conduct an initial collocation analysis. Examining the collocation of different words offers a more nuanced view into the meanings generated around the central theme of oil. The corpus that we extracted is n=93,493 words ("tokens"). A list of key collocates for the word "oil" is listed in order of descending frequency in **Table 1**. Collocations can indicate semantic preferences for certain constructions, or uncover meanings stimulated by collocated words (Pollach 2012).

Decline and Death

A new editorial approach was announced in November 2010 (Hagens 2010) designed to focus TOD more narrowly on oil-related issues. This post explicitly references the unexpected anomalies around lower oil prices and higher oil production, but does not attribute any loss of member enthusiasm to these issues. However, in the aggregate, there is a clear negative correlation between higher oil production and TOD engagement as measured by posting levels (**Figure 3**). Ultimately, it appears that lower member engagement, in conjunction with a tired and overstressed volunteer staff, led the editors to conclude that the community had run its course. A decision was made that the TOD website remained a valuable resource, and it has been maintained as an archive since its termination.

Frequency	Stat	Collocate
186	647681	spill
104	3.57309	oil
76	5.26063	gas
72	5.72958	deepwater
54	5.71262	horizon
48	5.51598	gulf
40	6.56170	peak
32	3.71621	flow
30	4.23977	water
27	5.15031	barrels
27	3.67930	BP
22	4.60404	world
21	5.33663	mexico
17	4.90402	decline
15	6.28416	crude

Table 1: Collocates for the word "oil"
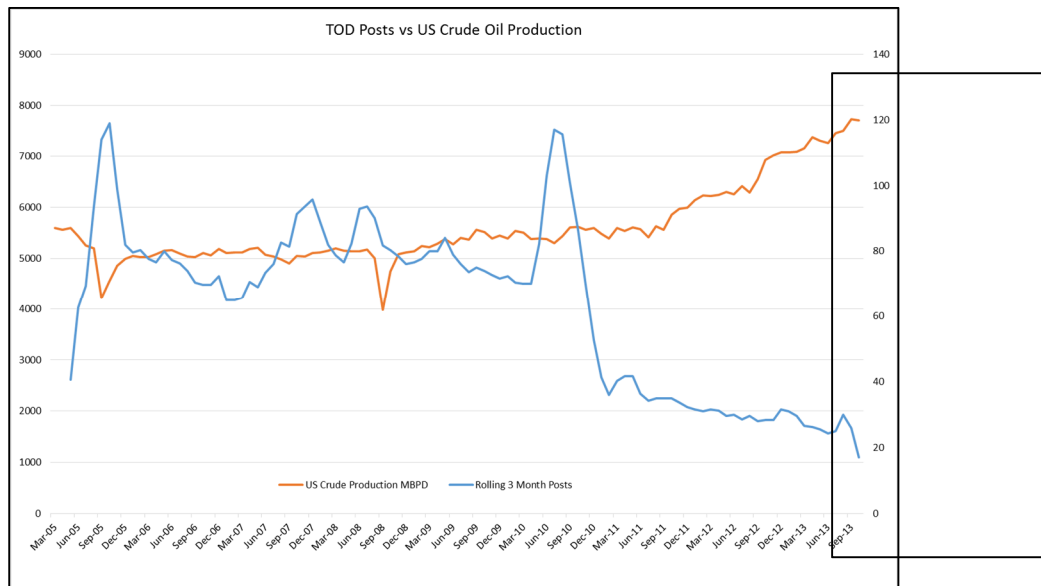
Figure 3: Negative Correlation between Oil Output and TOD activity beginning late 2010

Future Research

Internet communities remain an important topic of study. However, there is little work taking a longitudinal perspective to understand how these communities are formed, grow, mature and sometimes disband. We plan to use the unique archive of theoildrum.com as source for future research into these phenomena. Key research questions going forward include: What drives engagement/activity within the community? How do tribes emerge? Are there abstract principles that we can extract which can help us better understand the lifecycle dynamics of online communities? Our aim is to make a theoretical contribution positioned in the nexus between social media and marketing strategy. The methodology for investigating online

communities with these foci in mind will be multifaceted. Text analysis software (e.g. Leximancer and AntConc) will be used as an aid to conducting both content and thematic analyses, along with network analysis and interrupted time series analyses. This paper presents findings that represent a starting point for this larger study.

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Social Media by Art Galleries: An Analysis of Negative Facebook Comments

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Abstract

Social Media has had a profound effect on museum space and arts-based institutional practice. The dynamic relationship between digital technologies and these institutions is reflected in their communications to the public, exhibition design and interactivity, accessibility to collections, and the encouragement of visitor engagement. These changes have led to the establishing of information flows that are more collaborative with the general public. However, social media is also used as a channel for negative comments, criticism and complaints. This exploratory study aims to (1) discuss the influence of marketing and social media on cultural institutions, and (2) identify issues that have been posted by the public on the Facebook review sites of the major Australian art galleries. Using thematic analysis, this study identifies 10 general categories. The implications from the findings include that there are internal issues that can be improved, which can have broader implications for arts-based institutions.

Keywords: Art Galleries, Facebook, Feedback, Qualitative

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

How Reliable is Programmatic Audience Targeting? Lessons from Three Field Tests

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Abstract

Brands and agencies spend an increasing amount of their media budgets on targeting customers using programmatic audience segments, even though little is known how well the supporting technologies and customer classifications work. We address this research issue in three field tests and examine the accuracy and consistency of programmatic audience targeting for demographic data. We find that precision is not only questionable, but that audience classifications are inconsistent across leading data providers. Furthermore, our findings suggest that programmatically bought segments vary to a large degree because of technological and methodological differences, such as different tracking code or standardisations that are used to extract and count data across vendors. However, even when controlling for this source of variation, the suggested audience compositions for the same campaign still vary significantly. We conclude with a discussion of the practical and theoretical implications of our findings for marketing managers.

Keywords: Programmatic Buying, Marketing Technology, Targeting, Online Marketing

Track: Cross Disciplinary Impact of Marketing

Efficiency, Installed Base, and Disruptive Service Innovation

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Abstract
Service innovation is likely to cause the disruption of existing industry ecology. For example, Uber provides convenient taxi calling service, and it has higher quality than a traditional taxi, resulting in a dramatic decrease in the number of passengers for traditional taxi service. However, Christensen's disruptive innovation theory may not explain service disruption as well as it does technology disruption. Product or technology disruption often follows a supply-push strategy, while, in contrast, service disruption often follows a more demand-pull strategy. Thus, service disruption is likely to be the outcome of co-creation among a firm, its partners, and consumers. However, few studies have explored the effect of co-creation on service disruption. Thus, this study attempts to focus specifically on this research question. This paper develops a theoretical framework and identifies some of its managerial implications.

Keywords: Disruptive Innovation; Service Disruption; Co-creation; Installed Base

Track: Entrepreneurship and Innovation

Consumer Motivations to Switch to Disruptive Technology Products
*** Best Paper of Track ***

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Abstract

As original contributions to the literature, this study explores consumer motivations to switch to new products in the context of disruptive innovation and investigates the role of technology differences. Switching from an existing technology product toward a disruptive technology product (DTP) involves not only benefits but also major sacrifices, which are not encountered in the context of continuous innovation. To model the trade-off between these benefits and sacrifices, this study extends the UTAUT (unified theory of acceptance and use of technology) model by introducing the construct of comparative economic value (CEV). Based on Thai consumer data, analyses support the hypothesized mediating role of CEV. CEV mediates the effects of performance expectancy, effort expectancy, and facilitating conditions and partially mediates the effect of social influence on DTP switching intent. Multi-group analysis shows that CEV depends more on effort expectancy for network externality technology and more on performance expectancy for stand-alone technology.

Keywords: Disruptive innovation, radical innovation, new product development, consumer behaviour, new product adoption

Track: Entrepreneurship and Innovation

The role of Field Configuring Events in the business development of start-up Companies

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Abstract
This article explores the ways in which field configuring events are used by start-up entrepreneurs in business development of their companies. To shed light on this matter, 28 start-up company founders that have attended a technology and start-up related trade show, Slush, have been interviewed. Based on this data, three forms of capital; cultural, symbolic, and social, are identified. Furthermore, their translation into valuable business outcomes such as venture capital, resources, sales, public relations, and business critical information are demonstrated.

Keywords: start-ups, entrepreneurship, field-configuring events, institutional theory

Track: Entrepreneurship and Innovation

Introduction

The world and the ways in which we interact are getting more digital by day. As we spend more time online interacting via digital channels, meeting *'in real life'* becomes even more impactful. Indeed, it remains popular for individuals and organisations to participate in exhibitions and trade shows – to physically meet and interact. For instance, international trade shows offer excellent opportunities for small and medium sized enterprises to network and market their offering (Measson and Campbell-Hunt 2015). This relational outcome of trade shows has been widely recognised, yet under-researched, in previous literature (see Hansen 2004 and Sarmento, Simoes, and Farhangmehr 2015 for reviews). However, while the benefits of attending trade shows have been well documented in the previous studies, it still remains a challenge to trace them back to what actually happens before, during, and after the trade show (see Mitchell et al. 2015 for review). Furthermore, this understanding would help in developing best practices and processes, and in so doing, amplify the impact of trade show attendance.

This study provides an alternative perspective to understand the ways in which start-up entrepreneurs can use trade shows to create value for their businesses. To do this, we are analysing the ways in which participating in a Field Configuring Event (Lampel and Meyer 2008), such as Slush, a global technology event organised yearly in Helsinki, can benefit a startup company through acquisition of field-specific capital and, in so doing, facilitate their marketentry. This work will be responsive to two research questions: *How and what kind of capital do start-up entrepreneurs acquire during a field configuring event? How is this capital translated into valuable business outcomes?*

Previous literature on trade shows and Field configuring events (FCEs)

Trade shows have been defined as "short-term events, typically less than a week in duration that take place on a regularly scheduled basis. Trade shows enable various members of a certain market or industry to meet face- to-face and share ideas, new product innovations, technical updates, industry information, connect with customers and prospects, as well as, in some cases, consummate sales." (Bettis-Outland et al. 2012, p. 385). In particular, this definition is useful as it broadens the scope of objectives of trade shows from sales to include other goals such as relationship development (Sarmento et al. 2015), information gathering, image-building, motivating employees (Hansen 2004), and knowledge creation (Cheng, Koivisto, and Mattila 2014). Moreover, trade shows can be seen as reproductions of markets their relational structures – and in particular, sites where the field dynamics become tangible; positions visible, understandings enacted, and rules followed (Skov 2006). Then, this materialisation of a field structures to brings about change within the field and enables its observation (Moeran 2011).

On the other hand, Field Configuring Events (FCE) have an important role in the development of professions, technologies, markets, and industries. They have been defined as *trans-organisational structures* (Anand and Watson 2004) that bring together the most important actors of a field to share information, coordinate their actions, and define the future directions of a field (Anand and Jones 2008). Moreover, these structures open up interstitial spaces to allow entrepreneurs to leverage and change existing institutional arrangements (idib.). Examples of these FCEs could include trade shows, professional gatherings, technology contests, and business ceremonies (Lampel and Meyer 2008) – or, industry conferences (Garud 2008) and Olympic games (Glynn 2008) just to name a few. These events bring the most important actors from a certain field together and in so doing provide opportunities for strengthening or weakening the ties between field members and have the potential to reshape the relationships between actors. In additoon, these FCEs have a potential to shift the

boundaries of a field as well as re-shuffle membership affiliations and status rankings of its members (Glynn 2008) as well as to accumulate and transform the forms of capital within the field (Anand and Jones 2008). Here, capital can refer to a variety of symbolic, social, and cultural assets that have value within the field (Bourdieu 1986).

Most of the previous studies have concentrated on understanding the structural-level influence of field configuring events such as understanding their role in constituting new industries (Anand and Peterson 2000) and creating coherence and regulatory structure to a field (Garud 2008). Moreover, previous research has demonstrated that FCEs enable institutional entrepreneurs to participate in creating new conventions for the field (McInerney 2008), they enable the entrepreneurs to improve their position within the field and so doing impact their venture performance (Stam 2010), and it has been shown that FCEs have a potential to configure symbolic and relational systems of a field (Glynn 2008). Despite all this research, we still fall short of understanding the ways in which individual actors can use these events to create value for their organisations. To address this gap, this study will demonstrate the ways in which FCEs enable the acquisition of different forms of capital and, in turn, help in achieving the organisation's business objectives.

Methodology
Field Configuring Events, such as Slush, are excellent sites for studying structures and inter-relations of professional fields as well as the micro-level activities that push forward the field evolution (Lampel and Meyer 2008). In this light, Slush, the global start-up and technology tradeshow, serves as a context for this study as it is an important meeting point for start-up entrepreneurs, venture capitalists, and media. In so doing, it provides its participants a great opportunity for re-shuffling the positions and transforming shared meanings. As the study is explorative by nature, data-driven approach of grounded theory (Strauss and Corbin 1998) was applied. To gain a closer actor-perspective of this phenomenon, we interviewed 28 CEOs and founders from the companies that have participated in last year's event. The interview structure was initially designed based on previous literature and it was continuously refined as the data analysis advanced. The semi-structured interviews (Silverman 2006) lasted from 37 minutes to 76 minutes and they were transcribed verbatim. To help make sense of the phenomenon, the interview data was complemented with ethnographic observational data from Slush in 2011, 2013, and 2015.

Forms of capital at Field Configuring Event
In only few years of its existence, Slush has grown into a globally-significant event and it has also had an important role in bringing Finnish technology industry and its start-ups into global consciousness. The field-configuring role of Slush was supported by the accounts of interviewees, which depicted Slush as one of the major yearly meeting points for entrepreneurs, influencers, and other stakeholders. As such, it has an important role in setting the agenda and trends for the upcoming year. In the following section, I will demonstrate the ways in which it allows for accumulation of different forms of capital.

Accessing cultural capital
During the long nights and days of Slush, networking and gossiping are an essential element of the experience. By attending Slush, an entrepreneur stays *in the know* about where the industry is heading towards and what is happening within the community. This is described by one of the interviewees: *"Well, the makers of the future are there, the people with a crazy vision that they are about to deploy and break free from the old structures to attain something better. In that sense, not just the vision, but the actual making of the future happens there."* (CEO,

enterprise solutions). Moreover, through attending events such as Slush, an entrepreneur learns how to manoeuvre in the start-up circles – what is appropriate behaviour and what is not. Indeed, a strict code for what is appropriate and what is not exists: *"We don't want to make our hosts to be embarrassed of us. For instance, if we would be invited to a reception with people from Apple, and we would not behave correctly, we would be too pushy or otherwise clueless and asking silly questions. In this vein, you have to show that you have achieved a certain level and are qualified to have those conversations",* states the CEO of a gaming company.

Participation in producing symbolic capital
Being part of Slush has an important signalling effect – it enables the entrepreneurs to acquire symbolic capital in three ways. First, everyone has an equal chance to be seen and to make an impression. Already the fact that a company is seen there signals a certain prominence and as such increases the symbolic capital of a start-up company. This signalling effect is explained by one of the CEOs: *"And for the last few years, it has been clear that if you want to be visible, to be part of this ecosystem, as you would have to be – and also if you choose not to, then that is also a statement – we have chosen to be there".* Second, the event allows start-up entrepreneurs to assume a label of thought leadership within their field through the process of agenda-setting and future-defining as is explained by one of the CEOs: *"The fact that you are there as a speaker in a good company, it allows someone to come and talk to you about your original point and perhaps even further. This thought leadership is what we are after and with this budget, these events are definitely the best way to accomplish that".* Finally, the awards given out in Slush act as markers for prominence within the industry. For instance, new comers in the field can gain recognition by attending the pitch tournament in which four best pitches will be rewarded with generous prizes as well as important exposure: *"It makes us more recognizable. I have received a lot of comments from people who have seen our pitch during the event or seen it on YouTube. And we made it to top 20, too! There was only 5 Finnish firms in that group so that definitely generates good visibility"* (CEO, sales solutions)

Co-presence in forming social capital
The way Slush is set out, facilitates networking and casual mingling, and this, in turn, results in accumulation of social capital. The exhibition space at Slush resembles more a night club than a traditional trade show – it is dimly lit with colourful lights, electronic music is played in the background, and the dress code is casual. This all contributes towards informal atmosphere: *"These events are definitely not too serious. At one dinner there were Petteri Koponen and Timo Ahopelto [prominent entrepreneurs] wearing hoodies mingling with Alahuhta and Ollila [prominent and traditional corporate CEOs] wearing suits and sensing the vibe. It's just all very casual and nice."* (CEO, consumer applications). This combined with the energised atmosphere and the program extending from morning into the late nights makes Slush a rare occasion for small start-ups and large corporations to come together and meet on an equal footing. In a way, Slush is like Finnish sauna– the participants are stripped from their titles and positions, and no usual hierarchies limit the interactions. This allows entrepreneurs to forge connections with partners that could be otherwise way out of their league: *"Most of the participants are potential customers and partners. It was quite funny, actually, as one day there was this guy looking a bit shabby. I was a bit doubtful, but I talked to him for a while and it turns out he is a CEO from a company we have wanted to cooperate for a longer time but have not had a chance to get in contact with. He had come all the way from Silicon Valley and I was like wow, here you are, on our stand, sporting a beard and wearing a backpack talking to me."* (CEO, sales solutions).

What is more, Slush is a place where the start-up community and its hang-arounds congregate once a year. It is an important opportunity to initiate new relationships and to deepen the existing ones through random encounters, resilient networking activities, and friendly introductions. In ever-digitalising business-relationships, this co-presence is essential, yet rare: *"It's mostly about meeting people face to face. Our customers are all around Europe, so we don't see them normally, so it's about maintaining the relationship and catching up. It creates trust to both directions."* (CEO, consumer apps). Moreover, with the networking going on until late hours, the relationships are strengthened with shared misdemeanours, and casual discussions: *"It's all about the human factor. That's what the whole business is all about. Of course it's a lot of work, Excels, and other accomplishments. But in the end, it still boils down to people and chemistry – with the investors as well as other people."* (CEO, consumer apps).

Translating capital into valuable business outcomes
The previous section demonstrated how being present at FCE enables start-ups to generate field-specific capital that can be later leveraged and translated into other assets on other fields. In the following section, examples of these translations will be given.

Venture capital
For a start-up, one of the key challenges is to secure adequate capital for scaling operations. Here, the relationships established with venture capitalists and business angels are instrumental in securing investments. This translation of social capital into economic capital is described in the following: *"Based on the meetings at demo booth as well as through matchmaking, I had agreed meetings with investors. […] It was really nice, and actually this [VC investor] that just invested a significant amount, he was just some random dude who came to watch our demo and got excited"* (CEO, industrial devices). Similarly, the symbolic capital gained through awards ceremonies can be beneficial for a start-up: *"It validates the firm. If you are chosen to top20 from 1700 companies. So for instance, to the investors it could signal that it's at least worth listening"* (CEO, consumer apps)

Resources
What is more, many entrepreneurs deliberately leverage the relationships with new acquaintances to reach their goals. For instance, this can support in strengthening their position in most important sales channels: *"We got featured by Apple. Of course, these people don't choose which apps are featured themselves, but they had told that they had met us and that we do a really good job. What is more, it was just really nice to hear that they were happy with what we were doing."* (CEO, games). Moreover, symbolic capital exemplified by compelling employer brand can also be leveraged to reach out for potential recruitees: *"Last time one very important objective was to network with job candidates. We were sharing information on our recruitment needs. That was the most important concrete objective, to get as many applications as possible"* (CEO, health tech).

Sales
Despite the fact that selling is rarely the primary motive for attending Slush or any other FCE, this is one of the key outcomes. In particular, the social capital can be translated into sales when new and strengthened relations are treated as leads. Moreover, the symbolic capital such as good reputation within start-up community, can also lead into referrals and recommendations.

For instance, a CEO from a start-up offering translations platform met up with a representative of a Finnish communications giant over at one of the adjacent dinner parties. Already the initial discussions during the dinner looked promising further partnership and it also helped that few

other start-up CEOs in the same table were willing to recommend their services upfront. Few months from the initial meeting, the two companies were ready to launch an extensive collaboration that gave 4000 employees from the customer company an access to the service. In business-to-business market, already one deal can turn the participation into a jackpot, as one of the interviewed CEOs points out. However, these usually take months to realize, which makes it really hard to measure the actual sales impact of the trade show.

Public relations
Slush is an excellent occasion to reach out for international press as the concentration of prominent key note speakers and cutting-edge participants attracts journalists from both general and specified international media. In order to leverage their symbolic capital, many start-ups seek help from PR agencies that are able to make introductions and spin the latest developments into attractive stories: *"Previous year we had a bigger PR campaign coinciding with Slush. We had just enabled PayPal payments and our service was ready to be rolled out internationally. We used a PR agency who helped us to connect with TechCrunch and Next Web."* (CEO, consumer apps). Leveraging Slush in PR initiatives has proven effective for many of the participants, and especially for a newcomer in the field, this definitely is a great opportunity to be noticed: *"We got some interviews and meetings with journalists. Well, and, we managed to get few TV interviews, and our partner IBM produced some inserts for their own B2B marketing channels, and we attracted people with freebies."* (CEO, consumer apps).

Business critical information
Cultural capital acquired at Slush is also valuable as it enables one to stay in the inner circle and know where the industry and technological development is heading towards. Moreover, by establishing rapport with the right people, one can gain access to important, business critical information, as is noted by a participating CEO: *"I noticed from our discussions that they spoke a lot about AppleTV. And, well, if you want to be featured, it is of paramount importance, like how we noticed from the Google case, that you show your support to the ecosystem by supporting all of the newest features of operating system and utilising their services"*. This is useful as the knowledge-based view of the firm posits that knowledge is the most valuable asset for a firm as it is one of the drivers for competitive advantage (Grant and Baden-Fuller, 1996). Indeed, knowledge created, shared, and disseminated during the event is of paramount importance for a start-up firm to create competitive advantage vis-à-vis other actors in the field.

Discussion
In conclusion, this article has provided a novel conceptualisation of the value created during trade shows and the results emphasize the importance of physical encounters in an ever digitalizing world. According to the data analysed in this study, attending field configuring events (Lampel and Meyer 2008) can have an important role in the business development of a start-up company. To underline this point, all of the interviewees felt that the attendance to Slush has been very beneficial for their companies and most of them stated that the outcomes have greatly exceeded the investment. Despite this widely agreed usefulness, none of the as t most of the companies still lack a proper process and measures to keep track of the outcomes. Indeed, the future studies should look further into the quantification and measurement of the process and its outcomes in order to be used in the refinement of the processes of preparation and participation into trade shows.

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Innovative Prescribing – the case of UK Physicians

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Abstract

Doctors who prescribe a new drug in its first year on the market are known to be heavier prescribers of the category, but the explanation is unclear. Prior studies have proposed that socially integrated doctors are more likely to be innovators; so it may be that heavy prescribers are more likely to be socially integrated. An alternative explanation is that lead users are more likely to be innovators, as they more easily grasp the potential value of a new drug; so it may be that heavy prescribers are more likely to be lead users. We explore these competing hypotheses, using panel data from the United Kingdom on doctors' prescribing behaviour. The results do not support the hypothesis that social integration is positively associated with heavy prescribing, but do show that association between heavy prescribing and innovation is strongest for the initial drug launch, as expected from the lead-user hypothesis. The tests used have weak statistical power, so this finding is exploratory.

Keywords: *Innovation, New drugs, Prescribing Behaviour*

Track: *Entrepreneurship and Innovation*

The More the Merrier? Investigating the Relationship between the Number of New Product Launches and Brand Performance

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Abstract

New products are often launched in the pursuit of brand growth. Although the path to brand growth is well documented, only a handful of studies empirically investigate the role that new products play in brand growth and decline. This study investigates the relationship between the number of new launches and brand performance, based on the analysis of almost 6,900 new products in the United States, across 10 consumer packaged goods categories over three years. The results show a very weak relationship between the number of new products launched by brands and brand performance. These findings encourage manufacturers to re-evaluate their innovation strategies beyond supplying an excessive number of new product launches to retailers each year.

Keywords: Innovation, new products, new product launch, brand performance

Track: Entrepreneurship and Innovation

Entrepreneurial Marketing and Internationalisation in the Wine Industry

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to develop a conceptualization of the market orientation approaches entrepreneurial New Zealand wineries take to internationalization. Extant literature on market orientation is predominantly focused on service industries and is rarely, if at all, addressed in the studies discussing domestic and international wine marketing and internationalization of wineries. When addressed, the market orientation of wineries is focused on the end consumer, not the producer. The contribution of this paper is to provide a starting point for a better understanding of the internationalization process of New Zealand wineries and the role market orientation plays in both domestic and international markets in entrepreneurial firms.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial marketing, internationalization, strategic posture, wine industry

Track: Entrepreneurship and innovation

Introduction

Many wine producers aim to export their products beyond their domestic markets. Prevailing themes in the extant literature generally cover branding (e.g. Vrontis and Thrassou, 2011), wine tourism (e.g. Hall, 2013), consumer behaviour (e.g. Sutanonpaiboon and Atkin, 2012), marketing strategy (e.g. Bruwer and Johnson, 2010), country of origin and region of origin (e.g. Johnson and Bruwer, 2007), wine packaging and labels (e.g. Barber and Almanza, 2007), and consumer preference and knowledge (e.g. Cohen, 2009). Additionally, the literature that focuses on these variables is predominantly concerned with the end consumer and marketing from their perspective. There is relatively little that looks at the orientation of the winemaker or the winery as a firm, particularly in the context of internationalization.

When looking at the internationalization strategy of a firm, it is important to note the strategic posture a firm takes to the market; whether market driven or market driving (Jaworski, Kohli and Sahay, 2000). It could be argued this choice is heavily influenced by the orientation of the firm's manager. The more entrepreneurial a manager is, the more likely the firm is to have an entrepreneurial orientation and adopt a market driven approach.

The aim of this paper is to develop a conceptualization of the market orientation approaches entrepreneurial New Zealand wineries take to internationalization.

Market and entrepreneurial orientation

Kohli and Jaworski (1990) state market orientation (MO) is found in the conduct of a firm with activities pre-disposed toward gathering information on customers and competitors and then creating value proposition for customers based on this information. On the other hand, Narver and Slater (1990) view market orientation as firm culture. Market orientation is in the shared values of the firm and necessarily drives the strategies and activities of the firm to create value propositions for the customer. Roach, Ryman, and White (2014) found market orientation as culture in service firms moderates the relationship between market orientation and innovation with a positive effect on firm performance. While Roach et. al. (2014) show how MO as culture is correlated to innovation in service firms, the question remains, do wineries that implement MO as culture have the same moderating relationship and positive effect on firm performance? Additionally, would the correlation between MO and innovation remain the same in both domestic and international markets? Ellis (2006) found the correlation between MO and performance using both market and financial measures, was positive. This positive link was found in firms located in the USA, Western Europe, Eastern Europe, Asia, and Australasia, although, firms in developing economies were less likely to benefit from MO. Furthermore, when looking at firm performance in international markets, the further the parent firm was from the international market, both geographically and culturally, the lower the performance measured (Ellis, 2006).

Although MO is acknowledged as an important influence to firm performance, entrepreneurial orientation (EO) can also be an equally important determinant of performance (Morrish 2011). Morris, Schindehutte, and LaForge (2002) identified seven dimensions of EO that are generally found in entrepreneurial firms: proactive, opportunity driven, customer intensity, innovation focused, risk management, resource leveraging, and value creation. These dimensions lend themselves toward a more open approach to the possibility of internationalization opportunities. Miles, Crispin and Kasouf (2011) argue entrepreneurial marketing (EM) uses these dimensions of EO in order to proactively and innovatively drive markets. While entrepreneurial orientation can work alone, a strategic combination of EO and market

orientation (MO) can help to temper the innovation and risk taking of EO with a sound knowledge and awareness of the market gained through MO (Morrish, 2011).

Entrepreneurial marketing orientation
Firms with an EO are in general more innovative which lends itself to a market driving approach. It could be argued a firm which enters an international market is using a market driving approach to market orientation. The international market is not only completely new to the firm but the product or service the firm offers is often new to the customers in this market. Introducing a new product or service to an international market in fact modifies the behaviour of the customer by getting them to focus on attributes previously not considered (Jaworski et. al., 2000). This would seem to suggest when looking at EM, a firm using MO as culture is more likely to benefit from the innovation-focused dimension of EM, as described by Morris et al., (2002). Morrish (2011) states a firm using EM can achieve a competitive advantage through positioning products which are both cheaper and different, or very different, through a combination of unique products such as branding and production methods.

Each interaction between employee and consumer is an opportunity to apply the firm's MO strategy (Rodriguez Cano, Carrillat and Jaramillo, 2004). Firms with a strong MO and long-term relationship orientation, tend to select customers with special business characteristics. By selecting customers with specific business characteristics, the process of value creation and delivery can be easier. This is due in part to the customer perhaps better understanding the value proposition of the firm (Beaujanot, Lockshin and Quester, 2004). In MO, this would appear to necessitate the need for a relationship approach rather than transactional one (Beaujanot et.al., 2004). Relationship marketing differentiates between new and existing customers and places equal importance on both. These relationships play a very important role in business and the wine industry in particular.

Networks, serendipity and internationalization
There are two types of networks that lend themselves to relationship building and that wineries take advantage of in the decision to internationalize: regional networks based on the geographical location of firms, and personal networks based on inter-personal relationships between key players in different firms. Both are equally important, depending on the mode of entry into international markets (Felzensztein, Stringer, Benson-Rea and Freeman, 2014; Vasilchenko and Morrish, 2011; Harris and Wheeler, 2005).

"In any given business setting, a single firm will possess relationships with a variety of different customers, suppliers, partners, regulatory agencies, or any of a range of different organizations" (Morrish and Laurence, 2013, p.2). The internationalization success of wineries is tied to the co-operation of co-located firms in a regional cluster (Felzensztein et. al., 2014). Producers within a regional cluster can form functional relationships which allow for sharing of resources and expenses, thus creating a competitive advantage for the co-located producers in an international market (Felzensztein et. al., 2014). Relationships and networks between co-producers are not only functional relationships when it comes to internationalization. While it may present the opportunity and information necessary for internationalization, the relationship between co-producers can also help drive, direct and manage internationalization (Harris and Wheeler, 2005).

Harris and Wheeler (2005) show how inter-personal relationships formed between co-producers in a region of origin can be a strong foundation on which to build internationalization strategy. While the relationships provide knowledge for internationalization strategy, the trust

in the relationship allows for cooperative arrangements which can provide the means and mechanisms to implement the internationalization strategy (Harris and Wheeler, 2005). A business network "constitute goal-oriented cooperation among two or more firms involving a mutual exchange of resources and/or concerted efforts to resolve problems by entering into formal agreements" (Vasilchenko and Morrish, 2011, p.91). Business networks can also help firms create synergistic relationships with complementary firms in an international market, these complementary relationships can help extend resources at various points in the supply chain (Vasilchenko and Morrish, 2011).

Vasilchenko and Morrish (2011) found SMEs use networks to exploit and explore international opportunities. Networks could be established relationships or serendipitous connections (e.g., from trade shows or sponsored events). Harris and Wheeler (2005) also highlight the importance of relationships for internationalization, finding all the relationships which led to internationalization were formed serendipitously. Although all these relationships were integral to the internationalization of the firms, most were not initially formed for the purpose of business, most were social, though some were formed at trade shows, and other business related events specific to the industry of the firm. Alternatively, Merrilees, Miller and Tiessen (1998) state the direct opposite with their model of serendipitous internationalization stating a chance meeting will have a clear perception of a business opportunity. While internationalization opportunities can arise from unexpected, serendipitous meetings, in order for the meeting to be classified as serendipitous the entrepreneur must recognize the emerging international opportunity at the time of the meeting. Merrilees et. al. (1998) agree with Harris and Wheeler (2005) that relationships are integral to serendipitous internationalization of firms, however, where Harris and Wheeler found the relationship to be on a more equal footing with each partner, Merrilees et. al. states the partnerships which lead to internationalization have the larger of the two firms controlling and directing the partnership and the smaller firm playing a more passive role.

The role of serendipity in wine marketing is most easily recognisable when looking at general theory of networks and product innovation. As already stated, Harris and Wheeler (2005) found many of inter-personal relationships which led to internationalization were formed through serendipitous meetings, such as meetings at industry specific events. A geographical network can also be a determinant in whether a company recognises opportunity for innovation. "Access to information depends on the place where the company is located: clusters tend to positively affect knowledge and innovation diffusion, while the degree of improvement depends on a particular firm's position within its cluster or network" (Gilinsky, Santini, Lazzeretti, and Eyler, 2008, p.306).

However, the density of the networks, both geographical and personal, can be a hindrance to production innovation. According to Granovetter (2005), weak ties can be more productive in innovation, as weak ties create a greater diversity in views and potentially helpful criticisms. The socially marginal may be better suited to create innovation as they are not as involved in dense, cohesive networks, allowing for more input from weak ties and not as heavy a reliance on approval from embedded ties which are more apt to place greater importance on a high level of compliance. The denser the network, the stronger the ties, which can lead to stagnation in innovation as stronger ties are more likely to approach problem solving similarly. Networks which are connected into clusters through weak ties are better able to ascertain serendipitous opportunities as they arise from the weak ties. Weak ties also account for a higher tolerance of serendipity. Firms which rely on the norm and define anything else as deviance are less likely

to be able to recognize or capitalize on serendipitous occurrences (Mendonça, Cunha and Clegg, 2008).

New Zealand wineries and internationalization

Market orientation is rarely, if at all, addressed in the studies discussing domestic and international wine marketing and internationalization of wineries. When addressed, the market orientation of wineries is focused on the end consumer, not the business market, a market which inherently has more of a producer specific focus (Beaujanot et. al., 2004). There seems to be an administrative marketing approach assumed in the market orientation literature and limited case studies of firms which use entrepreneurial marketing with a market orientation. Many of the well-known New Zealand wines in the international market are brands developed by entrepreneurs (i.e. Peter Yealands). Figure 1 offers a conceptualization of how New Zealand wineries may use EMO, networks, and serendipity to enter an international market.

Figure 1
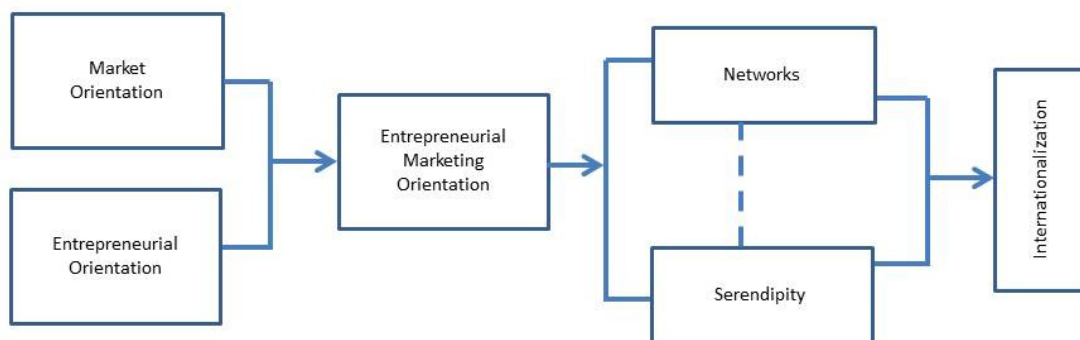
Conclusion

The contribution of this paper is to provide a starting point for a better understanding of the internationalization process of New Zealand wineries and the role market orientation plays in both domestic and international markets. Understanding how market orientation and which market orientation strategies contribute to, or restrict, internationalization success in New Zealand wineries, will provide examples for new world wineries considering initial internationalization, or expansion in an international market. By framing the conceptualization in the context of New Zealand wineries, this paper increases the type of industries addressed in the extant MO literature.

Future implications include how wineries can use geographical networks and resource leveraging with other consumable product firms to co-brand both products for market entry into an international market. Using EM elements such as pro-activeness and innovation can allow a winery to recognize and take advantage of serendipitous opportunities for branding and international market entry, which can be discovered through networks. As most MO literature focuses on firms with an administrative marketing orientation, by looking at MO in wineries through an EM lens, this paper will also provide examples of how traditionally EM firms can benefit from a structured MO strategy.

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Outcome of a focus group interview on Linkages between Attrition Rate and Relationship Building Strategies

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Abstract

The main purpose of this study is to examine the application of customer relationship management (CRM) to resolve the issue of high rate of employee's turnover in call center industry. Having been established by some literature that the application of CRM is capable of effectively and efficiently resolving issues such as first call resolution, caller satisfaction, employee satisfaction and service delivery within the call centers, this study probed into the application of this strategic business process as a means to reduce employee intention to turnover within the call centers in Malaysia. A qualitative approach was employed and the necessary information required for this study was collected through focus group interview conducted with the executive members of association of customer experience industry of Malaysia (ACE), who are managers in various call centers. The result concluded that properly initiated and implemented relationship management strategy will assist an organization in retaining its employees. Suggestion for future research was recommended accordingly.

Keywords: Customer Relationship Management (CRM); Call center; CRM dimensions; Employee turnover intention

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Customer Profitability Dispersion in Business Markets- an exploratory SEM model of relevant Factors

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Abstract

Pareto like dispersion in customer profitability levels in business markets has been documented in previous research but very little investigation has been conducted on the factors that contribute to this phenomenon. This paper proposes a basic model that ties together relevant factors that may contribute to this dispersion and reports the preliminary results of testing the model with empirical data using Partial Least Squares SEM.

Keywords: Business market, Customer profitability, PLS-SEM

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Explaining Change of Pace on Network Mobilization: the Case of Dunedin Gigatown

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Abstract

This paper reports on the case study of New Zealand Gigatown competition won by Dunedin in 2014. The paper analyses the reasons why several parties could work in close cooperation when facing an opportunity and later reduce the level of interaction to almost nothing, thus missing the opportunity to grab the rewards for the efforts they did in the beginning. Studying the tension between coordination and mobilization, the paper extends the concept of issue and value network mobilization by adding the concept of energy fuelled network mobilization drawing on a social systems perspective of industrial ecology. The relevance of the centrality of the main actor in the network is also explained.

Keywords: Value Network Mobilization, Industrial Ecology

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Introduction
In the latest months of 2013 Chorus, the New Zealand company in charge of laying an extensive network of optic fibre in the country, created the Gigatown competition to help educate and inspire New Zealanders about the possibilities that the ultra-fast broadband can provide. The competition required supporters to create relevant discussions on social media with the participation of the population in a particular town. Thirteen months later, Dunedin, home town of University of Otago, the oldest and finest university of New Zealand, won the competition by having contributed the most to the almost six million conversations on social media about Gigatown. In the last months of the competition the city council, the business community, the university, and other private and public entities mobilised their resources to stir the participation of a significant part of the city population. A central hub was created and thousands of supporters and several volunteers worked 24/7 posting on social media until the goal was achieved and Dunedin was awarded the Gigatown nomination at the end of 2014. The prize consisted of providing the city with and ultra-fast broadband (UFB) capable of transferring information at 1Gb per second, as well as several thousand dollars in funding to support the development of new businesses as well as community projects that could take advantage of this new technology. It was expected that Dunedin's Gigatown status would trigger a massive transformation of the city. However, more than a year later very little has been achieved, only a small fraction of the grants available for developing new business were awarded and no effects of Gigatown became apparent in the city.

This research studies the reasons why while the competition for Gigatown prize was running almost every institution in Dunedin participated creating a large collaboration network that managed to win the award (we call this phase 1), when the time to grab the benefits came the same institutions could not continue its collaborative efforts and thus have achieved very little to date (we call this phase 2). We draw on the idea of network mobilisers (e.g. Mouzas & Naudé, 2007; Ritvala & Salmi, 2010) and social network analysis (e.g. Crossley, Prell, & Scott, 2009; Scott, 1988) to explain the behaviour of the parties in the first phase , however, the change of intensity of collaboration between businesses and other institutions hoping to grab the Gigatown benefits is more difficult to explain. For the later phase, we draw on concepts such as network demobiliser, as the opposite of mobilisers from the same literature, and on the concept of psychological sense of community (Boyd & Nowell, 2014) and coalition dissolution (Heaney & Rojas, 2008) to explain why the same parties could effectively collaborate in one situation and were unable to continue mobilising their resources later.

Literature review
When a number of organisational actors bring together their social and material resources to achieve a shared goal, it is called network mobilization (Ritvala & Salmi, 2010). The idea of network mobilization was earlier proposed by Mouzas and Naudé (2007) and is grounded in the works of Lundgren (1992) and Brito (2001). While Lundgren focuses on change for economic development and stresses the difference between coordination of activities where actors contribute to the evolution of the network and mobilization, which disrupts activities with not necessarily positive effects for the network, Brito is more concerned on the role played by collective action processes in explaining the dynamics of networks.

There is a tension between mobilization and coordination Lundgren (1992) argues, the tension results from the disruption that mobilization causes on the structure of coordinated activities in the network, thus, these coordinated activities oppose the mobilizations actions (i.e., new activities of new parties) to avoid disruption; coordination could, therefore be deemed as some kind of inertia that pushes towards a direction that could, eventually, be contrary to the direction

the mobilizing parties can go towards. Mouzas and Naudé (2007) side with this view of coordination mobilization that they call impetus – resistance and construe it as a continuous struggle within the organization to keep internal efficiency while it seeks for opportunities outside the organization within the surrounding network. By analogy, it could be inferred that other parties of the network face the same struggle, thus, making mobilization difficult to initiate and its resulting direction potentially unpredictable. Ritvala and Salmi (2010) deal with the impetus – resistance problem by arguing that mobilization is issue dependant. That is, mobilization happens when there is an issue that interest one or more parties, the benefits of mobilizations are foreseeable, hence business participation is encouraged. In the same work, Ritvala and Salmi argue that mobilizations efforts start at high levels of the organisations, where resources are committed with parties that share social ties and value. In a later publication based on the same research project, Ritvala and Salmi (2011) argue that mobilization within the network is motivated by benefits, organisational goals, values, identity and image, as well as individuals' values and identity. However, the outcomes of such mobilization are moderated by the closeness of the issue to the core business, firm size and resources, individual's role and position, and economic and socio-political situation.

The economic and socio-political position and the idea of centrality in social networks, we speculate are similar concepts. Freeman (1978) reviews literature on centrality finding that little agreement exist on its conceptual foundations, however, Freeman argues that "centrality is relevant to the way groups get organised to solve at least some kind of problems." (p.216) Measurements of centrality affect the perceived leadership of the entity which centrality is measured, also, centrality could be assessed as control, as independence, or as activity. Thus, its relevance to network mobilization becomes rather apparent. A social systems perspective of industrial ecology proposed by Hoffman (2003) offers a supplementary framework to understanding the effects of centrality on mobilization. Industrial ecology, Hoffman explains, describes "the flows of material and energy that connect business and the natural world." (p.66) For the purpose of this paper, we argue, industrial ecology could describe the flows of resources, not only materials, that connect businesses together. This, in the light of open systems could be used to explain the reliance of a party's resources and social conceptions on the external environment, thus, a firm's intentions to achieve their objectives in addition to the moderating effects proposed by Ritvala and Salmi (2011) are also influenced by the overall social environment which includes rules, laws, industry standards, best practices, conventional wisdom, market leadership, and cultural biases, as listed by Hoffman (2003).

We embrace a social system view of network mobilization to study the reason why the business community of Dunedin and other institutional actors were capable to achieve an astonishing level of mobilization to attain Gigatown status, but later the pace of action changed to almost slow motion.

Method
We draw principally on ethnographic research data, as one of the authors was an active participant in the initial phase of mobilization, thus has collected first-hand information of the dynamics within the network. However, we have also reviewed a significant amount secondary data, (e.g., press releases, media commentaries, Facebook pages, websites' contents), to increase data reliability. For the second phase the majority of data are from secondary sources and the researchers' participant observation of the process.

The case study

Gigatown was the name given to an online competition organised by Chorus, New Zealand's largest telecommunications infrastructure company, to raise awareness among New Zealanders, help educate and inspire them about the possibilities that a country connected with ultra-fast broadband could achieve. The competition was at the level of cities, with a number of benefits to the winner city including: 1) UFB 1Gbps, service available in the winning Gigatown at entry level broadband prices, 2) a $200,000 Gig-start fund by Chorus and Alcatel Lucent's to support entrepreneurs and innovators taking new services to market over the gigabit fibre connection in Gigatown, 3) a Gig-city community fund of $500,000 by Chorus that organisations in the community can apply for to kick start community related developments that showcase how gigabit infrastructure and UFB can be activated for social good, 4) a CO STARTERS programme series run by Co Lab, an incubator for creative business ideas in Chattanooga which is another Gig-city in, Tennessee, US. Designed to turn business ideas into action, Co Lab will be working with Chorus in 2015 to help people follow their passions, do business, and create jobs, all with the help of ultra-fast broadband and gigabit services. To earn points in the competition, supporters were asked to create relevant discussions on social media with town-specific city-hashtags, register and complete an online Gigatown quiz and post selfies and videos supporting their city. These activities were focused on showing the social and economic benefits of gigabit services. In the final round, each town submitted a Plan for Gig Success that outlined how they plan to use gigabit services to foster new ways of learning, playing and conducting business.

The competition ran between October 2013 and November 2014. On 27th November 2014, out of 50 towns from around New Zealand, Dunedin won the competition, the whole community and businesses celebrated success, expectations for a better future were very high. During the competition, 990,917 visits to gigatown.co.nz were registered, 151,754 people became supporters of Gigatown and 5,950,000 conversations on social media about Gigatown and the power of UFB occurred. In October 2014, Chorus took representatives from the five finalist towns, Dunedin, Gisborne, Nelson, Timaru, and Wanaka, to another Gigatown: Chattanooga in Tennessee, US so they could witness the real benefits of gigabit broadband connectivity. During the competition the Dunedin City Council organised a physical space where supporters were able to use free internet on public computers and volunteers that provided information and help that space operated for few months.

After the period of intensive activity that led Dunedin to win the competition, a period of silence followed. It was as if the last sprint before winning the competition had taken all the energy of the parties and thus, no one managed to take the lead and start mobilizing the network chasing the promised benefits of UFB. The Dunedin City Council briefly announced that they had to wait until June 2015 to access funds in the budgeting round, the digital community trust didn't show any signs of activity either. The rest of those involved in the previous network had just disbanded after the first goal was achieved. On 25th February 2015, three months later, Chorus switched on Gigatown, that is, a number of places in Dunedin could have been able to access UFB, however, the telecommunication companies had not priced the service yet. On 27th March Chorus, Alcatel, and the Council organised a public forum to answer questions over the progress of Gigatown to the businesses, the community and the press. It became apparent in that forum that nothing had happened yet, companies were not taking advantage of the UFB, as the major telecommunication companies had not launched the product yet. On 19 May 2015 the councillors approved a $250,000 budget for helping Dunedin to take advantage of Gigatown, the City Mayor announced that after a period of confusion it was then clear the

direction that Dunedin had to follow. Few weeks later Chorus announced the existence of $500,000 community fund and the business community were reminded of the $200,000 Chorus-Alcatel Gig-Start Fund available for anyone with an idea to take advantage of UFB. On 20th May 2015, just one day after the council started to worry about Gigatown, A star video-game developer called Gigatown a joke. Dean Hall, originally of Oamaru, criticised Gigatown on social media after his gaming studio, RocketWerkz, remained unconnected to UFB three months after setting up in Dunedin. Further, Dean Hall moved a multi-million dollar project offshore because NZ broadband is in "Dark Ages" according to him. On 30th June 2015 US-based Co. Starters visited Dunedin to help people with business, Start Up Dunedin, a partnership between the Dunedin City Council, the University of Otago, and the Otago Polytechnic showed enthusiasm about bringing people together. The council approved a plan for the future of Gigatown in Dunedin, which would provide $100,000 to hire a project co-ordinator, and $150,000 towards community development projects, economic development and business projects, and other projects that would maximise Gigatown outcomes.

Over the past six months, June 2015 – 2016, some parties were awarded $20,000 to develop projects that use UFB to drive innovation, a photography licensing software venture is among the few beneficiaries of these grants. On 6th October 2016 Dunedin launched its GigaCity brand and made available ultra-fast free Wi-Fi at the Octagon. On 16th April 2016 GigCity project's co-ordinator Lesley Marriott acknowledged the roll-out had been frustrating for some but believed the mood was improving as the network spread.

Results
We distinguish two major phases in this case study, phase one where several parties, the business community, local government, non-for-profit organisations, the University, and the general public, worked together until the goal of becoming New Zealand's first Gigatown was won. This first phase is a clear example of network mobilization, the Digital Community Trust became the central actor of the network based on the legitimacy attained from the perception of collective good that Gigatown was capable to deliver. Centrality explains the leadership that this organisation had in the mobilization of the network in the first phase (Freeman, 1978). Mobilization was issue driven, the impetus for change was significant while resistance was nil (Ritvala & Salmi, 2011) because the goal was clear for everyone: win the status of Gigatown. The disruption caused by mobilization was minimal and the parties were quickly coordinating their activities again (Lundgren, 1992). However, the second phase is more difficult to make sense of. On the one hand, the potential benefits of Gigatown only became available after winning the first phase. It could be expected that some parties will try to grab those benefits as quick as possible; however, what was observed was different. Those who participated actively in the first phase either disbanding or slowed the intensity of their participation, creating a situation of network demobilization. At the end of phase 1 it could be argued that the coalition, the network that was moving at incredible speed to win the race, dissolved (Heaney & Rojas, 2008) and although the psychological sense of community could have persisted (Boyd & Nowell, 2014) the strength of the ties between actors became weaker, and thus, when the direction of action had to change there was no central party capable of instigating such change.

The roles, responsibilities, and abilities of actors changed in the second phase, for example community who voted for the Gigatown could not do anything after winning so they had to wait to receive the benefits either by having access to UFB, or even more important to feel the effects of the new wealth that Gigatown was expected to create. On the other hand the local government and the service providers who may have not been expecting to win Gigatown did not consider budgets/plans in advance and suddenly found themselves in the front line with no

time or resources. That is, mobilization attempted with no resources was very unlikely to happen, there were no resources to share Ritvala and Salmi (2010) would argue. However, once the resources were made available (e.g., the money allocated by the council and the grants), the network was demobilized and a new central actor appears to be still missing to initiate movement again.

Also, the mismatch between expectations and actual delivery may have counted. For instance, a number of people thought that once they win they were going to have UFB the day after, but significant investments in infrastructure were necessary; indeed, investments have been made for 18th months and continue, however, people had different expectations that affected their commitment. So there is a management of expectations issue affecting the mobilization of the network in the second phase. Focusing on the flows of energy that connect businesses and the world (Hoffman, 2003), one of the key elements that made the network energy-less was the lack of communication between the Council and the other parties. The Council did not even have the budget to recruit a person to update others about Gigatown progress. The public forum in February was the first action taken four months after winning Gigatown. When the council finally started sharing information about Gigatown with public, a number of stakeholders started to share some positive comments. Even though most of such stakeholders have not seen any benefits from Gigatown, at least in their view it was positive that some were starting to see the benefits.

Conclusions
On the analysis of the Gigatown experience, we conclude that the first phase of the competition is well explained by the issue based mobilization of networks framework (Ritvala & Salmi, 2010); clear enablers of mobilizations were social networks, business benefits, political will, and could even be argued that all parties shared values and responded to their moral responsibility with a city that very much needs a newer innovation edge. The Digital Trust acquired centrality in the network on a legitimacy level provided by the idea of collective expected benefits, which fuelled the network with the required energy to reach its goals. However, the network is not like a cohesive entity that builds momentum and continues moving even when the parties stop to pedal, even more important, the links that keep the parties bonded lost strength making the network energy-less while the parties disbanded. For the second phase the Digital Trust could have still been the centre of the network, however its centrality became less apparent because its role did not have the same relevance than in the first phase. The Council that could have either supported the Digital Trust or assumed the central role re-mobilizing the network didn't have the resources to invest in the mobilization, thus there was no direction to follow. The internet service providers appeared to have not realised the potential of the business and were not prepared to start offering the service, neither landlords were willing to invest in covering the costs of the last connection of optic fibre. The situation was worsened by the lack of information sharing that should have encouraged relevant actors to mobilise, thus even those that were grasping some benefits from the overall venture were unable to find other parties with whom collaborate bringing the ecology of the network to almost disappearance for lack of energy and resources.

Thus, we extend the ideas of issue based network mobilization (Ritvala & Salmi, 2010) and value based network mobilization (Ritvala & Salmi, 2011) to energy fuelled network mobilization that requires a legitimate central actor to which the parties could adhere and build the energy to create an ecological system that enables the necessary synergies to achieve benefits that justify putting the resources that contribute towards the formation of the system.

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The Role of Engagement Patterns in Value Co-Creation: Exploring Mechanisms of Networked Platforms from a Service Dominant Logic

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Abstract

As technologies are evolving businesses operating as networked platforms in their associated ecosystems constitute the majority of the fastest growing organizations in the global economy. In today's networked age, strategic benefits are increasingly generated over networked platforms, allowing various actors to engage in and benefit from value co-creation through their resource integration. This paper represents one of the first attempts to bridge S(ervice)-D(ominant) Logic with business models, using a systematic approach for multi-level theorizing. We introduce engagement patterns as central activity patterns linking actors and their resources with other actors on networked platforms. With the A(ctors)-R(esources)-A(ctivities) model and the value configuration logic of value networks as benchmark, this paper reviews the distinctive logic of networked platforms based on two illustrating cases of platform businesses, Airbnb and Uber. As a substantive contribution the paper pins down a portfolio of generic engagement patterns, including curation, engagement activation, resource orchestration, and boundary management.

Keywords: Platform Businesses, Engagement Patterns, Service-Dominant Logic, A-R-A model

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Building Trust in Business-to-Business Relationships:
The Enabling Role of Co-Creation and Integrity

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Abstract

Trust enjoys wide acceptance among scholars as a key facilitator of inter-organisational relationship development. Successfully navigating these relationships demands an understanding of what drives the propensity to trust between organisations. The six most salient antecedents of trust within contemporary trust literature, explored both conceptually and empirically, have been identified as satisfaction, communication, competence, shared values, benevolence and integrity. In addition, this research investigates co-creation as an antecedent of trust in business-to-business (B2B) relationships, responding to the gap in current literature. The relationship between these independent variables and trust are investigated by adopting multiple regression analysis. The moderating influence of business experience on the relationship between significant independent variables and trust is also explored and represents new insight. Findings indicate that co-creation and integrity positively affect trust within a B2B environment. The results also reveal that business experience has a moderating effect on the relationship between co-creation and trust.

Keywords: Trust; Co-Creation; Integrity; Business-to-Business; Relationship Marketing; Business Experience

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Introduction

Committed and loyal relationships are predicated on trust (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Past B2B marketing research has defined trust as a conviction that when customers develop a tacit understanding with sellers, they will believe that sellers are reliable and will act for the sake of customers' benefits, therefore reducing that perceived risk by a measure of reliability and honesty (Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990). There is profuse, multi-disciplinary acceptance of the importance of trust as a social foundation of interaction (Lewis & Weigert, 2012); in effect, the glue that holds a relationship together.

Customers who develop trust in suppliers based on different cognitive and affective relational experiences have good reason to stay in these relationships: they reduce uncertainty and vulnerability (Reast, 2005). The categorisation and relative strength of both cognitive and affective antecedent dimensions of trust has not been appropriately addressed within contemporary B2B marketing literature; a contribution of the present study is a deeper understanding of what drives the propensity to trust between organisations within both cognitive and affective dimensions. Additionally, co-creation is explored as a distinct and explicit antecedent dimension of trust in a B2B environment.

Theoretical Background and Hypothesis Development

The many multifaceted definitions, and operationalisations, of trust have been outlined in recent literature (Castaldo, 2007) and number as many as 70. This proliferation of views, perspectives and representations has served to cloud the development of, or agreement on, the nature of the internal dynamics of trust (Lyon, Möllering, & Saunders, 2012). Additionally, within contemporary B2B marketing literature, there are only a few empirical studies focused principally on trust that allow conclusions to be drawn about the generalisability of the individual findings (Sichtmann, 2007).

There is consistent acceptance in contemporary trust literature that relationship appraisals based on trust employ different diagnostic cues relative to cognitive and affective relationship characteristics (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). It is widely reported that the propensity to trust is rooted in both cognitive and affective evaluations of trust and serves to form an overall evaluation of trust (Sekhon, Roy, Shergill, & Pritchard, 2013).

The Concept of Cognitive-Based and Affective-Based Trust
Cognitive trust represents the rational element of trust within a relationship and is rooted in the knowledge in the other party and its functional capabilities and has been described as a joint learning process (Sekhon et al., 2013). Typically, trust emerges over time, but if cognitive cues are in place, then trust can develop more quickly and at a higher level. Cognitive trust typically develops as a result of a history of interactions within which characteristics of the trustee emerge.

Affective trust is seen as a natural extension of cognitive trust as parties develop more intimate, personal relationships as a result of their interactions. This identification with the other's desires and intensions serves to build trust, as the parties can effectively understand and appreciate one another's wants (Deutsch, Coleman, & Marcus, 2011). Deutsch et. al. (2011) also suggest that this identification-based trust can even graduate to a level that permits a party to serve as the other's agent and substitute for the other in interpersonal transactions.

Trust within Business-to-Business Relationships
Scholars not that trust has not been fully explored within the context of more contemporary B2B, or inter-organisational, dynamics. As an understanding of a trust choice or behaviour is strongly influenced by context, these trusting behaviours might look quite different depending on the context in which they occur (Lyon et al., 2012). When one party trusts the other, he or she is willing to risk dependence on the other to obtain a goal. Consequently, trust is a critical influence in the development of business relationships and relationship commitment (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Undeniably, such commitment is a central tenet of relationship marketing and a useful construct for measuring the likelihood of customer loyalty as well as for predicting future purchase frequency.

The vulnerability that a B2B relationship presents is important in establishing trust; trusting parties must be vulnerable to some extent for trust to become operational (Doney & Cannon, 1997). Consequently, the majority of researchers view trust as a behavioural intention, or behaviour, that reflects a reliance on a partner and which involves vulnerability and uncertainty (Doney, Barry, & Abratt, 2007).

Antecedent Dimensions of Trust within Business-to-Business Relationships
Within the great many conceptualisations of trust, different disciplines have emphasised different components such as individual, organisational and economic aspects of trust. This study adopts the construct definition of trust of Garbarino and Johnson (1999) and Mayer et al. (1995) that conceptualises trust as existing when there is a willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party.

Despite the proliferation of views, consensus has emerged within the relationship marketing literature that trust encompasses three essential dimensions. A partner's ability is that group of skills, competencies and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). A partner's integrity serves to promise fulfilment of role obligations and demonstrates steadfastness and sincerity in its word (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). A partner's benevolence is a belief that one's partner is interested in the firm's welfare and will not take unexpected actions that would have a negative impact on the partner firm (Doney et al., 2007).

Other antecedents of trust that have been explored include co-creation, satisfaction, communication and shared values. Co-creation is defined as the active participation, interactions, dialogue and collaboration of the buyer and seller and other actors in the marketing exchange to develop a deeper understanding of the customer problem solving context. Customer satisfaction is conceptualised as an overall post-purchase evaluation of the final customer solution (Giese & Cote, 2000). Communication is conceptualised as the formal as well as informal sharing of high quality, meaningful and timely information between firms (Coote, Forrest, & Tam, 2003). Shared values is conceptualised as the extent to which partners have beliefs in common about what behaviours, goals and policies are important or unimportant, appropriate or inappropriate and right or wrong (Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

Seven hypotheses are developed to explore the relationship of co-creation (H_1), satisfaction (H_2), communication (H_3), competence (H_4), shared values (H_5), benevolence (H_6) and integrity (H_7) with trust. Business experience is conceptualised as an individual, subjective and dispositional quality that is determined by the collective developmental experiences within a particular industry over time. Initial uncertainty and risk associated with subsequent

service relationships are reduced as knowledge is gained through repeated exposures (Coulter & Coulter, 2003). Thus, a subsidiary hypothesis is also proposed that tests the moderating influence of business experience (H_8).

Methodology

Measurement of the Variables
All of the measures used in this study are drawn from existing marketing literature and have been developed to suit the purpose at hand. The measures all feature syntax reflective of a buyer-supplier, or B2B, context so as to ensure a measure of validity within the present study. All scales are available upon request.

A survey was carried out to collect the data for testing the model and hypotheses of this study. The survey instrument was designed using Qualtrics® online survey software and was distributed, at the individual level, to a total of 984 directors, managers or other decision-makers within business-to-business industries at the small business and large enterprise level in Australia and New Zealand. Respondents were recruited via an online research panel service, Cint Access®. A total of 455 responses were received for an overall response rate of 46.4%. Of this number, 268 were found to be usable for the purpose of statistical analyses.

Reliability and Validity Assessment
To support the reliability of measures for the 268 respondents in this study, the reliability of each scale was assessed via item-to-total correlation and Cronbach's Alpha. Cronbach's Alpha and item-to-total correlation values for all of the scales more than met the commonly accepted, minimum absolute value of 0.70 and 0.30, respectively, indicating good internal consistency (Field, 2009). Every item in each scale contributes to the overall explanatory value and features high item-to-total correlations. Collinearity statistics show no problem with collinearity between the independent variables (tolerance: > 0.1; VIF: < 10), thus multicollinearity is of no concern. Additionally, a Durbin-Watson test, which tests for serial correlations between errors, was undertaken with a resulting value of 2.269.

To examine the validity of each measure, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was employed using SPSS version 20. All items within each variable were factor analysed to test the convergent and discriminant validity of the measures. The items were subjected to principal component analysis with Promax rotation due to a higher expected level of correlation between variables. All items within each scale of the present study load to a single dimension, as conceptualised, indicating the convergent and discriminant validity of each scale.

Results

Measurement Tests
The main effect hypotheses were tested using OLS hierarchical regression. The correlations matrix does not indicate any multicollinearity issue, or predictors that correlate too highly with each other (R > 0.9). For the testing of the moderation hypotheses, Hayes Process Model for moderation analysis is adopted (Hayes, 2012).

Main Effect Results
    A regression model of co-creation, satisfaction, communication, competence, shared values, benevolence and integrity on trust is significant, with an R^2 of .57, but reveals that

there are only two variables in the equation that have statistical significance, Co-creation (β = .183, *p* = 0.004; and Integrity (β = .474, *p* = <0.001).

Moderation Effect Results
The results of the regression analysis report that co-creation and integrity have a significant effect on trust, whilst satisfaction, communication, competence, shared values, benevolence and integrity do not have a significant effect.

Moderating Effect of Business Experience on the Relationship between Co-creation and Trust
The effects of business experience on the relationship between co-creation and trust were examined. Co-creation positively effects trust ($\beta = 0.193$, $p < 0.01$). By adopting Hayes moderation Model One and performing bootstrapping (10,000 samples), the results indicate that moderation is present as revealed by a significant interaction effect ($\beta = -0.200$, 95% CI [LLCI = -0.3732, ULCI = -0.0287], $t = -1.93$, $p \leq 0.05$). This indicates that the relationship between co-creation and trust is moderated by business experience.

Interpretation of the moderation effect reveals that within "low experience" individuals, the effect of low levels of co-creation on trust is a reduction in trust (trust = 3.541), whilst within "high experience" individuals, the effect of low levels of co-creation on trust is an increase in trust (trust = 3.819). Conversely, within "low experience" individuals, the effect of high levels of co-creation on trust is an increase in trust (trust = 5.673), whilst within "high experience" individuals, the effect of high levels of co-creation on trust is a decrease in trust (trust = 5.396).

Moderating Effect of Business Experience on the Relationship between Integrity and Trust
The effects of business experience on the relationship between integrity and trust were next examined. Integrity positively effects trust ($\beta = 0.536$, $p < 0.001$). By adopting Hayes moderation Model One and performing bootstrapping (10,000 samples), the results indicate that no moderation is present as revealed by a non-significant interaction effect ($\beta = -0.140$, 95% CI [LLCI = -0.3355, ULCI = 0.0556], $t = -1.41$, $p = 0.160$), indicating that the relationship between integrity and trust is not moderated by business experience.

Summary of Main and Subsidiary Hypotheses Results
Only three of the nine hypotheses were supported. Both co-creation and integrity have a strong relationship to trust (H1 and H7) and the relationship between co-creation and trust is moderated by business experience (H8a).

Discussion and Conclusion

This study provides new insights into the role of previously reported antecedent dimensions of trust within a B2B environment. Whilst co-creation and integrity are found to exert a positive, significant influence on trust, satisfaction, communication, competence, shared values and benevolence do not directly affect trust in a B2B environment. Whilst the results of bivariate data analysis in the present study suggests that there is a relationship between all antecedent dimensions and trust, the overwhelming strength of the relationship between co-creation and integrity on trust serves to subsume these relationships.

One explanation for the strength of the relationship between co-creation and trust may be due to the iterative nature of the co-creation process between organisations. Organisations that initiate, or join, co-creation exercises with partner organisations provide the means for diagnosing trust based on the multifaceted dimensions of co-creation. These dimensions

include a diagnosis of co-creation outcomes such as satisfaction, which has been widely reported to lead to trust (Ranaweera & Prabhu, 2003). Rajah (2012), suggests that buyer-seller co-creation generates highly satisfactory solutions which enable buyers to make an assessment of the trustworthiness of the seller based on these reliability and ability dimensions.

The link between integrity and trust is also found to be positive and significant. An important result of this study is confirmation of the high explanatory power of the integrity dimension on trust. The results of this study suggest that integrity is the most significant determinant of trust within the antecedent dimensions of this study. This finding supports the results of an abundance of studies within the sociology, psychology and marketing fields of research which also found a positive link between integrity and trust (Doney & Cannon, 1997).

Organisations that demonstrate high integrity are likely to be trusted because they represent a less risky, uncertain and vulnerable relationship (Doney & Cannon, 1997). It is this key, mitigating influence on uncertainty and vulnerability that serves to distinguish integrity from that of other more static dimensions of trust. Integrity suggests an unwillingness to sacrifice ethical standards to achieve organisational objectives and is deeply-seated in assessments of honesty credibility and justice that are developed, and diagnosed, over time (Moorman, Deshpandé, & Zaltman, 1993). The recursive nature of integrity diagnoses by partner organisations suggests that an organisation requires many successive executions of high integrity activity in order to build, and maintain, trust.

The findings of this study suggest that as business experience increases, the effect of co-creation on trust decreases. Conversely, at low levels of business experience, the effect of co-creation on trust increases. Whilst co-creation was found to be a positive, significant determinant of trust within both high and low experience individuals, the role of business experience moderating this influence is of both practical and academic significance. It is significant that business experience is conceptualised as an overall, collective measure of business experience, not business experience with one particular supplier. This lends credence to the notion that low experienced individuals within a high co-creation relationship will enjoy higher levels of inter-organisational trust. Because the need for trust arises in risky, uncertain or vulnerable situations, of which lack of knowledge or familiarity within an industry is a primary driver, high co-creation can serve to mitigate this risk. These results suggest that low experienced individuals rely more heavily on co-creation as a determinant of trust than that of high experienced individuals. In sum, when experience is low, co-creation is an important cue upon which inferences of trust are made.

When business experience is high, there is also a significant, positive relationship between co-creation and trust. Co-creation is still important as a significant determinant of trust within highly experienced individuals, however, the effect of high co-creation on trust is lower than that of low experienced individuals. These results suggest that highly experienced individuals invest less of a diagnostic measure of trust in the level of co-creation enjoyed within a relationship. As industry knowledge and familiarity is gained and business experience increases over time, the risk and uncertainty associated with not knowing what to expect within an industry may be reduced. An increase in business experience suggests an individual may no longer draw as heavily on co-creation as a surrogate cue on which to base trust evaluations.

Implications

For academics, the importance of co-creation and integrity as antecedents of trust are highlighted. Recent literature has particularly reiterated the need for more empirical exploration on the outcomes of co-creation (Randall, Gravier & Prybutok, 2011). Similarly, the prospect that the relative strength of both cognitive and affective dimensions of trust may differ has been highlighted and would be of great interest for future study.

For business practitioners, the findings highlight the importance of co-creation as a means to elicit trust in a business-to-business relationship. Trust is credited with granting competitive advantages such as raising the barriers to entry by competitive firms and raising the barriers to exit by partnering firms due to the time, energy and social investment in the co-creation process. Initiating, and engaging-in, the co-creation of value serves to increase measures of trust in a relationship. Thus, relationship managers, or inter-organisational actors such as sales representatives, can build trust in the relationship by encouraging or developing the co-creation process. Additionally, the co-creation process contributes more significantly to trust than that of more cognitive, or calculus-based, outcomes such as satisfaction, competence and communication. Similarly, the importance of integrity on trust in a relationship is highlighted here. Business practitioners must be acutely aware of, and adhere to, principles that are acceptable to their customers or they risk sacrificing a measure of trust in their relationship.

The findings of this study provide evaluative criteria for relationship managers, or sales representatives, on the level of co-creation that is most effective when seeking to develop trust in a relationship. Higher levels of trust will be generated with customers who have low business experience when the level of co-creation is high. These findings may be used to tailor co-creation based relationship strategies for customers that feature as lower, or higher, experience. These co-creation strategies may differ for incumbent customers versus new customers within an industry.

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External Networks for Developing Dynamic Capability and Firm Performance

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Abstract

Under the fierce pressure of fast changing environments that characterize emerging economies, developing dynamic capabilities is a must to survive and sustain competitive advantage. This study examines how a firm's ability to manage external networks (i.e. network capability and integrative capability) helps build its reconfiguration capability— an essential dynamic capability, subsequently enhances firm performance. A survey of 277 Chinese manufacturers indicates that network capability and integrative capability drive the development of reconfiguration capability; however, their respective effects are contingent on the level of relational capabilities—the ability to build relational capital with network partners. Additionally, reconfiguration capability transmits the effect of network capability and integrative capability into firm performance. Traditional wisdom suggests that external networks help firms enhance superior performance, but our findings reveal that the underlying reason is through the development of dynamic capability.

Keywords: Dynamic Capability, Social Networks, Relational Capabilities

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Supply Chain Collaboration: A Framework and Propositions

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Abstract

Although the volume of research on supply chain collaboration has expanded over the past decade, there is a dearth of studies seeking to enhance conceptual clarity regarding this subject matter. To address this gap, this paper reviews and synthesizes literature on the concept of supply chain collaboration. The paper adopts a systematic approach for 'planning', 'searching', 'analysis', and 'synthesis'. This paper adds to knowledge through the development of a theoretical framework built on collaborative capacity, collaborative actions, and collaborative outcomes. Not only does this paper elaborate on these primary factors, it outlines testable propositions linking the specific elements (i.e. antecedents, drivers, enablers, barriers, dimensions, content, and outcomes) of supply chain collaboration.

Keywords: Collaboration, supply chains, systematic review, propositions

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Introduction

The need to manage costs, increase efficiency, and adjust to competition has created an imperative for collaboration (Fawcett et al., 2008; Fawcett et al., 2012). The decision to collaborate means that partner firms intentionally pursue and commit to '*mutually compatible interests in the alliance*' as opposed to acting opportunistically (Das and Teng, 1998 p.492). There is a compelling body of knowledge (see Barratt, 2004; Cao et al., 2010; Fawcett et al., 2008; Holweg et al., 2005; Kumar and Banerjee, 2012; Ramanathan, 2012; Soosay and Hyland, 2015; Vereecke and Muylle, 2006) illustrating the critical importance of collaborative arrangements to effective supply chain management.

However, there have been few attempts (e.g. Fawcett et al., 2012; Kampstra et al., 2006; Simatupang and Sridharan, 2002; Soosay and Hyland, 2015) to offer an end-to-end conceptual portrayal of supply chain collaboration. The lack of a framework to encapsulate the dynamics of, perhaps the most fundamental topic of supply chain management, necessitates a review of extant literature. Systematic reviews enhance conceptual clarity by collating, summarizing, and synthesizing research, and culminate in setting an agenda for future studies (Pawson et al., 2004; Torraco, 2005; Webster and Watson, 2002). This paper reviews extant literature with a view to developing a conceptual model and research propositions. The subsequent section outlines the scope of the systematic review.

Scope of the Review

A systematic review of literature comprises the following stages; planning, searching, analysis, and synthesis (Greenhalgh et al., 2005; Pawson et al., 2004). The following discussion provides an overview of each of these stages in the context of this literature review.

Planning

The challenge inherent in reviewing, collating, and synthesizing this stream of research is that '*collaboration is an amorphous meta-concept that has been interpreted in many different ways by both organizations and individuals*' (Barratt, 2004, p.39). To arrive at a narrow and more specific conceptualization, this review focused on two search terms "supply chain collaboration" and "collaboration in supply chain".

Searching

Using the terms above, a search was conducted on title, abstract, and keywords. Databases accessed comprised *ABI Inform*, *Science Direct* and also publisher specific databases including *Emerald*, *Palgrave*, *Sage*, *Springer*, *Taylor and Francis*, and *Wiley-Blackwell*. After excluding book chapters, industry reports, and opinion pieces, the sample consisted of 117 articles published in English[1].

Analysis and Synthesis

This paper adopted a concept-centric approach to analysis and synthesis (Torraco, 2005; Webster and Watson, 2002). A concept-centric approach is vital because it embraces the principles of plurality and contestation (Greenhalgh et al., 2005). For this paper, synthesis entails the construction of a framework and propositions (Greenhalgh et al., 2005; Torraco,

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[1] We note here that our review identified just over half the articles in Soosay and Hyland's (2015) research. We attribute the discrepancy to the broader search terms used in that study which included, "supply chains" and "supply chain management". The full list of studies reviewed is available on request.

2005). The framework and propositions derive from three primary factors - collaborative capacity, collaborative actions, and collaborative outcomes.

Collaborative Capacity

Collaborative capacity refers to aspects which shape or predict a firm's predisposition towards collaboration. These aspects comprise drivers, antecedents, enablers, and barriers. The subsequent section discusses each of these elements before generating some propositions.

Drivers

Drivers encompass organizational restructuring, economic globalization, customer pressures, competitive intensity, and complexity in supply chains (Fawcett et al., 2008; Fawcett et al., 2012; Morose et al., 2011). Organizational restructuring in the form of mergers and acquisitions or downsizing, can generate the stimulus for collaboration. For instance, downsizing may create resource gaps which collaboration can help plug. Economic globalization, and advances in information and communication technology also drive collaboration. Additionally, customer demands for quality and price competitiveness, as well as complexity in supply chains, amplify the need for collaboration.

Antecedents

Antecedents of supply chain collaboration fall into two categories; collaborative culture and market/product elements (Barratt, 2004; de Leeuw and Fransoo, 2009; Kumar and Banerjee, 2012). Collaborative culture refers to how an organization's internal environment is geared towards promoting the formation and maintenance of relationships. To a lesser extent, collaboration also emanates from product and market-related factors. There is a link between drivers of collaboration and collaborative culture. For example, competitive intensity builds an inclination towards customer and relationship orientation. Likewise, advances in information and communication technology stimulate information sharing. Thus, we state our first proposition:

P_1: *There is a positive relationship between the drivers of collaboration and collaborative culture.*

Enablers

Enablers are the various people-related and technological/structural factors that facilitate collaboration (Hovarth, 2001; Kampstra et al., 2006). People-related enablers comprise role clarity, pre-existing relationships, common goals, and top management involvement. Technological and structural enablers consist of complementary capabilities, IT competencies, adoption of up-to-date supply chain metrics, and flexible organizational structure.

There is a relationship between collaborative culture and enablers of collaboration. This relationship arises from the fact that a collaborative culture enhances the capacity to collaborate as captured by enabling factors. For example, elements of collaborative culture such as trust, mutuality, and openness are likely to facilitate the development of common goals and role clarity. Similarly, top management involvement in building a collaborative culture also increases the chance that top management would lend its support to future collaborative arrangements. This leads to the proposition:

P_2: *There is a positive relationship between collaborative culture and enablers of collaboration.*

Barriers

Barriers discourage channel members from actively seeking collaborative arrangements, inhibit participants from increasing the intensity of the collaboration, and obstruct them from reaping the full rewards of collaboration (Fawcett et al., 2012; Simatupang and Sridharan, 2002). They include lack of top management support, vague understanding of the concept of collaboration, poorly articulated goals, inappropriate/rigid organizational structure, and inadequate IT capabilities (Fawcett et al., 2008). We propose that:

P_3: *There is a negative relationship between collaborative culture and barriers to collaboration.*

Enablers and barriers constitute opposing forces which moderate a firm's collaborative capacity. Where enablers have a substantial sway, barriers will be low and vice versa. This line of argument leads to the proposition that:

P_4: *There is a negative relationship between enablers and barriers of collaboration.*

Collaborative Actions

Collaborative actions encompass structure, dimensions, and content. By and large, most of the arrangements described in extant literature are vertical and dyadic. They consist of upstream (i.e. supplier and focal firm) and downstream (i.e. focal firm and customer/retailer) arrangements (Barratt, 2004; Vereecke and Muylle, 2006). Horizontal collaborations (i.e. with competitors or channel members at the same level of the supply chain) are covered to a much less extent (see Hovarth, 2001).

Dimensions

Dimensions of collaborative actions comprise information sharing, joint planning, joint decision making, joint risk taking, joint knowledge sharing, decision synchronization, goal congruence, and shared risks and investments (Cao et al., 2010; Simatupang and Sridharan, 2005; Scholten and Schilder, 2015).

Content

Firms collaborate on a cross-section of activities and processes including new product development, production planning, procurement, forecasting, replenishment, transportation, and returns management (Cannella and Ciancimino, 2010; Sandberg, 2007). These operational aspects are the bedrock of solutions such as Vendor Managed Inventory (VMI) and Collaborative, Planning, Forecasting and Replenishment (CPFR) (Attaran and Attaran, 2007; Holweg et al., 2005).

Collaborative actions are facilitated by key enablers. For example, role clarity and flexible organizational structure allow for decision synchronization and joint actions (dimensions) while IT-connectivity and capabilities enable CPFR and VMI (content). Conversely, collaborative actions are hindered by barriers such as unclear goals, lack of top management support, inadequate IT capabilities, and inappropriate organizational structure. On the basis of the foregoing, we propose that:

P_5: *There is a positive relationship between enablers of collaboration and collaborative actions as captured by (a) dimensions and (b) content of collaboration.*

P_6: *There is a negative relationship between barriers of collaboration and collaborative actions as captured by (a) dimensions and (b) content of collaboration.*

There is a connection between dimensions and content of collaboration. Organizations that exercise high levels of information sharing, decision synchronization, joint planning, joint

problem solving, joint knowledge sharing, and resource creation, generate scope and depth for collaborative content. This leads to the proposition that:

P7: *There is a positive relationship between dimensions and content of collaboration.*

Collaborative Outcomes

Collaboration has an effect on *supply chain-related* and *firm-wide* performance. Supply-chain related performance outcomes epitomize the so-called collaborative advantage while firm-wide performance outcomes relate to the overall competitiveness of the organization. The remainder of this section examines performance outcomes of collaboration and states the final three propositions.

Supply chain outcomes

Supply chain-related performance outcomes of collaboration comprise quality improvements, cost reductions, delivery performance, responsiveness, flexibility, resilience, and reduction of the bullwhip effect (Canella and Ciancimino, 2010; Ramanathan, 2012; Scholten and Schilder, 2015. It can also be argued that when such benefits are realized, the likelihood of choosing a higher or more formalized level of supply chain collaboration increases. We propose that:

P_{8a}: *There is a positive relationship between dimensions of collaboration and supply chain-related performance outcomes.*

P_{9a}: *There is a positive relationship between content of collaboration and supply chain-related performance outcomes.*

Firm-wide outcomes

Collaborative arrangements contribute to firm-wide performance outcomes including sales growth, return on investment, growth in return on investment, profit margin on sales, and customer satisfaction (Holweg et al., 2005; Cao and Zhang, 2011). In this regard, both dimensions and content of collaboration have an effect on firm-wide performance outcomes. We state two propositions as follows:

P_{8b}: *There is a positive relationship between dimensions of collaboration and firm-wide performance.* P_{9b}: *There is a positive relationship between content of collaboration and firm-wide performance.*

Supply chain-related performance emanates from the fact that collaboration confers onto a firm, distinct collaborative advantages (Cao and Zhang, 2011). For instance, collaboration facilitates cost reductions, better utilization of assets, and faster speed to market all of which improve firm-wide performance (Cannella and Ciacimino, 2010; Sandberg, 2007). We offer that:

P_{10}: *There is a positive relationship between supply chain-related and firm-wide performance.*

Conclusion

This is one of the few studies which provides an end-to-end depiction (i.e. drivers to outcomes) of the myriad elements underpinning supply chain collaboration. Collaboration comprises three primary components, namely; collaborative capacity, collaborative actions, and collaborative outcomes. The impetus to collaborate arises from the firm's collaborative capacity (i.e. antecedents, drivers, enablers, and barriers). Collaboration eventuates when the facilitating role of enablers is stronger than the prohibitive effect of barriers. The resultant collaboration takes various forms including dyadic, vertical, horizontal, and episodic. Evidence of collaboration can be drawn from the strategic elements or dimensions and these encompass information sharing, joint planning, joint decision making, joint risk taking, joint knowledge sharing, decision synchronization, goal congruence, and shared risks and investments. Operational

aspects of collaboration (i.e. new product development, production planning, procurement, forecasting, replenishment, transportation, and returns management) emphasize the specific supply chain activities around which collaboration centers. Collaboration impacts supply-chain related and firm-wide performance. Perhaps, the major contribution of this paper ensues from the testable propositions drawn from the analysis and synthesis of extant literature. The propositions put forth, suggest mostly, a positive relationship between the various elements. This paper has added conceptual clarity to the discourse on supply chain collaboration while opening new avenues of enquiry for empirical research.

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Communicating sustainable value propositions in business markets

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Abstract

Sustainability is one of key macro-trends shaping markets, but many firms still struggle to communicate how their sustainable offerings add value to customers and other stakeholders. Current research in this area has focused on economic benefits and direct customers, but few studies consider how firms can communicate environmental and social benefits to wider stakeholder systems. To address this gap in the current literature, this study explores how firms in business markets communicate sustainable value propositions. Based on interviews with 21 different firms operating in several industries in the cleantech sector, this study identifies three alternative strategies for communicating sustainable value propositions (value quantification, value visualization, and value risk demonstration) and examines their special characteristics. Overall, this study contributes to current priority areas in sustainability and business marketing research. For managers, this study offers insights on how to better understand, deliver, and communicate different customer benefits in broader social (eco)systems.

Keywords: Value proposition, sustainability, cleantech, value communication, social system

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Brand authenticity versus brand reputation: automobile sector

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Abstract

The current study aims to analyze the effect of both brand authenticity and brand reputation on brand attachment considering the automotive sector. A sample of 376 participants, members of car brand communities, collaborate in a survey. Findings reveal that the perception of authenticity could be more effective than brand reputation on enhancing brand attachment. However, the effect could depend on the car brand strategy. Limitations and suggestions for further research are also provided.

Keywords: Brand authenticity, Corporate brand reputation, Brand attachment, Automotive industry

Track: Industrial and business relationship marketing

Introduction

Attachment theory emerges from the close relationship and the works done by Bowlby and colleagues. Attachments can be understood beyond the person-person relationship context (Belk, 1988). Brand attachment is regarded as emotional feelings that consumers have toward a brand or a product. Those feelings could become stronger to create truly loyalty and passion for customers to the brand. (Loureiro et al., 2012; Batra et al., 2012).

Following Park et al. (2010), the current study considers two dimensions to measure brand attachment: brand-self connection and brand prominence. The latter represents the extent to which positive feelings and memories about the attachment brand are perceived as the top of mind Prominence reflects "the salience of the cognitive and affective bond that connects the brand to the self" (Park et al., 2010, p. 2). The former involves the cognitive and emotional connection between the brand and the self (Chaplin & John 2005; Escalas 2004).

In the current study, we analyze the effect of both brand authenticity and brand reputation on brand attachment considering the automotive sector. Could the emotional bonds between a brand and a customer be more depending on the perception of authenticity (the cars are genuine, real, or true regarding the tradition of the brand) or the perception of brand reputation (the way customer view the organization and interactions with it)?

Brand authenticity

Authenticity is becoming a marketing argument for companies in a globalized world. The idea of authenticity can give more attractiveness and wealth/singularity to a product/brand (Roth & Romeo, 1992). Brands are important cultural objects (Holt, 2002) and significant symbolic value (Belk, 1988). Therefore, to fit with these symbolic values, companies needs to make their product authentic and different from others. Authenticity is a core component of successful brands because it forms part of a unique brand identity (Aaker, 1997).

Authenticity is also viewed as a quality inherent in an object (Grayson & Martinec, 2004), the ability to deliver what it promises (Erdem & Swait, 2004), or the virtue reflected in the brand's intentions and in the values it communicates (Beverland & Farrelly, 2010). Although lot has been written about authenticity, past research brings together around the idea of what is genuine, real, or true (Newman & Dhar, 2014).In the current study, we analyze whether or not consumers regard cars as meeting certain quality and characteristics standards traditionally associated with the brand. The perception of authenticity may be related to an emotional attachment toward a brand (Thomson et al., 2005; Morhart et al., 2015). Thus (see figure 1):

H1: The perception authenticity is positively relatedd to consumers' emotional car brand attachment for Tesla (H1a), Volvo (H1b) and Toyota (H1c).

Brand reputation

The reputation of brand's name has been described as an extrinsic cue, that is, an attribute related to the product (Zeithaml, 1988) but not of the physical composition of the product. Brand reputation evolves all the time, and it is mainly created by the flow of information from one user to another (Herbig & Milewicz, 1993). Reputation embodies the general estimation in which a company is held by employees, customers, suppliers, distributors, competitors and the public (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990). Thus, firms compete for brand reputation knowing that those with a strong reputation across their products can assume highest sales prices, thereby being more powerful than another competitor.

In order to capture the perception of consumer about the reputation of a brand, Walsh and Beatty (2007, p. 129) propose "the customer's overall evaluation of a firm based on his or her reactions to the firm's goods, services, communication activities, interactions with the firm and/or its representatives or constituencies (such as employees, management, or other customers) and/or known corporate activities." In this study we consider four dimensions to measure corporate reputation: customer orientation, reliable and financially, product and service quality and social and environmental responsibility. Reputation refers to the more general emotional response that an individual has toward an organization as a consequence of its action over a longer period of time (Amis, 2003). Thus, reputation can be seen as a driver to emotional brand attachment (Japutra et al., 2014).

H2: The perception of reputation is positively related to consumers' emotional car brand attachment for Tesla (H1a), Volvo (H1b) and Toyota (H1c).
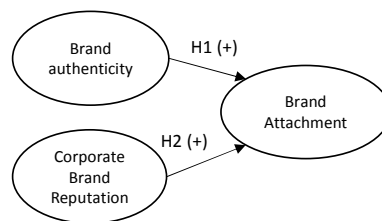
Figure 1. Proposed model.

Method

First, a questionnaire was created including the items of the constructs elicited by the previous studies and a section for socio-demographic variables. Then the questionnaire (before launched) was pilot tested with the help of 6 individuals as managers and members of the car brand communities to ensure that the questions were well understood by the respondents and that there were no problems with the wording or measurement scales. Only a few adjustments were made. The members of the communities were invited to participate in an online survey.

The car brands considered in this study are Tesla, Toyota, and Volvo. The criteria for choosing such brands refer to the fact that the three brands are representative of three main concepts: Volvo (born in Sweden-Europe) and the safety and social responsibility programs; Toyota (born in Japan-ASIA) and quality, reliability and carbon reduction and social responsibility programs; Tesla (born in United States of America) and electric sport car programs.

We measured the constructs with multi-item scales (6 points Likert-type scale). Corporate brand reputation is assessed using a scale presented by Walsh and Beatty (2007). Brand authenticity is based on Newman and Dhar (2014), and brand attachment is adapted from Park et al. (2010).

Of the overall participants (376), 93% are male what represent the proportionality of the total members of the communities contacted. Almost 60% (61.1%) range from 31 to 50 years of age. However, this is acceptable due to the type of product in question. The number of participants using each of the three brands is divided almost evenly.

Results

The model proposed in the current study presents a large number of manifest variables and formative factors and therefore PLS is the appropriate approach for data treatment (Chin et al.,

2003). The repeated indicators method was applied to test the model with second-order formative factors (Chin et al., 2003).

The adequacy of the measurements is assessed by evaluating the reliability of the individual measures and the discriminant validity of the constructs (Hulland, 1999). All items with loadings have values above 0.7. Table 1 shows that all constructs are reliable since the composite reliability values exceeded the 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978).

At the second-order construct level, we have the parameter estimates of indicator weights and multicollinearity of indicators. Weight measures the contribution of each formative indicator to the variance of the latent variable (Roberts & Thatcher, 2009). A significance level of at least 0.001 suggests that an indicator is relevant to the construction of the formative index. Table 1 shows that all indicators have a positive beta weight above 0.2.

The degree of multicollinearity among the formative indicators should be assessed by variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF indicates show values lower than 10, and so the results did not seem to pose a multicollinearity problem.

Table 1. Measurement results

Construct	Tesla			Volvo			Toyota		
	LV Mean	AVE	CR	LV Mean	AVE	CR	LV Mean	AVE	CR
Customer Orientation	5.3	0.877	0.955	5.3	0.900	0.964	5.3	0.871	0.953
Product and Service Quality	5.2	0.754	0.902	5.2	0.775	0.912	5.2	0.726	0.888
Reliable and Financially	5.4	0.711	0.880	5.2	0.730	0.890	5.2	0.719	0.885
Social and Environmental Responsibility	5.0	0.702	0.876	4.4	0.718	0.884	4.4	0.692	0.871
Brand Authenticity	5.5	0.703	0.826	5.0	0.855	0.922	4.6	0.934	0.966
Brand-self Connection	4.6	0.719	0.938	4.6	0.721	0.939	4.5	0.749	0.947
Brand Prominence	4.4	0.804	0.925	4.4	0.827	0.935	4.1	0.916	0.971
First order construct	Weight		VIF	Weight		VIF	Weight		VIF
Customer Orientation	0.362***		3.343	0.346***		3.087	0.342***		2.031
Product and Service Quality	0.305`***		3.585	0.301***		3.622	0.309***		2.310
Reliable and Financially	0.297***		3.938	0.288***		3.813	0.307***		2.880
Social and Environmental Responsibility	0.205***		1.625	0.230***		1.828	0.246***		1.961
Brand-self Connection	0.691***		2.713	0.681***		2.904	0.652***		3.798
Brand Prominence	0.360***		2.713	0.366***		2.904	0.383***		3.798

CR: Composite Reliability; ***p<0.001

The measures demonstrated convergent validity as the average variance of manifest variables extracted by constructs (AVE) is at least 0.5. The criterion used to assess discriminant validity

was proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), suggesting that the square root of AVE should be higher than the correlation between the two constructs in the model. This criterion is met.

. Table 2. Structural results

Path	beta	t-value	Result
B. authenticity→ B. attachment Tesla	0.376***	3.327	supported
CB reputation→ B. attachment Tesla	0.102ns	0.806	not supported
B. authenticity→ B. attachment Volvo	0.377***	3.987	supported
CB reputation→ B. attachment Volvo	0.212*	2.133	supported
B. authenticity→ B. attachment Toyota	0.489***	4.730	supported
CB reputation→ B. attachment Toyota	0.205*	2.072	supported
R^2Tesla=0.198	Q^2=0.658	GoF=0.66	
R^2Volvo=0.293	Q^2=0.679	GoF=0.70	
R^2Toyota=0.388	Q^2=0.731	GoF=0.73	

*p<0.05; ***p<0.001

Regarding structural results (see Table 2), all path coefficients were found to be significant except for CB reputation→ B. attachment in the case of Tesla. Thereby, hypothesis H2 is partially supported. All values of Q2 are positive, so the relations in the model have predictive relevance. The model (for the three brands) also demonstrated a good level of predictive power (R2) and a good value of GoF.

Conclusions and implications

Although authenticity and reputation are positively related to brand attachment for both Volvo and Toyota, in the case of Tesla the influence of reputation on brand attachment is not significant. The reason my lie in the way customers see the brands. Toyota and Volvo are more concerned about communicating the reliability of the cars (in the case of Toyota) and vehicle safety (Volvo) than Tesla. Tesla Motors is the only of the three brands founded in the 21th century. Therefore, do not have yet a tradition on communicating brand reputation in a way others do.

Corporate brand reputation and brand attachment are measured as second order constructs; the first contains four factors (Customer Orientation, Product and Service Quality, Reliable and Financially, Social and Environmental Responsibility) and the second comprises two factors (Brand-self Connection and Brand Prominence). Table 1 shows the standardized estimate (weight) for the formative paths. In order to access the Std. estimate a nonparametric bootstrapping procedure with 500 re-samples was employed (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Regarding the four dimensions of corporate brand reputation used in this study based on Walsh and Beatty (2007). Customer Orientation reveals as the most significant in shaping the overall corporate reputation. Customer Orientation includes the concerns about customers, the fairly treatment and the courtesy. Thus, the quality of the direct interaction between the company and the customers becomes very important in creating reputation about a car brand. Very close to Customer Orientation in contributing to the overall corporate reputation is the dimension of Product and Service Quality. This dimension deals with offers high quality products and services, stands behind the services that company offers and develops innovative services. The last contribution comes from Social and Environmental Responsibility. This is noticeable, since the three car brands are committed to social and environmental issues, but customers tend to mostly value the quality of the relationship and the quality and innovation of goods/services.

In what concerns to brand attachment, Brand-self Connection emerges as the most relevant in shaping the overall brand attachment. These findings highlight a kind of overlapping between the car brand and what it represent and the inner self of the customers. The car becomes and extended self, as Belk (1988) and Park et al. (2010) propose. This is particularly true in the

case of Tesla sports cars. This bond between a car brand and customers represent more than positive emotions and feelings; it is about to share the same "soul". Following Parl et al. (2010) this happens when the connections between the brand and the customer self become close and also when brand-related thoughts and memories become more prominent.

In this vein, the perception of authenticity could be more aligned with this attachment conceptualization than the perceptions of corporate reputation. The results (see table 2) stress a higher strength between the perception of authenticity and brand attachment. Therefore, the way customers evaluate the "truth" of a car brand, or even, the more is the evaluation of genuine of the car as a product of the identity system of the car brand, the greater tends to be the attachment between the car and the customer. Aligned with Newman and Dhar (2014), Tesla seems to be more effective in transferring the essence of the brand to the product (car) and consequently the perception of authenticity is more effective in enhancing brand attachment. The reason could lie in the fact that Tesla has its production located in the same country and place as the origin of the brand (United States of America). The other two brands (Toyota and Volvo) relocated the production of some car models to other countries. According to what was possible to get from participants of this research, customers are informed of this situation and so could have a perception of a lack of essence of the brand in the products. In this last case, the reputation of a brand can gain relief to attract customers.

The findings of this study could be important for those who manage car brands. A brand like Tesla should focus more on the originality and the essence of the brand to enroll customers on attachment bonds. The brands with a long-term relationship with customers should reinforce such relationship providing more interactions and new experiences with them.

As any other research, the current one has limitations that could be inspirations for further research. First, other car brands could be considered to get a better understanding this phenomenon. Second, future research could also consider the corporate reputation dimension of Good employer proposed by Walsh and Beatty (2007). Third, it will be interesting to explore how the authenticity and attachment could influence brand equity. Finally, it will also be interesting to analyze the model regarding situations when relationships between car brands and customers are problematic.

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Unweaving a Tangled Web: The Automatic Detection of Deception in Digital Channel Partner Program Claims

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Abstract

Channel partner programs (CPPs) are designed to motivate and sustain channel partners' loyalty. Yet opportunistic behavior and deception threaten the returns on investments in such initiatives. New insights into linguistic indicators of deception might be derived from studying the speech acts of e-mail exchanges. Accordingly, this study relies on text mining to extract speech act properties related to the word use, message development, and interactive exchange that become manifest in deceitful claims in CPPs by a global Fortune 100 company. An ordinal, multilevel regression model reveals that deceivers minimize the use of referencing and self-deprecation but include more superfluous descriptions and flattery. Deceptive channel partners over structure their arguments to program managers and rapidly mimic the linguistic style of the manager across dyadic e-mail exchanges. Text-based algorithms, can support program managers' decision making and compliance monitoring systems and thus increase the probability of detecting deceptive intent in text-based communication.

Keywords: channel partner programs, deception, speech act theory, automatic text analysis

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Importance of the Business-to-Business Sales Configurator Characteristics

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Abstract

Digitalization is an enabler for companies in the creation of new value for both the customers and the selling companies in business-to-business (B2B) markets. Customers are simultaneously taking a more active role in the buying process as they now frequently search for relevant supplier and product information prior to contacting a supplier. These are two of the main drivers for the use of electronic sales configurators.

The objective of this article is to identify, categorize, and evaluate the characteristics of a sales configurator. To achieve this objective, the article analyses the current literature, 20 semi structured in-depth interviews and 147 responses to an online questionnaire. A classification is presented that divides sales configurator characteristics into the following categories: Audio-visual Elements, Information Content, Usability, Navigation, Security and Reliability, and Quality of Sales Configuration. The three most important categories were Information content, Usability, and Security and Reliability.

Keywords: Business-to-Business Marketing, Sales Configurators, Digital Sales Tools

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

The dark side of channel supplier's prioritization strategy: Resellers' perception of being out of the loop

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Abstract

When managing supplier-reseller relationships, suppliers tend to adopt a prioritization strategy, i.e. providing better supports for their more important resellers. While many studies have argued the benefits of this type of strategy, we argue that there are also negative consequences and this study aims to explore those consequences. Based on the text mining of industry reports and blogs and 14 in-depth interviews, we show that feelings of both gratitude and out of the loop may be experienced by the resellers depending on the differential treatments received. While feelings of gratitude tend to induce positive behavioural responses in resellers (i.e. extra-role behaviour) and feeling of out of the loop tends to induce negative behavioural responses (i.e. lower representation strength), their influences are moderated by the nature of the exchange relationship (i.e. transaction specific investment, dependence asymmetry and dyadic tenure).

Keywords: Prioritization strategy, Being out of the loop, Group value theory, Channel networks

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Emergent versus planned supplier segmentation in the retail sector
<mark>*** Best Paper of Track ***</mark>

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Abstract:

This study focuses on the extent to which supplier segmentation undergoes a planned approach versus an emergent one. Segmentation is at the heart of strategic marketing processes, and within industrial marketing, segmentation occurs both for a focal firm's customers and suppliers. The most dominant conceptualization of segmentation is normative, describing a pre-planned approach, while another focuses on segmentation as an emergent process. How these approaches interact for buyers still requires clarification. Information is the foundation for segmentation, and this study considers how information gathering varies depending on the nature of the segmentation, and when new information leads to an emergent segmentation approach. Through a qualitative study of a Danish retailer, this study finds that a degree of both planned and emergent segmentation practices exist for buyers. Moreover, this study highlights when emergent practices are formed based on the information acquired through the constant interactions with suppliers in the buyer-supplier relationship.

Keywords: supplier segmentation, business-to-business relationships, retail sector, information exchange.

Conference Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing 2

Introduction

Segmentation lies at the core of industrial marketing (Boejgaard & Ellegaard, 2010). For industrial markets, segmentation is relevant for both customer and supplier markets of the focal firm. This work-in-progress paper focuses on segmentation processes from the perspective of the buying company towards its suppliers. A buyer's segmentation of suppliers determines which suppliers it interacts with, and the nature of these interfirm interactions (Wagner & Johnson, 2004). This is very important for the buying firm, as performance is highly dependent on the suppliers it interacts with, and how it accesses and uses complementary resources from one supplier relationship to another (Håkansson & Snehota, 1989). Relationships and transactions are not uniform across all suppliers, thus it is useful to manage certain relationships differently than others (Gadde & Snehota, 2000). Managing these relationships effectively is complex, which has given rise to a variety of approaches to segmenting the supplier base. Supplier segmentation argues that effective supply management requires a firm to choose the right managerial approach and practices, matching product, relationship, and market conditions (Bensaou, 1999; Kraljic, 1983). Ultimately, this leads to the question posed by Dyer, Cho, & Chu (1998): Which model for supplier management is superior? Moreover, do buyers plan their supplier segmentation in a top-down, planned approach? Many portfolio and segmentation models suggest that a high degree of formal analysis and planning is involved in both structuring the composition of the supplier base, and developing strategies for managing individual supplier relationships (Wagner & Johnson, 2004).

Supplier segmentation processes have also been proposed to be at least somewhat emergent, through the constant evaluation of suppliers on both a formal and informal basis (Andersen, Ellegaard, & Kragh, 2015). While strategy making may often be rational and formal, it may sometimes be experience-based (Nollet, Ponce, & Campbell, 2005). The line of action for strategies range from purposeful and codified to emergent and entrepreneurial, respectively. This is in line with Mintzberg's (1994) strategy perception, where emergent, entrepreneurial thinking is the essence of differentiation. Therefore, in reality supplier segmentation likely has elements of both emergent practices and planned approaches throughout the process. To contribute to this debate, the research question for this study is: To what extent do buyers utilise planned and emergent approaches to segment their suppliers, and when do these emergent approaches occur? To answer this question, this study examines how information gained by buyers during supplier interactions changes their planned approaches. Information is central to interfirm interactions (Yigitbasioglu, 2010). Buyers and suppliers are constantly interacting and gaining information from the other party in the process. The study object is the purchasing of several product groups in a Danish do-it-yourself (DIY) retailer, where organizational-level formal supplier segmentation is absent, and supplier segmentation and resulting supplier management tactics are therefore at the discretion of the individual purchasing manager. The result is a wide range of both emergent and planned supplier segmentation approaches within the same retail organisation that are developed through the acquisition of information from suppliers.

This paper will briefly review the debate of planned versus emergent supply segmentation strategies, and the role of information in developing the segmentation. It will then move on to discuss the qualitative study method used, followed by the results and conclusions of the study.

A planned approach to supplier segmentation through portfolio models
Markowitz (1952) first developed the portfolio/segmentation approach to manage equity investments. Portfolio/segmentation analysis has since been used in contexts such as marketing and purchasing. The first paper addressing purchasing segmentation was by Kraljic (1983), which has been widely reviewed and criticized since its publication. Since these seminal works, other purchasing and supplier segmentation models include Nellore & Soderquist (2000), Olsen & Ellram (1997), and Bensaou (1999). In general, portfolio/segmentation models provide useful inputs for supply management decision makers, and are used as indicators of how to deal with different suppliers (Nellore & Soderquist, 2000). They are good ways of classifying suppliers, and organizing large amounts of information for purchasing managers (Olsen & Ellram, 1997). This is especially important due to the complexity of segmenting in industrial markets. Industrial buyer-supplier relationships are more visibly heterogeneous, they are characterized by social interactions, and segments in this context are often unstable (Boejgaard & Ellegaard, 2010). For a review on supply portfolio/segmentation approaches, see Day, Magnan, & Moeller (2010), and Boejgaard & Ellegaard (2010).

Supplier segmentation research can be divided into descriptive and prescriptive models (Andersen et al., 2015). Both types of models rely on an overall strategy periodically reviewed and set by top management, which is transferred linearly to managers, translated into a procurement strategy, and manifests into the categorization of suppliers by purchasing professionals based on several operationalised criteria (Nollet et al., 2005). This implies a technical-rational approach (Andersen et al., 2015), or a planning approach (Wagner & Johnson, 2004). Planned segmentation approaches are dominant in the marketing literature (Boejgaard & Ellegaard, 2010). The planning approach implies that decisions are taken after scanning the initial environmental conditions, changes, and opportunities. Once completed, an action plan is formulated and implemented. Strategy is conceived and implemented based on an interpretation and assessment of the environment, and the current resources of the organization (Håkansson & Snehota, 1989). For example, as Nellore & Soderquist (2000) highlight, portfolio approaches tend to have several steps in common: 1) an analysis of the purchased products and their classifications, 2) analysis of the supplier relationships, and 3) action plans to match the supplier relationships with the product requirements. This is also highlighted in Wagner & Johnson's (2004) model, where a planning element takes place prior to an implementation of the management of strategic suppliers.

An emergent approach to supplier segmentation
The emergent approach seeks to address several shortcomings of the planned approach to supplier portfolio planning. First of all, as outlined by Andersen et al. (2015), the planning approach assumes that supplier segmentation strategy is stable. This is not always the case. Strategy is sometimes undetailed, not fixed for a prolonged period of time, and the hierarchical relationship of detailed strategic planning is often replaced with more emergent approaches to strategy (Eisenhardt & Piezunka, 2011). Other critics in this area claim that normative approaches and frameworks to strategy and segmentation are based on rationalisations in hindsight (Gadde & Snehota, 2000). This could also be explained by the fact that segmentation approaches often rest on the assumption that the object of exchange is given (Dubois & Pedersen, 2002). However, in many contexts, such as the retail setting of this study, the product portfolio is subject to constant changes and modifications with seasonality and consumer tastes. Supply chains are also subject to disruptions, which can change the actions of retailers (Bode, Wagner, Petersen, & Ellram, 2011). These disruptions would only change actions once experienced over a period of time, with repeated disruptions from suppliers. Another criticism relates to the bounded rationality of managers, and the debate of strategy before action

(Håkansson & Snehota, 1989). The formulation and execution of a segmentation strategy is people dependent (Nollet et al., 2005), and may be executed by different managers than those who formulated the initial strategy. Managers have only a limited ability to enact the supplier segmentation, and construct a true picture of suppliers through experiences and interactions (Harrison & Kjellberg, 2010). Andersen et al. (2015, p. 2) conclude that purchasing decisions are more "interpretive, messy, and ongoing than implied in the reviewed literature". Such strategies may be less planned, and in some cases emergent. Emergent segmentation arises out of gathering information from supplier interactions and making informal and formal assessments of relationships and capabilities (Andersen et al., 2015; Harrison & Kjellberg, 2010). This may occur by acquiring information from the supplier throughout the relationship.

The foundation of segmentation is information. Buyers use information to evaluate the credibility and validity of the seller's capabilities (Mavlanova et al., 2012). Firms must acquire a sufficient amount of information to categorize suppliers, and take action from this classification. The planning approach would argue that this information is acquired before a segmentation decision is made, whereas an emergent approach recognizes that key supplier information is also acquired by interacting with the supplier on a continuous basis. Uzzi & Lancaster (2003) classified information as either public or private, which reflects this idea. Public information may be acquired without interacting directly with a firm, but private information is something that must be acquired through continuous interaction. Some information regarding supplier characteristics can be acquired publicly or pre-purchased through supply market databases or as a result of the company's own exchange experiences. Yet some information is inevitably only gained through ongoing interactions with the supplier, or acquired after the purchase has been made (Mavlanova, Benbunan-Fich, & Koufaris, 2012; Uzzi & Lancaster, 2003). Therefore a buying manager may only get sufficient information for an effective supplier segmentation strategy after gaining both public and private information from the supplier through interaction. Moreover, communication strategies such as information sharing, can influence channel partners to change their perceptions and behaviors (Frazier & Summers, 1984). Interfirm information exchange changes the buyer's perception of suppliers over time (Andersen et al., 2015; Harrison & Kjellberg, 2010), and thus potentially the way they are segmented.

Methodology
This study employed a qualitative investigation of a medium-sized Danish Do-it-yourself (DIY) retailer, hereby referred to as HomeCo. HomeCo's 2013-14 revenues were approximately 1.62 billion DKK. The purchasing department formed the focus of the study, and is composed of three levels of management spanning eight product groups. The study's design and analysis followed an abductive approach, as described by Dubois & Gadde (2002). The unit of analysis focused on described supplier interaction, and how managers in the purchasing department viewed each of their supplier portfolios based on the interactions. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews with purchasers. Purchasers as boundary spanners are useful informants for such studies, as they can provide informative perspectives on their own firm's intentions, as well as the intentions of supplier firms (Ireland & Webb, 2007). To date, 17 semi-structured interviews of an average of one hour in length have been conducted with retail purchasers and purchasing coordinators. Initially, a pilot interview was conducted with a contact at HomeCo, who was then used to gain new contacts within the purchasing department. Interview participants were asked if they had a corporate segmentation strategy, and then asked how they distinguished between suppliers in their product category. Questions were also asked to gauge how the purchasing managers managed their suppliers of different types. Interviews were transcribed for analysis. Company materials were studied to

provide an overview of HomeCo. The coding process is still ongoing, and the initial findings are presented below. Initial coding gave an overall understanding of how each purchaser approaches the supplier segmentation process. In addition, categories of information sharing were analyzed to determine what kind of information is gathered, and how it relates to the composition of the supplier portfolio for the respective product group.

Findings

The following quote demonstrates the lack of an overall strategy for segmenting suppliers:

"There's no supplier segmenting tool that is used across HomeCo… It's hard to see what comes out of a model like that. If we say that we have this tool, and we know that what we gain by using this tool is something on the bottom line, I think it could be more implemented, and more understood." (Buying Coordinator A)

Accounts from managers revealed that segmentation was carried out by each manager individually. Lacking overall guidelines for categorizing their suppliers, managers formed an impression of their supplier portfolio and attempted to make a plan for engaging suppliers. Following this plan, buyers had to modify their approaches, which we refer to as emergent supplier segmentation. Due to limited space and an analytical process in progress, we chose to provide just three examples of the various segmentation strategies discovered in the data (Tables 1 and 2, showing buyers A, B, and C). Table 1 displays the different ways suppliers are initially segmented in a planned approach. For example, Buyer A in one product group forms their own segmentation for suppliers by considering the value that the supplier adds to the relationship, versus the substitutability of the supplier. Buyers B and C form their own segmentations differently, and these individual plans are also summarized in Table 1 with supporting quotations.

Table 1: Planned segmentation of suppliers for buyers A, B, and C.

Buyer	Dimensions for planned segmentation	Example Quote
A	Value added to relationship and substitutability	"What is the importance of the supplier in the cooperation? And in the same time, you're looking for: "what is the value?" So that's actually the way that I am classifying my suppliers. Often if you have a supplier where you have a big partnership, they are capable to earn more money because they are adding more value to the articles. That is the reason they are in the partnership."
B	Product complexity: Homogenous products have fewer requirements for information from suppliers. Complex products require more communication & interaction	"I try to look at my products as homogenous products and as differentiated products. So it's kind of different in terms of what I prefer to focus on. Of course with generic products, price is obviously a very important factor. If it's more differentiated products, I try to maybe not push the price as much, but maybe more merchandising in the store, for example, more allocation, more marketing in the store, and so it varies a bit"
C	Suppliers are categorized into four groups: Partnerships, benefit of size, private label, soon-to-be-delisted	"Our strategy is maybe to segment the suppliers and say "okay, this kind of a partnership is where I'm very open. I know the costs of the supplier, I know my own costs, so we can sit together as a partnership and find our best solution. I want to move and consolidate a lot of my products to those suppliers. Partnership is one category. Then I also have what I call benefit of size, actually…"

Table 2: Emergent supplier segmentation cases for buyers A, B, and C.

Buyer	Information	Emergent Practice	Example Quote
A	The inability to get information from a supplier (a lack of information sharing)	Although a supplier has been selected, a lack of information sharing may change the supplier portfolio as they contemplate delisting the supplier.	"If they are not keen on doing any information swap or not keen on working together with us, we tend to not consider them an important producer. Basically that is stupid because they could be, they could be really important to us. For example toilet supplier A, they haven't been keen on talking to us at all, so we haven't pursued it. Actually we were talking about throwing them out of the assortment… "
B	Need to acquire information on supplier's product range.	Buyer must manage supplier's product range *after* supplier has been selected, suggesting buyer did not adopt a planned approach in this case.	I'll say "you (supplier) are performing very well, I like your work. You need to give me better prices, and then I'll put you into my thoughts in giving you larger volume…Then I will say "I really want to develop *these* products in *this* category…Then you help me to find the product range I'm looking for. You help me find this particular product, you help me to find the total solution which we can easily communicate to the stores and basically to the end consumer"
C	Spontaneous offer from existing supplier.	New information from a competing supplier may change the composition of the supplier base.	"They are good suppliers on power tools, both of them. But sometimes I get an offer from (competing supplier in different segment). Then of course I take the dialogue and say "listen, I want to sell this product. I got the offer, and I really can make a lot of money on this. I want to do it, but I want to talk with you first." So sometimes you have the opportunity to do something else"

After the buyer forms their own segmentation strategy, they often discover that it must be adapted and changed as they interact with their suppliers. A key process during these interaction is the acquisition (or lack thereof) of information from the supplier regarding market information, the supplier's long term goals, and opportunities, among other forms. Table 2 shows how the planned strategies from Table 1 are modified, or emerge, as information is gathered from suppliers through their interactions. The emergent strategies change the segmentation, and thus the actions taken to manage the buyer-supplier relationships. Table 2 also supports these emergent segmentation strategies with example quotation displaying the role of information in the emergent action.

Conclusions

This paper contributes to the segmentation literature by critically examining how individual buyers actually form and act on their supplier segmentation in practice in a company with no overall formal segmentation strategy. Findings confirmed that while planned strategies do take place, emergent strategies are formed as managers gain information through supplier interaction and subsequently take actions towards suppliers, as they go along in their managerial tasks. In particular, preliminary results indicated that a lack of information sharing, and spontaneous offers from suppliers may change the composition of the supplier base through emergent practices. A buyer may also segment a supplier before having a formal plan for a product range. The managerial implications are that when firms choose not to initiate planned segmentation approaches, buyers find themselves in certain circumstances where will have to deviate and adjust the supplier base in a way that differs from their original intentions on an individual level.

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An Empirical Study on Value Propositions: A Dyadic Approach

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Abstract

Many manufacturing firms struggle with how to adapt a pertinent customer-oriented logic and particularly how to develop subsequent value creation and appropriation processes. The servitization and value proposition literatures are of insufficient support in this quest since most of them focus on either the manufacturer or the customer. Our study addresses this predisposition by taking a dyadic approach. Findings from an empirical case study of a selected offering in a servitization setting demonstrate how customers articulate value in use and these results are then used to develop value propositions that resonate with customer value in use. The study is unique in that it offers a comprehensive portrayal of value propositions associated with a selected offering with internally interlinked value elements and external alignment with customer value in use.

Keywords: Value proposition, customer value in use, dyadic approach, value management

Track: 7. Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

The influence of organizational buyers' ambivalence on a company website on their behavioral intentions

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Abstract
This paper studies the influence of organizational buyers' ambivalence on their behavioral intentions. A combination of facial recognition, clickstream, and questionnaire data is used to derive insight on how ambivalence on different types of web pages influences organizational buyers' intentions to proceed in the organizational buying process. The results suggest that ambivalence might have a negative or positive influence on the intention to proceed in the buying process, depending on the type of web page on which it occurs. The results extend prior literature in organizational buying behavior by shedding light on the role of ambivalence in the area, and also contribute to the literature of ambivalence by showing how ambivalence might have different consequences in different contexts. Managerial implications for website design in the B2B context are discussed at the end of the paper.

Keywords: Ambivalence, organizational buying, online buying, intentions

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

Mining the latent structure in statutory firm communications: Quantifying its dynamics to understand its implications for consumers, firms and regulators

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Abstract
Conventional marketing wisdom shows that customer orientation provides a firm with a better understanding of its customers, which subsequently leads to enhanced customer satisfaction and firm performance. In this study, we consider an important but an amorphous determinant of firm performance - stated firm strategy particularly in 10K reports. We propose a framework to incorporate textual attributes of a set of units of analysis into a generalized linear model by (i) translating inter-unit effects of the textual attributes into a simple function of the relative location of each unit in latent, text space, and (ii) drawing upon well-established procedures in spatial econometrics for estimation, inference and interpretation. We label our approach textspatial modeling. In addition to significant effect of the firm's choice of words in the 10K reports on its performance, we find a statistically significant cross-firm effect on performance. We proceed to investigate the what, how and how much of cross-firm strategy impact on firm performance and derive managerial implications therein.

Keywords: Firm Performance, Customer Insights, Strategic Interaction, Latent space model, Big Data, Textspatial analysis, Marketing Vocabulary, Latent Topic Model, Content Analysis

Track: Marketing Research

Introduction

A widely accepted perspective on firm performance (FP) is that it is a function of factors internal to the firm such as firm demographics, organizational structure, resources and capabilities (e.g., Wernerfelt, 1984 on the resource based view of the firm), of factors external to the firm such as environmental variables, industry structure and characteristics, regulatory environment, macroeconomic conditions, etc.(e.g., McGahan and Porter, 1997), and of firm strategy, which connects and reconciles the firm's internal and external factors (e.g., Grant, 2008, p.18-19). In this research, we consider the problem of (i) extracting strategic content from textual descriptions of firm actions and expectations, (ii) transforming this strategic content into econometric measures of firm's marketing strategy, (iii) developing a model of FP as a function of elements of marketing strategy and cross-firm externalities, and (iv) empirically implementing the proposed model on a large and diverse sample of firms.

We take a general and scalable approach to measure and account for marketing and non-marketing strategy expressed in textual form. First, we (i) atomize the text into phrase-tokens (either single words, or groups of words that occur frequently together), (ii) filter out non-informative tokens, (iii) categorize the tokens as marketing focused and non-marketing focused using the AMA dictionary and (iv) treat each firm's strategy description as a vector of phrase-tokens (weighted by their frequency). We assume that similarities in the vocabulary used to describe firms' marketing and non-marketing focus are correlated with similarities in the respective aspects of firm strategy. Second, we use latent space models adapted from the Statistics literature (e.g., Handcock, Raftery, and Tantrum, 2003) to summarize and measure the externality effects of firm's strategic focus one firm at a time for every firm in the analysis. Third, we estimate the marginal effects of this strategic focus on FP while controlling for the FP effects of other factors to enable analysis, interpretation and inference on the results, by invoking a class of spatial autoregressive models from the spatial econometrics literature (Anselin, 2002).

Model

Let $i = 1,2..n$ index firms and let Yi denote FP outcome(s) for firm i, such as Tobin's Q, profits, market value, etc. Let Xi denote a set of FP determinants such as firm size, industry membership etc. The simplest model whose residuals εi are mean-zero white noise in expressed in (1) below, which we "IID" following the "identically and independently distributed" assumption; a good baseline for comparing model fit and explanatory power.

$$\mathbf{Y}_i = \beta_0 + \mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i, \quad E(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = 0, \quad V(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \sigma^2 > 0. \tag{1}$$

Let $k = 1,2..K$ index strategic elements. Let d_{ik} denote the text document pertaining to the kth strategic element (eg. Marketing focus in this paper) for firm i. Let q_k be the number of phrase-tokens that occur at least once in $\mathbf{C_k}$. Now consider a firm i. Let $\mathbf{s_{ik}}$ be a q_k x 1 vector whose m^{th} element is the count of the number of times token m occurred in d_{ik}. Then $\mathbf{s_{ik}}$ can be viewed as a vector of metric location co-ordinates which *locates* firm i at a particular point in this latent text space. The spatial projection of firms into latent text space implies that greater the commonality in the vocabulary used by two firms, closer they locate in that space. We follow Hoberg and Phillips (2010) in using Cosine similarity for computing inter-firm distances in the focal latent space. We compute this for every pair of firms. Let $\mathbf{W_k}$ be a n x n matrix whose (i, j)th element is:

$$\mathbf{W_k}(i, j) = \cos \theta_{ij,k} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{s_{ik}} \text{ and } \mathbf{s_{jk}} \text{ are identical} \\ 0 & \text{if } \mathbf{s_{ik}} \text{ and } \mathbf{s_{jk}} \text{ show no overlap} \\ \in (0,1) & \text{if } \mathbf{s_{ik}} \text{ and } \mathbf{s_{jk}} \text{ overlap partially} \end{cases}. \tag{2}$$

In the terminology of spatial econometrics, $\mathbf{W_k}$ is the 'spatial weights' matrix in the kth strategic space which summarizes the set of spatial relations between every pair of firms. Following convention in spatial models literature, $\mathbf{W_k}$ has a zero diagonal. Further, I row-standardize $\mathbf{W_k}$ following established practice (Bannerjee, Gelfand, and Carlin, 2014).

A spatial Durbin model for firm strategy
Let the set of FP determinants $\mathbf{X}$ in equation (1) have dimension n x p. Then $\mathbf{Z_k} = \mathbf{W_k X}$ is an n x p matrix of spatially interacted FP determinants or 'spatially lagged effects' of FP determinants $\mathbf{X}$ in the latent space of marketing focus. Incorporating "modeled" externality effects $\mathbf{Z_k} = \mathbf{W_k X}$ in the RHS of equation (1) yields:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \beta_0 + \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_k \mathbf{W_k X} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}. \qquad (3)$$

The coefficient ρ_k, is marginal effect of externalities in FP determinants in k^{th} strategy space. In a scenario where FP influences and is influenced by the performance of other firms, $\mathbf{W_k Y}$ can constructed like the $\mathbf{W_k X}$, incorporating spatially lagged FP externalities. Including $\mathbf{W_k Y}$ in the RHS of equation (1) yields spatial autoregressive (SAR) model (Anselin, 2002):

$$\mathbf{Y} = \beta_0 + \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \gamma_k \mathbf{W_k Y} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}. \qquad (4)$$

In equation (4), $\mathbf{W_k Y}$ is the autoregressive effect of external FPs on a focal firm's FP in latent text space of the kth strategy element. Similarly, the coefficient γ_k for $k = 1,..K$ is the marginal effect of FP externalities in the kth latent strategy space. Generalization of model specifications in equations (4) and (5) leads to the spatial Durbin Model (Anselin, Florax, and Rey, 2004; Pace and LeSage, 2009), thus:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \beta_0 + \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \rho_k \mathbf{W_k X} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \gamma_k \mathbf{W_k Y} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}. \qquad (5)$$

Data and Variables Used
We start with the 2013 Fortune 1000 ranking and drop firms that are not public leaving a sample of 909 firms across 72 sectors and 121 industries. The first FP metric, Tobin's Q measure (Tobin, 1969), is a market-based estimate of the firm's long-run profitability and has been extensively used as an FP measure (e.g., Bracker and Ramaya, 2011; Khanna and Palepu, 2000). The second and third FP measures are the Return on Assets (RoA), an accounting ratio, and the Earnings before Interest, Taxes, Depreciation and Amortization (EBITDA) which we use as proxy for short-term return on invested capital. All the FP measures are derived from firm financials for financial year 2012 taken from S & P Compustat. Following prior studies that have sought to explain FP (e.g., Khanna and Palepu 2000; Lang, Ofek, and Stulz 1996; Yermack 1996), we include as X variables (a) Sales ("Revenue"), Leverage ("Leverage"), Total Liabilities ("Liabilities"), and number of employees as measures of a firm's size, (b) Return on Assets ("RoA") as a measure of firm's resource efficiency, (c) Capital expenditure over sales ("Growth Opportunities") to measure future opportunities, (d) EBITDA and (e) Ratio of marketing words in the text ("MktWrdsRatio"). To operationalize the textual variables, we extract the text of firms' 2012 form 10-K. We label as 'MV' (for marketing focused "chatter") and 'NMV' (for non-marketing "chatter"). The marketing focused words are taken from the American Marketing Association's (AMA) marketing words dictionary. The $\mathbf{W_{MV}}$ matrix of spatial weights depicts the extent of semantic concordance in MV focus between every pair of firms in the sample. Likewise, we have $\mathbf{W_{NMV}}$ for NMV. The econometric equation using the variables defined can now be expressed as:

$$TobinsQ = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 Indus + \alpha_2 MktWrdRatio +$$
$$\beta_1 Ln(Rev) + \beta_2 Ln(Liab) + \beta_3 Ln(EBITDA) +$$
$$\beta_4 Ln(\#Empl) + \beta_5 RoA + \beta_6 Leverage + \beta_7 GrowthOpp +$$
$$\rho_{MV} W_{MV} X + \rho_{NMV} W_{NMV} X + \gamma_{MV} W_{MV} TobinsQ + \gamma_{NMV} W_{NMV} TobinsQ + \epsilon \quad (6)$$

Equation (6) is a Spatial Durbin Model of Tobin's Q as a function of FP determinants and externality effects, where ρ_{MV} is the vector of marginal effects of spatially lagged regressors $W_{MV}X$ on Tobin's Q whereas γ_{MV} is that of spatially lagged outcomes $W_{MV}Y$. The definition holds for subscripts with NMV. The model equation for RoA as FP is along similar lines. Following Kolympiris, Kalaitzandonakes, and Miller (2011), we use OLS to estimate the general SDM model. The OLS is consistent if the number of neighbors can become infinitely large as the sample size increases (Lee, 2002, Theorem I).There is also evidence in the literature that the finite sample bias associated with the OLS estimator is reasonably small in samples having over 50 observations and having relatively small spatial correlation coefficients of rho < 0.3 (Franzese and Hays, 2007). The data and fitted SDM models meet both of these conditions.

Results and Discussion

In between the IID model of equation (1) which assumes no externality effects in firm strategy, and the full SDM model in equation (7), there are nested a number of model specifications which differ in the assumptions they make about different types and subsets of latent space FP predictors. In all we have twelve different model specifications - four based on predictor subsets (ALL, MV, NMV, MV+NMV) times three based on predictor type ("modeled", SAR and SDM). We use the adjusted R squared (adj R^2) measure of fit. We verify the existence of spatial externalities using the Moran's I statistic (Moran, 1948). I find that spatial externalities exist in all our models for Tobin's Q (Panel D in Table 1). Panel A in Table 1 displays the adj R^2 values of the baseline IID model and the twelve model specifications we estimate for Tobin's Q.

The range of adj R^2 goes from 0.453 for the IID model to 0.524 for the "MV and NMV Simultaneous" (full) SDM model. Each of the twelve models evaluated against the IID model shows an improvement in adj R^2 over the IID. This strongly indicates that incorporating firm's marketing strategy externalities when modeling long-term firm value improves explained variance even after adjusting for the increase in variables and parameters. The results suggest that accounting for strategy externalities within that subset of firms with large concordance in MV after having controlled for NMV explains their performance differential in large measure and to a significantly greater degree than could have been done by considering either of them as main effects alone as shown in Figure 1.

Table 1: Results summary

	Panel A		Adjusted R squared for Model Fit			
	Model	**Baseline Model**	All "Chatter"	Only Non-Marketing "Chatter"	Only Marketing "Chatter"	Both "Chatter" Simultaneously
Tobin's Q	IID	**0.453**				
	Modeled		0.479 (5.74%)	0.481 (6.18%)	0.471 (3.97%)	0.483 (6.62%)
	SAR		0.464 (2.43%)	0.462 (1.99%)	0.462 (1.99%)	0.464 (2.43%)
	SDM		0.502 (10.82%)	0.496 (9.49%)	0.506 (11.70%)	**0.524 (15.67%)**

	Panel B		Adjusted R squared for Model Fit			
	Model	**Baseline Model**	All "Chatter"	Only Non-Marketing "Chatter"	Only Marketing "Chatter"	Both "Chatter" Simultaneously
RoA	IID	**0.492**				
	Modeled		0.5 (1.63%)	0.497 (1.02%)	0.502 (2.03%)	0.502 (2.03%)
	SAR		0.491 (-0.20%)	0.491 (-0.20%)	0.491 (-0.20%)	0.491 (-0.20%)
	SDM		0.517 (5.08%)	0.518 (5.28%)	0.511 (3.86%)	**0.532 (8.13%)**

	Panel C		Adjusted R squared for Model Fit			
	Model	**Baseline Model**	All "Chatter"	Only Non-Marketing "Chatter"	Only Marketing "Chatter"	Both "Chatter" Simultaneously
EDITDA	IID	**0.782**				
	Modeled		0.788 (0.77%)	0.788 (0.77%)	0.788 (0.77%)	0.789 (0.90%)
	SAR		0.783 (0.13%)	0.782 (0.00%)	0.784 (0.26%)	0.783 (0.13%)
	SDM		0.79 (1.02%)	0.788 (0.77%)	0.797 (1.92%)	**0.797 (1.92%)**

	Panel D	Moran's I Statistic			
	Spatial Weights Used	All "Chatter"	Only Non-Marketing "Chatter"	Only Marketing "Chatter"	Both "Chatter" Simultaneously
Moran's I	Tobin's Q	8.4266 ***	6.3538 ***	7.4694 ***	8.8499 ***
	RoA	1.8288 **	0.7763	2.8679 ***	2.5478 ***
	EBITDA	3.2628 ***	3.104 ***	2.5168 ***	3.4217 ***

Figure 1: Relative importance of groups of regressors
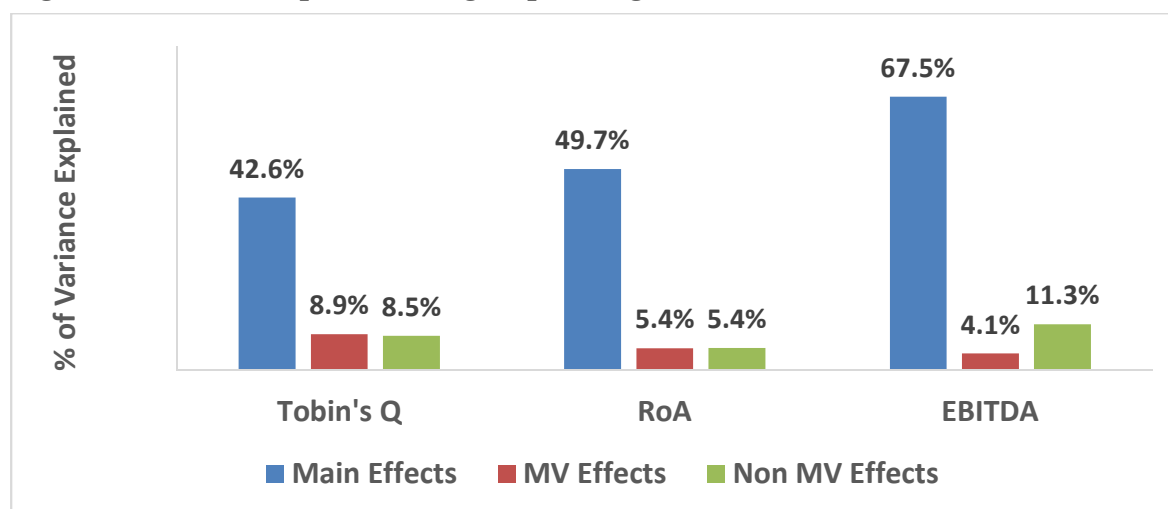
Limitations and Future Work

We consider the measurement and estimation challenges involved in modeling the FP effects of externalities in stated marketing strategy in an objective and generalizable manner across a diverse sample of firms. The paper contributes to the literature on marketing and firm performance interface analysis. In methodological terms, we develop and empirically demonstrate a general analysis framework by transforming firms' marketing vocabulary into firm locations in latent strategy space, thereby making it amenable to spatial econometric analysis. The use of a generalized linear model framework to implement latent space modeling of firm locations enables established inferential procedures. In substantive terms, the paper contributes by showing (i) that externalities in marketing space exist and inform FP, (ii) that externalities are relatively more informative of forward-looking Tobin's Q measure than the backward looking measures, and (iii) that controlling for the non-marketing vocabulary shows the highest gain over baseline in explaining variation in both all the three FPs considered.

The study has limitations that future research could address. First, although the study used a reasonably large sample, a more complete sample could comprise all the public firms in the US. Second, the data are for one year's 10-K filings. The model can be extended to consider both temporal and spatial lags with longitudinal data. Third, the linear model estimated is a simple one and has homogeneous coefficients. A heterogeneous firm-specific set of coefficients can be estimated on longitudinal data. Overall, the current model and empirical implementation are a step towards deconstructing strategy effects on FP.

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Exploring Challenges of New ICTs Adoption among Manufacturers

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Abstract

In order to compete in markets or enhance internal and external capabilities, manufacturers nowadays inevitably started to explore the adoption of new forms of information and communication technologies (ICTs), including Internet of things (IoT), Cloud, Big Data, E-commerce and Information Security. The purpose of this study is to explore the key challenges of new ICTs adoption by manufacturers in Malaysia. Extant studies largely investigate the adoption of traditional or low Internet reliant ICTs, and in more developed countries. This study used focus groups and survey methods to provide further insights into the challenges manufacturers face in adopting new ICTs in their business process and practices.

Keywords: New ICT adoption, Business ICT Use, Cloud, IoT, Information security

Track: Industrial and Business Relationship Marketing

How bricolage behaviour affects internationalisation process and outcome, a research framework.

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Abstract

Levi-Strauss (1966) defined bricolage as "making do with what is at hand"; in business it translates to using resources available to address a current need. Although for bigger organizations finding resources might be fairly easy but for SMEs this is a struggle, therefore SMES resort to bricolage by using everything they have at hand or even combining their current resources. With recent development especially in communication technologies, internationalisation is not a far-fetched idea for SMEs but internationalisation needs resources; therefore here we are presenting a research framework to study bricolage behaviour in Internationalisation of SMEs. SMEs need to find proper tools and resources to expand in international markets; we are trying to find out if they still show bricolage behaviour? In which part of the process bricolage behaviour is more visible? Does this behaviour affect internationalisation process? Does it affect performance?

Key words: Internationalisation, Bricolage, Internationalisation model, bricolage and Internationalisation

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Introduction

Bricolage

French anthropologist Levi-Strauss (1966) observed when tribes decided to design or create a flag and had no prior knowledge or experience in design, used other tribes' remaining of flags and shapes (Johnson C., 2012) as only "resources at hand" and created their own decorations. Later he refers to this behaviour as "bricolage" or "Making do with what is at hand", and to those practicing this behaviour "bricoleurs" or handymen. Levi-Strauss (1966) describes the difference between an engineer and a handyman (bricoleur) in a subtle example of building a table, while an engineer would draw a plan and request for supplies, a handy man would look around the garage and make the table from pieces he would find there, although the outcomes are the same "a table", the processes are very different. Bricolage has been explored in different disciplines, i.e. bricolage in design (Louridas, 1999), bricolage in law making (Hull, 1991; Lanzara and Patriotta, 2001), bricolage in teaching (Hatton, 1988), bricolage in genetics (Duboule and Wilkins, 1998), bricolage in information systems (Ciborra, 2002; Lanzara and Patriotta, 2001), bricolage as internationalisation model (Jaeger, 2007), bricolage in innovation (Garud and Karnoe, 2003), intrapreneurial bricolage (Halme, Lindeman and Linna, 2012), bricolage and social entrepreneurship (Gundry, Kickul, Griffiths and Bacq, 2011), and bricolage in entrepreneurship (Baker and Nelson, 2005; Garud and Karnoe, 2003; Di Domenico, Haugh, & Tracey, 2010; Senyard, Baker, & Davidsson, 2009). Due to limited space in this research paper we only look into entrepreneurial bricolage.

Bricolage in entrepreneurship

Bricolage has been translated into various disciplines, T. Baker, Miner, and Eesley (2003) brought bricolage into entrepreneurial research to describe how nascent firms grow. T. Baker and Nelson (2005) introduced bricolage in SME research to explain how firms create markets (Fisher, 2012). Although bricolage leans toward action based activities rather than planning, it does not always generate moderate or ordinary results, rather in some cases it reaches brilliant solutions (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005; Levi-Strauss, 1966). On the other hand Senyard, Baker, and Davidsson (2009) suggest that products built through bricolage are generally flawed, and also customers who buy such products might be facing resource shortage hence unchallenging, high levels of bricolage may reduce innovativeness and eagerness to create high quality products. T. Baker and Nelson (2005) developed aspects of entrepreneurial bricolage theory explaining that when entrepreneurs are faced with "penurious environments" – environments, which present new challenges but not resources needed to overcome the challenge - they face three choices:

1. To look for resources outside of the firm, (Resource seeking behaviour)
2. To avoid the situation e.g., with downsizing,
3. To follow bricolage by making do with what is at hand, combining resources at their disposal to overcome the challenge (Fisher, 2012).

Bricolage may be the best option when the only other options are dismissing the opportunity/challenge or waiting (Senyard et al., 2009).

Baker and Nelson (2005) identified 5 main areas that a firm can apply bricolage to:
1. Physical inputs, by using worn, discarded or rendering a different use from a resource which had a single use or different usage,
2. Labour input,
3. Skills input, by using unprofessional or self-taught skills,
4. Customer or markets, which refers to networks and lastly

5. Institutional or regulatory environment, which is not limiting themselves to certain standards and rules, pushing boundaries at all times and testing limitations (Fisher, 2012).

Baker and Nelson (2005) studied firm growth and bricolage, they recognized that firms choose to follow either "parallel bricolage'" or "selective bricolage". In parallel bricolage firms run multiple projects relying on bricolage at the same time, in this situation firms most likely will fall into a very complicated relationship with their networks and it becomes extremely difficult for the firm to return into a systematic business practice. On the other hand selective bricolage is when firms only apply bricolage on selected projects and often they will discontinue bricolage activities once the firm has passed penurious environment or challenge (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005). The view of selective bricolage highlights the importance of firms' life cycle stages; to identify which stage a company is in and is relying on bricolage.

Resource and network bricolage
T. Baker and Nelson (2005) and Penrose (1959) defined resource bricolage as either making do with what is at hand or rendering different services from the same resources (Fisher, 2012; Reuber & Fischer, 1997). In the context of bricolage T. Baker and Nelson (2005) divide resources into two categories "physical resources" and "labour". Organisations can see resources differently; therefore various services can be rendered from the same resource including labour; for instance, a multilingual IT specialist can be used to translate some documents for an international market. In their research T. Baker and Nelson (2005) also found traces of resource combination as another model of resource bricolage, where firms combined resources at hand and render a service required by firm at the time. One of the most important means at hand for an SME are its networks (T. Baker et al., 2003) especially in early stages of entrepreneurial firms' start up and networks are considered as one of the most important resources at hand. Network bricolage happens when a firm uses networks already at hand - resources at hand, such as current business partners, acquaintances or family and friends (T. Baker & Nelson, 2005; Fisher, 2012).

Internationalisation process
Pre-internationalisation
Although there has been many studies on the topic of internationalisation process (Johanson and Vahlne, 1977; Cavusgil, 1980; Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975), but studies on pre-internationalisation process of the firm are rare to find (Tan, Brewer and Liesch, 2007). Pre-internationalisation process refers to the time when the firm is in the process of recognizing an opportunity; making decision about the opportunity; planning for action (Tan et al, 2007).

Olson, Wiedersheim-Paul (1978) studied SMEs and their pre-export behaviours, they developed a model to explain this process (Caughey, and Chetty, 1994). They argue that this stage is crucial since it is in this stage that failure or success most likely happens. Caughey, and Chetty, (1994) illustrated a simplified version of Olson and Wiedersheim-Paul's (1978) model of pre-internationalisation. Although the model presented by Caughey, and Chetty, (1994) is a suitable model and many scholars have used it as a conceptual framework of their studies, but it works on an assumption that all starter firms are non-exporters (Caughey, and Chetty, 1994; Olson and Wiedersheim-Paul's, 1978). Considering the assumption, born global companies are not included in this model for analysis.

The model presented by Olson, Wiedersheim-Paul (1978), puts decision maker's characteristics at the heart of the model as the most important determinant of pre-export behaviour of an organization. Decision maker characteristics include, education, foreign market orientation and motivation (perception of risk) (Leonidou, 1998; Li and Dimitratos, 2013; Caughey, and Chetty, 1994; Olson and Wiedersheim-Paul's, 1978; Leonidou, Katsikeas, Palihawadana, and Spyropoulou, 2007). Although many firms are exposed to stimuli, not all would decide to internationalise (Li and Dimitratos, 2013), this shows the importance of decision maker behaviour therefore we see a research gap:

Research gap 1: Do decision makers in SMEs present bricolage mind-set?
Do decision makers with bricolage mind-set create an organisation culture and setting to support bricolage behaviour?
Do decision makers retain the bricolage mind-set throughout entire internationalisation process?

Market choice, entry mode and Internationalisation model One of the most important decisions a firm makes in internationalisation is about mode of entry into a market (Musso and Francioni, 2009; Quer, Claver, and Andreu, 2007). An appropriate entry mode can determine the success or failure of SME in international market (Musso and Francioni, 2009; Davidson, 1982; Root, 1998;). Few scholars have argued that entry mode selection (EMS) is a function of internal and external resources (Ekeledo and Sivakumar, 2004; Ruzzier et al, 2006). Covielo and Munro (1997) and Moen, Gavlen, and Endresen (2004) identified networks as an important element in market entry mode. Despite importance of market selection and its role in performance of the firm, only few scholars worked on this subject (Brouthers and Nakos, 2005). Root (1987) counts factors such as market size, market growth and competition as determinants of market choice by SMEs. Good communications, reliable partners and good networks are also factors influencing international market choice (O'Farrell, Wood, and Zheng, 1998).

Considering network and resource bricolage coupled with importance of market selection, entry modes and internationalisation model, we see another research gap:

Research gap 2: How bricolage affects internationalisation process?
How does bricolage affect translation of stimuli? How does the bricolage affect market choice? How does bricolage affect choice of internationalisation model?
How does bricolage affect market entry mode? How does the bricolage affect commitment level? How does bricolage affect growth through international market?

As reviewing some of the internationalisation case studies from New Zealand's SMEs revealed presence of bricolage behaviour and activities, there are more research gaps to be covered:

Research gap 3: In what domains are bricolage activities conducted?
There are five bricolage domains identified by Baker (2005), what are the bricolage domains used by SMEs in internationalisation? How firms conduct bricolage activities in internationalisation process?

Research gap 4: Do SMEs with bricolage behaviour show improvement in international performance over a period of time?

Senyard, J., Baker, T., & Davidsson (2009) noticed a positive relationship between bricolage and performance of high-tech firms, does this apply to internationalisation performance of such firms as well?

Contribution and conclusion
By studying bricolage and internationalisation, and by considering the importance of understanding the role bricolage might play in internationalisation process we suggest a research framework as the contribution of this research to future research studies. Below is the conceptual framework we suggest for research on bricolage effects on internationalisation process.
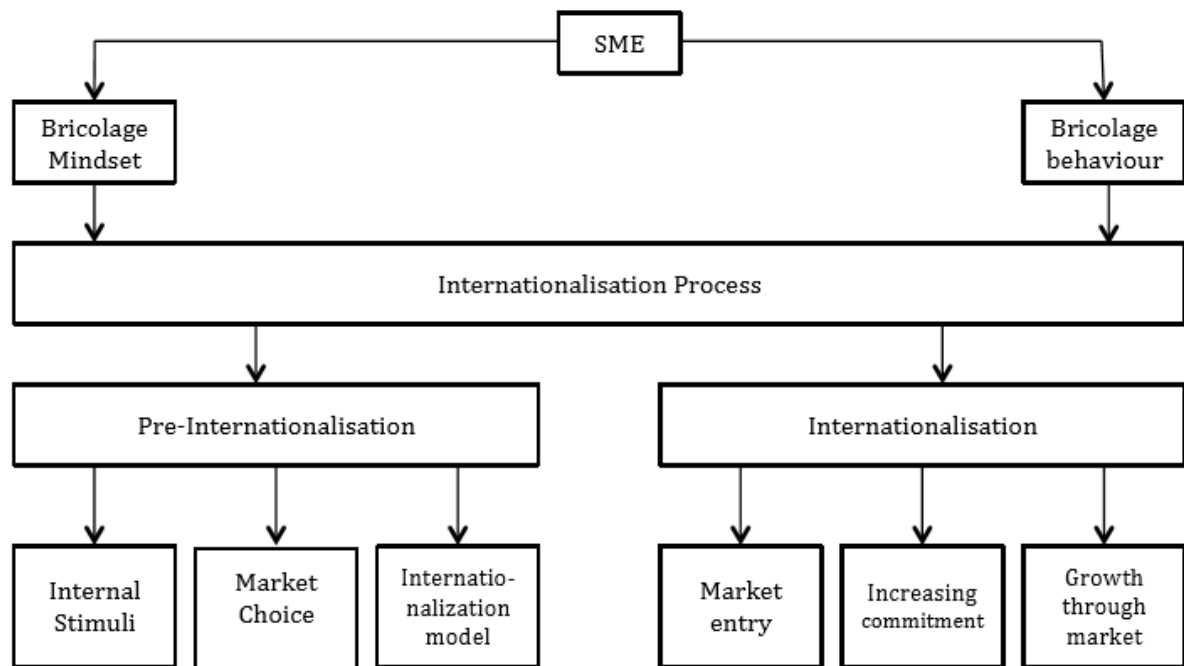
Figure 1: proposed research conceptual framework.

Based on this framework we are suggesting investigating bricolage behaviour and its effects on internationalisation from pre-internationalisation process to internationalisation. Woking through internal stimuli and how that is being translated by decision makers with bricolage behaviour to how a bricolage would affects decision maker's decision on market choice and market entry models. For instance we can hypothesize that having a prior relationship with a country might affect a market choice or even having prior contacts and networks in a market can positively affect a market entry mode. There are still many fields in this area of study untouched that need to be explored. As we saw before, bricolage behaviour can have both positive and negative effects therefore, results of such studies can help managers to make educated decisions about their choices and possibilities rather than making decision through effects of bricolage behaviour.

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Creative or conservative: Do uncertainty avoidance and individual creativity moderate Chinese consumer responses to creative advertising?

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Abstract
Recent research shows that advertisers in China perceive their consumers to be highly conservative (uncertainty avoiding) and generally uncreative. These characteristics are believed to adversely impact consumer responses to creative advertising messages, leading many advertisers to view creativity as wasteful and ineffective in a Chinese context. Using Smith and Yang's (2009) model of consumer response to creative advertising as its basis, this study investigates the possible moderating effects of uncertainty avoidance and individual creativity on consumer processing of advertising creativity. The results show that neither high uncertainty avoidance nor low individual creativity negatively impact consumer response to advertising creativity. Instead, the findings suggest that Chinese consumers, regardless of their level of individual creativity or uncertainty avoidance, are likely to respond positively to creative advertising. Advertisers who are seeking to reach a Chinese audience should consider creativity as an effective tool to engage and communicate with their consumers.

Key words: advertising creativity, individual creativity, uncertainty avoidance, China

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

The role of cultural heritage aesthetics in enhancing brand meaning by evoking dimensions of imagined community.

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Abstract

This paper examines how cultural heritage aesthetics enhance brand meaning by evoking dimensions of imagined communities. Imagined communities have been shown to be important for transnational brands and for those targeting ethnic markets. However, little is known about how cultural heritage aesthetics are employed by brands to evoke diverse aspects of an imagined community. Drawing from cultural anthropology and semiotics, sample brands are analysed using the signifying context of ornamental Islamic art in brand-related stimuli of Australian brands. This research finds brands alluding to four dimensions of imagined communities (mythic, sensorial, material, religious). We discuss the implications of these findings to forwarding an agenda that helps brand managers unlock the power of imagine communities through cultural heritage aesthetics.

Keywords: cultural heritage aesthetics, imagined community, brand meaning, marketing dimensions.

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Culture sharing through an online luxury handbag brand community

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Abstract

Brand communities develop as a specific or specialised interest forum, bound by the social relationships of enthusiasts. Being rooted amidst a network of social relationships and bonds, cultural development is particularly accelerated through these mediums, however, little is known of how such communities are used by geographically diverse, yet culturally connected individuals. To address such, this research proposes a qualitative grounded theory exploration (employing netnographic analysis to ground theory in the view of participants) of how online brand communities serve as a culture-sharing tool amidst luxury handbag consumers. This will reveal new insights essential for theoretical development of brand communities, uses and gratifications, the self, and social identities. In doing such, brand managers and community administrators will be afforded significant value pertaining to strategic communication, engagement, and segmentation.

Keywords: Online brand community, luxury handbags, culture sharing, grounded theory

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Background

Despite being worth approximately $US317 billion in 2015, the sizeable luxury goods market is experiencing increasing competition internally, decreases in growth in traditionally strong markets (particularly Asia), and a changing perception of what consumers perceive as luxury (Euromonitor). Whether as a reaction to or a reason for the aforementioned, the consumption of luxury branded products has unequivocally diffused to the digital world. Limiting one's attention to luxury handbags, countless sites exist for e-commerce dedicated to luxury handbags (*Net-A-Porter*, *Reeboonz,* and *Farfetch),* the re-selling of pre-owned luxury handbags (*Luxe.It.Fwd, Rebagg,* or *Tradesy),* the monthly renting of luxury handbags (*Bag Borrow or Steal)*, as well as a plethora of blogs (*Purseblog, Queen Bee Beverly Hills, bagbliss)* or review and guide sites (*Bag Reporter, Snob Essentials*); not to mention the countless individual bloggers, vloggers, and 'grammers creating content discussing their luxury experiences. Through this rapidly-evolving change in the industry, little is understood of what mechanisms are used to share culture (the ideas, customs, and social behaviour of a particular people or society, Oxford Dictionaries.com) amongst luxury handbag enthusiasts, thus brand management through these often autonomous and impartial sources is becoming increasingly challenging. Acknowledging the importance of "owned media" sources and content marketing efforts in contemporary practice, luxury brands have become active in publishing their own magazines, newsletters, and online content (*Nowness.com* by LVMH, *Gucci Style,* or *Inside Chanel*). However, even more powerful in elevating or descending a consumer's perception of a brand is "earned media", particularly to brands that charge premium prices for the image and status that comes with the adornment of their logos and designs. A unique platform of earned media is the online brand community (OBC), a digital and often user-created environment where "earned media" is created and diffused at rapid speeds. McAlexander et al. (2002) notes that brand communities are customer-centric collectives where experiences with a brand such as ownership and consumption strengthen the relationship between a customer and other customers, as well as with the brand. OBCs offer luxury brands the opportunity to collectively engage their consumers whilst facilitating the establishment of identity, socializing, and deep loyalty and engagement. Within such communities, the complex balancing act between "owned" and "earned" sources is uniquely calibrated. By examining how OBCs serve as a culture-sharing tool for luxury handbag enthusiasts this research will assist those brand managers considering whether to develop their own, curated a chapter of another's, or simply let the online world take control.

Literature review

Brand communities

A community is defined by Bender (1978, p. 145) as "a network of social relations marked by mutuality and emotional bonds". They form "worlds of meaning" that exist through their continued adoption and use "in the minds of their members" (Cohen, 1985). Muniz and O'Guinn (2001) refer to community as, "a grand narrative of the modern period, and one in which consumption plays a very significant role" (p. 413). Evidently, essential to any community is the concept of *communitas*, which Turner (1969, p. 69) defines as "an essential and generic human bond, without which there would be no society". The longing for *communitas* is motivated by the unquenchable need for affiliation, acceptance and belonging (Kozinets, 2015). "We hunger for it. We strive for it. We flock to it" (Kozinets, 2015; p. 28). Muniz and O'Guinn (2001) delineate three components of community, situated within a commercial and mass-mediated ethos. Firstly, a consciousness of kind exists through the intrinsic connection shared between group members. This is akin to a sense of "we-ness" felt through a community's distinction from those outside of it (Bender, 1978). Secondly, shared traditions and rituals are upheld to preserve the community's shared history and culture, and

guide the values and behavioural norms of the group. Thirdly, community members feel a sense of responsibility or duty to the wider community and its members, as delineated through a sense of moral responsibility. Brand communities are those which are built and preserved specific to a subject brand of interest. They are a "specialised, non-geographically bound community, based on a structured set of social relationships among admirers of a brand" (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001; p. 412). From the outlook of Wirtz et al. (2013), brand communities are rooted amidst community as a network of social relationships and bonds; thus inherently sociological in nature. They emerged from high levels of customer-brand engagement, and have proliferated into global online brand communities as a result of the widespread adoption and diffusion of the internet, social media and mobile technologies. Herein, strong community-integrated customers serve as brand missionaries (or advocates as Fournier and Lee, 2009) who disseminate messages throughout and across brand communities. The key dimensions that shape an *online* brand community pertain to a core focus on the brand itself or a wider shared interest, engagement that is internet mediated, and funding and / or governance either by community members, the brand itself, or a combination of both (Wirtz et al.. 2013). In operating these brand communities online, "Mass media demonstrated that virtually all of the hallmarks of geographic community could be simulated, if not wholly or substantially replicated, in a mass-mediated world" (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001; p. 413). Evidently, communal consumption of a brand (or domain) as a shared common identity has become essential to the practice of culture sharing, with OBCs salient to marketing in a global post-disciplinary era.

Customer engagement
OBC engagement is characterized by a member's intrinsic motivation to cooperate and interact with community members (Wirtz et al., 2013). Herein, Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas (2015, p. 32) detail that "online brand community participation and consumer engagement are two congruent phenomena". Wirtz et al. (2013) suggest that brand engagement pertains to an interactive relationship with a brand where experiential and instrumental value is obtained, with Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas (2015) noting that affective, cognitive, and behavioural qualities are exhibited. Such brand engagement in an online context is demarcated as "the cognitive and affective commitment to an active relationship with the brand as personified by the web site or other computer-mediated entities designed to communicate brand value" (Mollen and Wilson, 2010; p. 5). A congruence between the values of the individual and the brand is discovered to provide a grounding for relating to the community, with knowledge, satisfaction, and trust of the brand by the community member influential in OBC engagement (Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2015). Wirtz et al. (2013) note such engagement is motivated by a desire to satisfy needs, and gain benefits from the behaviour itself. Herein, OBC engagement emerges through socialising, advocating, learning, sharing, and co-developing (Brodie et al., 2011), with elements of attention, absorption, enjoyment and enthusiasm derived through various levels of involvement (Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2015).
Brands may receive numerous benefits from OBC engagement, including enhanced loyalty and long-term commitment, (Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2015), improved relationships with consumers (Fournier and Lee, 2009), and consumer data (Kozinets, 2002). However, risks do exist that such engagement may become a facilitator of anti-brand comments, become hi-jacked by activists, or result in inconsistency of messages and brand communication across online and offline platforms; all of which may result in brand equity dilution (Wirtz et al., 2013). On the other side of the coin, member engagement with OBCs is likely driven by the range of benefits they enjoy, with various authors exploring such a phenomenon through the following four dominant areas. Hedonic benefits, relate to the

pleasures that members find in a brand community, and that motivate them to participate more actively (Kuo and Feng, 2013; Sicilia and Palazon, 2008). Brand communities provide learning opportunities through the valuable collective information shared through member interactions (Nambisan and Baron, 2009) serving as knowledge that can be used to demonstrate one's expertise (Kuo and Feng, 2013). Members may also benefit through gains in status, self-esteem, and reputation and respect within the community. Finally, social benefits can be acquired through enhanced social relationships and maintaining inter-personal interactivity (Kuo and Feng, 2013). Such benefits provide a sense of belonging to community members, and help build social identities (Nambisan and Baron, 2009).

The self and socialization
An individual's self-concept refers to their thoughts or beliefs about themselves (Rosenberg, 1979) as comprised of three levels: actual self, ideal self, and social self. Self-construal theory suggests that individuals are both independent and inter-dependent, but importantly, an individual has both selves simultaneously (Singleis, 1994), and in different strengths (Escalas and Bettman, 2005). Regarding the connection between the self and brands, consumers construct and convey themselves through the use of brands that have an image aligned with their existing self-images (Escalas and Bettman, 2005). "The self-brand connection thus hinges on the perceived level of belongingness to a group or desire to belong to an aspirational group" (Hammedi et al., 2015; p. 779). At the product-user level, Sirgy (1986) proposes self-congruity theory where consumer behaviour is influenced by the congruence resulting from a psychological assessment of the image of the product-user and the consumer's self-concept. Thus beyond the functional (performance-based) benefits of brands, their symbolic value affords consumers the opportunity to express their self-identity and associations with the brand or linked groups of people (Keller, 1993, 2009). Evidently, the congruency between a customer's identity and the identity of the brand is pivotal in driving customer-community relationships (Escalas and Bettman, 2005).
The individual's self-identity is distinct from their social identities, as an individual can only possess one self-identity, but many social identities (Stets and Burke, 2000). The plurality of identities is important, as the introduction of interactive digital media has birthed consumption communities where customers build their social identities on consumptive roles (Hammedi et al., 2015). It must be noted though, that authors such as McKenna and Bargh (1998) conclude the salient type of identity in such online environments is not the "real-world" identity, but members' online identity, which may differ from the real-world. "The self" is reflexive is nature, thus it can take itself as an object and categorize, classify, or name itself in relation to other social classifications or categories, culminating in the formation of an identity (Stets and Burke, 2000). Herein, Hogg and Abrams' (1998) research dictates that a social identity is a person's knowledge that they belong to a social category or group. Through social comparison, those similar to "the self" are categorized as with them, the in-group, whilst those persons who differ from the self are categorized as the out-group. The authors further dictate that the social categories individuals place themselves within are parts of structured societies existing in relation to other contrasting social categories. In this sense, interaction between OBC members is dependent upon identification, which pertains to how members feel a part of the community through recognizing a sense of similarity to its members, and difference to non-members (Algesheimer et al., 2005). How such a sense of community is fostered through the OBC is thus likely to have an influence on the values, identities, and behaviour of its members.

Uses and gratifications
As an audience-focused procedure for understanding mass communication, uses and gratifications (U&G) theory explores how and why people seek out specific media to satisfy needs. Through Katz's (1959) interpretation of U&G, one asks not "What do the media do to people?" but, "What do people do with the media?" Herein, the author notes that an individual must have use for the messages of this media in the social and psychological contexts of their lives, and that their values, interests, associations, and social roles fashion what they see and hear. Skipping forward many years, in arguing against the rejection of uses and gratifications (U&G) in studies of mass communications in the social sciences, Ruggiero (2000) counsels that the emergence of computer-mediated mass communications has revived the relevance of the framework. The author further argues that U&G provides cutting-edge theoretical exploration of new mass communications. Dobos (1992) concludes U&G can assist in ascertaining the importance of social context in the experience of communication. Newhagen and Rafaeli (1996) advise using a U&G approach to analysing the internet for mass communication and social science research, drawing focus to the psychological, biological and sociological motivations behind receiving or exchanging messages. Motivations to use the internet for communication purposes include fulfilment of gratifications pertaining to inter-personal communication, social identity, escape, and companionship (Ruggiero, 2000). Looking at cognitive evaluation theory, Wang, Ma and Li (2015) note that community rewards (examples given of virtual medals or ranking lists to symbolize status) can be given to recognize a member's contributions to the community. As a media, OBCs can facilitate not only the establishment of the community, but also the reward giving and displaying of that reward to the community. Extending U&G to other media, Quan-Haase and Young (2010) discover that both Facebook and instant messaging media have similar users and satisfy similar socialization and communication needs, primarily as a past time and to provide a form of escapism. The more asynchronous Facebook does however offer enhanced gratifications through social information, whilst the more intimate IMs have increased capacity to share problems and show affection. Examining "mass self-communication", Van Dijck (2013) explores how different social media sites can be used to present different sides of one's self, i.e. the social self (Facebook) and the professional self (LinkedIn), both consciously and unconsciously. Their summation of the expressive, communicative, or promotional socio-discursive needs of users is well aligned with the benefits of OBCs. The efficacy of online mediums' in community building and enrichment is vital, as users can establish relationships online in a manner impossible through traditional media. Evidently, audiences are choosing to consume media in areas of greatest interest, thus "As new technologies present people with more and more media choices, motivation and satisfaction become even more crucial components of audience analysis" (p. 14). Such interests may culminate in engagement with interest-specific OBCs, serving as a realisation of Abrahamson's (1998) vision that the internet will fracture to a "vehicle for the provision of very specific high-value information to very specific high-consumption audiences" (p. 15). Sounds just like an OBC doesn't it?

Research justification
Consumption of luxury handbags have been examined by researchers with respect to counterfeits (Yoo and Lee, 2012), the status perceptions of millennials (Grotts and W. Johnson, 2013), and prominence of branding (Butcher, Phau, and Teah, 2016) amongst others. Similarly, OBCs have been examined widely (see Brodie et al., 2011; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2015; Wirtz et al., 2013). However no study qualitatively examines how OBCs are used to share culture amongst luxury handbag consumers, particularly employing a netnographic examination of data. As advised by Carey and Kreiling

(1974, p. 242), "An effective theory of popular culture will require a conception of man, not as psychological or sociological man, but as cultural man". Herein, Ruggiero (2000) promotes the exploration of inter-personal and qualitative components of mediated communication as vital in extending communications research, and Newhagen and Rafaeli (1996) advocate that proposing cultural and societal questions may offer the greatest contribution to communications research. In light of such, a cultural lens is adopted for this study's investigation. Extending U&G theory to OBCs, significant value will be provided in understanding what and how cultural participation (content) in luxury handbags (context) is shared through OBCs (media), and the role brands can, and also should not play in facilitating such cultural participation.

Methodology
In exploring a luxury handbag online brand community as a culture sharing-tool, a social constructivist philosophy will be employed through an interpretive sociological lens applied to the discipline of marketing. Such a philosophy seeks to interpret how individuals seek understanding of the world they live in, developing subjecting meanings of their experiences (Creswell, 2013). As these meanings are diverse, through such a philosophy one seeks the complexity of views, and inductively develops a pattern of meanings. From a methodological perspective, grounded theory will be implemented to qualitatively examine the processes around which culture is shared through the OBC, as grounded through the view of the participants (Creswell, 2013). Netnography is employed, as it is a qualitative research procedure adapting traditional observation techniques "to the study of cultures and communities emerging through computer-mediated communications" (Kozinets, 2002; p. 2), through an unobtrusive investigation of naturalistic "online" data. Encouragingly, the method is described by Kozinets (2002) as particularly rigorous for studying the unique characteristics of online communities, and has been employed by Muniz and O'Guinn (2001) and Brodie et al. (2011) amongst others. The population of focus is an online brand community that facilitates product category and brand-specific discussion around the special interest of luxury handbags. Such should be a global community that provides the opportunity for cultural discussion around the consumption of luxury handbags from likeminded enthusiasts, meeting Wirtz et al.'s (2013) aforementioned criteria of an OBC. The sample data is to be collected through threads of a luxury handbag OBC which will be inductively examined from a range of both brand-siloed (homogenous strata) and general-brand (heterogeneous clusters) threads. In accordance with the grounded theory methodology, data will be inductively analysed using open, axial, and selective coding (Creswell, 2013) initially facilitated through nVivo, and subsequent manual interpretation.

Implications and future research
This research will provide substantial theoretical value through adding to the existing body of knowledge in how OBCs as a media source can be leveraged by brands. Examining the OBC as a mechanism in which luxury handbag enthusiasts create and transfer culture is of significant value to the marketing industry, particularly industries such as luxury brands where declines in many previously strong markets are forecast (Euromonitor, 2016). Extending U&G theory into the domain of luxury handbag OBCs is a new area of focus, with the methodological examination (netnographic) of such discourse a valuable new contribution to the study of emerging mass communication mediums. Enlightening how culture is developed and shared through OBCs will provide value to consumer culture theory (CCT) researchers, particularly those studying the creation and sharing of personal and social identities within such forum, and sociologists investigating the evolution of internet-mediated societies. The promotions and communications of practitioners of luxury brands and other

OBC managers or administrators will benefit from insights into the ways in which individuals learn, share, and co-create. Brands seeking to enhance relationship management capabilities can see directly how engagement between a consumer and a brand disseminates through a collective of like-minded individuals and thus influences segmentation, customisation, support, and advocacy. Insights into how the sharing of specific cultural discussion such as industry news, anticipations, product experiences, pricing perceptions, satisfaction, etc. will provide tangible value to marketing practitioners difficult to ascertain elsewhere. Through exploring the sharing of culture of luxury enthusiasts through OBCs, this research is limited by its focus on a luxury handbag forum, future research could expand to other luxury product categories and into other product domains. Additionally, the extensions of uses and gratifications for this product category could be expanded to examine social networking sites or user generated content within the luxury handbag arena. This research will investigate culture-sharing from a non-nationalistic global perspective, thus future research may seek to narrow its focus to a specific nationality or region. Further, as this is a proposed qualitative study, quantitative research could be implemented to complete a mixed methods investigation of the phenomenon.

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Consumer Motivations for Pursuing Loyalty Program Rewards:
A Cross-Cultural Perspective
*** Best Paper of Track ***

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Abstract
Aided by the exponential rate of globalization and digitalization, loyalty programs have attained global reach. Paradoxically, however, dropout rates of loyalty programs have averaged over 75％. This disconcerting statistic, coupled with the lack of culture-specific insights in the literature, suggests a research topic of high theoretical and practical importance. This paper addresses two persisting knowledge gaps in the loyalty program literature. First, we depart from prior research, which has focused on non-members' decision to join a loyalty program, by highlighting members' motivation for reward pursuit. Second, we enrich a field that is inherently global in nature by exploring the impacts of culture on loyalty program effectiveness. Toward these ends, we develop a series of propositions that elucidate how Western, individualist versus Eastern, collectivist consumers respond to major loyalty program features. These propositions advance theoretical understanding of reward-induced behaviour and inform global managers of loyalty programs.

Keywords: loyalty program, culture, reward pursuit, consumer motivation

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Cultural Capital: Extension into Consumption Domains

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Abstract

The concept of cultural capital represents the inequalities and hierarchies that exist between social classes; however, over time the concept has been misused and its essence diverged. This study will explore the evolution of cultural capital (in a domain-specific sense) and its validity in today's modern consumption society. In doing such, the embodied, objectified, and institutionalised elements of cultural capital will be investigated, as well as the emergence of any contemporary components. Methodologically, a qualitative grounded theory methodology will be employed to provide the foundation for the evolution of this concept in modern consumer culture. Key implications include the theoretical development of the concept to incorporate cultural markers of the self, identity, and community. Further value will be provided through appropriating consumer culture theory in the development of a comprehensive new grounded theory foundational development of the concept, assisting marketing practitioners in understand target audiences, the communicative power of social influences, and product development.

Keywords: cultural capital, identity, community, CCT, grounded theory

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Background

Cultural Capital

Established over 30 years ago, cultural capital is a construct that measures the inequalities between social classes and their engagement in education with respect to their ability to excel in an educational environment. Paino and Renzulli (2012, p.125) interprets the concepts intended purpose, "that accumulated cultural capital can be exchanged for power and status; thus, a gain in cultural capital will lead to cultural advantages". Herein, cultural capital incorporates prominent factors including societal knowledge, skills, education, and an individual's status within society, comprising of three basic conceptual forms: embodied state, objectified state, and institutionalised state (Bourdieu 2008).

The embodied state reflects the inherited and acquired properties within one's self. In this form, the capability of 'removing' the person's capability of talent cannot be separated from the person (Ingram, Hechavarria and Matthews 2014). An examples of such in the traditional sense may be people of a higher socio-economic background having more opportunities to attend cultural events, such as plays, museums, society events, resulting in gaining more knowledge or awareness of dominant societal values embodied in the individual (Bourdieu, 1986). Various research (Kraaykamp and Eijck, 2010; Nagel, 2010; Willekens and Lievens, 2014) shows that parents who have been pre-exposed to these types of cultural events will be likely to pass on the experiences, through story telling or actively bringing their children to such events, and provide stronger links between each other by participating in more 'highbrow' activities. When referring to objectified state, Bourdieu makes reference to the physical possessions a person can hold. In the context of his theoretical development, it is referred to objects such as artwork, musical instruments, and other highly regarded objects (Tramonte and Williams 2010). Conversely, in a modern society context it can also refer to having (but not limited to) the most recent mobile phone, television, clothing, or music. In an attempt to measure this level of capital, net worth is typically measured Sullivan (2001), and Yamamoto and Brinton (2010) explains that both embodied and objectified states share a direct relationship with each other, where both social events and artwork align to represent high cultural capital. The third form, the institutionalised state, operates under an understanding that this form is a result of institutionalised recognition. It strongly relates to forms of academic qualifications held by a person (Ingram, Hechavarria and Matthews 2014). Bourdieu suggests that these physical forms of academic qualifications indicate a person has mastered competencies or skills in a particular field (Bourdieu 1986). Each component in their own respect plays a critical part in the determination of an individual and the cultivation of cultural capital within their own mindset (Bourdieu, 2008). However, whilst these traditional conceptualizations are suitable to a non-globalized, non-digital world, this research seeks to examine the extent to which they are relevant today, and how the concept has evolved in the hyper-cultural global world we now know.

Literature review

Self-concept and identity

The self-concept is defined as a "totality of perceptions that each person has of himself" (Simons et al., 2012; p.874). It be referred as a multidimensional concept, which involves both neurophysiologic as well as psychological components (Simons et al., 2012). As an individual grows and matures, their self-concept becomes more refined as mental abilities are greatly and rapidly improved, culminating in desires for relationships, careers, family, and accomplishments (Kareem and Ravirot, 2014). Higgins (1987) concludes that an individual compares themselves with internalised values labelled as "self-guides", with different people comparing their presentation of self with different kinds of emotional vulnerabilities.

Evidently, three domains of self are commonly considered. The "actual self" refers to the representation of the attributes that someone (yourself or another) believes you actually possess. The "ideal self" relates to the representation of attributes that someone would like to ideally possess (through hopes, aspirations or wishes). The third domain, the "ought self" refers to the attributes that someone believes you should or 'ought' to possess, including an individual's sense of duty, obligations or responsibilities (Higgins, 1987). Perceptions of self are directly related to consumption behaviour, and influence the congruence from a psychological assessment of the image of the product-user and the consumer's self-concept (Sirgy, 1986).

"The self" is reflexive is nature, thus it can take itself as an object and categorize, classify, or name itself in relation to other social classifications or categories, culminating in the formation of an identity (Stets and Burke, 2000). Evidently, identity is an important and powerful factor in social life today (Leve, 2011), and has become strongly interwoven itself into socio-cultural factors of language, societal norms, history, and beliefs (Szabo and Ward, 2015). One's personal identity is not removed from the identities of others, and social factors are inherently influential. Social identity explores the idea that an individual's understanding that they belong to certain social groups is significant and linked with emotional value (Tajfel, 1978). Through such a perspective, social identity is further segmented into three dimensions: a cognitive dimension (cognitive assimilation of the self to a group prototype), an evaluative dimension (a positive or negative evaluation attached to the group membership/self-esteem), and an emotional dimension (a sense of affective connection with the group) (Cheng and Guo, 2015). Other perspectives on social identity examine social identification, which emerges based on the individual's contribution behaviours, social interactions, and social relationships in their social networks or organisations (Cheng and Guo, 2015). Social identification accentuates the sense of belonging that can form on the grounds of an individual's perception and acceptance of a shared task and goal (Wegge and Haslam, 2003). Such research suggests that the existence of diverse actual and idealised selves amidst the strong social pressures on identity may provide impetus for the acquisition of cultural capital as a means to achieve desired states, particularly those that are related with social identities within a sub-culture domain.

Communities and fanaticism
Slack (1998, p.361) describes a community as "a body of individuals who have a sense of common identity", that may share the same geographic, political or social similarities. Communities form "worlds of meaning" that exist through their continued adoption and use "in the minds of their members" (Cohen, 1985), with Muniz and O'Guinn (2001) revealing community as, "a grand narrative of the modern period, and one in which consumption plays a very significant role" (p.413). Communities can reflect two sides of a coin, with one side driving social responsibility that the strength of common purpose draws people together, whilst the opposite can also happen, in which exclusivity of a group or club will not admit outsiders. The latter type of group is common, and are at the mercy of those who hold the power (Slack 1998). Muniz and O'Guinn (2001) delineate three components of community, situated within a commercial and mass-mediated ethos. Firstly, a consciousness of kind exists through the intrinsic connection shared between group members. This is akin to a sense of "we-ness" felt through a community's distinction from those outside of it (Bender, 1978). Secondly, shared traditions and rituals are upheld to preserve the community's shared history and culture, and guide the values and behavioural norms of the group. Thirdly, community members feel a sense of responsibility or duty to the wider community and its members, as delineated through a sense of moral responsibility (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001).

Fanaticism can be defined as "to the degree of intensity of which one is a fan, with the level of involvement varying from low to high intensity" (Thorne and Bruner 2006, p.52). Fanaticism can have varying characteristics, with four clear characteristics that drive fan behaviour emerging. Firstly, "internal involvement" relates to fanatics that direct a large proportion of their time, energy and resources devoted to a personal interest. They draw enjoyment from these activities and are not concerned if friends and family do not share the same interest (Thorne and Bruner 2006). The "desire for external involvement" characterizes the level of involvement and type of genre a fan wishes to have. Depending on such, a fanatic's form of expression will manifest in various ways, including reading materials (Harrington and Bielby 1995, p.12), attending events, or posting on the internet in dedicated forums or websites (Thorne and Bruner, 2006). A fanatics' "wish to acquire" revolves around their strong desire to express their interest through the form of materialistic possessions. Some fans may desire to use physical items as a trigger to remember a pleasurable feeling experienced at an event, to indicate membership in a community, or a way to express total control of their life in this specific area (Belk 1995, p.55). Finally, a fanatic's "desire for social interaction" drives behaviour, with the growth in technology bringing many distant objects to our homes and bedrooms, where fans developing their appreciation in isolation.

Consumer Culture Theory
Emerging as a research discipline, consumer culture theory (CCT) refers to a family of dynamic, theoretical perspectives that discuss the connections between consumer actions, marketplaces, and its cultural meanings (Arnould and Thompson, 2005). CCT explores the heterogeneous distribution of meanings and cultural groups that coexist within the frame of globalisation and market capitalism. Herein, it is referred to as "a social arrangement in which relations between lived culture and social resources, and between meaningful ways of life and the symbolic and material resources on which they depend, are mediated through markets" (Arnould and Thompson, 2005, p.869). In the early origins of CCT, research focused on the investigation of the contextual, symbolic, and experiential aspects of consumption as they occurred across consumption cycles. These cycles included acquisition, consumption and possession, and disposition processes and analysis of this phenomena in micro and macro theory perspectives (Belk, 1987; Holbrook, 1987). More modern research evaluates the productive aspects of consumption, including how consumers interact and transform symbolic meanings that are encoded in advertisements, brands, retail settings, or material goods (Grayson and Martinec, 2004; Holt, 2002; Ritson and Elliott, 1999). When viewing CCT from this perspective, it can be argued that a given marketplace provides consumers with the expansive and heterogeneous collection of resources in which they are able to construct both individual and collective identities (Murray, 2002; Schau and Gilly, 2003; Thompson and Hirschman, 1995). In light of such, the CCT discipline approach appears salient in exploring how contemporary cultural capital resources are acquired and transmitted for the purposes of establishing desired identities within particular domains.

Research Purpose
Research of Leon and Ward (2000) and Ward, Stuart and Kus (2011) explains that negotiating or living in-between two cultures or societies can be challenging, resulting in subgroups experiencing identity conflict, as well as psychological and socio-cultural adjustments issues. In the rapidly evolving social world of today, such pressures may be felt for non-nationalistic sub-cultures as well, resulting in the pursuit of domain-specific cultural capital. Thus, in light of the aforementioned discussion of the concept and its empirical uncertainty in modern times, this study addresses the following research question: How has

cultural capital evolved to be earnt, traded, and destroyed in contemporary consumer sub-culture domains?

Methodology
This research will adopt a social constructivism philosophy to develop subjective meanings of the experiences in which cultural capital is ascertained. In line with such a philosophy, this study will examine the multiple realities that exist and their complexities in numerous consumption domains (Creswell, 2013). In an attempt to re-energise cultural capital and positioning it the modern consumption environment, this research will employ a grounded theory methodology exploring the diverse view of participants with respect to cultural capital. So to ground the concept in the consumption domain, consumer behaviour within distinct domains (at this stage the luxury and video game industries) that are characterized by identity-attachment, diverse product offerings, and social reproduction will be explored. In the early days of video games, consumers were stereotypically seen as introverted 'nerds' who hide out in their parent's basement (Idol, 2010). However, a post by The Sydney Morning Herald claims that "If you don't play games, you're not just missing out, you're ignoring the most rapidly evolving creative medium in history" (Brooker, 2009). Research by the Entertainment Software Association (year) reveals that the average US household owns one gaming console, PC or smartphone, with the average user age being 31 years old and 50% split in male and female players. Furthermore, the industry is showing 6% year on year growth showing that this community is not only developing at a rapid pace, but shows no sign of letting up in the foreseeable future (Association, 2014)**.** Similar to video game consumers, luxury consumers possess high involvement in their own domain. With the top 100 luxury companies in the world growing 9.8% in 2015, the luxury goods industry is worth $212.2 billion in aggregated net luxury good sales. It is proving to be a lucrative and profitable industry. Whilst it is proposed luxury growth will slow to between 4-6%, outlook to the future of luxury goods remain positive, as it is suggested the market will be worth $297 billion by 2017, thus indicating a more "mature" growth rate allowing, ideally resilient to economic changes. (D'Arpizio et al. 2014, p.29). Qualitative data will be collected and triangulated through multiple methods, including observational, netnography, focus groups and interviews. Data will be inductively analysed in accordance with the grounded theory methodology, incorporating open, axial, and selective coding (Creswell, 2013) to generate new theoretical perspectives on cultural capital in modern consumption domains

Research Implications
From a theoretical perspective, this research will extend Bourdieu's concept, and contribute to the development of an improved framework for cultural capital, one more generalizable and relevant to contemporary consumption culture. Such will further illuminate the role the self and social identities play in consumption domains, whilst revealing insights into consumption communities and fanaticism. By employing a grounded theory methodology through diverse data collection methods, cultural capital will be triangulated through a range of unique data sources that will enrichen the scope of interpretation. Such findings will be of value to researchers in the disciplines of sociology, management, and behavioural psychology. In understanding how the concept of cultural capital has evolved into consumption domains, marketing practitioners will benefit from enhanced understanding of the ways in which objectified, embodied, and institutionalized elements of cultural capital are ascertained and used. This will be significant in the stages of product innovation and development, co-creation, promotion, and post-purchase engagement; furthermore consumer segmentation and digital engagement capabilities will likely be enhanced. For those individuals managing or administrating communities and networks centred on a particular

sub-culture, as well as those looking to govern them, insights into the cultural and social impacts of consumers facilitated through marketplaces is invaluable.

Limitations and Future Research

This research aims to build a foundation for the development of cultural capital theory, but is limited by its qualitative assessment of several industries. Further research should look to broaden examination into wider industries (domains) to enhance its generalizability, and could explore the concept through quantitative assessment. New theoretical concepts are proposed as vital, however, this could be expanded to draw wider from sociological or psychological domains. Finally, the digital dimension to cultural capital has been introduced (see Paino and Renzulli, 2012), but not widely investigated. Future research could examine this dimension in technologically-focused consumption domains.

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Why foreign brands have more attraction to consumers in developing countries? A case study in Vietnam

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Abstract

Consumers often evaluate brands based on socio-psychological constructs, such as attitudes, motivation, beliefs, perceptions and emotion. The main purpose of this paper is to show how the socio-psychological construct Consumer Identification with a Nation (CIN) impacts on consumers' brand evaluations and how it can be used to directly build and manage brand equity. Building on social identity theory and other pertinent literature the paper develops a framework for understanding of consumers' brand evaluation. It posits that CIN influences brand evaluations, as do country image and brand credibility. The research is informed by quantitative data from 400 Vietnamese consumers in relation to two Japanese brands, which are well known in Vietnam. The results indicate that consumers in developing countries tend to prefer the developed country's brands over domestic brands, when consumers identify with the developed country. This research contributes to a more complete picture for scholars and marketing managers for understanding consumer psychology across borders in developing countries.

Keywords: consumer identification with a nation, country image, brand credibility, brand equity, social identity theory.

Track: International marketing

Introduction to key socio-psychological constructs

In our global village access to knowledge about domestic and, in particular, internationally manufactured products is increasingly available. Many researchers have recently explored consumers' judgments for domestic and foreign products in an international context (Josiassen, 2011; Pappu et al., 2006, 2007; Verlegh, 2007; Verlegh et al., 2005; Winit et al., 2014). Verlegh (2007)'s work on product evaluations of consumers across borders in marketing context is seminal. He argues that in developed countries consumers tend to prefer to buy domestic goods over foreign products when consumers identify with their countries. One reason for such a preference is that purchasing a foreign product means it may hurt the domestic economy. This present research focuses on conducting business across nations and aims to understand the relationship between the degree of developing country's consumers' identification with foreign countries and their evaluation of brands in these countries.

In order to understand how, and to what extent, consumers identify with other countries and international brands, two particular socio-psychological constructs need to be defined. Firstly, the effects of the consumer's **country of origin (COO)** need to be understood. COO is the country in which the product was made and is well-known phrase "made in" with the name of country. COO effects are the reliability/quality perceptions or evaluations of consumers on products that are influenced by COO. The second construct linked to CIN is **Consumer based country image (CCI).** It has been defined as the experience and knowledge the consumer holds about the COO and to the political, economic, technological, and socio-cultural associations made by the consumer in relation to this country. The COO attitudes (i.e. the image of the country in which a product was made) affect reliability and quality perceptions of a product (Verlegh 2007, Josiassen 2010). More recently **consumer identification with a nation (CIN)** has been introduced as a complementary but distinct factor (compared with COO), which influences consumer decision making for international vs home products (Verlegh, 2007). It is described as a socio-psychological construct reflecting a consumer's desire for a positive national identity. The concept "CIN" is derived from the term "nationalism" introduced by Tajfel (1969). Nationalism is a factor that affecting COO effects. *So,* **CIN is also a factor explaining COO effects.** CIN is an important concept since it strongly influences consumers' evaluations of their home nation and of other nations(Verlegh, 2007). Therefore, it is of growing interest to researchers and marketing practitioners (Doosje, 1998; Feather, 1981, 1994; Verlegh, 2007). Extant research has investigated the antecedents and consequences of consumer purchase behavior with a certain COO (Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Nagashima, 1970; Pappu et al., 2006, 2007; Verlegh, 2007; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). It is understood that situational variables influence CIN and marketing communication enhance CIN in an international setting (Verlegh, 2007). However, few studies have studied the *consequences* of CIN.

CIN can impact on **consumer-based brand credibility (CBC)** (Verlegh et al., 2005). CBC is a factor of consumer brand evaluation. CBC is defined as the consumer's recognition and belief that a brand reflects the consumer's knowledge, experience, and purchasing behaviour (Erdem, 1998; Erdem et al., 2006). It is believed to enhance the value of the brand by providing consumers with a believable promise.

CIN is also thought to influence the values a consumer identifies with a brand and its origins (Josiassen, 2011; Verlegh, 2007). Consumers' brand evaluations are determined by their subjective evaluation (memories and associations) of a brand. These evaluations represent **consumer-based brand equity (CBE)**, which may be captured in four dimensions: Brand loyalty, brand awareness, brand association and brand quality (Pappu et al., 2006, 2007).

Verlegh (2007) found that CIN is positively related to the perceived quality of and preference for domestic products, but has no influence on the evaluation of foreign goods. By contrast Un (2011) found that in developing countries consumers' perceptions of foreign products may be favourable. These consumers might prefer foreign goods (from a developed country) versus domestic products, because foreign products/brands are viewed as technologically superior. Positive feelings towards foreign goods/brand can occur in consumers' purchasing behaviour in developing countries as consumers view it as right and appropriate to buy foreign products. Developing countries' governments or institutions tend not to conduct the same 'buy local' campaigns as may be found in developed countries. However, there is a paucity of research on the effect of CIN in developing countries (Alden et al., 1999). A case in point is Vietnam, in which consumers have a large range of choices regarding goods, features and product brands, etc. (Lantz et al., 2002). CIN implies a home country bias and has a social-psychology role in consumers' evaluations of products (Verlegh, 2007). In fact, researchers should be cautious when discussing in-group ratings. Evaluation of the in-group involves a balance between bias and reality, implying that consumers will not always prefer the domestic products. In many cases, in-group bias might not be so strong as to compensate for other shortcomings in some product attributes, such as price or quality or interest groups/country image (Josiassen, 2011; Verlegh, 2007). Thus, consumers may prefer the foreign products in some cases as opposed to the domestic ones. In this research, CIN means only focusing on how consumers identify with *other* countries, not the home country. It assumes that consumers with a high level of CIN may be biased towards consumer evaluations of foreign products, without necessarily rejecting home goods. They may respect other countries as much as their own home country.

While CIN, CCI, CBC and CBE have been conceptualised in the literature, empirical research into the interactions between these concepts is limited. Little attention has been given to the effect of CIN on brand evaluations (Josiassen, 2011; Press & Arnould, 2011). Further, much past research has focused on consumers from developed countries and the impact of their local bias in product judgments (Doosje, 1998; Josiassen, 2011; Verlegh, 2007). Little is known about developing country consumers' identification with nations and related brand effects. The research reported in this paper investigates these knowledge gaps. It seeks to determine the nature of CIN and how it influences consumers' brand evaluation in an international marketing setting, i.e. what are consumers' preferences for buying foreign products when consumers identify with the country of product and brand origin? The research looks at consumers of a developing country with a high level of CIN with a developed country and how they may be biased towards consumer evaluations of foreign products, without necessarily rejecting domestic goods.

The research extends our knowledge in three ways. Firstly, consumer identification is used in the broader context of international marketing. Secondly, the impact of CIN on consumer brand evaluations is captured. A third contribution is that it looks at CIN for consumers from developing country and the influence this has on their brand evaluations. The central proposition advanced is that, in order to be successful in positioning as a global brand, managers and practitioners need to understand: *How does their consumers' identification with a nation affect consumers' evaluations of the brand?* The remaining paper is set out as follows:

Conceptual model and hypotheses

The theoretical model capturing the four pertinent constructs, as well as eight hypothesised relationships between the constructs, is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Factors of COO effects   **Brand evaluation**
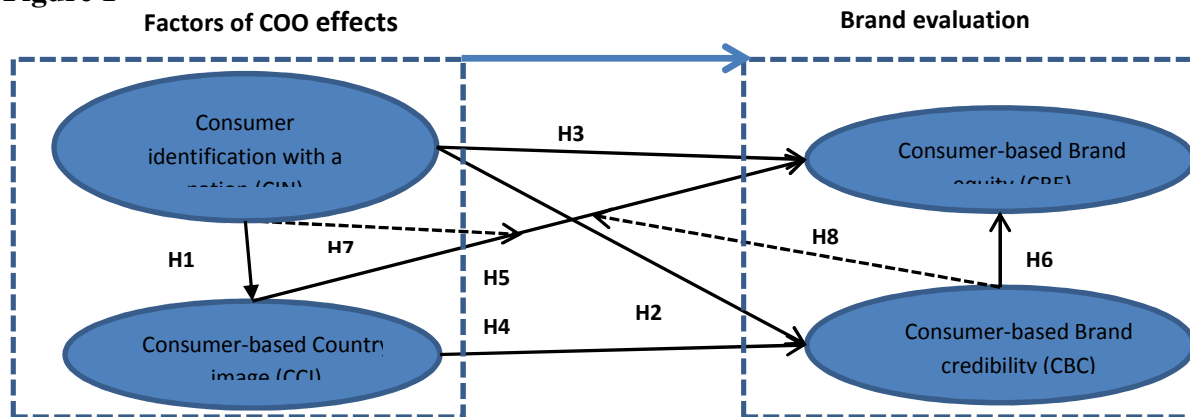
As suggested by identification theory, consumers have the ability to identify with various entities in their purchasing behavior, such as with countries of origin, places, brands, products and consumers' nation. For instance, consumers will normally have a significant emotional attachment (i.e. CIN) to their country of birth (Feather 1981, 1994). This emotional attachment will influence the consumer's image of the COO. Thus, the first hypothesis is as follows:

H1: CIN has an impact on CCI.

Several studies have established that consumers' perceptions and feelings about a nation (i.e. CIN) influence their perceptions of brand credibility (i.e. CBC) (Shin, 2006; Verlegh et al., 2005; Winit et al., 2014). When consumer identify with countries and perceives different information about the nations, then they can know, infer and believe a variety of product positions that are contained in a brand. Hence, the second hypothesis builds on this logic:

H2: CIN has an impact on CBC.

Verlegh (2007) demonstrated that CIN effects perceived quality of consumers (one of four dimensions of CBE). Thus we propose as follows:

H3: CIN has an impact on CBE.

Verlegh et al., (2005) upheld findings of previous studies (Goldberg & Hartwick, 1990; Keller & Aaker, 1992) about the role of CBC in consumers' judgments of advertising and other marketing tools. The researchers found that for a given product category, CBC is low when consumers have an unfavourable image of the country, and high when the CCI is favourable. It is, therefore, hypothesised as follows:

H4: CCI has an impact on CBC.

Pappu, et al., (2007) state that macro and micro country images (CCI) affect consumer-based brand equity (CBE). Verlegh (2007) also proposed that CCI affects consumers' evaluations about brands. Hence, we hypothesise that:

H5: CCI has an impact on CBE.

Spy et al.(2011) demonstrate that CBC has a strong effect on CBE. Thus we hypothesise that:

H6: CBC has an impact on CBE.

Social identity theory provides strong evidence for the moderating role of CIN in consumers' brand evaluations (Verlegh, 2007). Consumers' brand evaluations - based on their inferential and informational beliefs about the nation - can change, depending on the degree of their identification with the nation of the brand. For example, a consumer can describe, infer and inform how trusting he/she is of the United States. He/she knows and can evaluate this, transferring this to his/her perception of the Apple brand. However, his/her evaluation of Apple will be different depending on the level of his/her identification with the United States (e.g., the degree to which he/she perceives the country positively or negatively). Thus we propose as follows:

H7: CIN moderates the relationship between CCI and CBE.

CBC moderates the relationship between endorser credibility (equivalent to CCI) and CBE (Spry et al., 2011). Erdem and Swait (2004) observed that CBC influences consumers' brand choice and consideration of other relevant purchasing choice information, e.g. costs saved, perceived risk and perceived quality constructs (i.e. CBE). However, this can change depending on the degree of consumers' perceived credibility of the brand (CBC). Moreover, CBC depends on the quality of the information presented by a brand. High CBC is necessarily related to high quality brands. A consumer will uphold his or her belief in a brand if the consumer also recognises the nation associated with the brand (Josiassen, 2011). Therefore, our final hypothesis is that:

H8: CBC moderates the relationship between CCI and CBE.

Methodology
Following the quantitative method, a survey was conducted to gather the data to inform CIN, CCI, CBE and CBC. Extant measures were adapted and used. As nearly one half of the 92 million population in Vietnam are Internet subscribers, an online (Qualtrics) survey was conducted. The questionnaire was translated from English into Vietnamese (and validated through back translation). Using snowball sampling, contact was made with a total of 712 people, of whom 459 completed the questionnaire (64.5%). After checking for missing data and trial analysis, 59 returned questionnaires were found to have errors due to missed questions or misunderstanding of the questions, with inappropriate responses. Thus, the final sample consisted of 400 valid questionnaires. The data were analysed using structural equation modelling (SEM). Preliminary support for the model was found in a pilot study with 40 Vietnamese consumers. For a confirmatory test, 400 Vietnamese consumers were surveyed in relation to two Japanese brands, which are well known in Vietnam: Sony and Honda. Three criteria guided the choice of brand names: (1) most products of these brands are available and popular with Vietnamese respondents; (2) Vietnamese consumers have signalled that they have good associations with the COO of the brands; and (3) most respondents recognize and are familiar with goods from these brands. For the purpose of comparison, two different brands were chosen, in order to (via comparative modelling) show any variations between consumer brand evaluations for electrical and vehicle brands.

Results
Each construct **measurement** model was tested using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and the data exhibited adequate fit for both Sony ($\chi2/df$ =1.278, CFI=0.982, GFI=0.906, RMSEA=0.026) and Honda models ($\chi2/df$ =1.289, CFI=0.982, GFI=0.901, RMSEA=0.027). The covariance of the two components of every concept (within construct) or of the two concepts (across construct) of every model were considerably different from 1 at a 95% confident interval. Thus, all the concepts achieved discriminant validity. The results of reliability testing of the scales for every concept were greater than 0.6 using Cronbach's alpha. All the values of the composite reliability and variance extracted results of all the concepts of the models are > 0.7 and >0.5 respectively, as shown in Table 1. Hence, the CFA results of the models obtained good overall fit, reliability, convergent and discriminant validity. All the estimates indicated that the specified indicators were sufficient in their specification of the constructs and model.

Table 1 Summary of CFA results for eight the Sony and Honda measurement models

	Models	Number of items	Reliability			Validity	Overall fit
			Composite reliability	Variance extracted	Cronbach alpha		
1	CIN	5	0.854>0.7	0.542>0.5	> 0.6	Acceptable	Good
2	CCI	16	0.961>0.7	0.608>0.5	> 0.6	Acceptable	Good
3	CBC (Sony)	6	0.865>0.7	0.522>0.5	> 0.6	Acceptable	Good
4	CBC (Honda)	5	0.941>0.7	0.613>0.5	> 0.6	Acceptable	Good

	Models	Number of items	Reliability			Validity	Overall fit
			Composite reliability	Variance extracted	Cronbach alpha		
5	CBE (Sony)	10	0.916>0.7	0.868>0.5	> 0.6	Acceptable	Good
6	CBE (Honda)	12	0.945>0.7	0.587>0.5	> 0.6	Acceptable	Good
7	Sony model	37	0.981>0.7	0.589>0.5	> 0.6	Acceptable	Good
8	Honda model	38	0.983>0.7	0.601>0.5	> 0.6	Acceptable	Good

Next, the two **structural** models (one for Sony, one for Honda) were tested using SEM and also exhibited adequate fit (Sony: $\chi2/df=1.280$, CFI=0.982, GFI=0.906, RMSEA=0.027, Honda: $\chi2/df=1.318$, CFI=0.980, GFI=0.900, RMSEA=0.028). Table 2 presents the estimation results of the relationships of the concepts of the Sony and Honda models. The SEM results indicated that Heywood phenomenon does not appear in the model and the standard errors are less than 2.58 (99% confidence interval).

Table 2 Results for Sony and Honda structural models

Sony					**Honda**				
Relationship	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Relationship	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
CCI<---CIN	.169	.068	2.475	.013	CCI <---CIN	.170	.069	2.477	.013
CBC<---CIN	.171	.057	3.014	.003	CBC_H <---CIN	.436	.050	8.731	***
CBC<---CCI	.376	.047	7.965	***	CBC_H <---CCI	.128	.035	3.651	***
CBE<---CCI	.080	.035	2.308	.021	CBE_H <---CIN	.127	.062	2.032	.042
CBE<---CBC	.182	.043	4.180	***	CBE_H <---CCI	.311	.044	7.023	***
CBE<---CIN	.399	.045	8.788	***	CBE_H <---CBC_H	.265	.070	3.810	***

The SEM results (Table 2) show that six hypotheses (H1-H6) are supported, since all the beta values are under 1 and the p values are lower 0.05 for both two models. The seventh and eighth hypotheses are not supported. The Chi square difference values for Sony ($\Delta\chi2$ (H7) =1.745, $\Delta\chi2$ (H8) =0.642) and Honda ($\Delta\chi2$ (H7) = 0.936, $\Delta\chi2$ (H8) = 0.483) models (Δdf =1; p<0.01) indicate that all the parameters of the structural paths are not invariant across two groups via invariant test of multiple group SEM method.

Findings and Conclusions

The results from the comparative models infer that Vietnamese consumer trusted the Sony brand more than Honda brand. This finding may be explained in several ways: (1) The Sony brand is more popular and has more categories than the Honda brand in Vietnam. (2) The CBE of the Honda brand with favourable quality and strong association was significantly higher than the CBE of the Sony brand, provided that Vietnamese consumers perceived subtantive differences between the brands of the same country in terms of their brand association and brand quality. Vietnamese consumers can identify, associate and evaluate the quality of the Honda brand better than the Sony brand, since the Honda only has one product category in Vietnam (Honda mortorbike), while the Sony brand has many product categories. A brand with fewer categories presents a lower cognitive load for consumers' evaluations. People normally recognize one thing better than many things at the same time and in the same stiuation.

The results also indicated when Vietnamese consumers identify with Japan, they can evaluate the quality of the brand. However, they do not feel loyal to the brand, because they have no close powerful connection to that brand. Consumers with a high level of CIN will have higher evaluations of Japanese products, without necessary being loyal to the brands. They may respect other countries as much as their own home country, but they do not need to be loyal to these other nations' brands. Vietnamese consumers feel that they have very strong

identification with Japan, albeit still not enough to make up for their motivation for Japanese brand loyalty.

In summary, this research has demonstrated that consumers' tendencies in developing countries are to prefer and to buy developed countries' goods over domestic products when consumers identify with these (developed) nations. This study makes a threefold contribution to research on branding and COO effects literature. (1) It contributes to identification theory by extending the meaning of the concept CIN. (2) It demonstrates the roles of CIN, CCI and CBC in developing CBE. (3) It advances social identity theory by providing a conceptual framework which aims to explore the interactive effects of identification characteristics (e.g. CIN), country-product category association (CCI) and brand product category association (e.g. CBC) on consumers' brand judgments (CBE).

The results from this research will be useful and provide guidelines for managers responsible for (1) establishing an identification nation image for their brands, (2) assessing consumers' identification with their nation to extending their brand marketing strategies, and (3) selecting effective strategies to increase their country images and brand equity to enhance their brand position related consumers' evaluations.

The main delimitation of this research is that it was only tested with two popular brands in one country. The research could be extended to research on national identification literature with other brands and in many countries which increase the positive bias for foreign brands. This research explored the effect of developing country's consumers' identification with a foreign country to show the positive bias of these consumers' *foreign* brand evaluation, whereby they did not reject domestic brands. Future research could examine how CIN affects consumer brand evaluation in developing economies when consumers' *domestic* brand evaluation is negative. Future studies could also explore whether several moderating variables (e.g. consumer affinity and consumer animosity) impact on the effect of consumer identification with a foreign nation on consumer brand evaluation. Such research would indicate the negative/positive bias toward domestic brands/products.

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Customers' response on service quality in Indonesian hotels: cultural discussion

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Abstract

To date, a number of studies have revealed service quality (SQ) as an important aspect in hotels that affects customer satisfaction and customer loyalty. A model of SQ that specifically applies in hotels has been developed by Wilkins, Merrilees, and Herington (2007) in Australia context. Although the concept of SQ in hotels has been well-identified, there has been less research about hotel's services provision and SQ assessment in cross-cultural perspective. Survey using Wilkins et al. (2007) instrument was conducted in Indonesia. Factor analysis was utilised to test Wilkins et al. (2007) SQ measurement. Literature and observation justify and explain further about Indonesian cultural aspects that may distinguish the existing SQ measurement. Findings of this study suggest the relevance of cultural influence on services provision in hotels and customers' measurement of SQ. It confirms the importance of understanding cultural impacts on hotel's SQ from both management and customer sides.

Keywords: Service quality, measurement, hotel management, culture, Indonesia

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Introduction
Located strategically between Asia and Australia, Indonesia holds high potential market for hospitality industry. Supported by the rise of economy, tourism, and mobility, the number of guests in Indonesian hotels is increasing. Indonesian Government has recorded approximately 51 million guests in Indonesian classified (star) hotel in 2014, consists of 10 million international guests and 41 million domestic guests (Badan Pusat Statistik Indonesia, 2014a, 2014b). With the promising market, hotels in Indonesia need to provide excellent service quality (SQ) that meets the guests' needs.

A plethora of studies have assessed and tested SQ measurement scales. Wilkins et al. (2007) developed measurement scales specifically for hotel SQ, based on hotel products. However, there are still few research noting cultural aspects in hotel's SQ, and previous studies found different responses toward SQ among different cultural backgrounds (Armstrong, Mok, Go, & Chan, 1997; Hsieh & Tsai, 2009; Luo & Qu, 2016; Mey, Akbar, & Fie, 2006). This phenomenon leads to research question: Are Wilkins et al. (2007) hotel SQ measurement scales applicable for hotel customers in Indonesia? The next section reviews existing hotel SQ literature, its measurement, and cultural issues in hotel consumer behaviour. This research is conducted based on a study by Wilkins et al. (2007) about hotel's SQ. Advancing the scales, this study aims to confirm applicability of Wilkins et al. (2007) SQ scales in the context of Indonesia. Further discussion produces insights on Indonesian hotels' SQ and cultural aspects that affect customer's response toward hotel's service in Indonesia.

Literature Review
Measuring SQ in hotels
SQ is a classic construct and numerous studies have proposed measurement methods of SQ in general context (Brady & Cronin Jr., 2001; Brown, Churchill, & Peter, 1993; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Dabholkar, Thorpe, & Rentz, 1995; Lewis, 1993; Parasuraman, Berry, & Zeithaml, 1993; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985, 1994). A classic concept of SQ implied comparison and evaluation of expectation and performance. Good SQ means consistently conforming customer's expectations of service (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Lewis & Mitchell, 1990; Parasuraman et al., 1985). Parasuraman et al. (1985) presented customer's perceived SQ as the result of perceived service delivery and management-to-customer communications, compared to customer's expectation of service, influenced by Word-of-Mouth communications, personal needs, past experience, and management-to-customer communications.

Arguing a statement by Parasuraman et al. (1985) that SQ is transferable across industries, Wilkins et al. (2007) established SQ measurement scales in detail for hotel context. The study was conducted with hotel customers from eight first class and luxury hotels in Australia. Following their factor analysis results, Wilkins et al. (2007) presents measurement scales consist of seven components, including stylish comfort, quality staff, personalisation, room quality, speedy service, added extras, and quality food and beverage. Whilst the novel hotel SQ measurement has been proposed, only few studies have empirically tested the scales.

Previous literature in culture and hotel SQ
Limited studies have tapped cultural aspects in both hotel service provisions and consumer behaviours (see Table 1). Among those few studies, Armstrong et al. (1997) and Mey et al. (2006) stated that culture is related to "expectation" aspect of SQ and cultural values impact customer's expectation. In vein, some studies indicated that SQ measures were perceived differently among different cultural groupings (Hsieh & Tsai, 2009; Mattila, 1999; Yi, Marcelo Royo, & Katherine, 2008). Reisinger and Turner (1997) explained cross-cultural differences

between Indonesia and Australia, in Hofstede's cultural dimensions basis. Indonesian tourists have distinctive cultural values (e.g. religion) that influence their responses toward hotel services and consumption behaviours.

Table 1. Prior studies about cultural influence in hotel service context

Reference	Article title	Key points
Akbaba (2006)	Measuring service quality in the hotel industry: A study in a business hotel in Turkey	Some components of SERVQUAL dimensions measurement were different from the original SERVQUAL. Future SQ measurement needed to be adapted for specific context, e.g. culture.
Armstrong et al. (1997)	The importance of cross-cultural expectations in the measurement of service quality perceptions in the hotel industry	There is significant difference in terms of expectations toward hotel's SQ in Hong Kong between different cultural groups.
R. X. Y. Chen, Cheung, and Law (2012)	A review of the literature on culture in hotel management research: What is the future?	Hotel's organisational culture influences management, provision of services and may have some effects on hotel customers. Future research on culture in the hotel management field is needed.
W.-J. Chen (2011)	Innovation in hotel services: Culture and personality	Cultural-based innovation on SQ is needed to continuously ensure the hotel's success.
Dortyol, Varinli, and Kitapci (2014)	How do international tourists perceive hotel quality?: An exploratory study of service quality in Antalya tourism region	Some cultural aspects on SQ influenced hotel customer satisfaction and loyalty behaviour.
Hsieh and Tsai (2009)	Does national culture really matter? Hotel service perceptions by Taiwan and American tourists	Cultural background contrasted Taiwanese and American hotel guests' perceptions toward hotel's SQ in Taiwan.
Luo and Qu (2016)	Guest-Defined Hotel Service Quality and Its Impacts on Guest Loyalty	Significant differences found between Chinese tourists and Western tourists in manifesting satisfaction toward hotel services in China.
Mattila (1999)	The Role of Culture in the Service Evaluation Process	Differences noted between Western and Asian tourists' perceptions toward services and physical environment in luxury hotels.
Mey et al. (2006)	Measuring Service Quality and Customer Satisfaction of the Hotels in Malaysia: Malaysian, Asian and Non-Asian Hotel Guests	Differences found on SQ expectations and perceptions among Malaysian, other Asians, and Non-Asian hotel guests. Satisfaction manifestation between Malaysian and Non-Asian hotel guests was significantly different.

Mok and Armstrong (1998)	Expectations for hotel service quality: Do they differ from culture to culture?	Significant differences discovered on customer's expectation and perceptions toward hotel's SQ between UK, USA, Australia, Japan and Taiwan tourists.
Wang, Miao, and Mattila (2015)	Customer responses to intercultural communication accommodation strategies in hospitality service encounters	Intercultural service encounters at hotels influenced customers' feelings, value, and satisfaction toward hotel's services.
Yi et al. (2008)	Cultural perspectives: Chinese perceptions of UK hotel service quality	There were gaps between Chinese customers' perceptions toward five dimensions of SQ at UK hotels'. Those gaps have led to negative consumers' experiences.

Other previous studies suggest the role of culture in delivering (W.-J. Chen, 2011, 2013; Kao, Tsaur, & Wu, 2016) and perceiving (Dortyol et al., 2014; Luo & Qu, 2016; Mattila, 1999; Mey et al., 2006; Mok & Armstrong, 1998; Yi et al., 2008) hotel's SQ. Hence, provision of SQ dimensions differs among hotels and so perceived SQ among cultures.

Methods
A mixed-method approach was employed to investigate hotel SQ in Indonesia. A survey with 23 items five-point Likert scales adopted from Wilkins et al. (2007) was conducted to 3, 4, and 5-star hotel users in Indonesia through online and in-person approaches. The dimensions included are ambience (7 items), staff (4 items), food (4 items), responsiveness (4 items), and add-ons (4 items). Prior to final survey, a pilot study has been conducted to 66 hotel guests at 3, 4, and 5-star hotels in Indonesia. A total of 324 completed responses to the final survey were received and used in this study.

The hotel class distribution is 31.2%, 40.1%, and 28.7% for 3-star, 4-star, and 5-star hotels, respectively. Respondents are mostly Indonesians (93.9%), while the remaining 6.1% of total 324 respondents include various backgrounds, e.g. Australians, Singaporeans, Malaysians, Germans, and many more. Due to few numbers of each background, the inclusion of 6.1% respondents with various backgrounds was irrelevant. Respondents stayed at the hotels for leisure (36.7%), business (35.2%), and business and leisure (28.1%) purposes. Factor analysis was performed to assess validity of the scale measurements and reliability test was performed afterwards using SPSS software (version 21).

Results and discussion
Validity and reliability of SQ items
Validity and reliability results in Table 2 suggest 16 items that applicable to Indonesian customer context. The eliminated items include "Range of toiletries available" from Ambience dimension, "Not having to queue for more than 1 minute" from Responsiveness dimension, "Hotel provides good bars" from Food dimension, and all Add-ons items consist of floor concierge, time-saving services, shuttle busses to the airport, and recreational facilities. According to factor analysis results, Staff and Responsiveness dimensions are perceived as one dimension.

Discussions

In Table 2, factor analysis suggests Staff and Responsiveness dimensions to merge into one factor. Based on Indonesian Hotel Classification Regulation (Indonesian Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy, 2013), 3-star and above hotels required to employ well-trained staffs that are responsive to customer's needs. In addition, Indonesians really appreciate interaction quality with hotel staff (Gita & Janet, 2013; Mattila, 1999). Thus, for Indonesian hotel customers, responsive hotel staff is perceived the same as having good quality.

Indonesian culture in appreciating social interactions (Gita & Janet, 2013) and relevancy of hotel Ambience dimension supported the irrelevancy of "Not having to queue for more than 1 minute" item. Findings by Yuliansyah, Rammal, and Rose (2016) justified that comfort atmosphere and good tangible aspects enhance service quality. Thus, supported by good hotel ambience and interactions with others, one minute is irrelevant as long waiting time standard for Indonesian customers.

Table 2. Validity and reliability results

Variable Items	Factor Loading	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha
<u>Service Quality</u>			
Ambience (6 items)		0.65	0.89
The hotel is first class.	0.87		
The hotel lobby is grand.	0.84		
The hotel has deluxe appliances.	0.83		
The hotel atmosphere is stylish.	0.81		
The artefacts and paintings added to the image of the hotel.	0.75		
The ambience of hotel is relaxing.	0.71		
Staff-responsiveness (7 items)		0.61	0.89
The hotel has high quality staffs that are well trained.	0.82		
During my stay in the hotel, I experience immediate service.	0.81		
The hotel has staffs that are quick to respond to requests.	0.81		
The hotel has respectful and polite staffs.	0.78		
The hotel's staffs are nice to me at checkout.	0.75		
During my stay in the hotel, I experience not being kept waiting for a long time.	0.75		
Every need is anticipated during my stay in the hotel.	0.72		
Food (3 items)		0.81	0.88
The hotel provides exquisite food presentation.	0.92		
The hotel provides a sumptuous breakfast.	0.90		
The hotel provides quality dining restaurant.	0.89		

Indonesia is a Muslim-majority country (approximately 90% of the population) (Gita & Janet, 2013; Reisinger & Turner, 1997). Alcohol consumption is not allowed in Islamic culture. Additionally, Indonesian Government applies high taxes and limits alcohol distribution in the country (Euromonitor International, 2016). Consequently, drinking culture is not applicable in Indonesian context and "Hotel provides good bars" item is insignificant.

Since standard facilities are required, hotels provide their bathrooms with general toiletries, such as soaps and shampoos. Therefore, for customers, 3-star and above hotels are very common to have such range of toiletries. However, toiletries are personal care products and related to Islamic value, Indonesians tend to be very careful in using personal care products due to Halal concern (Gita & Janet, 2013). Hence, since Halal toiletries became main consideration of usage, the provision of various toiletries turned out to be irrelevant.

Add-on dimension does not apply to this sample since customers have different stay purposes. Business customers might spend less time in hotel, compared to leisure travellers. In this study, 35.2% respondents had stayed in business purpose and 28.1% stayed in business and leisure purposes. The customers might have less time to explore hotel's add-ons services and focus on their businesses. For that reason, Add-ons dimension is not relevant.

Conclusion, implications, and suggestions for future research
Evaluating hotel SQ measurement scales and justifying the results provide new insights in understanding the role of culture in hotel service management. Sixteen items in three dimensions of hotel SQ (Ambience, Staff-responsiveness, and Food) are representing Indonesian hotel users. To conclude, hotel classification standards, religion as part of culture, and travel purpose influence hotel consumer behaviours in Indonesia. Confirming previous studies, this research notes the importance of understanding culture for hotel managements, in order to provide excellent services to their customers. Future research in this this topic shall relate SQ and cultural aspects to other variables, such as satisfaction and loyalty, as well as examining other cultural differences in other countries.

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An Indexical-Iconic Approach to Communicating Authenticity through Informational Product Packaging for Luxury Korean Red Ginseng Creams

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Abstract

The recent success of luxury Korean cosmetic products has caught the attention of researchers around the world. Products using authentic Korean red ginseng are seeing unprecedented growth in recent years. The current study explored the effects indexical and iconic authenticity in packaging have on perceived value, attitude and behavioural intention. This study employed a between-subjects experimental design to test the effects of indexically authentic, iconically authentic and control package designs on consumer perceptions. The results revealed no significant differences were found across all three experimental conditions for perceived value, attitude and behavioural intention. However, perceived value was found to significantly impact on attitude which in turn, impacted on behavioural intention. The current study contributes to the research area by extending authenticity's applicability to the packaging of luxury Korean cosmetics industry and providing greater insight into consumer perceptions of authenticity through packaging.

Keywords: Authenticity, cosmetics industry, indexical-iconic authenticity, product packaging

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Consumers' Need for Subtlety in Luxury Brands

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Abstract

This paper aims to conceptualize consumers' need for subtlety and to develop a scale to measure consumers' personality trait of subtlety within a luxury brand context. The primary outcome of this research is the development of a scale to measure consumers' need for subtlety, which is termed an inherent personality trait for consumers to be subtle. The research will follow three phases. Firstly, to develop a measure for consumers' need for subtlety. Secondly, to test this measure within the context luxury branded products. Third to test the model in the context of luxury brands with multiple product categories to test for the generalizability. At the present time, there is a significant gap in the literature surrounding consumers' need for subtlety from an acknowledgement of this behaviour existing to a lack of a unified definition.

Keywords: Subtlety, Luxury Brands,

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Introduction
Throughout the 20th-century luxury brands relied on strong signals to build their luxury status, international recognition and support in brand storytelling (Prokopec 2015). However, one of the biggest changes in the luxury brand industry has been a shift from loud signals to more soft signals (Harvard Business Review 2015). Or in other words, a rise in inconspicuous consumption, consumers growing attraction for discreet rather than traditionally branded luxuries (Harvard Business Review 2015). For example; Chinese consumers of luxury products were driven by the ostentatious signaling of loud signals, now consumers are taking the labels of their designer clothes and being made fun of for their luxury purchases (Eckhardt, Belk and Wilson 2014). Of course, signals are still important, if you are spending a considerable amount of money on a luxury product you want it to be recognized. However, the difference now is consumers now are wanting to display their purchase to a smaller more discrete group rather than the entire population (Berger and Ward 2010; Prokopec 2015).

The concept of subtlety has been noticed by the world of high fashion with insiders, influencers and writers noticing these changes as they are happening. June Haynes, an executive at Valentino "Today, it's really about understated luxury," (Halzack 2015). "This is really what keeps me up at night," people with money will not want to show it, Johann Rupert, the chief executive of Richemont, which owns IWC Schaffhausen Cartier and other luxury brands(Chapin 2015). Also wealthy consumers are growing a "fondness for low-key or logo free pieces instead of highly visible and recognizable handbags from luxury brands such as Louis Vuitton, Gucci and Prada" (Washington Post 2015). These changes can be seen with many luxury brands taking these new behaviours into consideration as they reduce their use of loud signals and introduce more subtle signals into their product lines (Knowledge.esses.edu 2015).

The purpose of this research proposal aims to conceptualize consumers' need for subtlety to define consumers personality trait, their need to be more discrete and subtle with their consumption as opposed to more ostentatious consumption.

Research Background
The worldwide luxury goods industry has surpassed $1.48 trillion in retail sales in 2015 (Bain & Company 2015). The rate of which the luxury brand industry has grown has slowed in recent years, with real growth (at constant exchange rates) in 2014 3-4% and slowed to 1-2% in 2015, to what Bain & Company is calling the "new normal, of lower sales growth in the personal luxury goods market and a "fundamental shift" in the luxury brand market (Bain.com 2015; Bain & Company 2015). Moreover, the top 10 luxury brands in 2015 lost 6% in brand value according to Millward Brown 2015. Research have attributed this slowed growth with evolving consumer dynamics and preferences (Capper 2014), economic slow-down (Ittenbach, 2010), mass urbanization and growth in emerging markets (Kim, Remy, & Schmidt, 2014) currency changes, fluctuation tourists and Chinese market conditions and consumer expectation changing (Bain & Company 2015). The challenge for the luxury brand industry being so vulnerable to mass changes is to ensure the industry maintains growth and navigates potential market volatility. All of these factors have encouraged academics and marketing professionals to show growing interest in luxury brand marketing and consumer behavior in recent years (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009).

Luxury Brands
The existing luxury branding literature does not provide an all-encompassing definition of luxury brands due to the ambiguity of the term "luxury" and different contexts and socio-

cultural characteristics consumers associate with luxury (Phau & Prendergast, 2000; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004).Luxury brands have however been characterised by, having emotional connections with consumers (Brun et al., 2008) social status (Bian & Forsythe, 2012) a sense of exclusivity and uniqueness (Phau & Prendergast 2000) conspicuous nature (Godey, et. al. 2011) high perception of quality and price (Nueno & Quelch, 1998). All luxury brands are not the same, based on the purchasing power of the consumer, luxury brands can fall into one of the following categories; inaccessible luxury, intermediate luxury, and accessible luxury (Sung et al. 2015). Luxury is not only a matter of disposable income, however, can change according to the social and economic context (Christodoulides et al., 2009)

Consumers need for subtlety
Although the literature on subtlety is not exhaustive, in the past few years academics have outline some of the reason for the increase of subtlety in luxury branding. Eckhardt, Belk and Wilson (2014) outline two main reasons for the increase of subtle branding. Firstly, luxury products aren't just for the elite anymore, luxury brands in recent years have been broadening their target consumers and appealing to a much larger proportion of society (Bialobos 1991; Sharpe 2002). This has led to many luxury products previously only attainable to those at the high of socioeconomic statuses to being attainable to the masses (Eckhardt, Belk and Wilson 2014). With many luxury brands having spread to the middle classes with product diffusions and more accessible accessory lines, runway renting, fast fashion and mimic products, logos don't signal wealth the way they once did (Truong, McColl and Kitchen 2009). The accessibility of luxury has meant that traditional prominently branded luxury products don't necessarily represent 'luxury' as it once did (Eckhardt, Belk and Wilson 2014). Other experts have made the link between the desire for more discreet luxury goods and political and social debates on income inequality, leaving the more extravagant luxury consumers worrying that their purchases are becoming tacky regardless of the price tag (Halzack 2016). This has led to many of the more prominent luxury products are becoming more visible and losing their luxury cachet and a shift to less visible subtle luxury products.

Han, Nunes and Drèze (2010) found that the logo on your designer handbag or luxury car may say more about your social class and aspirations than the brand name itself. They found this with the fact that there is a significant number of luxury consumers would rather not be branded with visible logos and rather be understated (Han, Nunes and Drèze 2010). The study focused on identifying four different luxury product consumers and identifying them based on their preference towards loud goods with prominently placed brand logos as opposed to quiet goods with minimal visible brand-specific characteristics. One of the four personalities identified in the study was "Patricians' "Wealthy consumers low in need for status" who "pay a premium for quiet goods, products that only their fellow patricians can recognise" (Han, Nunes and Drèze 2010).

The limited literature on subtle branding has also revealed the relative pricing of loud versus subtle goods. It was Berger and Ward (2010) that initially identified the relationship between price and explicit logo or branding. Using sunglasses and handbags, they identified an inverted U relationship between price and brand identification. Furthermore, they concluded that as price increases explicit decreases for both handbags and sunglasses (Berger and Ward 2010). Consumers may not be aware that prominent logo designs of luxury brands are lower priced than more subtle counterparts (Berger and Ward 2010), even charge more with quieter items with subtle logo placement and size (Han, Nunes and Drèze 2010). In most cases the luxury product with more visible logo are cheaper than the less visible item (Carbajal, Hall and Li 2015).

Relevant literature and Hypothesis development

Consumers Need for Subtlety

As previously mentioned consumers need for subtlety is a fairly new concept with in the literature. Berger and Ward 2010 introduce this idea with the notion that conventional signalling theories suggest that the more prominent branding characteristics are the more conspicuous the consumption and a greater impression on others, however the contrary may apply (Berger & ward 2010). That is the more-subtle the signals or branding elements are applied the greater their impact (Han, Nunes and Drèze 2010). It has been found that consumers can have preferences towards more subtle branding for certain luxury brands (Beger & Ward 2010; (Han, Nunes and Drèze 2010)

For the purpose of this study, the conceptual definition of consumers need for subtlety can be defined as *"An individual's inherent need for differentiation through the deliberate and inconspicuous consumption of products not immediately recognisable to the masses, for the purpose of developing one's personal and social identity"*.

H1: Consumers' need for subtlety will have a positive (negative) influence on consumers attitude towards subtle (prominent) luxury branded products

Consumers Desire for Uniqueness

Consumers purchase and obtain goods to communicate a desired image to others and to satisfy their social desires (Gierl, Plantsch and Schweidler 2008; Carbajal Hall and Li 2015). One of these social desires is the pursuit of differentiation from others or the desire for uniqueness (Fromkin 1970; Snyder 1992). According to Tian et al (2001, p. 52), consumers desire to be unique can be defined as "individual's pursuit of differentness relative to others" for the purpose of developing their personal and social identity. One of the driving forces of consumers desire for uniqueness is a sense of specialness and scarceness that poses on the individual rather than for social status (Snyder 1992). This means that consumers that have a higher desire for uniqueness are willing to purchase products that others are not (Song & lee, 2013); as well as adopting new products quicker and easier, where individuals with lower need for uniqueness would not (Amaldoss & Jain 2005). One way to satisfy this need for uniqueness is to purchase scarce and distinct products that are attainable to fewer consumer rather than the mass market (Schaefers 2014). In the luxury brand industry, brands have marketed uniqueness through price, limited production and exclusive designs (Han, Nunes, and Drèze, 2008). When there is a saturation of goods that exhibit many prominent signals a way to differentiate away from this would be more-subtle signals (Berger Ward 2010). Therefore consumers with a higher desire for uniqueness may also have a higher need for subtlety.

H2: Consumers' desire for uniqueness will have a positive (negative) influence on consumers attitude towards subtle (prominent) luxury branded products

Status Seeking Consumption

Status seeking consumption is the "tendency to purchase goods and services for the status or social prestige that they confer on the owners" (Eastman Goldsmith Flynn 1999). Status seeking consumption has been around for centuries with Veblen coining the term, and described the upper class and its flagrant behavior as "the higher stages of the barbarian culture" (Veblen 1899). Within the literature, marketers and consumer behaviour researchers accept and understood the importance of status seeking consumption and conspicuousness in luxury branded product consumption (Piron, 2000). With Vigneron & Johnson (1999), stating

that status and conspicuousness are two of the most important aspects of a luxury brand. Moreover, it has been suggested that consumers will consume products that communicate a desired status image to others (Belk 1988; Solomon 1983; Berger and Heath 2007). Also that status goods signal a level of social capital and monetary wealth (Carbajal Hall and Li 2015). Truong et al. (2008) states that the luxury branding literature seem to hold the tow constructs status seeking consumption and conspicuousness as being a single and intertwined. The understanding of status and conspicuousness goes beyond this within the subtle branding literature as the relationship between status and conspicuous is though to be altered and how the level of conspicuousness affects the signaling ability of status to others (Han, Nunes and Drèze 2010). O'Cass and Frost (2004) describe status consumption as the personal nature of owning status possessions, which may or may not be conspicuous or publicly displayed (Truong et al. 2008). That status today may be displayed in more-subtle ways (Shipman 2004). Han Nunes and Drèze (2010) propose that different consumers with different levels of need for status and desires to show off their consumption and wealth.

H3: Consumers' status seeking consumption will have a positive (negative) influence on consumers attitude towards prominent (subtle) luxury branded products.

Traits of vanity
The role of vanity, as a social influence on consumer decision making has been proven to be highly influential (Berthon et al. 2009; Tsai 2005; Vigneron and Johnson 1999). However, a lack attention within the luxury brand literature does not withdraw its importance (Hung et al. 2011). Studies have shown the importance of vanity and the consumption of luxury fashion brands, however not supported with wide empirical support (Durvasula et al. 2001; Park et al. 2008). This is because the role of vanity connects an individuals' self and desired external self through symbolic and sensory fulfilment (Wang and Waller, 200; Hung et al. 2015) and vanity can be perceived to be the main motivations of conspicuous consumption (Phau and Prendergast 2000) For the purpose of this study vanity can be defined as "having an excessive concern, and or positive (and perhaps inflated) view of, one's physical appearance/personal achievements (Netemeyer et al., 1995, p612). Vanity can also be seen to have elements that are relatively hidden, or subject to ostentatious displays for status. These traits include more awareness for self-advancements, physical appearance and status (Netemeyer et al. 1995). Furthermore, these traits can be observed through the consumption of cosmetic products, clothing products and general conspicuous consumption (Hung et al. 2015). Husic and Cicic (2009) supports the more ostentations display of vanity with their explanation of male vanity, as a part of new social protocol where your identity and self-worth are determined by the highly visible brands.

H4a: Consumers' trait of physical vanity will have a positive (negative) influence on consumers attitude towards prominent (subtle) luxury branded products.
H4b: Consumers' trait of achievement vanity will have a positive (negative) influence on consumers attitude towards prominent (subtle) luxury branded products.
H5: Consumer Attitudes towards subtle (prominent) luxury branded products will have a positive (negative) influence on willingness to buy luxury branded products.

Social Adjustive and Value expressive Functions
Functional theories of attitudes suggest that attitudes serve as psychological functions, such knowledge functions, utilitarian functions and self-esteem ego defensive functions attitudes (Katz 1960; Shavitt, 1989; Smith, Bruner, and White 1956). Attitudes also serve important social functions, such as allowing "self-expression (value-expressive functions) and facilitating

self-presentation (social-adjustive function)". These social functions of attitudes have been shown to underlie a broad range of consumer responses, including product evaluations (Shavitt, Lowrey, and Han 1992), advertising message processing (Snyder and DeBono 1985). Social-adjustive functions/attitudes help maintain relationships therefore consumers with high social-adjustive attitudes toward products, their consummation is motivated in order to gain approval in social situations. Moreover, attitudes serving a value- expressive function/attitudes help people communicate their central beliefs and values to others (Katz, 1960).

H6a: The relationship between consumers attitude towards subtle (prominent) luxury branded products towards consumers' willingness to buy subtle (prominent) luxury branded products is positively (negatively) moderated by the value-expressive function (social-adjustive function).
H6b: The relationship between consumers attitude towards prominent (subtle) luxury branded products towards consumers' willingness to buy prominent (subtle) luxury branded products is positively (negatively) moderated by the social-adjustive function (value-expressive function).

Research Framework
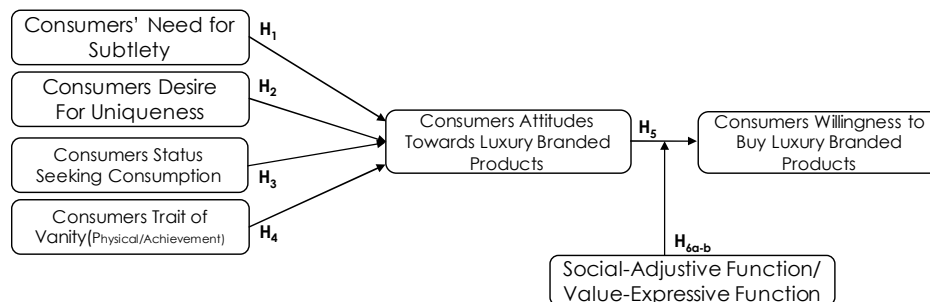
Research Design
This study will employ and an experimental research design. The experimental research design has been chosen because of consumers need for subtlety to be tested with multiple stimuli. The research will be conducted in the context of luxury brands and follow the approach of a 42(product categories), x 2 (subtle, prominent branding cues) experimental design. Previous research measuring subtlety and brand prominence have utilised similar experimental approaches (Berger and Ward 2010). This study will test the relationships between quiet and loud personality traits and consumers' attitude towards luxury branded products with the experimentation of the stimuli.

Significance of Research
At the present time, there is a significant gap in the literature surrounding consumer need for subtlety from an acknowledgement of this behaviour existing to a lack of a unified definition. Therefore, the main significance of the research will be to add to the body of knowledge in marketing research by conceptualising "consumers need for subtlety" within the luxury branding industry.

Methodological:
The methodological contributions of this research are as follows. Firstly, the development of the consumers need for subtlety scale. Secondly, by developing a research framework and conceptual model to support consumers need for subtlety. To also analysis consumers need for subtlety and its other antecedent constructs in determining consumers attitude towards luxury branded products and willingness to buy luxury branded products. This research framework is proposed in the context of luxury brands, however, could be replicated in other contexts or applications.

Managerial:
The managerial contributions of this research are as follows. Firstly the study will offer marketing insights to what may generate a response to consumers with the personality trait of consumers need for subtlety. Second, there are also implications for brand strategists, advertising or companies who wish to explore "loud" and "quiet" brand markings as part of new product design and development and potential brand extensions capitalizing on consumer's personality traits of subtlety.

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The influence of country image and personality traits towards evaluation of product country image and purchase intentions

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Abstract

This study examines the effects of country image, consumer aspirations and consumer product knowledge on the evaluation of the product country image and purchase intentions of high technological products. The role of product country image is examined as a mediator of these countries and personality factors. A self-administered questionnaire was employed for this study using established scales with the questions formulated around two countries, USA and China. It was administered through a mall intercept method and a particular focus was associated to the comparison of China and USA, Xiaomi and iPhone. The stark contrast between the two countries in terms of their image and stature presents an insightful inquiry into the relevancy of country image and country of origin image importance in modern day context.

Keywords: Country Image, Product Country Image, Consumer Aspirations, Consumer Product Knowledge

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Homogenization of Shopping Culture: Evidences from India

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Abstract

The current research examines the cultural values of local store customers in Indian Tier-1 and Tier-2 cities. It tries to ascertain the applicability of the framework of national culture in shopping environment. Implications for marketers and researchers are emphasized. Data was collected through a structured questionnaire using local store intercept technique in seven cities across India. Findings indicate a departure of local store consumers' cultural dimensions as predicted by national culture of Hofstede's framework. There is increasing evidence of Americanization of Indian culture in a shopping context. Significant differences were also observed between Tier-1 and Tier-2 consumers. International marketers targeting Indian consumers may commit mistake if following Hofstede's dimensions. For retailers, as the growth is now happening from Tier-1 to Tier-2 cities, it is important to understand the differences among the consumers' in terms of cultural dimensions. The strategists may not consider the Indian market as a homogenous one.

Keywords: power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long term orientation, culture, cosmopolitanism, India, local stores

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Understanding Business Relationships in the Arab world: Ehsan, Et-Moone and Wasta

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Abstract
Understanding business relationships is critical for business success in the Arabic countries as these relationships can work as powerful facilitators and determine how members interact inside and outside of their firms (Fawzi, 2013; Hutchings & Weir, 2006a). Despite these observations, and evidence of their importance, there is limited research in this area. Utilising a qualitative methodology, this study explores business relationships within the context of SMEs in Saudi Arabia. The findings support the importance and dynamic nature of three cultural relationships of Ehsan, Et-Moone and Wasta within business settings.

Keywords: Arabic countries, business relationship, team innovation, norms

Track: international and intercultural marketing

Introduction

"Do good and good will come to you"…Imam Ali

Investigating business relationships has a long history (e.g.Campbell, 1997; Levine & White, 1961).However, little research in this area is conducted within the Arab world (Berger, Silbiger, Herstein, & Barnes, 2014; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011), despite it being a significant market comprising 22 countries and being home to about 350 million Arabs (Arab-League, 2014). Understanding these relationships is critical for business success (Rice, 2003) as Arabic countries are collective and driven through relationships and networking (Hofstede, 1984). Decisions are often influenced by nepotism and favouritism (Izraeli, 1997), making relationships important. In Arabic countries, building strong relationships overcomes institutional voids (lack of formal institutions) as business relationships (informal institutions) play a major role in filling these voids (Hutchings & Weir, 2006a; Liu, 2011).

The purpose of this study is to explore business relationships in Arabic counties. The context of the study is Saudi industrial SMEs that have worked in developing incremental innovations and include intra and inter organizational relationships. Key motivations for the choice of this context include observations that developing innovation relies to a large extent on internal and external relationships (Dwyer & Gassenheimer, 1992; Scarbrough, 2003). In addition, the Saudi government is working on diversifying the local economy including enhancing the role of SMEs in the economy.

This study is one of the few to empirically investigate SME business relationship within the context of Arab world. Most studies in this area focus on large firms from developed economies (e.g.Anderson, Havila, & Salmi, 2001; Friman, Gärling, Millett, Mattsson, & Johnston, 2002) or within the Chinese context as an example of an emerging economy (e.g.Luo, Huang, & Wang, 2012; Perks, Kahn, & Zhang, 2009). Due to the space limit, this paper focuses mainly on presenting the findings inductively.

Literature Review

This study focuses on three types of business relationships which have not been well covered previously: Ehsan, Et-Moone and Wasta

Ehsan

Although Ehsan (or Ihsan) has a high position within Islamic faith (Al-Gamdi, 2000), there is only limited discussion of this concept within the Islamic literature and even less within business studies. The concept of Ehsan is close to the notion of sincerity (Ishak & Osman, 2015), yet it is wider and has no common definition. Chittick (1992, p. 5) defines Ehsan as "to accomplish what is beautiful and good, to do something well, to do something perfectly, to gain perfect and virtuous qualities". He suggests that the measurement of what is good, beautiful and virtuous is judged by the religious teachings. Scholars (e.g.Al-Handi, 2010; Al-Hofi, 1983; Farahat, 2006) emphasise that the benefits of Ehsan should predominantly be delivered to others, not to the person him/herself; however, Ehsan varies according to the context (Al-Foreah, 2014). Muslims should perform Ehsan whether with Muslims or non-Muslims as they are requested by God (Allah): *"perform Ehsan as God loves Muhsans-*people who perform Ehsan*"* (Quran, Al-Bakarah 2.195) and *"God commands justice and Ehsan"* (Quran, An-Nahl 15.25). Ehsan is considered to have many positive consequences such as commitment and loyalty (Alkhalfi, 2005), forgiveness and being more patient (Al-

Gamdi, 2000) and offering and using positive Wasta (Al-Foreah, 2014); however, these suggestions have not been investigated empirically.

Et-Moone

Although Et-Moone has a long history in Arab countries, its role in business relationships has only recently been examined in academic discourse. Et-Moone is defined as "*higher-order cooperation, where partners give special attention to the cooperative relationship through the emphasis on the special personal relationship that exists between them*" (Abosag & Naudé, 2014, p. 889). It is characterised by high self-disclosure, significant interaction outside work, open sharing of knowledge and information, strong emotional attachment, mutual commitment and personal loyalty (Abosag & Naudé, 2014). Developing an Et-Moone relationship is based on "*(1) positive past interaction; (2) trust and strong relationship commitment; (3) strong personal friendship characterised by high levels of empathy, liking and reciprocity; and (4) mutual acceptance of power sharing and decision making*" (Abosag & Lee, 2013, p. 610).

Wasta

Emerging economies have various modes of informal interpersonal connections that differ on the duration and nature of the relational hierarchy (Smith et al., 2012), such as guanxi in China (Chen, Chen, & Xin, 2004) and Wasta in Arabic countries (Hutchings & Weir, 2006b). Wasta has a significant influence on business practices in Arabic countries (Smith, et al.,2011; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). It is defined as " a form of favouritism that provides individuals with advantages not because of merit or right but because of who they know" (Mohamed & Mohamad, 2011, p. 412). Wasta is considered through four lenses: corruption; alternative to institutional voids; social capital; and as an outcome of the culture (Velez-Calle, et al.,2015).

Research Design and Findings

Due to the limited number of previous studies on the current topic, a qualitative approach is used as this allows for a rich understanding of the topic. Twenty three on-site unstructured individual in-depth interviews (average of 52 minutes duration) with six Saudi industrial SMEs (range from agri-business to high tech) were conducted. There is no common definition of SMEs in Saudi Arabia, different government departments use different definitions ; however, they either define SMEs according to the number of their employees, annual turnover or/ and total capital. Due to the difficulty of obtaining the financial information, this study defines SMEs as firms with 25- 200 employees which aligns with the definition of Al-Yahya and Airey (2012). The interviews were transcribed and analysed through Nvivo. The codes and the themes were developed by the lead author (bilingual Muslim Arab) and then discussed with the research team and also with a number of bilingual Muslim Arabic specialists to ensure Arabic-English consistency. The codes for the concepts were taken from all the interviews and compared with each other.

The following findings are all presented within the intra-organizational context, while the inter-organizational examples have not developed:

Ehsan

Ehsan is coded as to accomplish what is beautiful and good, to do something well aligning with the Islamic teachings for no intentional return. Aligning with the literature suggestions (above), Ehsan between the members within the firm increases the level of cooperation, sharing of information, and commitment. For example, an Egyptian engineer working for a firm commented that:

"*I do not leave him alone. All what you imagine of I did it for him and I taught him even via the phone regardless if it will take another day or so*" highlighting participant selflessness through "*I did it for him*" and that he/she was willing to share information regardless of the effort required. Ehsan between management and the employees also increases the loyalty and commitment of the employees to the firm. For example, another Egyptian engineer at a different firm commented that:

"*You sacrifice yourself [working hard] if you have a word with the management, the management that when you have a problem it [the management] supports you… even if it was personal ones*". This indicates that the team members will be highly committed through "*You sacrifice yourself you have a word with the management*" if they have Ehsan relationship with the management.

The positive influence of Ehsan might also result in the employees feeling obligated to be positive to others regardless whether they helped them before or not. For instance, an Egyptian engineer commented that:

"*I just came and I need to bring my wife, these matters are outside of work, but I remember that Ahmed gave me 3000 Saudi Riyals without me asking for it … he said you can return it when everything goes well. Yes, from his account…you will make sure that you make these types of people happy… I remember when I go out and I see an idea, this* [Ehsan] *force me to go in details so I will go back to Ahmed to say I found an idea that will help us with our target*" This highlights that the Ehsan relationship made the participant to feel obligated to be positive through "*this force me to go in details so I will go back to Ahmed to say I found an idea*" when he was supported before asking for it.

Et-Moone
Participants refer to Et-Moone by indicating that they consider others as a part of their family . An Egyptian design manager has commented that:
"*Oh, no they are like my little brothers*"
The Et-Moone relationship between the team members was found to have a positive influence on commitment, cooperation, communication, loyalty to the firm, satisfaction and respect for each other. For example, an Egyptian engineer mentioned that:
"*I am his elder brother, I am responsible for him and do not like to be the manager and this kind of stuff. I mean that I help him even in his personal needs such as accommodation, his responsible brother that even if he wants to make decision he can, he can discuss it with me*" highlighting the Et-Moone relationship through "*his responsible brother*" between two members from different nationalities (Egyptian and Indian) have pushed the participants to cooperate more and be more open in discussions; this aligns with the findings of Abosag and Naudé (2014).
Developing a high Et-Moone relationship might also associate with negative consequences that might arise due to participants' fear of breaking the relationship itself. For example, an Egyptian engineer indicates that with high levels of Et-Moone criticism is not forthcoming.
"*we in the team become very close, so there was a problem in accepting criticism*"

Et-Moone seems to be the basis for developing Wasta between the exchange parties and that extends to the indirect exchange parties. For example, a Pakistani marketing manager works for a date processing factory has mentioned that:
"*We have a good relationship with professors so they ask their students to try the dates [product] and give us feedback*" indicating that the Et-Moone relationship was developed first through "*We have a good relationship with professor*" then this leads to develop a Wasta relationship though "*ask their students to try the dates*" Involving students with commercial activities of external parties is restricted by Saudi law.

Wasta
Participants view Wasta through the four lenses that are mentioned above (see table 1) and provide different definitions that come under 'the way of completing a business through third parties and other cues'; however, this study codes Wasta as the usage of the relationship with influential people to complete business whether within or outside the firm. Thus, Wasta relationship should not be ignored as it might be a powerful facilitator for projects where there is an institutional void.

Table 1: different lenses of Wasta

Lens	Quote	Interpretation
Corruption	*It is about doing something not good then you sell it as a different thing this is Wasta*	Wasta is viewed as illegal action
alternative to institutional voids	*You know everything in Saudi Arabia needs Wasta including cases where you are qualified for any matter*	Wasta is viewed as an alternative to the lack of sufficient laws
Social Capital	*We request raw materials with specific features and he is able through his connection and people able to bring them either locally or from overseas.*	Wasta is viewed as the CEO's social capital.
Cultural outcome	*We know that Wasta carries a lot of weight in this part of the world [Saudi Arabia].*	Wasta is viewed as a part of the business culture

Although Wasta relationship might be an indirect business facilitator since it helps with involving customers and/or securing special or prohibited raw materials, it can have direct influence. For example, a Jordanian engineer mentioned that:

"*your relationship with the top management and interaction with them might make them accept to send you to china for example to get ideas or develop yourself and give you for example 5000 Saudi riyals*".

The degree of Wasta seems to differ according to nationality and formal qualifications as an Indian technician mentioned that:

"*Egyptians here have more Wasta than us as they are Arabs and engineers*"

Discussion and Conclusion

This study indicates that Ehsan, Et-Moone and Wasta are critical in the Arabic world as they influence the team behaviours. These relationships should not be viewed in isolation as they interact with each other.

This study outlines four theoretical contributions which will be explain in depth in the next stage (conference presentation):

- Et-Moone may have an inverted U shape when influencing on employees' behaviours, where 'medium' levels of Et-Moone encourage some cooperation and allow some constructive criticism, while 'high' levels encourage also cooperation yet discourage constructive criticism.

- Wasta descriptions indicate all of the lenses can be used to examine the construct. Therefore, research needs to incorporate these lenses, as leaving out one perspective limits the interpretation.

- Although there is no explicit evidence of the relationship between Ehsan and Et-Moone, there is implicit interaction. The data shows that Ehsan makes members feel obligated to be positive to each other and this might help in developing the Et-Moone relationship. In addition, Ehsan and Et-Moone seem to lead to some similar results (cooperation and communication).

- Et-Moone helps in the development of a Wasta relationship; however, the degree of Wasta capital might vary according to the team members' nationality and formal qualification. This implicitly suggests that nationality and formal qualifications also influence the development of the Et-Moone relationship.

These observations suggest that there is a need for further studies to test the generated propositions on a larger sample. Future research might also compare different teams within the same firm to explore moderator factors.

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Exploring the Luxury Brand Attachment Scale

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Abstract

This research explores a specific scale for luxury brand attachment (LBA). In the research LBA is defined as "the emotional bond that connects a consumer to the luxury brand and develops deep feelings within the consumer towards the luxury brand". Brand attachment in the luxury branding context is more emotionally driven and the existing brand attachment scales do not reflect these characteristics. To this date scholars have not conceptualised luxury brand attachment as a unique construct in the consumer brand relationship. The generic brand attachment scales have been used to measure consumers' attachment to luxury brands. Some studies have incorporated the emotional brand attachment in the luxury product category, however these studies do not capture the true essence of consumers' luxury brand attachment. This study will conceptualise the luxury brand attachment scale and provide insights into preliminary findings. This research will provide meaningful insights for academics and practitioners.

Keywords: luxury brand attachment, scale development, luxury, branding

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Why is the newer the better? Interest but not liking as an approach motivation toward novelty in consumption contexts

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Abstract

Do consumers really like familiarity and therefore dislike novelty? This is a central question that has resonated through different fields of psychology and marketing. Past research found that consumers heuristically associate familiarity to liking, but they also prefer novelty in certain motivational contexts. This paper presents two studies to show that novelty does not result in liking but instead, evokes interest—a similar but functionally different positive affective experience. Specifically, we show that consumer feel interest toward and therefore favor a product when it is subjectively perceived to be new or said to be new, even when the novel product is objectively identical to its counterpart. Novelty, however, was found to be unrelated to liking. These findings suggest that consumers' paradoxical tendency to favor both familiarity and novelty is manifested in ways beyond a general emotional valence account. Specifically, familiarity appears to evoke liking whereas novelty appears to evoke interest.

Keywords: Novelty, Interest, Liking, and Emotion

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing

Brand Protection and Brand Disputes in Indonesia: An Exploratory Study

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Abstract

Brand registration is essential in providing legal protection of a brand. It is also an indicator of firm efforts in creating awareness and associations among customers. However, brand registration and protection is a contentious issue in developing countries. The present study aims to outline the brand registration and protection in Indonesia, the largest economy in the Southeast Asian region, and identify main issues of brand disputes in the country. Using a historical method, the current study collected data from publicly available and accessible data, e.g. the Indonesian Supreme Court database. A content analysis was conducted on brand dispute verdicts. The results indicated that there are six main issues of brand disputes: (1) the distinctiveness capacity of a trademark; (2) 'first use in good faith in Indonesia' principle; (3) inactive brands; (4) similarities in nature or entirely between brands; (5) the claim for 'well-known' status; and (6) non-conformance usage of trademarks.

Keywords: Brand registration, brand protection, brand dispute, Indonesia.

Track: International and Intercultural Marketing.

Religious symbols in advertising: Impact on brand assessment

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Abstract

Religion is a global phenomenon and a majority of the world's population is found to be religious to some extent. Religiosity has a significant impact on consumers' attitudes, values and actions and is an important variable in consumer behaviour studies. The inclusion of subtle religious references in marketing communications has been suggested as an avenue to tap the growing market of religious consumers. Although the study of religion and religious symbols has been an active area of research in other disciplines, little mainstream marketing research has focused on them. This paper explores the impact of using religious symbols in brand advertisements on brand affect, trust and purchase intention. Hypotheses regarding the various mediators and moderators in the relationship are developed. Further, different symbol categories are also elaborated and explored. Theoretical and managerial implications are suggested.

Keywords: religious symbols, religiosity, brand affect, brand trust, advertising

Track Name: Marketing Communications

Being Honest to Consumers: Exploring the Impact of Corporate Hypocrisy and Consumer Scepticism on Corporate Social Responsibility

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Abstract

Consumers are increasingly placing more importance on the social responsibility of firms when making purchase decisions. Nonetheless, corporate irresponsibility has become more prevalent in the current corporate world. Through Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), companies are able to showcase their virtues and present themselves as good citizens while many internal standards are being ignored. Using two real CSR campaigns launched by a beer company and a software company, respondents were asked to evaluate these two campaigns. Based on a sample of respondents in Australia (n=517), the results show that CSR belief mediates the relationship between both corporate hypocrisy and consumers' scepticism toward consumers' attitude toward the company. It indicates that companies may use CSR to shift the blame from the producers to users. The results of this study will provide guidelines for managers on how to create an effective campaign and assist public policy makers on how to evaluate and respond to CSR campaigns launched by companies.

Keywords: Corporate Social Responsibility, Corporate Hypocrisy, Consumer Scepticism

Track: Marketing Communications

Matching message with motivation: A functional approach to motivating current blood donors

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Abstract

Blood donation is widely portrayed as an altruistic behaviour, with altruism being the most commonly used appeal by blood donor organisations. However, blood donation rates remain below societal needs. This paper took a functional approach for investigating donor response to motivationally-based persuasive appeals, and used an online survey completed by Australian blood donors (n=205). Overall, an adapted version of the Volunteers Functions Inventory was found to be an appropriate multi-motivational framework for investigating current blood donor motivations. Associations between motivations and perceived persuasiveness of different marketing messages found that benevolent messages (e.g. Understanding and Esteem) were more likely to be perceived as appealing by multiple motivational functions; thus potentially appealing to a broader audience than an altruistic (Values) appeal alone. Lastly, the matching proposition of the functional approach was both supported and opposed; marketing content can be considered persuasive in situations when the message and motivation are congruent and incongruent.

Keywords: Blood donation, marketing message, functional approach, motivations

Track: Marketing Communications

Introduction

A continuous supply of donated blood and blood products is needed to sustain national health systems (Blood Service, 2013), yet only 3% of Australians donate blood, with less than 60% of new donors returning to donate within the following two years (Masser et al., 2009). To address this low donation rate, the study of blood donation has taken a variety of paths to strengthen our understanding of the most effective means for motivating its occurrence (Bednall and Bove, 2011). Blood donation is widely portrayed as an archetypal altruistic behaviour as it conforms to characteristics of a classic altruistic act; it is voluntary and the behaviour benefits others at some cost to the donor (Alessandrini, 2007; Ferguson, Farrell and Lawrence, 2008). Subsequently, altruism remains the most frequently self-reported reason for donating blood (Evans and Ferguson, 2013; Nelson and Grenne, 2010), which is reflected in the heavy tendency for blood organisations worldwide to use promotions that appeal to an individual's altruistic nature. Alternatively, some researchers have questioned the role of pure altruism in the decision to donate blood and suggest that such behaviour is also partly motivated by some form of self-interest (Chell and Mortimer, 2014; Ferguson and Lawrence, 2016). However, blood donor motivations are likely to be multi-faceted. A two-dimensional approach is oversimplified in assuming that individuals are only motivated by either self-serving or purely altruistic motives, weakening the overall explanatory power of donation decisions. Therefore, a multi-motivational approach to understanding blood donation is most appropriate.

While the Theory of Planned Behaviour (and extended models) has been the most widely applied framework to understanding psychological predictors of blood donation intention and behaviour (Evans and Ferguson, 2013; Masser et al., 2009, Masser et al., 2012), it does not provide a suitable guide for recruitment appeals addressing particular donor motivations. The functional approach to motivation and persuasion (Katz, 1960) posits that individuals' motivations are driven by the functions that they provide for the individual (e.g. a social motivation is driven by social needs) and is grounded on two key assumptions (Clary, Snyder and Ridge, 1992). First, different people are often motivated by multiple reasons to engage in the same activity, and second the recruitment messages will be most persuasive in inspiring action (e.g. donate blood) when the content is congruent with the function underlying blood donor motivations (Brunel and Nelson, 2000). Developed within a volunteer context by Clary et al. (1992, 1994, 1999), the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) is a tool for building persuasive recruitment messages, and outlines six motivational functions that are often served through volunteering; values, career, protective, social, enhancement and understanding. As a motivational framework, the VFI has been applied to a blood donation context (excluding the Career function as it was deemed irrelevant; Misje et al., 2005), however the application of the instrumentation used did not closely reflect the original VFI resulting in many items falling out and not relating to the intended motivational function. Therefore it remains unclear whether the VFI is also a suitable tool within a blood donation context. Clary et al. (1994, 1998) found support for the functionalist proposition where the success of volunteer recruitment depended on the extent to which the recruitment message addressed specific motivational functions underlying behaviour. In other words, a match between a message and motivation was considered more persuasive than a mismatch.

There are two broad ways marketers commonly appeal for donations, highlighting either benefits to the donor (self-benefit appeal) or benefits to others (other-benefit appeal), with extant literature supporting the efficacy of both appeals (Cohen and Hoffner, 2012; White and Peloza, 2009; Ye et al., 2015). Alternatively, Ferguson, Farrell and Lawrence (2008) argue for a benevolence appeal, in which both the recipient and donor benefit from a blood donation (Ferguson and Farrell, 2016). For example, a benevolent appeal might address the

Understanding motivational function (i.e. self-benefit; the individual hopes to learn more about something by donating blood) as well as the Values function by hinting that the behaviour will help others. However, it remains unclear which message appeals are considered more persuasive to donors, when different motivational forces are influencing donors' decisions.

In line with the principles of the functional approach, value-expressive appeals (other-benefit) would be most persuasive for individuals seeking altruistic motives, utilitarian (self-benefit) appeals would be persuasive for those interested in fulfilling self-interested motives, and benevolent messages would appeal to those who want to help the self and others (i.e. multi-motivational). Identifying the most persuasive message approach to encourage blood donation behaviour (self-benefit, other-benefit, or benevolence) is important when the message is tailored to address specific motivational functions and blood donors are considered multi-motivational. Therefore this study addressed the following research question; what is the relationship between blood donor motivations and perceived message persuasiveness of blood donor appeals? Taking a functional approach for investigating donor response to motivationally-based persuasive appeals, the aims of this study were threefold; (1) test an adapted version of the VFI in a blood donation context; (2) examine associations between blood donor motivations and perceived persuasiveness of different types of marketing messages; and (3) identify whether donors perceive a message as more persuasive when the message appeal is congruent (matched) or incongruent with a relevant motivation.

Method
An online survey was distributed to current blood donors, aged 18 to 76 years old (M=44.2, SD=15.7), within the main Blood Service donor centre in Canberra, Australia. Overall, 213 surveys were completed, with seven respondents removed due to missing data (age, gender and high item-non-response), resulting in a total sample size of 205. The sample consisted mostly of experienced donors, with only 17.1% having donated less than 5 times, and was slightly skewed towards females (56.6%). Donation type varied, with 75.1% donating whole blood, 46.8% donating plasma and 11.2% donating platelets, within the past 12 months. To test the research aims, the VFI was adapted to a blood donation context by excluding the Career function as it was considered irrelevant to blood donation (Clary et al., 1998) and adding Repayment and Habit as two additional functions identified as potential reasons for donating blood (Bednall and Bove, 2011). A 7-point Likert scale was used to indicate how important or accurate each motivation was for donating blood at the Blood Service. Participants were then presented with seven persuasive messages, developed to target each type of motivation (see Table 1), with perceived persuasiveness measured on a 4-point scale (1 = not at all persuasive and 4 = extremely persuasive). The messages were sourced from previous Blood Service marketing activities or developed for the purpose of this study, with a team of internal communication and psychology experts assessing each message against the intended motivation for face validity. Message framing theory states that gain-framed versus loss-framed messages can vary the perceived message persuasiveness (Kahneman & Tyersky, 1979). To ensure differences in persuasion were attributable to the function of a donation (e.g. value, understanding), all messages were positively framed; a gain-framed message positively emphasises the benefits that could be gained by taking an action (Chien, 2014). This approach is consistent with organ donation research that supports the use of gain-framed messages to appeal to donors (Purewal and van den Akker, 2009).

Table 1. Functionalist Blood Donation Marketing Messages

Motivational Appeal	Message
Values	Give the gift of life. Donate blood today.
Understanding	Would you like to know how your blood type can help others? Come and visit the Australian Red Cross Blood Service today.
Esteem	Be someone's hero, donate blood today
Social	Bring your friends to the Blood Service. Donate blood together!
Protective	Bad karma? Come donate blood today to improve your Karma and help others in need
Repayment	With 1 in 3 people needing blood in their lifetime, if you don't need blood someone you know will. Donate today.
Habit	Donate blood at your own time. Come and visit us at a location near you

Analysis

Missing values for multi-item constructs (i.e. donor motivations) were replaced using the mean substitution method as suggested by Allen and Bennett (2010), however missing data was minimal. Systematic measurement error caused by common method bias was assessed using the single factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). With only 17.84% of the variance explained by one factor, which is well below the maximum threshold of 50% (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), common method bias did not impact the validity of this study. Multicollinearity also did not pose a threat to the analyses as inter-correlations between the constructs did not exceed the threshold of ±0.85 and higher (Allen & Bennett, 2010). In order to validate construct measurements, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed using AMOS. To demonstrate model fit, the measurement model had to meet the requirements of five fit indices. The initial measurement model demonstrated average fit to the data (CMIN/df=2.368, p<.001, CFI=.778, SRMR=.110). Three items were removed due to cross-loading, and the repayment items were separated into two separate factors, Repayment and Surety. The final measurement model fit supported an eight-factor solution (see Table 2 for internal reliability) and achieved good fit to the data (CMIN/df=2.079, p<.001, CFI=.845, SRMR=.083).

Table 2. Volunteer Functions Inventory Blood Donor Motivations with Example Items

Motivational Factor	No. of Items	Example Item	α
Values	5	I donate blood because I am genuinely concerned about those who need blood donations	.77
Understanding	5	I donate blood to gain a new perspective	.71
Esteem	4	I donate blood to feel better about myself	.85
Social	5	People I'm close to want me to donate blood	.83
Protective	5	Donating blood is a good escape from my own troubles	.83
Repayment	2	I donate blood because it allows me to repay blood products needed by someone close to me	.90
Surety	2	I donate blood because I, or someone I know, may need a blood transfusion in the future	.70
Habit	4	I seldom think about blood donation, it's a habit	.76

On average the Values function was the strongest motivator for blood donors (M=5.85), followed by Habit (M=4.24), which is expected given the high percentage of experienced donors within the sample (see Table 3). For the marketing messages, the Repayment (M=3.21), Values (M=3.14) and Esteem (M=2.87) messages were perceived to be the most persuasive. As this study was exploratory in nature, correlational data between motivational functions served by donating blood and persuasive of marketing messages was examined (see Table 3). A significant positive correlation demonstrates the more one is motivated by a particular function the more a message is persuasive or appealing. These correlations were also examined by gender (male and female), age (18-35yrs, 36-55yrs, 56+yrs) and donation history (early career 1-10 donations, experienced donors 11+ donations) groups. Overall, the Esteem appeal correlated positively with the highest number of motivational functions, particularly for females and experienced donors. This was followed by the Understanding and Social messages which were positively associated with four or more different motivational functions, particularly within the early career and younger donors. The persuasiveness of the Values message was only positively correlated with the Values function (altruism), and this was consistent across all groups.

Table 3. Blood Donation Motivation and Marketing Message Means and Correlations

		Blood Donation Motivations (scale 1-7)							
		VA	UN	ES	SO	PR	RE	SU	HA
	Mean	5.85	3.35	3.04	2.75	2.23	3.35	3.75	4.24
Message (scale 1-4)									
Value	*3.14*	.34							
Understanding	*2.32*	.32	.24		.29			.19	
Esteem	*2.87*	.18	.26	.24	.18	.16	.16	.15	
Social	*2.30*	.33	.25	.15	.20	.17			
Protective	*1.68*		.31	.25		.30			
Repayment	*3.21*	.24							
Habit	*2.19*	.23							

Note: Only significant (*p*<.05) correlation values are presented; VA=Values, UN=Understanding, ES=Esteem; SO=Social; PR=Protective; RE=Repayment; SU=Surety; HA=Habit

Discussion
Overall, this study found that an adapted version of the VFI was an appropriate and valid framework to measure blood donor motivations. The motivational structure remained fairly consistent to the original instrument with Repayment, Surety and Habit as additional functions specific to a blood donation context. The multi-motivational nature of blood donation is clearly evident with donors motivated by desires to benefit the self and others simultaneously (Bednall and Bove, 2011). Although altruistic motivation was, on average, the strongest motivational function of blood donation, this may be skewed by a widespread assumption that donation should be performed selflessly (Alessandrini, 2007; White and Peloza, 2009).

The functional approach argues that strategies regarding behaviour persuasion will be successful depending on the extent to which the message is tailored to specific functions served by donating blood (Katz, 1960). Thus, appeals to inspire action (e.g. donate blood) should be tailored towards addressing the different types of motives for donating blood. This exploratory research both supported and opposed the matching proposition of the functional approach, that is, the marketing content can be considered persuasive in situations when the message and motivation are congruent and incongruent. Therefore, it is important to identify the content with the broadest appeal. The Values driven marketing message (focused on benefiting others) was perceived as more persuasive only by those who are more likely to donate for altruistic reasons, which was consistent across demographic segments. Although blood donation is often described as an archetypal altruistic behaviour (Ferguson, Farrell and Lawrence, 2008), recruitment content emphasising altruism may not inspire action in those motivated by other functions. The perceived persuasiveness of the Understanding and Esteem messages was positively correlated with multiple motivational functions; thus potentially appealing to a broader audience. These messages would be considered benevolent appeals as both the donor and recipient are positioned to benefit from donating blood (Ferguson and Lawrence, 2016). Given the tendency for blood organisations to use altruistic appeals, yet donation rates have failed to increase, this suggests that altruistic appeals are seemingly not sufficient on their own. This research supports a benevolent approach, including self-understanding, self-esteem and altruistic value functions, as multiple message strategies for inspiring action from multi-motivated blood donors.

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Should marketers advertise in a targeted magazine or television program? Comparing user profiles across competing media vehicles

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Abstract

A long-standing debate in marketing is whether advertising works better when targeting a specific consumer segment or adopting a mass-reach approach. While the majority of past academic work has shown support for the latter, the changing media landscape has reignited concerns as to whether a mass-reach approach remains effective in a world with fragmented and proliferated media. This paper investigates whether the claimed core target demographics of Australian television networks and magazines differ to the audience profile of actual viewer/readership. Our findings support the traditional reach-based approach to media selection. We find that audience profiles do not markedly differ between competing media vehicles, such as different TV shows or magazine titles. As such, we recommend that marketers continue to focus on achieving optimum reach and do not get distracted by non-existent vehicle 'niches'.

Keywords: audience profiles, television, magazines, reach

Track: Marketing Communications

Introduction

A common belief among marketing practitioners is that different brands appeal to different groups of people, or consumer targets (Canning 2015). This underlying belief has implications on the media decisions within which advertising is placed. For example, should advertisers of a gardening brand place their TV advertisements in Better Homes and Gardens, an Australian lifestyle program that appears to align with their segment of interest? Or, should advertisers choose a larger program, like the soap-opera Home and Away, which is perceived as less aligned with the segment of interest but wider reaching? A number of studies provide support for the latter. Such studies find that focusing on a narrow segment limits the growth of a brand (Romaniuk et al. 2014; Wright and Esslemont 1994). This suggests that reaching a larger group of category buyers is a more effective strategy for brand growth than targeting narrow segments. As 'reach' is the measure of the audience size exposed to the media and hence advertising (Kamin 1978), it should be a fundamental consideration in media buying decisions. In support of this viewpoint, prior research indicates that bigger television channels have more viewers who watch for longer periods of time (Sharp et al. 2009). On the contrary, small channels do not have particularly loyal viewers, are not more well liked and do not have a niche – they are simply small (Barwise and Ehrenberg 1988; Sharp et al. 2009). More importantly, it has been shown that audience profiles of programs vary much less than expected (Barwise and Ehrenberg 1988; Collins et al. 2003; Sharp et al. 2009). This suggests that the audience profile of a program/channel like Better Homes and Gardens is most likely no different to that of a program/channel like Home and Away.

However, the Australian television landscape has experienced fundamental changes in recent years. The fragmentation of audiences across several channels, coupled with the proliferation of media platforms, create new challenges and opportunities for marketers. In 2008, television in Australia consisted only of five free-to-air networks (7, 9, Ten, ABC and SBS). Statistics from 2009 indicated that 84% of households were viewers of free-to-air TV and 65% of this viewing was distributed between the three major commercial stations: 7, 9 and Ten (FreeTV 2010). During that time, viewers had few channels to choose from and television was considered very much a mass-marketing medium. However, the introduction of 'digital TV' has seen the number of free-to-air channels increase substantially and with additional channels comes additional programs within which advertising can be placed.

Such changes in the media landscape, combined with differing opinions on if a mass-reach strategy is still effective, necessitate a re-examination of whether the findings still hold today, and how previous findings are translated into other media. This paper will compare and contrast viewer profile differences between the claimed core target demographics of television networks and magazines with the actual viewer and readership. The study analyses 14 different television programs across five television stations in Australia and 10 different magazines. The age and gender of the viewers and readers are studied to find any variation, as well as the total size of the audience across the programs and magazines (in 2012). Through this analysis, this paper attempts to find the value of high reaching programs and magazines when attempting to reach a specific consumer segment. In the following section, we present the key research in the area and highlight the overarching research question of this paper.

Background

Whilst there is a tendency in the industry to focus on specific target segments, various research supports advertising to the mass category buyers in order to grow the brand (Jones 1992; Sharp 2010; Taylor et al. 2008). Ephron (1998) argues that targeting is overvalued by media professionals. His writing supports maximising reach rather than focusing on targeting as brands can often reach more people by minimising targeting (Ephron 1998). Furthermore, focusing on specific consumer segments only limits potential growth for the brand itself (Wright and Esslemont 1994). In order to reach a vast population fast, television advertising is often included as part of a marketing strategy, as Australians spend an average of almost three hours per day watching television (Screen Australia 2016). According to Sharp, Beal and Collins (2009), television viewing behaviour is largely similar across age groups within the boundary of daily activities, such as children watching less television due to earlier sleeping time and young people watching less than older people before the rise of social media. Even those who are light television viewers can still be reached by high rating programs – as they take a much larger slice of light viewers than lower rating programs (Sharp et al. 2009). This is one of the key reasons why advertising in higher-rating programs is advisable in order to reach the mass market (Sharp et al. 2009).

Over the past thirty years, television has undergone a significant transformation and become more fragmented (Tanusondjaja 2012). Although a number of new channels have been introduced, the total hours of television viewed has not seen significant change (Barwise and Ehrenberg 1988; Sissors and Baron 2010). As the result of the proliferation of channels and audience fragmentation, smaller television channels position themselves as the key media in specific demographic segments. Gem, a smaller Australian channel, claims to target women over 35 and grocery buyers with children (Nine TV Access 2016). Although television marketers, such as those at Gem may like us to think otherwise, small channels are not niche, they are merely small (Sharp et al. 2009). Furthermore, according to Barwise and Ehrenberg (1988) these low rating programs are liked less by their viewers.

Despite these findings, marketers will still often choose to advertise on smaller channels as they believe this targeted approach will be the most successful in reaching their desired consumer group. In the case of Gem, a marketer targeting women over 35 may believe that this channel allows them to reach more women in this age group than a larger competing channel. High rating channels are often seen as being too mainstream and not tightly targeted, causing marketers to believe that they will be unable to effectively reach their target viewers. However, those viewers who watch small channels are more likely to also watch bigger channels (Ehrenberg and Goodhardt 1969). Therefore, even though more expensive in absolute amount, larger channels also allow marketers to reach viewers of both large and small channels. The practice of narrow targeting is also pervasive in magazines. Since the rise of television, magazines have often been seen as a 'support' medium to television or as a medium for niche brands sold to highly targeted audiences (White 2002). Prior research has found that specific magazines may be more appealing to either men or women, but like television the demographic make-up of audiences within competing sub-categories differs very little (Nelson-Field 2009).

This paper revisits the question whether small 'niche' television programs and magazines really attract a larger portion of the claimed demographic segment, and whether the absolute size of such segments – either in viewership or readership – warrants advertisers selecting them rather than more mainstream programs or magazines.

Method

The paper analyses the 2012 media consumption data sourced from Roy Morgan Research. The data is collected through 50,000 annual face-to-face interviews across Australia. These participants are asked about their lifestyle, attitudes, media consumption habits, purchase intentions and leisure activities (Roy Morgan).

The data is accessed through a proprietary program called Asteroid, a data analysis software which allows researchers to explore and maximise the use of their data (Roy Morgan). Once the data was extracted, a diverse range of television program viewerships were examined in comparison to the age and gender of the viewer. A diverse range of magazines readerships were also examined in comparison to the age and gender of the readers. The programs and magazines selected were chosen randomly to reflect low and high viewership / readership numbers.

The data from both mediums was analysed through the use of mean absolute deviation (MAD) analysis with the dependent variable being the number of viewers reached. The MAD of the data is the average of the deviations from a central point, in this case the mean. The MADs allow us to determine the degree to which variables differentiate from the norm. In this case, it allows us to determine which, if any magazines or television programs have significantly differing audience profiles from the norm. This study analysed 14 television programs and 10 magazine publications.

Results

Table 1 – Distribution of Age and Gender across TV Viewers

Programs	Age %						Gender %		Total Viewers ('000)
	14-17	18-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65+	M	F	
9: The Voice Australia	4	9	17	30	25	15	47	53	1744
7: Downton Abbey	4	7	11	20	29	29	37	63	1701
7: Home and Away	6	10	17	24	23	20	37	63	1518
9: Underbelly	6	8	16	29	25	16	52	48	977
7: Criminal Minds	5	8	11	24	29	22	42	58	907
9: Big Bang Theory	5	11	18	30	22	14	49	51	676
7: How I Met Your Mother	4	10	16	28	26	16	41	59	623
10: Jamie's 30 Minute Meals	6	12	19	25	23	15	45	55	454
10: Glee	12	16	18	24	20	10	41	59	432
7: Better Homes and Gardens	5	11	18	20	24	24	48	52	285
11: Star Trek: Next Generation	4	10	19	34	24	10	59	41	199
GEM: Friends	13	18	28	19	15	7	45	55	123
9: Ellen DeGeneres Show	5	14	22	24	18	17	39	61	94
9: Days of Our Lives	3	8	11	23	26	29	26	74	93
Average	6	11	17	25	23	18	43	57	

The results for television viewership in **Table 1** identifies that the total reach of competing television programs varies greatly. Popular programs such as *The Voice Australia* or *Downtown Abbey* were watched by around 1.7 million viewers on average, whereas smaller programs such as *Days of Our Lives* were watched by considerably smaller pool of viewers. From the data it can be seen that television reaches more women than men, and the 35 to 64 year age group makes up the majority of television's reach.

Table 2 – Distribution of Age and Gender across Magazine Readers

Magazines	Age %						Gender %		Total Readers ('000)
	14-17	18-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65+	M	F	
Women's Weekly	4	7	14	25	28	23	18	82	1873
Women's Health	8	15	30	26	14	7	15	85	447
Vouge Australia	13	26	22	17	14	9	19	81	340
Dolly	47	22	10	13	6	1	9	91	299
Zoo Weekly	4	36	33	19	6	1	78	22	279
Rolling Stone	14	25	22	24	13	2	64	36	261
Fishing World	12	9	15	28	24	12	81	19	206
Game Informer	27	37	23	10	2	0	84	16	194
Jetstar	4	13	27	27	22	6	50	50	187
Bride To Be	4	28	38	15	10	6	16	84	73
Average	14	22	23	20	14	7	43	57	

Table 2 identifies that total reach varies greatly across competing magazines. Large magazines such as *Women's Weekly* attracted 1.8 millions of readers on average, whereas *Jetstar* or *Bride To Be* were read by considerably fewer readers. It can also be seen that the 35 to 64 age group makes up the majority of magazines viewership for the magazines selected for the study.

Table 3 – Mean Absolute Deviations of the Viewer Profiles

Programs	14-17	18-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65+	Gender
9: The Voice Australia	1.6	2.0	0.0	5.0*	1.1	2.6	3.3
7: Downton Abbey	2.2	3.4	5.9*	5.1*	5.4*	11.2*	6.6*
7: Home and Away	0.3	0.3	0.0	1.4	0.7	2.7	6.2*
9: Underbelly	0.1	2.8	1.3	4.0	1.7	1.5	8.8*
7: Criminal Minds	0.8	2.6	6.1*	1.4	6.0*	4.8	1.5
9: Big Bang Theory	0.5	0.2	0.7	4.8	1.3	3.4	5.8*
7: How I Met Your Mother	1.7	1.0	1.2	2.5	2.6	1.2	2.6
10: Jamie's 30 Minute Meals	0.1	1.4	1.7	0.1	0.7	2.6	1.6
10: Glee	6.4*	4.8	1.2	1.6	3.7	7.1*	2.6
7: Better Homes and Gardens	1.3	0.2	0.5	5.2*	0.2	6.0*	4.7
11: Star Trek: Next Generation	2.3	1.2	1.6	9.0*	0.3	7.5*	15.5*
GEM: Friends	7.3*	7.3*	10.8*	6.5*	8.6*	10.2*	1.4
9: Ellen DeGeneres Show	0.5	3.2	4.4	1.7	5.1*	0.4	4.0
9: Days of Our Lives	2.6	3.1	6.2*	2.5	2.7	11.8*	17.5*
Individual MAD	2.0	2.4	3.0	3.6	2.9	5.2*	5.9*
MAD	3.2						

Note: **Individual deviations of 5+ are marked with an asterisk.**

Table 3 identifies that few variations in the audience profiles of the television programs studied are found, with the average size of the deviation being 3.2 – recording that user profiles of these programs do not differ substantially, although there is a more marked gender difference across the programs.

Table 4 – Mean Absolute Deviations of the Reader Profiles

Magazine	14-17	18-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65+	Gender
Women's Weekly	10.2*	14.9*	9.7*	4.3	13.8*	16.8*	25.4*
Women's Health	5.8*	6.7*	6.7*	5.5*	0.4	0.1	28.3*
Vouge Australia	1.1	4.0	1.3	3.1	0.4	1.8	24.1*
Dolly	33.7*	0.5	13.6*	7.0*	8.2*	5.4*	34.8*
Zoo Weekly	9.5*	14.3*	9.7*	1.8	7.5*	5.3*	34.7*
Rolling Stone	0.4	3.0	1.2	3.2	0.6	4.8	20.1*
Fishing World	1.6	13.1*	8.3*	7.7*	9.9*	5.4*	37.6*
Game Informer	13.7*	15.4*	0.0	10.6*	11.8*	6.7*	40.5*
Jetstar	10.0*	8.5*	3.4	6.9*	8.6*	0.3	6.8*
Bride To Be	9.6*	5.9*	14.2*	5.1*	4.2	1.2	27.1*
Individual MAD	9.6*	8.6*	6.8*	5.5*	6.5*	4.8	27.9*
MAD	7.0						

Note: **Individual deviations of 5+ are marked with an asterisk.**

Table 4 identifies that the audience profiles of competing magazines are not significantly different. The results record that small variations in the reader profiles are common amongst the magazines analysed, due to the differences in the nature of the magazines - the average size of MADs is 7.0. Similarly, due to the different natures of the magazine, there is a strong difference across the gender profiles of the magazine readers with the MAD of 27.9.

As the MADs are typically small, these results show that the consumer profiles of competing brands do not differ greatly, especially in the case of television viewers. In the case of magazine readers, although many deviations can be seen, the general pattern across each magazine is similar. In the case of television viewers, few deviations occurred indicating that consumer profiles do not differ across competing programs. Though consumer profiles do not differ greatly, readership and viewership does. Therefore, what should matter to marketers is not the type of program or magazine, but the number of viewers or readers being reached by the media. Naturally, it is also advisable for the advertisers to take into account the nature of the magazines or television programs, for example – it may be a better investment to advertise a tractor on a gardening show or a magazine with high rural readership, than a mainstream soap opera. These findings replicate and support the findings of previous authors such as Barwise and Ehrenberg (1988), Ephron (1998) and Sharp, Beal and Collins (2009).

Conclusions, Implications, Limitations and Future Research

Reach is vital to successful advertising and varies greatly across competing television programs and magazines. The greater the advertising reach, the greater the number of people being reached by the advertising message. It is important to reach the maximum amount of consumers, as brands grow through increased number of buyers in the market, through greater availability and awareness of the brands (Sharp 2010). However, many magazines and television channels paint the picture that advertisers must advertise in specific programs or magazines in order to reach specific types of buyers. Despite the claims that these smaller television programs or magazines can deliver specific demographic segments, this study found that consumer profiles do not differ significantly between the competing media vehicles analysed. For marketers, this is great news. It means that more focus can be put into finding the optimum reach for them and less focus on finding a non-existent 'niche'. However, this study only analysed two different media types – television and magazines in Australia. This allows the opportunity for future research to continue for other media vehicles such as radio, newspapers and online sources, or research within other countries. This study also only takes into account the age and gender of the consumers. Further research could include other demographic variables that are often used to segment the market, these include education levels, geographic location or family structure.

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Price promotion and advertising interaction effects: the current evidence and an agenda for future research

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Abstract

Price promotions and advertising constitute the vast majority of consumer goods manufacturers' marketing budgets. Numerous authors have proposed that there may be large interaction effects between price promotions and advertising that coordinating the two activities could leverage (e.g., Belch and Belch 2003; Jones 1995; Neslin et al. 1995). That is, where the combined sales from conducting price promotions and advertising simultaneously is greater than (positive interaction effects), or less than (negative interaction effect), when conducting them in separate periods. The limited research to date on this topic clearly indicates that such sizeable interaction effects can occur. However, there is a gap in the knowledge regarding when these interaction effects are likely to occur or when they will be positive or negative. This paper outlines prior research in this area, and provides an agenda for future research to determine how price promotion and advertising interaction effects vary across conditions.

Keywords: Price Promotions, Advertising, Interaction Effects

Track: Marketing Communications

Implications for Corporate Sponsors Arising from Scandals in Sport. The Case of Adidas and FIFA.

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Abstract
This working paper assesses how sponsorship managers should evaluate sponsored-entity related scandals. To achieve this, a content analysis of secondary sources is conducted, which evaluates how scandals affect corporate sponsors and analyses different factors that have to be considered before deciding on whether to terminate a sponsorship or not. The recent scandals involving FIFA is used as the case study for this paper. We consider the effect of the scandal on one of FIFA's main sponsors; Adidas. Our research suggests that assessing scandals from a purely ethical perspective is not feasible and a holistic approach should be employed. Research indicates that Adidas did not suffer any negative implications from the FIFA scandal and that a termination of the sponsorship would have been the wrong decision. It suggests that many factors, such as the potential to overcome a scandal unharmed, potentially negative effects from exiting a sponsorship and especially the separation between organisation.

Key words: corporate reputation, sponsorship, scandal, ethical issues

Track: Marketing Communications.

Introduction

In recent years sport has been affected by many different scandals, such as athletes behaving unethically, even organization-wide doping and political conflicts as seen during the Sochi 2014 Winter Olympics. Despite this development, connecting these scandals to sponsorship implications is critically underdeveloped in academic literature. Most of the existing research merely develops insights on the effects on a sport if a scandal occurs (e.g. Blumrodt and Kitchen, 2015), but how sponsors should behave is hardly discussed.

In order to explore sponsors' behaviour in scandal cases, we investigate the so-called FIFA (Fédération Internationale de Football Association). In May 2015 this FIFA scandal hit the news, when the US Department of Justice indicted several top executives for alleged widespread, systemic, and deep-rooted corruption. The scandal climaxed in the prosecution of FIFA president Joseph Blatter (BBC, 2015).FIFA's main event, the Soccer World Cup, gains billions of dollars in sponsorship revenues from corporate sponsors (Smith and Stweart, 2015).

Corporate reputation

Since an enhanced corporate reputation (CR) is one goal of sponsorship, it is important to further understand this concept. Current academic literature exemplifies the growing importance of a positive CR (Schwaiger et al 2010) in order for companies to be successful. However, the construct itself is considered to be quite complex (Barney, 1986) and therefore hard to characterize and measure. Due to this complexity, no universal definition of CR exists, but one that is widely accepted is given by Fombrun (1996, p.72), who defines CR as a "perceptual representation of a company's past actions and future prospects that describes the firms overall appeal to all of its key constituents when compared with other leading rivals".

Corporate governance in sport

There are certain difficulties connected to sport governance. For one, CG in sport seems to be more complex than in other industries (Ferkins and Shilbury, 2015) and there is currently no general set of corporate governance (CG) guidelines for sport organizations. Due to unique differences between sporting and other corporations, it is difficult to apply other guidelines (Licht et al, 2007). Although profitability becomes more important, the success of the sport and other factors are equally crucial, creating a more complex issue than pure profit maximization (Kesenne, 2006). Additionally, sporting organizations in itself are very diverse (Smith and Stewart, 2010) which makes it very hard to develop general guidelines. Furthermore, most organizations tend to be self-governed, with little to no accountability to anyone (Pielke, 2013). Lastly, almost all international sporting organizations are monopolies in their field which influences possible governance immensely (Neale, 1964), yet increasing its overall importance.

Another important influencing factor for sport governance is that sport can be considered a public good (Breitbarth et al., 2015) with very high societal expectations and values, which can easily be undermined by faulty behaviour such as corruption (Schenk, 2011).

FIFA and accountability issues

Table one provides an assessment of the approach of FIFA to accountability.

Table 1: Accountability Measures within FIFA

Accountability	Explanation	Within FIFA
Hierarchical	The power that superiors have over subordinates within an organization.	NONE The president is only accountable to the FIFA-Congress, which he leads
Supervisory	Relationships between organizations. E.g. does someone else need to approve decisions?	NONE Member association without any power
Fiscal	Is there any control over funding?	LITTLE Little transparency in FIFA's finances
Legal	International bodies must abide by the laws of relevant jurisdictions	Opportunity for accountability. FIFA has to abide to Swiss Laws.
Market	Power that can be exercised by investors or consumers through market mechanisms	Sponsors could influence FIFA a main investors
Peer	How do peer institutions evaluate the institution?	NONE Only direct peer IOC; No accountability to them or any other NGO.
Public reputational	Reputation of an organization among superiors, supervisory boards, courts, fiscal watchdogs, markets and peers; related to each of the accountability forms listed above.	NONE essentially no accountability to its public People care about the Game, not FIFA no widespread call for reforms

Source: Table based on Pielke (2013).

We based this analysis on a framework developed by Grant and Keohane (2005) that created a framework that introduces seven mechanisms, which can be employed to ensure accountability. The analysis shows that FIFA adopted only two of these criteria.

Methodology

Due to the sensitive nature of this topic, a lack of access to relevant personnel and (even if access was acquired) the likelihood that data captured from interviews and / or questionnaires would be highly suspect in terms of bias, it was decided to base the research on a systemic analysis of secondary data. We focused on three main areas: Adidas's stock price over the period of the scandal, share of sentiment, captured through monitoring social media platforms and the general sales patterns of Adidas throughout the period of the scandal.

We considered three research questions.

RQ1: How did Adidas react to the FIFA scandal?
RQ2: Which implications did the scandal have for Adidas?
RQ3: What factors need to be considered by sponsorship managers before deciding whether to terminate a sponsorship due to a scandal?

The main players in the study

FIFA is the non-governmental, non-profit organization which, since 1904, is responsible for the governance of global soccer (Pielke, 2013). Between 2011 and 2014 FIFA's revenues have

been estimated around US$ 5.7 billion, with its main income being sponsorships (U$S 1.6 billion) (Pylas, 2015). Within FIFA's system the highest form of sponsorship is the so-called FIFA-Partner, who is allowed to use all FIFA events for marketing purposes. It is estimated that each FIFA-Partner currently pays around US$ 100 million for a four-year cycle (Deutsche Welle, 2013). The six current FIFA-Partners are Adidas, Coca-Cola, Gazprom, Hyundai/KIA, Visa and the Chinese Wanda Group, which just signed its contract in March 2016.

Adidas is a German sportswear company founded as a shoe manufacturer by Adolf Dassler in Herzogenaurach, Bavaria in 1940 (Adidas, 2016a), where it is still headquartered. Today, the Adidas AG develops, designs and markets athletic products, with brands such as Adidas, Reebok, and Rockport (Forbes, 2016). It is the largest sportswear manufacturer in Europe and second largest in the world, employing around 55.500 people.

Findings and discussion
We consider three areas when assessing the position of Adidas throughout the period of the scandal. Its stock price, its sales patterns and its share of sentiment on social media.

Stock price: the stock price analysis shows that ultimately investors were not affected by the FIFA scandal as much as it might have been anticipated on the first day. The development throughout the rest of 2015 and beginning of 2016 seems uncorrelated to anything happening in relation to FIFA and shows that investors were neither overly concerned by the scandal, nor positively influenced by the new elections. Thus, from an investor's perspective, the scandal did not affect Adidas. Nonetheless, not only Adidas grew since the scandal. Analysing Adidas' strongest competitor Nike shows that Nike's share price developed equally well during this time. The graph in appendix 6 exemplifies a continuous growth during the second half of 2015 and the beginning of 2016. Although this indicates a positive development of the whole sporting goods industry, Adidas' development has still been stronger than Nike's. While Nike's stock price increased around 20% from May 2015 until March 2016 Adidas' grew almost 60%.

Sales patterns: Adidas' sales did not suffer due to the scandal until the end of this study. Quite the opposite: they skyrocketed the second half of the year, which clearly indicates that the consumer continues to buy the product, despite the FIFA scandal. Additionally, soccer goods sales tend to heavily increase during World Cups, as seen during Brazil 2014 when Adidas generated US$ 2.7 billion in additional soccer goods sales (Valinsky, 2015). Hence, the sales data as well as the stock price development indicate that from a commercial results perspective, Adidas made the right decision by not terminating the sponsorship.

Share of sentiment: Table 2 captures some interesting data on this aspect.

Table 2: Sponsors' Rise in Negative Sentiment during the Scandal

Brand	Negative sentiment on May 26	Negative sentiment on May 27	Increase (in %)
Adidas	1	326	32500
Coca-Cola	2	195	9650
Hyundai	1	167	16600
Visa	1	271	27000
Nike (no official sponsor)	4	952	23700
FIFA	**280**	**589**	**110**

Note: The numbers indicate the amount of negative posts in relation to FIFA only. Negative posts about a sponsor are not accounted for if they are not related to FIFA.

Source: Table adapted from McEleny (2015).

Although Adidas' negative sentiment increased drastically, the overall chatter during the scandal was just 44% negative, with 56% still being neutral or even positive (Hobbs, 2015b), which can be accounted to Adidas' better reputation beforehand.

Conclusions

Considering the growing importance of socially responsible behaviour and the deep ethical flaws within the FIFA-system, one might conclude, that from a moral standpoint no sponsor should still support FIFA, especially after the corruption scandal surfaced in 2015. Despite this assumption, the answer to research question one is that Adidas reacted in a neutral, almost reserved way throughout the scandal, never threatening consequences. However, the analysis in this paper indicates that Adidas' behaviour was correct.

Adidas did not appear to incur any negative commercial impacts. Sales as well as stock price development remained strong after the scandal surfaced and reputational impacts were only minor. Therefore, the reputational as well as commercial advantages the sponsorship has during World Cups easily supersede those minor disruptions the FIFA scandal caused, underlining Adidas' correct behaviour from a business point of view. The decision on whether to terminate a sponsorship or not is a multi-layered process with many aspects to consider before reaching a decision. If it is the sponsorship's objective to maximize firm value, deciding solely based on moral principles does not appear to be the most appropriate course of action. Although consumers seem to be critical about unethical practices, it does not yet influence their buying behaviour. This does not mean that a sponsor should not be critical about its sponsorship partners; however, being critical should not necessarily lead to a sponsorship termination. Through sponsoring FIFA, Adidas sponsors the world's most loved soccer event, with soccer being the biggest sports culture globally. Soccer (and the World Cup) is just too big to fail, even if the organization behind it is immensely flawed, again justifying Adidas' behaviour. Furthermore, this research points out that all additional factors worth consideration, such as the possibility of competitors filling the sponsorship-gap, the long duration of the sponsorship, and the high fit between Adidas being a sporting good provider and soccer were in favour of Adidas continuing the partnership. This indicates that business related considerations surpass the importance of ethical considerations, underlining the importance for Adidas to continue its sponsorship with FIFA.

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The value of advertising in different media platforms. How simple metrics can provide valuable insights.

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Abstract

Billions of dollars are spent each year buying media time and space for advertising. For media planners, allocating budgets between different media in a way that generates the greatest returns is a common challenge. Many media metrics are not directly comparable, inconsistently defined, or not convincingly linked with in-market brand performance. This paper advocates one simple metric that is evidence-based, transferable across platforms, and reliably linked with brand growth: platform Reach. The authors draw on empirical evidence about brand growth and advertising response to argue the importance of platform Reach as core to media value. We then adopt platform Cost-Per-Thousand (CPT) as the media marketplace's own relative estimate of platform value. Across five countries and five traditional media platforms, we find that higher reaching platforms are generally associated with lower CPT. It appears that the market's own evaluation of media platforms is driven by factors other than platform Reach.

Keywords: media, value, reach, cost-per-thousand, advertising

Track: Marketing Communications

Gender differences in touch: An initial verbal cognition study

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Abstract

Prior research has established differences between men and women in terms of verbal cognition. The current research supports this notion; however, these differences only emerge under certain conditions. Through an initial experimental study it was demonstrated that reading comprehension ability was directly affected by the sense of touch of female participants. Specifically, females scored significantly higher on comprehension ability when they could interact with the reading comprehension task haptically. This work yields an initial theoretical contribution and suggests managerial implications. The initial finding provides scope for future research into marketing communications, particularly advertising message medium.

Keywords: Haptic, Touch, Verbal Cognition, Reading, Gender

Track: Marketing Communications

Testing the Validity of the Phillips and McQuarrie (2004) Typology of Visual Rhetoric: Some Preliminary Findings
<mark>*** Best Paper of Track ***</mark>

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Abstract

In her seminal work on the theory of visual rhetoric, Scott (1994) argues that images in advertising are a sophisticated form of visual rhetoric or a rich symbolic system that can be used for the purpose of persuasion. To answer the call made by Scott (1994) for more theoretical inquiries into advertising images, Phillips and McQuarrie (2004) developed a typology of visual rhetoric in advertising based on visual metaphors. To the best of our knowledge, their typology has not yet been comprehensively tested. The present study attempts to help fill this research gap by conducting an empirical test of the Phillips and McQuarrie's (2004) whole framework in the context of advertising visuals in the skincare product category using Best-Worst Scaling methodology (Louviere et al., 2013). The study results confirm the effects of the two dimensions underlying the framework and suggest the framework can be improved by incorporating relevant individual-difference variables.

Keywords: Visual metaphor, Ad liking, Visual information processing, Best-worst scaling

Track: Marketing Communications

The Influence of Personality Congruence pairs on Brand Purchase Intention: Examining the Role of Engagement on Sponsorship Outcome

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Abstract

Congruence research in the domain of sponsorship has provided mixed results leaving scope for further research. In order to address this void, this paper examines the influence of three personality congruence pairs of importance on fan (consumer) engagement toward both team and brand further hypothesizing that this engagement will be influencing brand purchase intention in the context of sponsorship. The data has been collected from stadium spectators during a professional soccer game (n = 719) in India. Hypotheses are tested using Path analysis. The results indicate that fan-team personality congruence has significant and positive impact on both team engagement and brand engagement; however, findings also indicate counter-intuitive phenomenon further confirming the suspicion of several researchers regarding lack of consistency in outcomes of congruence research. These heterogeneous outcomes have been explained by borrowing theoretical insights from schema theory, meaning transfer, narrative meaning theory, associative network theory.

Keywords: Personality congruence; fan-team engagement; fan-brand engagement; brand purchase intention; sponsorship.

Track: Marketing Communications

When Consumers Accept Ugly Ads: Scanning Intention of QR Codes

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Abstract

QR codes have often been employed in promotional coupon campaigns worldwide. This research addresses whether and how curiosity, visual complexity and perceived fit jointly affect consumers' intention to scan such a code. Based on relevant theories from marketing and psychology, we posit that, while consumers with the high level of curiosity are likely to be more bound to visual complexity, consumers with the low level of curiosity tend to rely more on a good perceived fit, thus overcome the negative effects of visual complexity, forming greater scan intention. To this end, we conduct an experimental study with general consumer sample and find support for our hypotheses. In closing, we discuss theoretical and managerial implications while recognizing important limitations and suggesting future research directions.

Keywords: Curiosity, Perceived fit, QR code, Sale promotions, Visual complexity

Track: Marketing Communications

How many ads did you see today? Exploring conversion from OTS to actual exposure across media types: an expert evaluation.

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Abstract
Given consumers are exposed to some 200 to 3,000 advertisements daily (Warc 2016b), many marketers are likely paying for many advertisements that are not even seen. Marketers face the difficult task of choosing media that maximise the chance of converting the opportunity-to-see (OTS) they paid for to an actual exposure. By conducting interviews with 14 media experts from four different regions, this study investigates how professionals judge the potential of 12 media types to effectively cut-through and deliver advertising to consumers. It explores factors that affect the transition from OTS to exposure, including format and advertising avoidance behaviours. Video based media, including cinema, desktop-video and primetime TV were considered the highest cut through media, whereas static online/mobile display, Facebook, and Twitter were considered the lowest for their ability to convert OTS to exposure.

Keywords: cross media, cut-through, advertising,

Track: Marketing Communications

Experiencing the Brand: How immersive advertising alters consumer attitudes

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Abstract

This research investigates consumer attitudes towards the use of escapist and immersive experiences in the advertising of tangible products. To address this, the work explores the impact of experiential advertising when compared to traditional forms of advertising that promote material products on the basis of attribute features and benefits. This was investigated through research questions looking at consumer attitudes towards the brand, consumer attitudes toward the advertisement, and consumer willingness to digitally share the advertisement. The goal of this research was to fill a gap in the literature around consumer attitudes with the rise of advertising campaigns that use immersive experiences to promote material offerings. 198 respondents undertook an online survey looking at two advertisements for Tui and Volkswagen, randomly assigned to view either an experiential or traditional advertisement. Overall the findings suggest consumers have more favourable attitudes towards the use of immersive experiential advertising for consumable products.

Keywords: experiential advertising, immersive, escapist, experiences, engagement

Track: Marketing Communications

What really makes a "genuine" brand? An exploratory study into how consumers perceive genuine claims in advertising and its effect on consumers purchase intention.

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Abstract

This research aims to provide a conceptual framework to explore how consumers respond to genuinuity claims made by organisations and how it affects perceptions towards the brand. For this study, the dual mediation hypothesis (DMH) model has been adopted in line with previous studies. A self-administered survey will been used while collecting data using panel data and mall intercept to ensure the ecological validity of the study. The study contributes theoretically in its conceptualisation of "genuinuity". It contributes methodologically by using real consumers who are buying from real brands, unlike previous studies which have used student samples. Finally, the study will contribute managerially by providing practitioners, policy makers and firms with new ways to distinguish themselves as genuine amongst the clutter of unsubstantiated claims and to change consumer's perceptions of industries such as banks which are renowned for unsubstantiated claims.

Keywords: Genuine Brands, Brand Genuinuity, Authenticity, Puffery, Advertising Appeals

Track: Marketing Communications

Perceived Effectiveness of Viral Marketing and SMS Marketing – A Case Study on Restaurants in Iran

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Abstract

In this study, Viral Marketing, both intentional and unintentional forms, and SMS Marketing are evaluated and compared in terms of their effectiveness to advertise a new restaurant in Iran. The three criteria, which have been used to evaluate the effectiveness of the two communication approaches are 'quality of content', 'information spreading rate', and 'potentiality of creating a positive brand image'. According to the results, Viral Marketing campaigns are perceived to be significantly more effective by respondents than SMS ones in terms of all the three benchmarks although the intentional form of Viral Marketing is perceived to be even more effective. The results show that the likely reason for such a poor performance might be the advertisers' negligence relating to obtaining consumers' permission before sending SMS advertisements to them.

Keywords: Viral Marketing, Word of Mouth, SMS Marketing, Communication

Track: Marketing Communications

Track 10:   Marketing Education

An Educational Framework for Teaching Design Thinking to Marketing Students

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Abstract
Marketing graduates can gain a competitive edge when entering the job market if they understand and own the skills and literacies of design thinking. A design thinking pproach helps marketers to develop innovative solutions to complex marketing issues. Teaching design thinking to typically rational and linear thinking marketing students in large cohorts can be challenging. This paper outlines a theoretically informed educational framework to teaching marketing students design thinking and develops a course proposal aligned with said framework. It is proposed to align critical thinking processes with design thinking phases through identified educational activities. These activities combine the cognitive processes used in critical thinking with the design thinking phases that aim to solve a business problem by generating an empathetic and innovative solution to meet consumers' needs.

Keywords: Education, Marketing, Design Thinking, Critical Thinking, Argumentation theory

Track: Marketing Education

Myopia About Marketing – Why Gulf Students Dislike Marketing as a Major: The Case of Oman

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Abstract

Marketing is an unpopular choice of major in the Gulf countries, largely because of widely held misperceptions of both what marketing is and what it requires from its practitioners. This paper uses triangulated qualitative data from students, faculty and businesspeople to address this phenomenon and suggest possible reasons for it, as well as suggesting ways to reformat its positioning as a business school offering. Much of the explanation revolves around Oman as an Islamic culture which operationalises the concept of the interdependent self in assessments of one's personal choices in relation to significant others.

Keywords: Oman, Marketing, Education, Islam, Women

Track: Marketing Education

Introduction/Background
The aim of this study is to investigate the factors that influence business student's in their decision to select marketing as their major area of specialisation when studying for an undergraduate business degree in Oman. The study focuses on Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) as the premier higher education institution in the country, which offers places to the top 10 percent of high school graduates across the Sultanate. The objective of the study is to probe students' perceptions of studying marketing as an area of specialisation (as compared to choosing other business specialisations), and to delineate specific pull and push factors for students' selection (or deselection) of marketing. The study will provide the initial framing for studying consumption of marketing education in contexts better suited to the interdependent view of the self, such as those of Islamic cultures. The findings will also provide managerial guidance to the marketing department of the University for promoting the marketing major as a preferred option in studying for a business degree, and has scope for generalisation at least across the Gulf region.

Main Body
The Oman Context
The Sultanate of Oman is a Middle Eastern country located at the tip of the Arabian Peninsula neighbouring Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen. Oman controls the Straits of Hormuz, giving the Sultanate a powerful strategic position in the Gulf region.

The country has been led, since 1970, by Sultan Qaboos bin Said Al Said, who has developed the country at a very rapid rate. A telling example is that prior to 1970 Oman had only three boys' primary schools, with 900 enrolments (Al-Lamki, 2002). An important initial step Sultan Qaboos put in place was to increase educational opportunities for all Omanis, especially girls. Today the country has 29 universities and colleges, a literacy rate of 92% and a gender split in tertiary education of almost 50/50.

Oman is a developing country with its economy primarily centred on hydrocarbon production once oil was discovered in 1964. However, diminishing oil reserves and the volatile oil prices have prompted the government to engage in efforts to diversify the economy towards industries such as tourism, manufacturing and gas-based industries. In particular, the government has focused on growth based on the development of small and medium size enterprise (SME) economic environment, through encouraging entrepreneurship among the local populations, and by introducing various SME programmes aimed at new enterprise support.

A major interest area of the sustainable economy is the integration of the local population in the labour marketplace by providing training, and developing pertinent skillsets (Strolla, 2013). Oman, compared to most developed countries, has a young, growing native population, with over half the population aged under 25. One of the key developmental objectives is generating and encouraging employment opportunities for the native Omani population to ensure long-term sustainable economic growth (Omanisation).

These Omanisation efforts clearly indicate that the government's focus is on reducing the country's reliance on foreign labour (currently 45% of the population of 4.5M people (www.ncsi.gov.om)). This will require continued significant investment in skills and knowledge building among the native population. Particularly in the case of falling oil prices, skill sets involved in marketing are essential to help the economy diversify, and also encourage growth by changing the perceptions and motivations of the local population, perhaps without a great deal of financial backing. As such, marketing knowledge could enable the existing and

newly established SMEs to grow substantially and contribute more significantly to the GDP. Acquiring such skills and knowledge may also provide opportunities to the native workers to successfully compete in the labour market and rebalance the overreliance on foreign workers in the private sector (currently 90% (Times of Oman, 1st June 2016)).

Marketing is taught at many of the universities and colleges in Oman, although it is widely thought to encompass only sales and advertising. Whilst marketing is a well-established discipline internationally, in Oman (and much of the Gulf) it is not well understood. There is very little government, practitioner or academic activity in terms of marketing, few meetings or associations. Oman does not create its own television commercials and the country does not have a single market research company.

Interdependent Self in Oman
Consistent with Islamic teaching in general, and, as a tribal society, Omani's reflect a perception of the 'self' known as 'interdependent' - where 'us' is more important than 'me' – rather than the more widely represented view in the literature of an 'interpersonal' self, common to western societies (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). In terms of the difference between the two self construals, "the main distinction drawn is between a self-contained, individuated, separate, independent self that is defined by clear boundaries from others and a relational, interdependent self with fluid boundaries" (Kagitçibasi 2007:94). The interdependent self, then, emphasises the wider group, whether that group is the in-group, the local community, the nation or all of humanity (Harb and Smith 2008). This conception of the self is particularly relevant for 'collective' societies (Triandis et al. 1990) and those with a social focus (for example, Muslim societies).
 As Arabs, Omanis conform to the acknowledged model that "family lies at the core of society [and] plays a major role in political, economic, social and religious spheres" (McElwee and Al-Riyami, 2003:340). Thus, relationships and reputation are important, and links through family allow access to jobs and services.

In concert with Islamic teaching that women's primary responsibilities in life are as a wife and mother, and men's are as a breadwinner, there can be some barriers to work for women with 'employers feel(ing) that these roles will interfere with women's work productivity' (McElwee and Al Riyami, 2003:340).
With an increase in literacy and education in general in Oman, families are supporting their daughters and this has a positive impact on their employment and education successes.

The enormous social and developmental changes in Oman over the last 45 years have resulted in an adaptation of the model of interdependence in place in the society. Whereas in harsher economic times interdependent cultures may have had many children, emphasizing an economic role for the children, more wealth in these societies and moves to urban areas leads to an evolution to autonomous-related self where children are looked to less for financial support in the present and in the future and more as a psychological support in terms of love, joy and pride (Kagitçibasi, 2002:7). The important point in terms of understanding the relationship in families as interdependent here is that it is not a model that works towards preparing the children for separation and independence, it is a model that nurtures an on-going closeness between parents and children and all family members. "Along with both Islam and the tribe, the family occupies a central place in social and organisational life in Oman. The tribe and the family, are the second top authorities after Islam, in formulating the culture of the country and organisations to a great extent." (Al-Hamdani, Budhwar and Shipton, 2007: 102).

Obviously, these many and expansive changes have meant that not only has the view of the interdependent self changed in the context, but so has the viewpoint with regard to many things between the generations with significant impact being felt by younger Omanis (Aycan, Al-Hamadi, Davis and Budhwar, 2007). In this way, there may still be some restrictions on women borne of tradition, rather than Islamic law or any other kind of censure, that inhibit women in pursuing fields or workplaces they may have an interest in. In practice, the interdependent self has a strong effect on individuals in that extended family decision making is the norm. In the context of higher education, the extended family has a strong influence on the choice of courses and eventual occupations that their relatives consider pursuing.

Islamic Culture in Omani Education

One important difference in Oman compared to other Gulf nations is the majority of its citizens adhere to the Ibadi school of Islam. Ibadism is a minority group having adherents mostly in Oman, but with a scattered presence in Libya, Tunisia and Algeria (Hoffman, 2012). As is consistent with Islamic culture in general, women and men are not encouraged to mix freely, or have relationships outside of marriage (Boulanouar, 2006). In Oman, this is typically reflected in male and female students participating in the same classes but sitting on different sides of a room, for example. Mixed group work is not commonplace.

Women, in Islamic teaching, are encouraged into professions such as teaching and medicine, which are thought to be areas which most successfully utilise their natural abilities. In Islam, equality between women and men is framed differently to non-Muslim environments. Men and women are considered to have complimentary natures – that is that each gender possesses its inherent strengths and weaknesses - leading to a congruence and complementarity in working as a team, such as in a marriage.

Common to Islamic culture is the consideration of modesty (haya') for Muslims - both men and women – and this is illustrated by the dress adopted by Muslims. In Oman, men wear the full length white dish-dasha with either an embroidered hat or turban in professional settings, and women the full length, often black, abaya with a headscarf covering the hair. Modesty in Islamic teaching extends beyond clothing to behaviour, speech, actions and also thought, and due to the interdependent collectivist approach to culture, the maintenance of haya' is very important in all activities (Boulanouar, 2011). Reinforcing this consideration in an Ibadi context is the strong emphasis in this school of Islam on dealings with others (ma'amulat).

Contemporarily, marketing is widely understood from the perspective of self-interest and self-promotion. This represents an individualistic conception of self, one in which the self is independent (rather than interdependent) and, significantly, one in which the self is separated from the social aspect of selfhood (where 'I' end and 'you' begin). However, in Islamic cultures, a shift in focus towards an interdependent view of self is required, in order to appreciate the power of significant others in decision making and also the importance of reputation (both personal and family/community/tribe) being maintained by each individual and individual choice.

Marketing Orientation in Oman

From an economic and market perspective, Oman demonstrates traits of a young and emerging market where young markets tend toward lower degrees of market orientation. Studies on market orientation carried out in other neighboring Gulf countries like Saudi Arabia (Bhuian, 1988) and UAE (Siddique, 2014) suggest lower levels of market orientation in both business and organizational contexts. As the Sultanate of Oman is also part of the Gulf Cooperation

Council (GCC) group of countries, it is reasonable to extrapolate a similar lack of market orientation in businesses operating in this country. Factors such as limited marketing skills and competencies, undifferentiated competition, short term thinking, company-centric business environment and contentment with the status quo are cited as explanatory variables contributing to the lack of market orientation for business (Siddique, 2014).

However, the lack of market orientation does not mean that companies do not practice marketing in these countries (Ellis 2004). Marketing activities are confined towards a narrow context of mainly salesmanship, price promotions, and advertising activities for the business. It would appear that a more in-depth and holistic view of marketing would benefit organisations towards the creation of value.

Method
Overall, our data are triangulated using three separate qualitative data collection methods. Our student data was drawn from current students in a first level marketing course in 2015 that is compulsory for all students in the business school prior to specializing in any major area of study. The major areas in the business school comprise finance, accounting, operations management, statistics, management, marketing, economics and political science. The qualitative data from students were collected initially from a focus group interview with a small group of students, and were followed up subsequently with a larger pool of students through open ended structured questions in the form of reflective statements.

In addition, we interviewed a number of student alumni who are currently serving as marketing faculty, on their perceptions on why they originally chose marketing as a major. Finally, we drew on information from a discussion with the Marketing Department Advisory Board (MAB). The MAB comprises of entrepreneurs and marketing professionals in the business and government sector organisations in the Sultanate.

Findings and Discussion
Findings from Student Reflections
Approximately 10 percent of the respondents indicated that marketing was their first or second choice as a major preference for undergraduate study. Overall, marketing appeared to fall into the 4th to the 6th ranked position for the choice of major study, after finance, accounting and operations management majors, followed by statistics, management and economics.

We asked students to state what factors attracted them to study marketing and to select marketing as an area of study both as a major and a minor. One frequently repeated response was that marketing was about the real life application of business, had a personal relevance to student's buying behaviour, and informed a better understanding of consumer purchasing behaviour. The responses also indicated marketing was a practical, interesting, fun and relatively easy subject to study.

When asked why they would not choose marketing as their major, respondents indicated they were concerned that marketing has limited attractive job opportunities in the market (lower salaries associated with being a sales clerk). The responses also indicated that these students found the course too theoretical, and not as straightforward as calculation-based courses. These respondents also suggested that marketing required a lot of effort in memorizing, and the topics in marketing were complex.

We also asked students if any personal reasons affected their selection of marketing as their major area of study. Female students particularly responded that studying marketing was not viewed positively by their family and community, and this contributed to them not selecting marketing, even if they found it interesting. Many of the respondents (both male and female) indicated that family influence had an effect on their choice of major, and was influential in them not selecting marketing. This was due to a perceived insufficiency of good quality job opportunities (good salaries and enhanced reputation) and/or marketing jobs were perceived as mostly salesperson roles or requiring too much mixed gender interaction. Marketing is also perceived as requiring specific competencies in presenting, speaking and persuasion (ie, selling 'yourself' rather than the product, or encouraging others to buy/want things that they do not need or cannot afford).

Findings from Interviews with Alumni

SQU has a current enrolment of 2350 students across business disciplines (SQU, 2016). However, in the late 1990s, the total number of business graduates in Oman as a whole totalled just 180 students across all business disciplines (Al-Lamki, 2002). Since these very few graduates were virtually guaranteed employment in the past, they enjoyed the freedom to select a major in any area they were interested in. Marketing was perceived as 'different' and 'cool', unhindered by the later cultural misperceptions of reputational threat and misleading others. In the current economic climate, marked by falling oil prices and increased competition, students do not see attractive career opportunities in marketing. Furthermore, there is a widespread perception amongst students as well the community that marketing is simply activities relating to advertising, promotions and sales, and shop-keeping – ie, low status and poorly paid. Female students in particular are not encouraged to work in marketing jobs by their friends or relatives, due to the possibility of tainting the reputation of the student herself and/or her relevant membership groups.

Marketing in Oman is not practiced in its "ideal" form. In general, there is a lack of information amongst students, as well as the community, as to the holistic nature of marketing in organisations. The myopia present in this context relates to the lack of understanding of marketing's potential, power, reach, capacity to transform and innovate, and the myriad ways it can contribute to organisational success. Additionally, the perception is that marketing functions can easily be performed by any graduate simply by learning on the job, so specialising in marketing is simply unnecessary.

Findings from discussion with the Marketing Advisory Board (MAB)

The MAB collective position concurs with the students and alumni that marketing in Oman is perceived erroneously as 'just sales'. They further indicated that marketing students wrongly believe marketers make less money than graduates of other majors.

The insights from the MAB discussion show that these practitioners have a much more realistic view of marketing. Further, they expressed their interest in changing the acknowledged community-wide misperceptions. It was pointed out that marketing's application goes beyond the private sector, and there is demand for quality marketing graduates in the government departments too.

Conclusion

In a culture of interdependence with Islam as a framework, marketing is seen to have overlapping negative impacts according to the local understanding of marketing as primarily about (simply) sales. This involves marketing being perceived as (potentially) misleading people, along with marketing's other possible attribute – promotion – which shares that charge, in addition to encouraging people to consume excessively. Further, marketing, particularly as sales and promotion, is seen as a challenge to the haya' of both male and female students – a selling of the self - which also impacts the interpersonal profile which is the personal, family, tribal and national reputation of Omanis as citizens, Arabs and Muslims. These problems will continue to persist until students themselves and also the wider Omani (Gulf) community understand the real scope of marketing and what it can really do. This represents an opportunity for policymakers and marketing educators as it is fertile ground for teaching marketing critically, as well as in its forms beyond just profit maximization - as, for example, social marketing, green marketing, sustainable marketing.

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Reflection on the first run of a strategic marketing course in a 'flipped classroom'

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Abstract

Delivering a final year strategic marketing course in a 'flipped classroom' mode is challenging. This pedagogical approach was adopted as it fosters student's ownership of learning and facilitates group interaction. This paper reflects on the first run of the course from the perspectives of both the lecture-in-charge (LIC) and the students. Further, factors impacting student outcomes such as learning autonomy are explored. From the LIC's perspective, despite the greater level of preparation and in-class management, the 'flipped classroom' was perceived to be beneficial in supporting the broad aims of the course. However, student reaction was mixed; for some it was too great a change, whilst others welcomed the freedom, uncertainty and opportunity to learn within a close group. On balance, this initial experience of the 'flipped' approach was positive – though more is needed to build teacher acumen and to fully understand the nuances influencing student learning in the 'flipped' space.

Keywords: strategic marketing, 'flipped classroom', learner autonomy

Track: Marketing Education

Reflective Thinking & Transformative Learning: An Examination of the Undergraduate Journey

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Abstract

Employers, authors and universities all advocate for students to be critical and autonomous thinkers. These goals are aligned with transformative learning, a process whereby the student experiences a fundamental shift in how they view the world. Research in this area has tended to focus on the final year or postgraduate context. This study considers students at multiple years of an undergraduate marketing programme and enquires as to whether higher levels of reflective thinking, and thereby indication of transformative learning, is associated with higher years of study. Results indicate some evidence of reflection and intensive reflection in all years of study, with some change between entry-year and final-year. Stronger support is indicated for movement away from the more habitual levels of non-reflective thinking. Students who exhibited higher levels of reflection tended to note the value of using "real" authentic examples in their learning.

Keywords: Transformative Learning, Reflective Thinking, Autonomous Thinking

Track: Marketing & Education

Introduction

Industry and academia agree that students of marketing need to both understand the theory, and possess the knowledge and skills to apply theory effectively in real and often challenging situations; they need skills in problem framing and problem solving, developing multiple solutions, analyzing and interpreting information; they need to be critical thinkers (Diamond, Koernig, & Iqbal, 2008; Finch, Nadeau, & O'Reilly, 2013; Walker, Tsarenko, Wagstaff, Powell, Steel, & Brace-Govan, 2009). An ability at the core of these skills is autonomous thinking - the ability to think for oneself, and make our own interpretations of situations and issues (Mezirow, 1997). Autonomous thinking, Mezirow (1997) argues, is the "cardinal goal of adult education" (p.5), and transformative learning is crucial in developing this skill. Transformative learning is a process whereby the student undergoes a fundamental shift in how they see the world (Mezirow, 1997; Taylor, 2008). It is not about acquiring specific skills, but about a change in the individual's frames of reference. A crucial element of the transformative learning process, as well as the resulting frame, is the extent to which students engage in reflective thinking, especially the higher level of reflective thinking, intensive reflection (sometimes referred to as critical reflection) (Kember, Leung, Jones, Loke, McKay, Sinclair, Tse, Webb, Yuet Wong, & Wong, 2000). Thus, transformative learning is enabled by intensive reflection, and the presence of intensive reflection suggests a level of transformative learning.

Some study of reflective thinking has been undertaken in marketing education, with researchers finding evidence of higher-level reflective thinking (aligning with transformative learning) in final "capstone" courses and with MBA students (Peltier, Hay, & Drago, 2005, 2006). However, there has been little investigation into the extent to which transformative learning and intensive reflection may occur in other levels of an undergraduate marketing programme. The purpose of this study is to investigate the extent to which transformative learning may be experienced by marketing undergraduates from first year through to final year, measured via reflective thinking, and to conduct initial exploration into learning activities which may encourage transformative learning.

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses Development

Transformative learning is facilitated in environments which emphasise and encourage discourse, where students feel they have the ability and opportunity to be critically reflective, make judgements and have a free open discussion (Adamson & Bailie, 2012; Mezirow, 1997; Taylor, 2008). In Kember et al.'s (2000) continuum of reflective thinking, elaborated on in marketing education study (Peltier et al., 2006) (Figure 1), intensive reflection is the highest level, encapsulating not just the critique of ideas, but thinking which challenges the "presuppositions in prior learning … [it] addresses the question of the justification for the very premises on which problems are posed or defined in the first place" (Mezirow, 1990, p. 18). The result of this reflection on an individual's own assumptions and experiences, is a frame of reference which is more critical and more reflective, anticipated to provide the graduate with greater abilities to address issues and solve problems. The next level down in the continuum is reflection, where the student integrates their understanding into critique and consideration, actively engaging in and questioning their assumptions (Kember et al., 2000; Peltier et al., 2006). Understanding is described as more "thoughtful action" where a student would understand the concept, but not necessarily reflect on it or apply it to situations external to the teaching (Kember et al., 2000). Basic understanding is suggested by Peltier et al. (2006) as

Figure 1: Levels of Reflective Thinking
(adapted from Kember et al., 2000 and Peltier et al., 2006)
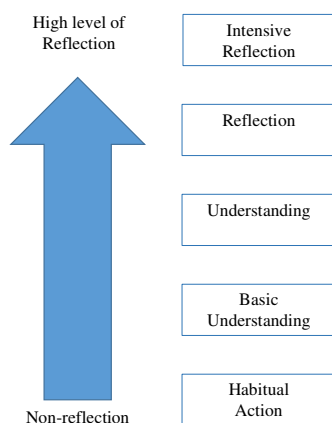
having "superficial" understanding (Peltier et al., 2006, p. 7). Habitual action is the lowest level, where the student has repeated the activity so many times that they now act in an automatic manner with little thought or active thinking involved (Kember et al., 2000; Peltier et al., 2006).

Students in later years of study or postgraduate programs tend to exhibit higher levels of reflective thinking (Kember et al., 2000), and not surprisingly, interest has been focused on final year or MBA students (Peltier et al., 2005, 2006). However, it does not seem impossible that even in their early years of study students may feel their thinking is aligned with higher levels of reflective thinking. Thus, the first question posed in this research is:

Do undergraduate marketing students exhibit high level reflective thinking (i.e. intensive reflection and reflection) at all levels of undergraduate study?

It is expected, that as a student progresses in their university study, the more opportunity they would have of experiencing transformative learning. Therefore higher levels of study are anticipated to be related to higher levels of reflective thinking. The following hypotheses are therefore made:

H1: Marketing students in higher years of undergraduate study will exhibit higher levels of reflective thinking (i.e. intensive reflection, reflection), compared with students in earlier years of study.

H2: Marketing students in higher years of undergraduate study will exhibit lower levels of basic understanding and habitual action, compared with students in earlier years of study.

In addition to these hypotheses, this research also set out to conduct an initial exploration into learning activities which may encourage transformative learning at various year levels.

Methodology

A self-administered online survey (via QualtricsTM) of undergraduate students studying marketing at a New Zealand university was conducted at the beginning of the University year, 2016. Respondents were asked to reflect on their previous year of study in answering the questions. Scales to measure the levels of reflective thinking were drawn from Kember et al. (2000) and Peltier et al. (2006). As well as demographics, the survey captured the courses which the students had previously completed. The courses served as an indicator of the "year" of study, resulting in three levels: "entry-year" being students who had completed only the first year introductory marketing course, "mid-year" if they had completed at least one of the three required 2nd year courses, and "final-year" if they had completed at least one of the two required final-year courses. Respondents were also provided with opportunity for a qualitative response, with a question querying elements of their experience which they felt helped how they learned and now think about marketing. Two-hundred useable responses were received resulting in 40 entry-year, 62 mid-year and 98 final-year responses, 130 females and 70 males, 92% between 18 and 23 years of age, and 93% in full-time study.

Results

While the full analysis is beyond the scope of this paper, a summarised results section is presented. A factor analysis confirmed that most items loaded as expected, with the exception of one item measuring basic understanding and three of the seven items measuring habitual action, which were subsequently removed from the further analysis in the interest of parsimony and construct reliability. Discriminant validity was confirmed as the magnitude of the square root of the AVE values were greater than the magnitude of the corresponding correlations. The means and standard deviations for reflective thinking at each year level are indicated in Table 1, pertinent to the first research question: *Do undergraduate marketing students exhibit high level reflective thinking (i.e. intensive reflection and reflection) at all levels of undergraduate study?* Given transformative learning is indicated by intensive reflection, and all year groups report means over 4.2, there is some suggestion that intensive reflection may be occurring in all years. Certainly however, higher agreement (means above 5.1) was evident for reflection.

Table 1: Means in each category of reflective thinking, by level in the program

Level in Program		Mean*	Std. Deviation	N
Intensive Reflection	Entry	4.2393	1.02271	40
	Mid	4.5576	1.04233	62
	Final	4.6560	.94646	98
	Total	*4.5421*	*.99977*	*200*
Reflection	Entry	5.1083	.73627	40
	Mid	5.2796	.79030	62
	Final	5.1276	.82827	98
	Total	*5.1708*	*.79842*	*200*
Understanding	Entry	5.4438	1.03696	40
	Mid	5.6210	.62683	62
	Final	5.5128	.87886	98
	Total	*5.5325*	*.84373*	*200*
Basic Understanding	Entry	3.4750	1.08837	40
	Mid	3.4355	1.23340	62
	Final	3.4796	1.24728	98
	Total	*3.4650*	*1.20713*	*200*
Habitual Action	Entry	3.9333	.97021	40
	Mid	3.3306	.88217	62
	Final	3.5034	1.08171	98
	Total	*3.5358*	*1.01920*	*200*

* Scale ranged from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

To examine the hypotheses, one-way between groups ANOVA revealed some evidence of difference at the extreme ends of the continuum. Given the small sample size, combined results suggested some indication of significant difference between the groups for *intensive reflection* (p=.083), but more convincing difference between the groups for *habitual action* (p=.012). For *intensive reflection,* post hoc analyses with Tukey's HSD indicated that the difference lay between the entry-year and final-year, with final-year students having higher scores of *intensive reflection*, with a difference of .41669 (p=.067) over entry-year students. Thus, final-year students exhibit somewhat higher levels of reflective thinking than entry-year.

For, *habitual action,* post hoc analyses with Tukey's HSD suggested that the main difference lay between entry-year and mid-year students, with mid-year students having a mean .60269 less than early-level students (p=.009). A difference between early and final also showed some significance (p=.060), with final-year students having a mean of .4299 less than early-level. This suggests that mid- and final-year students are less likely to exhibit non-reflective thinking, providing some support for hypothesis two.

To gather information on activities which encouraged transformative learning, responses to the qualitative question were analysed in NVIVO 11. This is presented here only as an initial exploratory step in gaining insight into learning activities which may encourage higher reflection. Of the 200 respondents, 130 provided some textual response. Of those, 52% were in the final-year group, 28% were mid-year, and 20% were entry-year. Due to space restrictions in this paper, only the strongest theme is explored. This theme was the ability to apply theory to "real life." Of the 130 respondents who entered text, 41 noted this element. The application of theory to real life was noted at all year levels, with 37% of final-year respondents noting this, 22% of mid-year and 31% of entry-year. Comments referred to the application of theory to case-studies examined in class, real businesses used for discussion or assessment, and the lecturer referring to experiences they have had. The application of these examples and cases appeared to reinforce concepts and make them more relevant to the students. These comments were frequently given by students who had high average scores for intensive reflection (IR), as indicated below:

Real life cases and companies made the frameworks, concepts etc. seem a lot more relevant and more interesting rather than simply regurgitating information from the textbook or slides. (Average IR =5.43, final-year)

Linking theories and concepts to real life cases made it easier to put them into perspective and how common they really are and also their importance. (Average IR =5.14, mid-year)

The importance of applying concepts to the real world also held for entry-year students, who appeared to benefit from applying concepts to their own personal experiences:

Interesting to learn about things on a business level and then consider them on a personal, consumer level when shopping etc. (Average IR = 5.57, entry-year)

I feel what has helped me the most in the marketing papers I have taken, is the ability and relatability to apply the theory and knowledge to real life situations which I have personally experienced. (Average IR = 5.0, entry-year)

Conclusion
While previous research has established levels of reflective thinking and measured this largely in final year or post-graduate contexts, this study focuses on the very existence of the higher levels of reflective thinking, particularly intensive reflection, as a measure of transformative learning, and autonomous thinking, for all years in an undergraduate marketing programme. While results revealed little to suggest a steady consistent increase over the years, there was encouraging indication of movement towards intensive reflection between the entry and final years. Consistent with this is also the movement away from habitual action. The shift away from habitual action may be evidence of the need to learn a new "language" in marketing at

entry-year, contrasted with the greater ability to integrate more application to real business examples in mid-year. An additional explanation for the lack of steady progression may be that there is a shift in expectations and frames of reference as the student progresses, making the judgement on each year's progress a relative measure. Thus, how students think about marketing and their world may be challenged in the entry level, leading to a new frame for the following year. This is not inconsistent with ideas of reflective thinking. Mezirow (1991) refers to premise reflection, aligned with intensive reflection, as a critique of one's own "presuppositions." Surely as we learn, grow, and have new experiences, our presuppositions may change. Thus, shifting frames of reference change how students assess their learning.

The initial qualitative findings, although secondary to this study, provide further support to suggest that high levels of reflective thinking may be experienced throughout the programme. Students' emphasis on real-life applications as positive learning experiences echoes calls for authentic assessment and live case studies (Biggs & Tang, 2011). These types of assessment often call for the student to make judgements and engage in discussion, i.e. activities noted to encourage transformative learning (Adamson & Bailie, 2012; Mezirow, 1997; Taylor, 2008). The consistent emphasis on these learning activities by students across the year levels supports the idea that higher levels of reflective thinking may be present and may be encouraged throughout the undergraduate programme.

It is understandable that past studies focus on the final year of undergraduate study, or postgraduate study, as this seems most relevant to the next stage: employment. It is at these times when educators may be most interested in their graduates' abilities – including capacity for critical thinking, autonomous learning and transformational learning (Hopkins, Raymond, & Carlson, 2011). However, as transformative learning "transforms problematic frames", making the learner more "discriminating, open, reflective" (Mezirow, 2003, p.58), students may be entering university with a view to be challenged, to be more critical of the world around them and their own ideas, possessing some amount of autonomous and reflective thinking. It seems unreasonable to suggest otherwise. It is also not unreasonable to suggest that this aptitude can grow. There is no suggestion that critical thinking or transformative learning is a static entity. In fact, Mezirow (1997), while noting autonomous thinking is the "cardinal goal" of education, advocates for transformative learning as a process. If this is a process, then autonomous thinking and critical reflection could also be conceived as continually evolving.

While a longitudinal qualitative study, following undergraduates throughout their programme, would reveal more concerning transformative learning, this study has gone some way to suggest that a capacity for intensive reflection and subsequent transformative learning may be present in early years of study, and it also may develop. It may shift as a student re-evaluates their own capacity for critical thinking. It may evolve as frames of reference change. The study suggests an opportunity for a cyclical and developmental process as the student progresses through their university education. Thus, while higher levels of reflection are expected in the final year of study, it does not seem unreasonable to challenge first and mid-year students to engage in a transformative process. Acknowledging this perspective of gradual shifting and developmental change in frames of reference, and working with this throughout an undergraduate program, from the entry year through to final, to encourage critical and autonomous thinking, is thus advocated.

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Active Learning in Marketing Research with Cross-Course Team Interactions

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Abstract

This paper outlines the benefits of team-based active learning including increased realism, an applied focus, and career preparation. Lincoln University has been successfully applying these concepts to their undergraduate Marketing Research course for over 20 years. Student teams meet with the client, establish the marketing research problem, develop research questions and hypotheses, create questionnaires, perform door-to-door interviews, input and analyse the data, test their hypotheses, and write up their results and recommendations in a professional report. Recently, this research process has expanded to involve a Property Research course, where teams of Property students are the clients of the Marketing Research teams. This approach made the learning environment closer to the iterative process of communication and submission/evaluation of ideas and proposals found in the industry. This approach is not without its drawbacks, mostly in terms of extra class coordination, but the outcomes, including student engagement and satisfaction, outweigh the extra effort.

Keywords: education; active learning; marketing research

Track: Marketing Education

Introduction

Employers are increasingly looking for graduates who have relevant and valuable marketing skills. This means that today's academics need to successfully prepare marketing students by developing both their theoretical knowledge of marketing as well as their practical skills. Laverie (2006) advocates that team-based active learning can be used to develop these workplace skills. It has been suggested that this approach can develop skills such as critical thinking, communication skills, leadership skills, creativity, problem solving, task-completion and the ability to work with others in teams (e.g. Berger, 2002; Scribner, Baker & Howe, 2003).

This paper provides a summary of relevant literature and then outlines the team-based active learning approach that is used to teach the undergraduate Marketing Research (MKTG 301) course at Lincoln University. The drawbacks of the approach, as well as the outcomes that are achieved, are discussed and a summary of feedback from students is also provided. This paper should be useful to other marketing academics who wish to utilise a team-based active learning approach in their own courses.

Active Learning

It has been argued that the "traditional lecture format is not the most effective method for today's classroom" (Bobbitt, Inks, Kemp & Mayo, 2000, p. 15). Frontczak (2016) states that it is becoming the norm for marketing academics to move from a traditional, theoretical, passive, knowledge-transfer approach to an experiential, interactive method of learning. Others talk of a change as higher education has moved from an instruction paradigm to a learning paradigm (Barr & Tagg, 1995; Saunders, 1997). The traditional approach to teaching is to provide knowledge to students via lectures in a classroom; this type of learning is entirely passive in nature. In contrast, the active learning approach involves students in learning through doing and by drawing on their experiences (Catterall, Maclaran & Stevens, 2002). In other words, experiential learning is 'learning by doing', where students are active participants in the learning process. Munoz and Huser (2016) suggest that today's students actually want to be engaged in their learning as they find lectures, rote learning and regurgitation of isolated facts tedious and boring. Experiential learning forces students to play a more active role in their education.

The literature provides similar definitions for the concepts of active learning and experiential learning and this paper uses the terms interchangeably. Common definitions of experiential learning include mention of an educational experience or activity, as well as the chance for reflection on this experience (see for instance Chapman, McPhee & Proudman, 1995; Frontczak, 2016; Jopman, 1995). Similarly, active learning has been defined as providing students with the opportunity to talk, listen, read, write and reflect through various, interactive experiences (Meyers & Jones, 1993). Frontczak (2016) notes that characteristics which are referred to in both the active learning and experiential literature include experience-based, reflection, high involvement, interaction, and teachers as guides.

Various activities can be used to deliver experiential learning, including games, cases, computer simulations, role playing and projects. Whichever technique is used, the literature suggests that experiential learning is successful because it (a) increases the student's level of

involvement and motivation (Bobbitt et al., 2000; House, 2002; Sautter, Pratt & Shanahan, 2000; Slavin, 1980), (b) encourages higher order and independent thinking (Bonwell & Eison, 1991), and (c) leads to improved student performance (Hakeem, 2001; Hamer, 2000). Scribner, Baker and Howe (2003) suggest that a combination of lectures and active learning provides students with a deeper understanding of material and improves their readiness for the work environment.

Some authors argue that real-life projects bring realism to marketing education and are thus an especially useful technique (Razzouk, Seitz & Rizkallah, 2003). Real-life projects allow students to apply actual experiences to the theories and concepts they have learned, and to develop skills that are needed in the workplace. Bove and Davies (2009) report that client-sponsored projects, in particular, give students the opportunity to develop consulting and research skills that are valued by employers. Client-sponsored projects are realistic and relevant to marketing students.

The most effective active learning often takes place in teams. The literature suggests that group projects enhance student learning (e.g. Floyd & Gordon, 1998; Kolb, 1998) and that cooperative learning is more enjoyable for students than individual learning (Dommeyer, 1986). In particular, group projects provide students with an opportunity to acquire team work skills, and to express and validate their views during discussions with team members (Healey et al., 1996; Kolb, 1998). Others state that students gain organisational, analytical and communication skills during the successful completion of a team project (e.g. Munoz & Huser, 2016; Razzouk et al., 2003). In addition, Floyd and Gordon (1998) note that team-based projects result in students who are effective problem solvers, critical thinkers, team players and master communicators, and thus they have the skills to succeed in the business environment. This is an important point; in the business world, individuals seldom do work by themselves with no interaction with colleagues. Working on group projects provides a range of experiences to students that closely resemble the work they will later perform in their Marketing careers. Munoz and Huser (2016) note that the objective of educators is to help their students to become world-class business and marketing practitioners. Group projects are a realistic approach to equip students with valuable marketing, and wider business, skills (Munoz & Huser, 2016; Razzouk et al., 2003).

Some previous literature has focused specifically on teaching the subject of marketing research. Stern and Tseng (2002, p. 225) state that the "goal of undergraduate marketing research courses is to provide needed skills, thinking and processes to students who desire to work either within the research field or as managers and users of research information". In other words, the educator's role is to provide the marketing research student with skills they can use in the workplace. A number of previous studies (e.g. Anderson, 1982; Miller, 1967; Parasuraman, 1981; Segal, 1987) have reported a gap between academics and marketing research practitioners in terms of the emphasis placed on teaching versus research, curricular structure and course content. More recently, Stern and Tseng (2002) also reported many gaps between academics and practitioners with regards to how they view the undergraduate marketing research course and what they think should be contained within it. It was found that academics value lectures more and case studies less than practitioners, suggesting that the two professions have differing orientations of theory versus application.

Bobbitt et al. (2000) report that the number of academics who choose to utilise experiential learning techniques are limited. They suggest that it is difficult to establish experiential learning projects that are effective in integrating theory and application. The next section of

this paper outlines the active learning approach that has been adopted to teach the undergraduate Marketing Research course at Lincoln University and the drawbacks of this approach from the academic's point of view.

The Learning Approach

The goal of Lincoln University's Marketing Research course for the last 20+ years has been to ensure that students are engaged in the creative and analytical aspects of a marketing research project from start to finish. Every year, the students are presented with a marketing research problem. While the client and marketing problem changes from year to year, the problem is always complex so the teams (up to 3) can look at a number of the problem's multiple facets. In the past, the class has performed research for organic fruit/vegetable producers, supermarkets, wineries and the university's recruiting team. For the past few years we have been focusing on problems surrounding the Christchurch rebuild and this year was no exception. However, in the last 2 years, we have been expanding the process to incorporate teams and input from a Property research taught in the same semester. The property class focusses mainly on secondary data research to establish property values, but was keen to be involved in primary data research. A method was developed where the Property teams would be the "clients" of the Marketing and the interaction of the teams would be incorporated into the assignments and assessments of both courses.

In the 2015 course, the Property teams represented a Christchurch property developer who was beginning to look at a new suburban development and is to address council requirement for higher density residential developments by balancing the number of medium and low density housing in the subdivision plans. The property developer did a presentation for both courses, briefly outlining the current housing situation and their expectations for the research. The following discussion maps the research process and highlights the 4 interactions between the Property and Marketing teams.

Interaction 1: Marketing teams' research problems assessed by Property teams.

The Marketing groups were tasked with interpreting the client's problem, collect additional background information and present their interpretation of a marketing research problem and a set of likely research questions and hypotheses. While we assessed the teams' assignments, their executive summaries were distributed to teams in the Property Research course, who evaluated them and chose the summaries that were closest to their interpretation of the client's problem and expectations. The summaries, scores, and feedback of the highest ranked summaries were made available to all the marketing research teams along with lecturer comments and marks for the full reports.

This multiple feedback approach was designed to approximate the numerous meetings that marketing researchers have with a variety of client contacts (functions and levels) as they refine their proposal. Also, by making the client feedback public, the groups could compare their proposal with "best practice" and were encouraged to alter their proposals accordingly.

Interaction 2: Property teams provide sample frames for data collection.

Their next assignment was to write a questionnaire that would be able to measure the necessary constructs to answer their research questions and test their hypotheses. While the Marketing Research teams developed their questionnaires and sampling plan, the Property Research teams visited suburban developments and identified medium density dwellings and produced sample frames for their assigned geographical regions, complete with street addresses and maps. This assignment coincided with lectures on Survey Research,

Measurement, Questionnaire Design, and Sample Planning so students could immediately apply these concepts to their assignments.

Interaction 3: Property teams' sample frames assessed by Marketing teams.
The questions from all of the Marketing Research groups were compiled into a single list that was condensed into a questionnaire that could be answered in a few minutes. In essence, the best questions and/or standardised responses were retained, streamlined, and formatted. The sample frame (address lists and maps) were assigned to Marketing Research groups and after a training session, the groups were given a weekend and three weekdays to complete ten door-to-door interviews with residents from their address list and enter the data into a prepared SPSS file. After the data collection, they assessed the completeness, accuracy, and helpfulness of the sample frames they received from the Property teams, and made suggestions for improvement.

Interaction 4: Property teams were invited to SPSS data analysis workshops.
The data was compiled into a master SPSS file (between 400 and 600 responses depending on class numbers) and the odd responses cleaned up and the open ended answers coded in an interactive workshop. At this point the full Master file was posted on the class website and the students were encouraged to start doing some analyses. The same dataset was used during the statistical methods lectures that followed. All of the descriptive, univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analyses in the lectures were performed "live" on the data that had just been collected by the students so they were able to see exactly how "their" data could be used to answer research questions and test hypotheses. Also, they were seeing SPSS being used each lecture and this helped build their confidence that they could do it themselves.

The students then began to compile their sample descriptive data and run their research question analyses and test their hypotheses. Two more SPSS workshops were run during this time and a few drop-in sessions helped to smooth out any problems. With their analyses complete, the groups wrote up their final reports, complete with results and recommendations, following a detailed set of reporting and style guidelines.

Outcomes
The most important outcome of the course is producing students that know their team confidently performed a marketing research project from start to finish. They have a copy of the final report to show potential employers and they can explain how they made every decision, performed each analysis, and crafted their recommendations. Also, the course design delivers a diversity of approaches and team ownership of the marketing problem, research questions, measurement, hypotheses, and analysis. The latest developments, including the cross-course team interactions were designed to enhance the benefits of the active learning and the expected and actual outcomes for each interaction is discussed in turn.

For interaction 1, it was hoped that the prospect of the Property teams reading and assessing their executive summaries would facilitate higher quality and facilitate a "best practice" approach and this was largely found. Executive summaries were certainly more "complete" as they were assessed separately from the rest of the reports, and once the executive summaries and the scoreboard was posted, most of the groups revised their research problem and/or hypotheses to incorporate those found in the highest scoring executive summaries.

Interaction 2 was designed to enhance the realism and interdependencies of a client/consultant relationship. The Property teams provided sample frames, discussions

before, during, and after data collection clearly showed that a slack client made more work for a Marketing team. The best sample frames identified dwellings with maps and proposed routes, and the worst were lists of addresses, with duplications and mistakes. This disparity was very obvious in the range of assessments in Interaction 3, where the Marketing teams scored the sample frames. This interaction was intended as a feedback exercise but it prompted an unanticipated but lively discussion in class amongst the groups, highlighting the consequences of sample frame quality. The Property lecturer said the slack teams were very embarrassed that their inattention had caused so much extra effort for "their" Marketing teams.

In terms of Interaction 4, primary research was not the main focus of the Property Research course, and it was hoped that the Property students would expand their research horizon to include primary and attitudinal data and techniques. There was considerable participation from the Property course, and their questions during the SPSS workshops, showed that they were following the primary research process closely. In terms of specific analyses employed, the 13 Marketing teams independently created 47 hypotheses and research questions (35 unique). The student teams employed a wide range of analytical techniques to answer their questions or test their hypotheses with descriptive techniques used 25 times (57%), bivariate tests 10 times (21%), univariate tests 5 times (11%), multivariate tests 4 times (9%), and non-parametric tests 1 time (2%). This was consistent with previous years so there was no evidence to suggest that cross-course interactions have an impact on the types of analyses performed.

Drawbacks
The primary drawbacks are the considerable time, planning, and coordination the course requires; running the course using an active team-based learning approach is logistically difficult for the examiner and considerably more work than a traditional lecture-based course. It would be much easier to manage a course with a mid-term test, a data analysis assignment and a final exam. It would take less time to find a tame dataset and assign a step by step analysis that the whole class could work on individually. Finally, it would also be easier and less stressful not to send the students out to collect data amongst the general public. This step requires a significant amount of planning and each year the local police force are notified that students will be surveying residents in certain neighbourhoods so they are aware of this should they receive any concerned calls from the public.

Student Feedback
The students get caught up in the active learning and get a real sense of ownership of the project and pride in following the research from start to finish. Students also value the practical skills they gain and the application of the class concepts. The authors have personally observed that the students are more involved and motivated in this course than they typically are with traditional lecture-based courses; this aligns with earlier research on the active learning approach (e.g. Bobbitt et al., 2000; House, 2002; Sautter, Pratt & Shanahan, 2000).

In course evaluations, students have commented that "it's great if you wish to undertake any kind of marketing research in the future" (2015) and that the course "engaged the class in practical application of information" (2013). In other words, the combination of information received during lectures or class discussions and the ability to apply this throughout the practical research project encouraged students to actively engage in their learning. This

engagement in learning by doing and through experiences is highlighted in the active learning literature (e.g. Catterall, Maclaran & Stevens, 2002; Frontczak, 2016). Other students have commented that they have learnt "how to really use SPSS" (2014) and gained practical skills in "marketing research and measurements" (2013); these comments support the view that students gain practical skills which will be valuable to them in terms of gaining employment and beneficial to those who employ them. The development of practical marketing research skills (as well as skills relating to working in teams) addresses the previously reported gap that exists between academics and marketing research practitioners in terms of the approach taken when teaching Marketing Research courses (see for instance: Anderson, 1982; Parasuraman, 1981; Segal, 1987; Stern & Tseng, 2002).

Conclusions

Incorporating active team learning and cross-course team interactions into a marketing research course takes more planning and coordination time, is probably more stressful, and requires a significant level of flexibility to make it work effectively. However, it brings the topic alive for many otherwise non-numerical students, it provides the students with practical marketing research skills, and it gives them the confidence to work and communicate with marketing researchers in their marketing career. For some, it has sparked an interest which has led to careers in marketing research. In addition, the team-based nature of the learning approach provides the students with the chance to work in a way that closely resembles how they will eventually work with colleagues in their future marketing or business careers. Further, the cross-course interaction with the Property teams showed them how a client/consultant relationship works, and experience the consequences of relying on another group for critical inputs.

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What were they thinking: What Makes an At-risk Student Tick?

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Abstract
A student classified formally as At-risk has failed to meet minimum standards of academic performance. The consequence is exclusion unless performance improves. What were these students thinking? Our study seeks to classify the demographics of at-risk students and compare these with personal values, drawn from at-risk interviews, as influencers of student performance and at-risk status. We also consider engagement with the at-risk process as a possible explanation of behaviour and future at-risk status. The research is proposed as a preliminary process to better understand at-risk students in more detail then the academic reasons for their status. The sample comprises an Australian University operating two multi-cultural campus in two different countries, Australia and Singapore. The results of such research can have significant impact in the development of pastoral care and intervention programs to better assist students to achieve their learning goals and meet graduation goals for tertiary institutions.

Keywords: attrition, higher education, at-risk

Track: Marketing Education

Introduction

Globally, a reduction in government funding has resulted in many universities charging full-fee places for postgraduate and undergraduate study. Such measures are coupled with an increasingly competitive higher education industry with multiple options for students, larger class sizes, student diversity, and workload pressures on academics and teaching staff (Dobele, Rundle-Thiele, Kopanidis & Steel 2010). Increasing competition, workload pressures, changes in student cohorts and the focus on fee-paying students has resulted in higher education institutions tailoring their operations into a more business-like service with increased focus on meeting or even exceeding the needs of students (Gruber, Reppel & Voss 2010). Students are increasingly seen as customers (Saunders 2014) whose satisfaction with the provider becomes increasingly important to institutions wanting to retain students and recruit new ones (Helgesen & Nesset 2007). The criteria that prospective students use to make their selection between universities assumes much importance (Kopanidis & Shaw 2014) and, hopefully, leads to a fit between institution and student. However, if undergraduate student attrition is considered as a measure of efficiency and quality of higher education institutions, attrition (as an a quality assurance measure) becomes a major concern (Martínez, Borjas, Herrera & Valencia 2015). High rates of attrition are of concern to universities because if they are to remain globally competitive and ensure sustainability (Kopanidis & Shaw 2014). In an increasingly competitive and dynamic tertiary landscape student retention (and therefore attrition) is critical to universities. Past research has shown that the recruitment of new students is more expensive than the retention of existing students Further, previous research has shown a connection between unsatisfactory academic performance and the likelihood of a student abandoning a course (e.g. Araque, Roldán & Salguero 2009, Dobele, Kopanidis, Gangemi, Thomas, Jansson & Blasche 2011).

Demographic characteristics and student performance

Student demographic and socio-demographic characteristics, including values, have previously been used as possible explanations for student behaviour (e.g. Araque et al. 2009, Belloc, Maruotti & Petrella 2009). For example, gender imbalances across fields of study can play a significant role when considering attitudes towards university study as female students demonstrate more academic orientation, commitment and satisfaction with their study than their male counterparts (Krause, Hartley, James & McInnis 2005) however, male students are less likely to drop out of university (Belloc et al. 2009). Age can also influence student behaviour, with mature aged students (aged 21 years or over) more likely to set clear directional goals and be driven more by intrinsic motives (Krause et al. 2005). Ethnicity and country of birth are demographic factors that have also been shown to offer possible explanations for student behaviour (Dawes & Brown 2002) and as potential factors influencing choice (Goyette & Mullen 2006) and performance (Dobson, Sharma & Calderon 1998, DEST 2004). For example, students who study in their home country are more likely to drop out of university than international students (DEST 2004, Belloc et al. 2009). Previous education may also explain at-risk status, with the more time students have between finishing high school (or equivalent) and taking up tertiary studies, the less likely they are to drop out (Belloc et al. 2009). Finally, study load, either full- or part-time, is also considered as a potential cause of at-risk status, with part-time students more likely to be aware of the need for time management and organisation (MacCann, Fogarty & Roberts 2012).

Values

Overall, values can be complicated because the concept is elusive and difficult to measure (Dobele & Lindgreen 2011). Values can be internal, meaning that an individual will be more self-motivated, believing that they can influence or control outcomes and, therefore, not relying on the judgments or opinions of others, or external, meaning that individuals are less self-motivated and generally require the presence, judgments, or opinions of others to determine solutions to problems (Kropp, Lavack & Silvera 2005). Values serve to guide people's actions, attitudes, judgments and comparisons across specific objects and situations and provide potentially powerful explanations of human behaviour (Daghous, Petrof & Pons 1999, Long & Schiffman 2000, Kropp et al. 2005). In student behaviours, values may help to explain why some students seek assistance upon being classified as at-risk or have an impact on willingness to drive the student to complete their academic studies.

Methodology

Students are classified as "at-risk - first stage" in the first instance in which their academic progress is unsatisfactory. If unsatisfactory performance continued the student is then classified as "at-risk – final stage" and may face exclusion from their degree program. Students are notified of their at-risk status via email and are invited to attend a non-compulsory interview with an academic advisor. Over the last five years the single largest cohort of at-risk students occurred in Semester 1 2010 (12% at-risk, N=456, (either first or second stage), 15% in Australia, 11% in Singapore). The cohort comprises students studying either marketing or economics and finance major as part of an undergraduate Bachelor of Business program. The majority (67%) of at-risk students were first stage. Of the 456 At-risk students, 76 engaged in the at-risk process, all were interviewed. Multiple sources of evidence (Yin 2009) were used to compile the data on at-risk students. Student demographic details employed in this study (such as gender and age) were sourced from online enrolment data, while the at-risk data was sourced from the academic records of students and APIP documentation. At-risk interviews were conducted with 16 per cent of the at-risk cohort (76 students), the small sample size allowing for focused survey questioning, and is justified in the context of this research (Ploutz-Snyder, Fiedler & Feiveson 2014). This figure also comprises the total population of at-risk students who engaged with the at-risk process.

Results – demographic characteristics

Gender has no significant impact on at-risk status. There is a significant link between age and at-risk status, as for the whole at-risk cohort a significantly higher number of students were mature age (32% of at-risk students were school age, compared to 68% being mature age) (χ^2 (1, N=456) = 7.044, p <0.05). Residency status was found to be non-significant in influencing at-risk status, the majority of both first stage (65%) and final stage (58%) at-risk students were domestic. Previous education is found to be significant, with only a small number of at-risk students (4%) having previous university qualifications (χ^2 (1, N=456) = 19.301, p=0.000, p <0.05). Load is also found to significantly affect at-risk status, with 63 per cent of the Economics and Finance at-risk cohort and 88 per cent of the Marketing at-risk cohort being enrolled full-time χ^2 (1, N=456) = 5.272, p <0.01). Load is also found to be significant for the at-risk students enrolled at the Singapore campus as almost two-thirds (65%) of the Singapore-based at-risk students enrolled full-time, and with 88 percent of the marketing, at-risk students enrolled full-time (χ^2 (1, N=456) = 5.149, p <0.01).

Results – Values

Individuals with internal value systems tend to be more self-motivated, believing that they can influence or control outcomes, and are less reliant on the judgments or opinions of others, while individuals with external values are, generally, less self-motivated and require the presence, judgments, or opinions of others to determine solutions to problems (Kropp et al. 2005). We classified at-risk students who responded to the email and either attended an interview or submitted the relevant paperwork, as engaged and compared those with the students who did not engage. Overall, the majority of at-risk students (83%). The results of the regression analysis indicate that engagement with the non-compulsory at-risk process was highly significant ($\chi 2$ (1, N=456) = 32.157, p=0.000, p <0.01). Of the students who did engage with the at-risk process, 58% were at-risk again in the very next semester. Further exploration of values was undertaken through analysis of the reasons given by interviewed at-risk students to account for their poor academic performance. For example, intrinsically motivated students would internalise explanations whilst extrinsically motivated students could look to others to blame. There was no limit on the number of reasons the students could list and the responses were coded into four main categories: Personal Relationships, Medical, Employment and Education. The majority of at-risk students (33% of first time at-risk students and 24% of the at-risk final stage students) suggested learning and teaching as their first mentioned reason to account for their poor academic performance, followed by adjustment problems. Learning and teaching explanations included problems with course material as opposed to directly blaming teaching or administrative staff (categorised as a separate field). Transitioning issues typically comprised the difference students felt between previous educational experiences and undergraduate university and examinations reasons included stress and anxiety over exams and misreading questions.

Discussion, Implications and Conclusion

Age, study load and previous education are highlighted as significant in the study, further research could determine the multi-collinearity of these variables as it could be that younger students are more likely to study full time and not have previous university experience in comparison to older students. It is concerning that mature age students are more than twice as likely to be at-risk, a finding that is inconsistent with past research where the more time students have between finishing high school (or the equivalent) and taking up tertiary studies, the less likely they are to drop out (Belloc et al. 2009). Although there is a difference between being at-risk and dropping out, at-risk status can be a precursor to withdrawing or being expelled. One possible explanation for this finding could be that school-age at-risk students have been more recently exposed to a learning and studying environment and this gives them an advantage when approaching their studies, thus reducing the possibility of them being at-risk. At first glance, students who suggested learning and teaching related issues to account for their poor performance appear to be taking responsibility for their own learning, however, an extension of this research is required to more fully define the internalisations versus externalisations. Examples could include problems with the course material resulting from not purchasing the textbook, being under-prepared or lacking pre-requisite subjects or from the syllabus put in place by an academic that is not suited to learning objectives, is confusing or poorly structured for the learning period.

Regression analysis considered the demographic characteristics as influencers of engagement in the at-risk process and found campus to be a statistically significant variable, with at-risk students based at the Singapore campus more likely to engage in the at-risk process as

compared with Australian-based students, and far more likely to be at-risk again in subsequent semesters. Cultural factors could be at play here regarding engagement with the at-risk process. Further research could also more clearly define the reasons for students engaging compared with reasons for working through at-risk status alone. A student's decision not to engage with the at-risk process could be based on internal motivations, a desire to work through their academic problems or issues themselves, rather than seeking external assistance. Hence, future research could consider alternative indicators of motivation, such as the initial motivation to study, levels of drive, self-efficacy or personality drivers that may help explain at-risk status and engagement in the process. Additionally, self-benefit and risk reduction strategies could also be considered. Academic variables, including grade point average, number, and types of courses failed (e.g. those related to a student's major compared with elective subjects or those outside of the major), first year versus advanced level), and student progression (from first to final year) could be considered. Such refinement of the model could result in a more accurate guide to at-risk behaviour and could be used to derive estimates of the odds ratios for each factor (Bean & Metzner 1985) to explain, for example, how much more likely some student cohorts are to engage with the at-risk process and how best to help them.

The results of this study add to knowledge and highlight two important distinctions between the various at-risk cohorts that warrant further attention: first, between those that engage and those that do not, and the impact of engagement on subsequent at-risk status, since our study has found that those at-risk students who engage with the process are more likely to be at-risk – final stage. A possible explanation for choosing not to engage in the at-risk process could be that the notification of at-risk status is sufficient to motivate or 'reprimand' the student (although perhaps not enough to change their behaviours given the high number of students at –risk again in the next semester). Further research is required to ascertain students' responses to the notification email and to align that response with their subsequent behaviour (e.g. class attendance, accessing online material, utilisation of support programs, purchase of course materials). Within this monitoring, the associated at-risk process paperwork could be considered. One of the aspects of the at-risk process is for the academic advisor to recommend assistance programs for the student. Programs include study and examination training, drop-in centres for mathematics assistance or counselling. Future research could consider if the student utilise the recommended services and the impact of such programs on subsequent academic performance.

Finally, future research could consider the overall buy-in of the student into the at-risk process regarding commitment indicators for improving their performance. For those that attended the interview did these students understand why they were at-risk and did they have a program or plan for subsequent semesters? It may be possible that students who are at-risk – final stage have weaker education strategies or lower levels of persistence to achieve their goals, as compared to at-risk – first stage students, and these factors could explain why these students perform poorly in subsequent semesters. When the at-risk students were asked to give reasons for their poor academic performance, the most common first mentioned reasons for both at-risk – fist stage and at-risk – final stage students concerned learning and teaching issues, so another factor is at play.

Regarding the reasons given by students, two caveats are noted. Firstly, the document requires personal information of the student, such as their student number and name. The last page of the document requires a signature of the student and academic advisor and is considered an agreement that the student will undertake to improve their performance. Thus, while a relatively low percentage of students blamed the institution and its staff for their lack of

academic progress, it is possible that students feared repercussions from the university if the reasons they were to provide were critical of the institution. Second, three questions are raised in relation to the reasons offered by students. Firstly, are students simply offering reasons until there is no space left in that section of the document, which may explain why there were never more than three reasons. Second, is there a weight or importance level to these reasons, are the first mentioned reasons the most important or does the student need to build up to the most important reason and offers the previous reasons as a form of courage builder, or it provides breathing space or thinking time. Finally, the reasons may be an attempt to elicit sympathy from the academic advisor, save face or escape from the interview as quickly as possible. Closer examination of the motivations behind the reasons has serious managerial implications. Firstly, there is the need to ensure that at-risk students are offered an opportunity for a truthful self-assessment of the actions and behaviours that have led to their status, and, secondly, are made comfortable enough to truthfully provide that information in the at-risk process. Without these considerations in place students will find it difficult to improve their academic performance in subsequent semesters and it will be more to implement university support programs to aid students in achieving their academic goals.

The findings of this study should be understood within the limitations of the research, these being the reliance on students' provision of explanations for, and memory of previous events leading to, their poor academic performance; the small sample size; and the use of the case study methodology. Finally, the research is limited to a single semester, which allowed for a deeper focus on the at-risk cohort studied, but future research could consider a longitudinal study in order to investigate at-risk students' persistence in the face of difficulties and the lessons learned from those that are at-risk - first stage only and are then able to go on and successfully complete their studies.

Overall, our research contributes to the literature on student success and performance. The study provides a starting point for students, teachers and administrators who are grappling with the increasingly important issue of student performance, retention and on-time graduation in an increasingly competitive marketplace.

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Where we write best: a pictorial understanding of academic writing spaces

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Abstract
The current publish or perish ethos is driven by a changing academic environment, (reduced government funding, increasing competition between institutions to hire the best researchers) and a concurrent drive on existing faculty to perform at higher levels. But, in order to publish, first, one must write. This interpretative and qualitative study uses visual research methods to understand the physical space (regarding design, layout, features) in which academics do their best writing. The results highlight two outcomes of the designs of respective writing spaces. First, the impact of the space on state of mind defined as a writing zone and the action of the space to encourage and enable entering that zone. Second, the nature of time as seen through the temporal nature of writing spaces, from permanent, ground in and nested spaces, to move-in-a-moment readiness. The exploratory study is a starting point for understanding writing spaces and impact on writing.

Keywords: workspace design, career progression, writing, publish or perish, research output

Track: Marketing Education

Introduction

Academics are facing ever increasing pressure in an environment where jobs are scarce, resources stretched and education institutions face untold challenges (Parker and Guthrie 2010). The academic community is 'entering a period of rapid change in [terms of] academic publishing and research measurement … yet, we academics are notorious for lagging behind practice, rather than driving policy and practice change'(Guthrie, Parker and Dumay 2015, p. 2). Pressures are compounded by a digital age and entrenched traditional standards of assessment (Parker and Guthrie 2010). Further, this shifting landscape has significantly changed the modern academic's workload and the role of an academic (Dobele and Rundle-Theile 2015). Today's academic must align timely research production with community expectations for relevance (Knott 2015). Such research productions must also be of quality, recognised by high impact or high ranked journals and conferences. Thus, we see a major shift in research publication expectations. Publishing alone is not enough: 'universities in many countries now require their staff to publish in major, high-impact, peer-reviewed Anglophone journals as a pre-requisite for tenure, promotion and career advancement, making participation in this global web of scholarship an obligation for academics all over the world' (Hyland 2011, p. 58). Today, 'universities are engaged in a global arms race of publication; and the academics are the shock troops of the struggle' (Altbach 2015, p. 6). As a result of the publish-or-perish system and the role of publications as the most crucial dimension of an academic's work (Dobele and Rundle-Theile 2015), the system is increasingly causing 'anxiety and inducing stress among not only young academics but also more established scholars' (Lee 2014, p. 250). However, before an academic can publish, they must write. The problem is that many academics lack the techniques and strategies that can significantly increase writing productivity (Ness, Duffy, McCallum and Price 2014) and the 'process of writing for publication … is shrouded in mystery' (Cuthbert and Spark 2008, p. 83). Our lack of understanding of writing and writing processes is a crucial gap. As academics, our 'identities and reputations … are largely formed on the basis of what and how we write' (Cloutier 2015, p. 1). The purpose of this research is to focus specifically on one aspect that we propose is a key indicator of academic writing effectiveness, that of the spaces that academics (staff, researchers or doctoral students) define as the place where they do their best academic writing and to consider the construction and organisation of those spaces. We begin by analysing the literature relevant to workspaces and the impact that space has on writing. Next, the visual methodology is explained, followed by the presentation of two key themes drawn from the analysis. The paper concludes with suggestions for future research.

Background Knowledge: Workspaces and Writing

Workspaces are traditionally considered within two main themes, employee morale and productivity. Employee morale includes aspects such as comfort and satisfaction with the space and what it offers (e.g. Tanabe, Haneda and Nishihara 2015) and industry standards for safety, ergonomics and design (e.g. Chadburn and Smith 2015; Karaaslan and Yazıcıoğlu 2015; Gonzalez and Morer 2016). Productivity is considered in how the physical environment influences workers' perceptions and behaviours (Kim and de Dear 2013) including levels of motivation and performance, sometimes defined as 'performance-based design' (Karaaslan and Yazıcıoğlu 2015, p. 139). The advent of open-plan spaces, the need to deconstruct ivory towers and the increasing use of technology has led to a call for the 'cellular faculty office' to be revisited (Samson 2013, p. 624). However, few academics are willing to give up their office, seeing it as both 'status' and 'sanctuary' (Samson 2013, p. 624). Further, the changing academic landscape has seen an increasing emphasis on writing collaborations, which can mean shared spaces. While collaborative writing can increase the number and variety of publications and perhaps strengthen research work as differing expertise is brought to the final

submission, collaborations can also mean tension as academics lose privacy and their sole occupancy base (Samson 2013). Academic writing has been considered through a situational learning lens, based on collaborations between peers working towards a common purpose (Hyland 2011) and by breaking down and analysing interventions which are introduced to help increase publication output including writing courses, writing support groups and writing coaches (McGrail, Rickard and Jones 2006). However, while previous research has found a 'clear connection between the work environment and office users' productivity within the workplace' (Chadburn and Smith 2015, p. 1) and the academic dividing line between on- and off-campus work has been witnessed, there seems little attention given to the actual physical workspace and its impact on writing. In an increasingly competitive, output driven, tertiary education industry, research into writing spaces and their impacts is relevant, yet lacking.

Methodology

Workplaces come in many forms, from a prescribed employer-provided environment, individualised home arrangements, to the co-opting of space in a coffee shop or other public location (such as utilising mobile technology while on public transport, in airport lounges or while in the air). This research aims to understand academics' self-described 'best' writing space. Writing, in this context, was explained to participants as being research related to the exclusion of all other forms of academic work such as teaching or administration. The authors specifically sought qualitative data to analyse the factors of writing spaces that represent the commonalities and differences of design and organisation of writing spaces. Using visual research methods to underscore academic's writing spaces was the central analytical tool used in this research. The use of visual research methods has become increasingly widespread throughout the social sciences (Margolis and Pauwels 2011). Participants were asked to provide a photograph of what they considered their 'best' writing space. These photographs were then analysed using an adaptation of the Bohnsack method (2009). Bohnsack's method was developed to analyse both the artistic and the structural elements of a picture or photograph with particular emphasis on layout, projection and composition of the space being presented. A convenience sample from the authors' own networks answered an email invitation to submit a photograph of the writing space in which they do their best academic writing. A short list of questions accompanied the invitation asking for descriptions on how the space helps with writing, what would be changed (if they had an unlimited budget), influences on the space and length of time using it. Responses were received from 29 informants. The majority of informants were female (66%), junior academics (41%) followed by Professors (6%) and defined their best writing space as a home office (45%) or elsewhere in the home (17%). Each photograph and descriptions were then categorised using an integrative approach. The researchers independently considered the photographs before comparing interpretations.

Results and Discussion

Three common work areas were presented in the photographs; first, work provided office and cubicle spaces, second, home offices or the use of home spaces, and third, public spaces such as coffee shops. Writing spaces differed regarding clutter (from one incredibly cluttered and messy space, one incredibly cluttered but extremely well-organised space to a mix of personalised and professional clutter, through to one with little evidence that anybody was situated in the space and another which showed only a blank Microsoft Word screen. From the analyses of the photographs, two overall themes emerged, that writing is a state of mind which may or may not be informed or influenced by physical space and the nature of time as explored in the photographs, or temporality, from transient to permanent.

State of Mind

Two types of informants arose in this group, those that could writing anywhere and everywhere and those that organised their writing spaces to aid their focus. Writing anywhere and everywhere informants offered photographs of writing spaces that were not as closely linked to their writing tools or physical environments. For example, informant 8 (female, professor) provided a snapshot of a workspace set up at a coffee shop. The writing tools of two people are clearly showing on an outdoor white café table: laptops sit back to back, mobile phones and water bottles beside each. The companion to our informant is shown with their back to the camera, hands on their keyboard. In such an environment, writing focus must be maintained in the face of constantly different distractions (different for each environment, differing times at the coffee shop). Informant 8 has developed their ability to write anywhere, anytime through necessity as a function of an academic position which requires extensive travel, they talk of writing in airport lounges, on trains, on planes; wherever they are, if they need to, they write. Informant 14 (female, professor) provided a close-up photograph of their desk and part of the wall behind the desk. The foreground comprised a laptop, a full cup of a hot beverage, notepad, highlighter and pens; items that are easily moved. Items on the wall behind the desk were work related including educational degrees and professional awards. None of the outside space around the desk is shown; this space is immaterial to their writing. They defined their writing space as in their head, metaphysical rather than physical and talked of getting into a writing zone, a place where all else disappears and all that remains is the computer screen and their thoughts. Informants in this category provided photographs of what clearly represents writing and writing only spaces. There is minimal to no personalisation and a major focus on functionality (evidenced by a close up of writing tools such as the keyboard or computer screen or desks completely devoid of everything else except what related to the project at hand). Informants who sought to aid focus organised their writing spaces to minimise distractions or provide barriers to outside interference with the writing process. Informant 10 (female, professor) for example, provided three photographs of their best writing space; a view from their space to the right and left, and a photograph of the big screen television set in the foreground leading to the outside view. The left and right photographs feature gardens, balconies, pets, shrubbery and both indoor and outdoor plants (quite a few are flowering). There is very little if any, emphasis on where the actual writing takes place, rather, the photographs provide a boundary perspective of what surrounds the writing space. As though, for this informant, what is far more important is the environment which helps create the proper atmosphere in which writing in then undertaken. Another example of this boundary creation is Informant 20 (male, professor) who provided two photographs of their home working space showing a stand alone room seemingly tucked into a forest, the photographs convey a tangible feeling of remoteness, even isolation. Personalisations in this office featured prominently but in limited and formal spaces such as artwork specifically located on walls and objets d'art, shown to maximum benefit, in purpose built shelving. The working space is well organised, the desk is free from anything but that which is needed to write. The lamp was positioned in such a way that it would shine light on the work (something that was rare in other working spaces which featured a similar device). The photographs highlight an apparent separation of some academic writers, a divorce between themselves and their environment, to provide a cocoon in which to focus on the task of writing compared with those that offered an open invitation (to a lesser or greater degree) for the outside world to join them in their writing spaces.

Temporality

The second theme which emerged was the nature of time, or temporality, associated with writing spaces. Public spaces are short lived by their very nature: a transit lounge is only an option while in transit, a coffee shop can only be used during opening hours and the dining room table, couch or bed, are only accessible for as long as one can commandeer the use of them before they are needed for other purposes. For informants who used these temporary spaces, and achieved their best writing, perhaps the limited availability helped to focus their attention. Using the bed (informant 16, male, junior academic), the dining room table (informant 9, female, junior academic) or couch (informant 7, female, senior academic/researcher) is a more temporary endeavour than a desk. The space is only available for a limited amount of time and perhaps that adds a sense of urgency to the tasks that must be completed before space is reclaimed for their primary purposes. It may also provide informants with a place away from their prescribed workplaces and this change in scenery may help with creativity or focus. For example, informant 28 (female, junior academic) provided photographs of cluttered but organised writing spaces at work and two at home (an office and their dining room table). All three spaces are defined as places where they work and felt they worked to their best. The dining room table is larger than both desks and has far less on it. In fact, their home office desk is shared equally with work related materials and objets d'art which surround the entire office in floor-to-ceiling shelving. Perhaps the action of relocating to this temporary space (carrying a laptop, bringing highlighters and other such materials) forces focus, or provides a better foundation for it, then their other working spaces which share materials related to every aspect of their work and other aspects of home and life. The nature of time, transience versus more permanent writing spaces, was also shown in informants who had more formal desk arrangements. Informant 15 (female, student) is currently working out of a loaned room, and their photograph showed the view from a small window and a bookcase. While there are limits to what can be personalised in a borrowed space, the photograph shows nothing of a personal nature nor did it show the desk or any other writing tools, though, from the description of the workspace they are there. The informant feels no connection to this space; it is temporary, a make-do space and their photograph of it shows an unwillingness to be associated with it. Informant 25 (female, professor) also exhibited this unwillingness to be associated with the space. Multiple photographs, taken by standing in the centre of the room and turning around, highlighted unpacked boxes on the floor and shelves, a second table which could be used for consultation or collaboration but is being used for storage, and nothing personal or related to the informant's personality featured. There was no love shown to, or exhibited by, this space. The informant suggested it was 'a box' and nothing more. The space is, they hope, temporary and their employer will provide a better space, but in the meantime, they write within its blank walls. A more permanent office space with a transient feel was exhibited by Informant 13 (male, junior academic) whose photograph showed a minimalist approach to decorating with the primary features being the desk and their digital tools. Some personalisation was present in the forms of artwork on the walls and, of all things, a baseball bat leaning against the desk. The foreground featured not one, but two laptops and little else. The nature of laptops, as portable devices, and having two of them, seems to suggest a great deal of transience to this space. Perhaps the most permanent writing space was exhibited by Informant 29 (female, associate professor) in their home office photograph. The focus of the writing space is the desk, although much its' surface is completely hidden under numerous piles of papers, book, writing tools and bric-a-brac. Surrounded by a seemingly disorganised clutter comprised of towering piles of paper and books, were the computer monitor and keyboard. With the exclusion of the computer at centre stage there is a suggested lack of organisation, there is a haphazard air to the piles, the leftover coffee cups and other bric-a-brac. It is this discordant

mess which gives a sense of permanence. It could be construed that such piles took time to accumulate, would take even longer to dismantle, and thus, give the impression that their owner will not be going anywhere anytime soon.

Conclusions

The self-nomination of a particular space as their best writing space offers interesting insights. The setting up of writing space and designing these in manners conducive to enabling and maintaining writing zones could be further considered regarding the elements that uniformly help or hinder this process: given the range of cluttered versus neat, personalisation versus austere and the interaction with or closing off of the surroundings, some other characteristics are at work. Putting oneself into a writing state of mind regardless of physical location offers greater flexibility regarding writing space options, it is a useful skill and worthy of further research. Such abilities may also offset the powerlessness some have with regards to selecting a writing space, for example, when offices or workstations are assigned based on academic level or availability. For those who perhaps achieved the state of mind by using clutter as a barrier and for those that chose isolation or seclusion to power their focus, the deeper meanings of these strategies and tactics warrants further study. Further, the fluidness of some writing spaces suggests a more open, accessible writing space compared with the cluttered spaces with an overall impenetrable outlook. Is such a fortress part of their writing success by closing off distractions for a solitary endeavour, and a fortress of the mind is as powerful for some. One person's clutter could be another's barricade to the outside world of distractions or other life elements, a tangible signal to others to keep away, or a signal to self that now is the time to write. The temporal nature of writing spaces also warrants further study. Does the degree of clutter suggest nesting or digging in, from entrenched with no chance of a quick move should it be required, at one end of the spectrum, through to transitory writing spaces which implicitly carry time limits to their use, as other elements of life return and the furniture is required for other purposes, the plane lands or the coffee shop closes. Does the transitory nature of these spaces provide a benchmark for productivity, working hard at writing while the space is available, motivated by its inevitable return to another function. Perhaps the writing impetus in enabled through the act of moving the necessary materials to the temporary space: coupled with the physical act of carting the necessary materials and the mental act of selecting what to take, thus providing a signal for productivity. The next stage of research could consider the impact of the space on their writing endeavours through both informant interpretations and actual publishing and performance data. Quantitative analysis could be undertaken to further refine neat vs. clutter, personalisation vs. austere and fluid vs. impenetrable variables touched upon here, as well as the state of mind and temporality variables discussed in more detail. These preliminary results suggest that deeper understanding of academic writing spaces is due attention. In what spaces do academics feel creative and focused, resulting in productivity?

Such research has implications for workforce and workspace planning at departmental through to senior university levels. By better understanding the dynamics of writing spaces we can better understand writing practices and provide support in meaningful ways. If the benefits of writing productivities are realised it may be possible to support writing proclivities and provide individual space/design solutions. New academic staff could be provided with systems and practices designed to help with future and long-term career success, under-performing staff could be assisted and high-performing staff are supported.

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Public Sector Motivation and Employee Performance: a qualitative study of Australian academics

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Abstract

Links between Public Sector Motivation (PSM) and employee performance (EP) have yet to be made in the higher education sector. This paper presents results from a qualitative study of 20 semi-structured interviews of business academics from Australian universities. The results indicate a relationship between PSM and EP, however, they are not as strongly supported as expected based on the literature. The performance measures examined may also affect the attraction and retention of students and government funding, both of which are essential for the survival of a university, particularly in an environment which is becoming increasingly competitive. In the context of universities, PSM appears to influence employees in terms of their attraction to the profession, but not necessarily their allegiance to one university over another. This information could be a way for universities to set themselves apart from their competitors when it comes to the attraction and retention of academic staff.

Keywords: Business Academics, Public Sector Motivation, Employee Performance, Qualitative Research

Track: Marketing Education

Experiential learning for Marketing students in a time of learner disengagement: Is there a role for competition?

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Abstract

For many years, marketing educators have incorporated experiential learning into study programs. Experiential learning has been suggested as an effective way of developing more skilled, work-ready graduates. However, research has also reported high levels of academic disengagement by higher education students. Academics also understand that engaging student attention has become increasingly difficult. There have been suggestions that competition could increase the level of student engagement. This paper explores the impact of competition on student learning, involving undergraduate Marketing students in one university in Australia. It studied whether a competitive element engaged the students in an experiential learning project, and the effect of the competitive element on their studies. Our findings suggest that the level of engagement by the students increased as they progressed through each stage of the competition. The competitive element kept students interested, and their attention maintained over the six-month timeframe.

Keywords: experiential learning, student engagement, competition, marketing skills, Gen Y

Track: Marketing Education

Introduction

Universities in the twenty first century are tasked more than ever to create confident and more effective students who can be seen as "work ready" to their employers. One way that marketing educators have done so is through the use of real life projects, or experiential learning. Experiential learning is defined as "naturalistic, ongoing process of direct learning from life experiences" (Kolb, 2005, p.xx). Marketing has embraced educational realism since 1909 when the case method of teaching started at Harvard Business School. Experiential learning has been identified as a powerful tool for teaching marketing concepts, principles, and analytics (Young, 2002) and have been used as a way to help students learn marketing techniques (Williams, Beard & Rymer, 1991). Many researchers suggest that the outcomes of the marketing learning process should include students' initiation into the work activities of marketing personnel to create more skilled future employees (Pfeffer & Fong, 2002; Karns, 2005; Camarero, Rodriguez & San Jose, 2009). Experiential learning projects can be group-based, client based, hypothetical, simulated, or real (Gremler et al., 2000; Parsons & Lepowska-White, 2009).

This paper explores the impact of competition on student learning; whether the competitive element in this experiential learning project increased the learning and work ethic of Generation Y students. Students wishing to compete in the L'Oréal Brandstorm competition must nominate themselves in a team of three. By early, March they complete a research study that is presented to a panel of L'Oréal executives. A small number of teams from various universities in Australia are invited to compete in the National Final. By the time the final is held in May, competing teams will have expended several hundreds of hours researching and preparing a realistic innovative marketing solution for a brand within the L'Oréal portfolio. Since 2004, approximately 60 students from the university have competed in the National Final. The real-life hands-on experience in briefing L'Oréal's advertising agency and developing the marketing solution were designed to teach students how to do these tasks for other courses and their future career. The Brandstorm competition is recognised by industry as a point of differentiation in undergraduates and graduates. Apart from passion, commitment, and tenacity (desirable traits for any potential employee in an entry-level position), these participants are recognised as having higher level skills than non-participants.

Conceptual Foundations

Competitive Theory

The literature on teams and competitions shows evidence of positive results. Competition has been found to inspire creativity and increase productivity. It has also been found that intergroup competition can foster collaboration, better performance, and decrease inefficiency (Bornstein & Erev, 1994; Mulvey & Ribbens, 1999). There is also substantial anecdotal evidence that competition with opponents is likely to lead to performance gain.

The Brandstorm project is an example of a competitive project with performance goals. Competition in this instance can be defined as a "social situation in which one's performance is superior to another's performance, so one wins at the expense of another" (Mulvey & Ribbens, 1999, p.653). In other words, at each level of the competition, more and more groups lose out until there is finally only one group left. The minimum performance goal needed to win varies from year to year depending on opponents' performance (Mulvey & Ribbens,1999). Competition affects performance by increasing motivation. Therefore:

H1 Competition (C) will have a positive effect on learning (LO) and work ethic (WE)

H1.1 Competition(C) will affect learning (LO)

H1.2 Competition(C) will affect the work ethic/commitment (WE)

Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle
The Experiential Learning Cycle was developed by Kolb in 1981. It has been used to study the effects of Experiential learning on students. This theory indicates that the most effective learning requires four different learning abilities: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation that are cyclic in nature. Four learning roles are assigned to the transitions between the four learning abilities: the reflector role, the theorist role, the pragmatist role, and the activist role. Students who are practising these roles during their experiential learning project will have more effective learning. Based on this, the combination of competition, engagement, interest, and enjoyment would influence their learning, and work ethic/commitment because as the project becomes more competitive and there are fewer student groups competing against each other, the students stay engaged and can gain more direct learning experience and abstract generalisation with reflection as the linking function. As the project continues, based on this reflection, the students then integrate the experience of the project with marketing theories and concepts learned in other marketing classes or the project course content. Finally during the active experimentation stage, the student takes these theories and applies them in further rounds of the competition (Petkus, 2000). Introducing competition could increase the level of involvement in classes. It is worthwhile noting that "both competition and cooperation are necessary in business as they are in other aspects of our lives" (Berg, 2010, p.7). Therefore:

H2 Engagement (E1) will have a positive effect on learning (LO) and work ethic (WE)

H2.1 Engagement (E1) will affect learning (LO)

H2.2 Engagement (E1) will affect work ethic/commitment (WE)

Characteristics of Generation Y
"Millennials are unlike any other youth generation in living memory" (Howe and Strauss, 2000, p.4). Millennials are more affluent, better educated, and more technically adept and ethnically diverse than previous generations (Palfrey and Gasser, 2008). In addition, this new generation possesses a wide array of positive social habits that have previously never been associated with youth, including "a new focus on teamwork, achievement, modesty and good conduct" (p.4). "They've had very little unplanned free time and aren't used to ambiguous situations" (p.45). But McCrindle suggests that this generation is looking for trusted guidance, not a "street directory". Millennials want support on deciding what directions to take and/or what path to follow with trusted mentors (McCrindle, 2002, p. 30). However, they want to "achieve their own goals in their own way and at their own pace" (Ricigliano, 1999, p.123). This is a generation accustomed to "sound bites, sensory overload, fast pacing and high impact images" (Ricigliano, 1999, p.123). Boredom, therefore, is the Millennial generation's worst fear.

Other research reports high levels of academic disengagement by higher education students (Bauerlein, 2006). Some researchers argue that Generation Y, the majority of our current undergraduate student population, have a reduced attention span and work ethic. However, some suggest that client-based learning helps students improve their communication, critical thinking, teamwork, and problem-solving skills because they learn how to work collaboratively between themselves and also with the client, incorporating longer engagement periods (McCrindle, 2002).

Universities are trying to make sense of the changing worldview of their students and the implications this has for the learning process. So, to be effective, higher education academics

need to introduce contexts that the student will be interested in and that address their lack of organisational experience. Gilinsky and Robinson (2008) also argue that engaging student attention has become the key. Therefore:

H3 Interest (I) will have a positive effect on learning (LO) and work ethic (WE)

H3.1 Interest (I) will affect learning (LO)

H3.2 Interest (I) will affect the work ethic/commitment (WE)

Although the positive effect of group goals has been well documented, the effects of intergroup competition on group performance is not as well researched. Therefore, this project will endeavour to find out whether:

H4 Enjoyment (E2) will have a positive effect on learning (LO) and work ethic (WE)

H4.1 Enjoyment (E2) will affect learning (LO)

H4.2 Enjoyment (E2) will affect work ethic/commitment (WE)

Research Method

The research problem is to find ways to counter the reduced attention span and engage with Gen Y students using an experiential learning project. To investigate the students' experiences with a competitive form of experiential learning, a quantitative questionnaire was developed using the dimensions of experiential learning outcomes identified by Kennedy, Lawton and Walker (2001), and the elements of intergroup competition (Bornstein & Erev 1994; Mulvey and Ribbens, 1999). The questionnaire was developed using Qualtrics. It was then emailed to all past and current Brandstorm students and also shared on the course Facebook page. Current students were found using their current university email address, but past students were found by using LinkedIn, other non-university email addresses, and through word-of-mouth of other participants from similar years. This study gathered a total of 30 responses. The collected responses were analysed using multiple regression in SPSS v23. Students were asked a range of questions about their attitudes to competition as well as how important the actual competition was to them.

Analysis and Findings

Correlation and regression analyses were conducted to examine the relationship between Competition (C), Engagement (E1), Interest (I), Enjoyment (E2) and Learning (LO) as well as Work Ethic (WE). Table 1 summarises the descriptive statistics and analysis results. As can be seen, enjoyment of the challenge (.663**), and engagement (.608**) were positively and significantly correlated with Learning Outcomes. Enjoyment of competition (-.565**) had a negative correlation with Learning, suggesting that the students were not going in the competition because they enjoyed it, but for the experience. Interest (.710**), enjoyment (.643**) of the challenge and engagement (.768**) were all positively correlated with Work Ethic. Enjoyment of competing (-.189) was negatively correlated, suggesting that students were pushing themselves to participate in the competition, rather than because it was a competition.

Table 1 Regression Model for the Impact of Competition, Engagement, Interest and Enjoyment on Learning Outcomes and Work Ethic (*n*=30)

Student Attitudes	Mean	Std Devn	Correl with L.O.	Correl with W.E.	R Square on LO	R Square on WE	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	ANOVA Sig
1. I enjoy competing	5.66	1.632	**-.565****	-.189			14.062	2	7.031	5.476	**.010**
2. 1 enjoyed the competition	5.86	1.407	.234	.221	.296	.181	5.622	2	2.811	2.876	.074
3. Interesting	6.27	.868	.460	**.710****	.311	**.504**	21.337	1	15.148	12.642	**.001**
4. Challenging	6.27	1.143	.017	.215	.303	.453	14.750	2	7.375	5.865	.008
5. I enjoyed the challenge	6.43	.626	**.663****	**.643****		.453	19156	2	9.578	11.174	**.000**
6. I was more engaged	6.07	.907	**.608****	**.768****	**.618**	**.590**	24.945	1	30.094	45.288	**.000**
7. Impact on my learning was positive	6.14	1.302	1	**.751****							
8. I worked harder	6.3	1.208	**.664****	1							

Note: Scale: 1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Using the enter method it was found that **Engagement** explained a significant amount of the variance in the **Learning** outcome. ($F_{(1, 28)}$=45.288, p<.05, R^2=.618, R^2 adjusted = .604). It was also found that **Interest** and **Engagement** explained a significant amount of the variance in the **Work Ethic** outcome with **Interest** ($F_{(1, 28)}$=28.498, p<.05, R^2 = .504, R^2 adjusted = .487) and Engagement ($F_{(1, 28)}$=40.246, p<.05, R^2=.590, R^2 adjusted = .575).

The analysis shows that **competition, interest** and **enjoyment** did not significantly predict the **Learning** outcome, however **engagement** did significantly predict the **Learning** outcomes Beta = .681, t(28) = 4.637, p<.05). The analysis also shows that **competition** and **interest** did not affect Work Ethic, but **engagement** did predict **Work Ethic** outcomes Beta = .533, t(28)=4.139, p<.05) as did **enjoyment** Beta=.397, t(28)=3.189, p<.05.

Hypothesis H1 was not supported with competition having no significant positive impact and a minimal negative impact on both LO and WE. This suggests that competition is a relevant context rather than a factor. However Hypothesis H2 was significant with engagement having

a positive correlation on LO and WE. Interest had a positive and significant correlation with WE supporting H3.2, however the impact of Interest on LO was not significant although there was positive correlation. Therefore H3.1 was not supported in these findings. However there is an opportunity to investigate the impact of interest further. Enjoyment (E2) did have a significant impact on WE supporting H4.2 but there was no significant clear impact on LO thus H4.1 was not supported.

Discussion and Implications

Overall limitations from this study were the small sample size of 30 from the possible pool of 60 students who were also self-selecting as well as being more motivated to try something outside of their core discipline studies. The six month intensive timeframe as well as competing against other teams at campus finals against their own peers at the same university, then semi-finals, national finals, and international finals competing against peers from other universities, had the effect of enhancing the positive effects of this experiential learning. It was also found that the level of engagement by the students who progressed through each stage of the competition increased as they had a smaller and smaller pool of students to compete against.

Conclusion

We believe that the iterative process as described using Kolb's theory of experiential learning which in this project includes: client discussion, classroom instruction, in-group brainstorming, research and presentations with feedback at each stage of the process will have a lasting impact on all participants. To conclude, both the experiential learning project and the competitive element between the groups appear to give benefit to the students undertaking the project. The experiential project enabled the students to learn important soft skills as well as marketing skills which will be important to their (future) employers. The competitive element between the groups is suggested as a way to help Generation Y students stay more engaged with their studies by helping to expand their attention span and to encourage a greater work ethic. The trip to Paris at the end of the competition especially appealed to our Generation Y students as they do love to travel.

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To MOOCs or Not to MOOCs:
The Effects of Service Separation on Student Learning Experiences

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Abstract
Educational offerings are becoming increasingly virtualised through the infusion of computer-mediated technologies. These service offerings separate consumers (students) and service providers (educators) both spatially and temporally. Previous research has highlighted that service separation can affect consumers' service evaluations. The present study examines students' differential responses to both separated and non-separated educational course offerings. The findings of this qualitative study suggest that student learning experiences vary across the spectrum of educational service offerings ranging from face-to-face (non-separated) through to spatially and temporally separated offerings such as Distance Education (online) and MOOCs. The most salient effects of service separation appeared in relation to student: 1) motivations to learn, 2) access to teaching staff and 3) interactions with peers. These findings make significant contributions to the services marketing and education literature. Furthermore, these results serve to remind educational service providers to be cognisant of student experiences when engaging in separated service delivery.

Keywords: Service Separation; MOOCs; Distance Education; Online learning; On-campus learning

Track: Marketing Education

The Enabling Role of Online Learning Environments in the Actor-to-Actor Co-Creation Process: An International Perspective in Higher Education

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Abstract

United Kingdom (UK) universities are increasingly internationalising their Higher Education (HE) service offerings, through forming partnerships with overseas universities, particularly in China. Despite these partnerships, few offer stakeholders (e.g., students, educators) the opportunity to co-create value. In particular, the role of Online Learning Environments (OLEs) in facilitating communication and offering opportunities to co-create value has received little attention in an international context. This paper is based on a case study within a UK university and its Chinese partner and takes a cross-cultural perspective, examining the collaborative process between stakeholders as a new assignment is undertaken by students at both universities. Through using focus groups, interviews and a thematic review of students' reflections on their learning, the study examined multiple actor-to-actor dyads and finds that OLEs play a central role in collaboration between actors in each dyad. Through using OLEs, each dyad has the opportunity to co-create a valuable HE experience.

Keywords: Actor-to-actor; Co-creation; Online learning Environments; International Partnerships

Track: Marketing Education

The state of sustainability within marketing education research

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Abstract
Sustainability issues in marketing have continued to gain increased attention, yet business schools are still to fully integrate sustainability within their curriculum. To understand how the topic of sustainability is perceived and how it has been used within marketing education research, we undertake a systematic review of the literature. This paper examines the publication year, journal publication, type and nature of the study, and area(s) covered. Our review provides evidence to suggest that a lack of attention has been paid to sustainability within the marketing education research field.

Keywords: Sustainability, marketing education, sustainability education, systematic review

Track: Marketing Education

Benchmarking Australian undergraduate marketing programs: Some challenges and directions

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Abstract

Of the 41 tertiary institutes currently operating in Australia, 39 of them offer an undergraduate marketing program. Undergraduate marketing programs are widespread across Australia but there is no national forum enabling a systematic comparison of the relative quality between each. Although university reputation and/or accreditation can be used as proxy a more precise approach is required that benchmarks programs relative to relevant discipline specific yardsticks. The five nationally defined threshold learning outcomes, developed by the Australian Business Deans Council, would serve this purpose. To date, only accounting educators use their suite of TLO's in a national 'calibration' exercise, based on student performance against each of them. However, replicating the accounting methodology in marketing presents some latent challenges. A desktop review of assessment practices across Australian undergraduate marketing programs helps illuminate some of these. This paper is aimed at helping advance discussion about a national benchmarking forum in the marketing discipline.

Keywords: Assessment practices, benchmarking, desktop research, marketing

Track: Marketing Education

Flipping the Marketing Classroom: The Effect of Self-Regulation on Cognitive Gain and Generic Skills Development for Traditional Versus Flipped Delivery Approaches

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Abstract
This study examined the moderating effect of self-regulation on the relationship between the course delivery approach (traditional or flipped) and teaching outcomes (cognitive gain and self-reported generic skills). A first year marketing course was examined (Marketing Principles) over a two year period, and responses collected from 439 marketing students across traditional and flipped modes of teaching delivery. Results indicated that students with greater self-regulation skills report increased generic skill development, and excel more academically (evidenced through higher cognitive gain), in a flipped classroom delivery mode. Further, whilst students low in self-regulation skills will report equivalent generic skill development across both a traditional and flipped mode delivery; results indicate that those lacking in self-regulation skills will perform significantly better in the traditional, lecturer driven delivery mode. This research provides evidence for fostering student self-regulation skills in flipped mode delivery in order to improve learning outcomes.

Keywords: flipped, self-regulation, cognitive gain, generic skills, delivery approach

Track: Marketing Education

Electronic Word-of-Mouth Seeking Behaviour:
What are the choice factors most discussed by prospective students on social media?

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Abstract
Social media has provided a convenient platform for prospective students to seek word-of-mouth content when making university choice decisions. However, there is little known on what prospective students discuss on this channel for information acquisition activities. These websites provide a rich context to examine actual conversations and provide insight into what choice factors they seek information about during their decision-making processes. Content analysis of 904 questions posted on the popular social media question-and-answer website, Quora, identified five key dimensions: reputation, career prospects, courses and content, university administration and student life. This study contributes to the higher education choice literature by revealing the factors prospective students most commonly discuss for university selection. The study utilises a unique data source with insights derived from actual online conversations. The results are significant to the university sector as an understanding of the online information acquisition behaviours of prospective students will allow universities to more accurately target their corporate social media presence and brand management.

Keywords: eWOM, university choice, choice factors, information requirements, social media

Track: Marketing Education

Marketing education in a post-disciplinary era: What do employers want from marketing graduates?
*** Best Paper in Track ***

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Abstract
This study of marketing job advertisements in Australia provides an insight into understanding how employers describe specific attributes demanded from graduates seeking jobs in marketing in Australia. The paper presents the findings of an analysis of 177 marketing job advertisements (40,000 words). The data was captured in March 2016 from the dominant job finding website in Australia, seek.com.au, and offer detailed primary records authored by employers. This sets this study apart from most employability research, which relies on generic variables imposed by scholars, despite the mooted gap between academia and the corporate sector. The top three demands from employers were for experience, communication skills, and motivation. This raises questions about the purpose of a degree, and whether current marketing curricula are still fit for purpose.

Keywords: job advertisements, marketing curricula, employer needs, employability, graduates

Track: Marketing Education

Perceived financial acumen and responsible credit management among South African Students

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Abstract

This paper examines how perceived financial acumen influences the responsible credit management among Generation Y students. A convenience sample of 514 undergraduate students was drawn from three campuses of registered South African public higher education institutions. The results show that while perceived financial acumen has a statistically significant influence on this cohort's credit management, it only explains a small percentage of the variance in their credit management.

Keywords: Financial acumen, Credit management, Generation Y university students, South Africa

Track: Consumer Behaviour

Introduction

The cost of a tertiary qualification rose sharply at the beginning of the 1990s (Schoen, 2015) resulting in those members of the Generation Y cohort (individuals born between 1986 and 2005) (Markert, 2004; Eastman and Liu, 2012) wanting to attend university having to increasingly rely on student loans to fund their education. Some of the reasons put forward for the sharp rise in tuition fees include decreased government subsidies and expanding payrolls for non-academic positions and for part-time academics to offset staff shortages in the wake of rapidly increasing student numbers (Schoen, 2015). South Africa experienced countrywide demonstrations due to rising student fees during October 2015. Even after the government submitted to the students' demands of a 0 percent fee increase, the protests continued. One of the students' complaints was that the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) does not meet their needs (Makoni, 2014). Student demonstrations are not unique to South Africa. Students from the United States of America (USA) are demanding free education, the abolishment of student debt and a $15 minimum wage for student employees (Mulhere, 2015). The total student debt in New Zealand surpassed $14 billion (New Zealand Treasury, 2014) and New Zealand also experienced student protests against a government budget that hinders public access to universities (McMahon, 2012). What began in 2011 as a series of protests and occupations, erupted into barricades in the streets of central Auckland in 2012 (McMahon, 2012), all directed at demanding an end to rising fees and indebtedness (3 News, 2014).

Higher education is an important determinant of national economic performance; thus, policymakers strive to improve the quality of the system, increase its size, and widen participation in the system. However, tertiary education competes for funding with other government projects and the shortfall is often financed by students through student loans (Johnston and Barr, 2013). A study among nursing students in New Zealand found that 92 percent of the participants had some form of student debt, with 85 percent having a government student loan (Moore et al., 2006). Further research has shown that although 95.5 percent of participants studied full-time, 48 percent relied on paid part-time employment to support themselves while completing their studies (Anon., 2013). In the USA, student loans have increased by 362 percent over the past 10 years (Shah, 2014). This is a global phenomenon and with the increased likelihood of students across the developed world accruing debt to finance their studies (Usher, 2005), student loans are becoming an increasingly contentious issue. This is mainly due to students' belief that borrowing to fund education is a good investment, with long-term rates of return that exceed the cost of borrowing for most and the perception that a degree is essential for entry into lucrative non-manual careers (Walker and Zhu, 2011). On the supply side, students are a desirable market segment and are aggressively targeted by credit providers since they are expected to have a higher than average future earning power (Mansfield and Warwick, 2000).

South African, New Zealand and Australian universities are partly funded by government but tertiary education is not free and students still pay annual student fees. In an effort to help students who cannot afford these fees, student loans are made available from government and private institutions. South Africa has the NSFAS, the New Zealand government provides student loans under the Student Loan Scheme (SLS) and Australia has the Higher Education Loan Programme (HELP).

Student loans are made available to ensure that more students have access to tertiary education. However, there are claims that student loans only have a minimal effect on participation in

tertiary education in New Zealand and elsewhere (Biggar and Butterworth, 2002; Fletcher, 2002; Gill et al., 2001), and may not even contribute to improving graduation rates (Dwyer, McCloud and Hodson, 2012; Heller, 2008). This means that simply continuing to increase the amount of loans available to students may not produce the desired effects and other complementary financial aid policies may be necessary (Elliott and Lewis, 2013). Excessive student loans may also have a negative effect, with research showing that more students drop out due to debt than because of academic failure (Mansfield and Warwick, 2000).

Financial acumen
Student loans, whether from government or private institutions, need to be managed by the students in order to result in the best outcome. Realising the perils of students mismanaging credit such as student loans due to a lack of financial skills (Sabri, Cook and Gudmunson., 2012) has led many universities have introduced subjects aimed at improving students' financial knowledge (Stinson, 2013). Of course the effect of financial acumen on responsible credit use is very much dependent on the amount of debt incurred, which in the case of university students, is dependent on the cost of tertiary education.

Financial acumen refers to the ability and prior knowledge required to manage financial information effectively and to make financial decisions with an understanding of the consequences of those decisions (Cude et al., 2006). Individuals with financial acumen are financially literate and well-informed on the issues of financial management (Hogarth, 2002). In terms of credit usage, an individual with financial acumen should, at the very least, understand the terms and conditions of his/her credit accounts, including the interest charges on those accounts. Such knowledge, together with financial acumen, is likely to influence the management of those credit accounts positively. As such, the purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which Generation Y students' perceived financial acumen influences their credit management.

Research methodology
The study's target population was Generation Y undergraduate students registered at South African public higher education institutions. The sampling frame comprised three campuses – one from a tradition university, one from a university of technology and one from a comprehensive university. For the data collection, 555 self-administered questionnaires were distributed by fieldworkers across the three campuses (185 per campus) to a convenience sample of students who agreed to participate. Responsible credit management was measured using three items were harvested from the credit card usage scale (Nga, Yong and Sellappan, 2011). Financial acumen was measured using three items adapted from Booij, Leuven and Oosterbeek (2012), who found that being informed on loan conditions and interest rates impacted on loan uptake. The captures data was analysed using SPSS, Version 23.

Results of the study

Table 1 outlines a description of the participants in the sample.

Table 1: Sample description

Age	Percent (%)	Gender	Percent (%)	Province	Percent (%)	Language	Percent (%)
18	3.7	Male	43.3	Gauteng	51	Tsonga	7.8
19	10.9	Female	56.7	Limpopo	16.5	South Sotho	25.7
20	22.0			Mpumalanga	8.4	Swati	4.7
21	28.0			North West	5.8	North Sotho	9.0
22	17.9			Free State	8.4	Venda	4.7
23	9.9			KwaZulu-Natal	5.3	Tswana	9.2
24	7.6			Northern Cape	0.8	Ndebela	1.4
				Eastern Cape	3.3	English	5.5
				Western Cape	0.6	Afrikaans	6.8
						Zulu	18.3
						Xhosa	7.0

Table 1 shows that there were slightly more females than male participants. While all seven age categories, nine provinces and 11 official language groups were represented in the sample, the majority of participants were aged between 20 and 21 years, hailed from the Gauteng province and were South Sotho speaking.

Factor analysis was run to check the factor structure of the items. A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of 0.655 and significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value 479.285 (df=15, p=0.000) indicated the factorability of the data. Principle components analysis using varimax rotation was then conducted. In addition, the internal-consistency reliability of the two factors were assessed. According to Pallant (2010:100), when dealing with scales with less than 10 items, it is preferable to report on the average inter-item correlation coefficient than the Cronbach alpha as a measure of internal-consistency reliability, and to check the corrected item-total correlation values. She advises that average inter-item correlation coefficient values between 0.2 and 0.4 and corrected item-total correlation values above 0.30 suggest internal-consistency reliability. The rotated factors, eigenvalues, variance extracted and average inter-item correlation coefficients are reported in Table 2.

Table 2: Results of the principle components analysis

	Factor 1	Factor 2
I always pay off my accounts at the end of each month		0.562
I seldom fall behind on my account payments		0.768
I rarely go over my available credit limits		0.763
I take well informed financial decisions	0.730	
I know the interest rate on all my accounts	0.854	
I have read the terms and conditions on all of my accounts	0.760	
Eigenvalues	2.084	34.735
Percentage variance	1.440	23.993
Average inter-item correlation	0.469	0.247

As expected, two factors emerged that explained 58.728 of the total variance. All factor loadings were above 0.50, with most being above 0.70 and, thereby, are practically significant (Hair, Black and Anderson, 2010:117). The average inter-item correlation values for each scale were above 0.20 and each of the corrected item-total correlation values on both scales exceeded 0.30. As such, there were no concerns about the internal-consistency reliability.

Table 3 reports on the computed means and standard deviations.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics

	Means	**Standard deviations**
Responsible credit management	3.16	1.21
Perceived financial acumen	3.98	1.29

From Table 3 it can be seen that Generation Y students' perceived financial acumen is higher than their reported responsible credit management. This begs the question as to whether perceived financial acumen has any influence on responsible credit management. In order to address that question, linear regression analysis was conducted, as reported in Table 4.

Table 4: Results of regression analysis

Independent variable	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	T-value	Significance
Perceived financial acumen	0.134	0.018	0.016	3.066	0.002*
* Significant p q 0.01					

As is evident from Table 4, perceived financial acumen does have a statistically significant influence on South African Generation Y students' responsible credit management ($\beta = 0.134$, p q 0.01). However, this financial acumen only accounts for around 2 percent of the variance in their responsible credit management. This suggests that several factors besides perceived financial acumen predict this cohort's responsible credit management.

Discussion and conclusion

There are suggestions that financial education leads to financial acumen, which in turn leads to more responsible credit use. The findings of this study confirm that university students' perceived financial acumen does indeed influence their self-reported responsible credit use, suggesting that university courses directed at improving students' financial literacy are important. That being said, this financial literacy only explained a small percentage of the variance in their responsible credit usage, thereby providing a clear indication that factors other

than financial acumen play a role. One such potential factor is the cost of tertiary education. It seems likely that this cost has reached to point where managing the level of debt required to cover it would require financial wizardry rather than mere financial acumen. Universities need to seek ways of managing costs. These could include, for example, automating non-academic services and making more use of e-learning platforms. Governments also have a role of coming up with ways of increasing subsidies to tertiary institutions using different tax structures and by cutting spending in other areas, such as military expenditure. In an increasingly knowledge-driven society, a university qualification gains in importance and it is in the interest of countries around the world to find creative ways of keeping the cost of a tertiary qualification affordable.

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Compact Digital Knowledge in The Information Overload Age: A Case Study of Subscribers to an Online Library's Compact Digital Content

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Abstract

This study examines the role of compact digital knowledge as a novel learning strategy that enables easy access to the compressed digital format of knowledge. More specifically, this study focuses on the experiences of top managers who use the digital format of compact knowledge through an online library1 have been elicited by means of short interviews. We identified several value drivers of compact digital knowledge in the context of mobile learning. The theory of consumption values is applied to explain the better adoption of compact digital knowledge and mobile learning by the service industry. We analysed the data with Leximancer software to facilitate the development of a clear map and to extend our understanding of the main reasons why businesses decide to use compact digital knowledge. The results indicate that there is an increasing tendency for businesses toward compact business knowledge in digital format, particularly in the service sector.

Keywords: Mobile Learning, Compact digital knowledge, Theory of consumption values

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media 2

Introduction

Businesses have to make critical decisions based on real-time information in order to survive (Coblentz, 2002). The decision-making process depends on existing memory (e.g. documents and files) and knowledgeable employees who have the ability to respond to environmental changes promptly (Foss & Pedersen, 2002; Wang & Noe, 2010). To make rational decisions, employees need to be educated and have access to the latest and the most relevant business knowledge. This can help employees to develop novel solutions to address the needs of customers and business. Park et al. (2011) argue that employees can address business problems if they have access to critical data and relevant knowledge. Additionally, the faster that employees can learn and perform to satisfy customer needs, the more competitive will their business become (Yang et al., 2016). However, a challenge still exists in terms of developing a learning culture, and establishing a learning mechanism, that encourages employees to seek more knowledge. This requires a strategy comprising continuous training and advancement of employees (Vemić, 2007).

Many companies offer formal training and education sessions to their employees, while recent studies promote self-directed, informal learning through mobile learning tuition (Men, 2012; Park et al., 2011). Wiesner and Innes (2010) argue that managers, especially those in SMEs, disregard training and learning practices in a vain attempt to cut labour costs. To address this issue, businesses rely on e-learning, particularly mobile learning. Moreover, it results in fewer employee absences due to their attendance at training courses (Bielawski & Metcalf, 2003). Companies can subscribe to the databases of many publishers, allowing their employees to access learning from many resources. However, businesses must have a broader view of relevant utilities so that they can understand their employees' decisions to use these tools and technologies. Therefore, we applied the theory of consumption values to explain the adoption of compact digital knowledge via mobile learning. We selected a provider of online library and mobile learning - getAbstract – and one of the pioneers of this method of delivering compact knowledge. We analysed twenty-one subscribers to this company. From the perspective of consumer behavior theory, we examined two issues: why these businesses made the decision to subscribe to a compact digital knowledge library, and the specific services that they bought. The results of this research provide a better understanding of mobile learning and the concept of compact digital knowledge across businesses.

Theoretical background

There is no doubt that having competitive and knowledgeable employees is one of the main concerns of businesses. Hence, managers try to address employees' training and development needs. Employee learning and business performance outcomes are mediated by several tools that constrain and support employees in transforming their capabilities and achieving business strategic goals (Sharples et al., 2005). Therefore, managers need to select the most effective training tool and tailor it to facilitate organizational learning (Paul, 2014). However, using tailored training packages is challenging, particularly when employees come from different departments with varied training needs (Panagiotakopoulos, 2011).

On the other hand, the frenzied market for smartphones and other hand-held devices have resulted in changes to employees' learning preferences. Employees are now more accustomed to having information instantly available at their fingertips, learning by driving mobile initiatives across relevant business knowledge. They want to be able to obtain the benefits of available technologies via their devices and learn within their own working environment. Worldwide, more than half of global employees believe that they are not given adequate learning and development opportunities at work. One of the most recently adopted and

increasingly popular strategies used to maximise business opportunities is the use of mobile learning. Mobile learning is a flexible learning strategy that promotes interaction among 3 learners and allows knowledge to be accessed from remote locations (Moore et al., 2011). One technology facilitating online learning is a mobile device. Mobile learning refers to training through mobile devices which are limited to portable and small devices (Keegan, 2005; Keskin & Metcalf, 2011). In other words, mobile learning encourages employees' participation and engagement in organizational learning and improves their knowledge and understanding. Moreover, compared to traditional methods, mobile learning can halve the training costs (Bielawski & Metcalf, 2003). This paper contributes to the mobile learning literature by applying the theory of consumption value to new environments and technologies, specifically compact digital knowledge. Compact digital knowledge is undoubtedly a time-saving and cost-effective learning technology that offers compressed knowledge which is based on mobile learning. It also extracts the most relevant and recent information in concise, short summaries that allow the user to discover, absorb, share, and track bite-size information via organizational mobile learning. Access to compact digital knowledge through mobile devices takes the hassle out of employee training, particularly for marketing and sales employees who act as boundary spanners of the business. Most of the work done by these employees involves communication with customers, and therefore they need a new and different approach that enables them to engage in everyday learning on and off the job. The results show that compact digital knowledge is the next-generation organizational learning and development practice, which enables employers to offer ongoing learning and career development opportunities to their employees.

Methodology
This research considers multiple case studies (Table 1) in order to determine why prospector companies subscribe to an online library. We used secondary data supplied by getAbstract. Top managers of the subscribing companies were interviewed regarding their reasons for the subscription to getAbstract. Also, they discussed the outcomes and advantages of the subscription in terms of both business and employees. All interview transcripts are available to the public in a project report format through the getAbstract website. All cases were analysed to find out details and to extract common themes. The cases were read several times and divided into separate segments (within-case analysis). Multiple lists of important statements were extracted from the interviews and the project report by applying the content analysis technique. Then, overlaps and redundant information were eliminated. The data was compressed by creating coded categories so that specific themes could be recognised. Finally, the themes were combined and shaped into broad, interrelated constructs. Additionally, we created a table of labelled words to check for similarities among the cases in order to display coded data from each case (Table 2). Leximancer software was used to analyse extracted and coded themes, overall context, and managers' quoted statements. Leximancer is a research tool that applies content analysis for the purpose of ascertaining the presence of defined concepts, determining their interrelatedness, and enabling a visual display of the analysed data. In Leximancer, concepts are collections of words which usually are found together within the cases (Heath & Swabey, 2014). The software also clusters the concepts using Gaussian or Linear algorithms. Subsequently, the clustered concepts are shaped into themes. The concept map illustrates the most frequently occurring concepts in the text. It also shows the connection between concepts. The themes are depicted as coloured circles that surround concepts and are heat-mapped to indicate their importance. More specifically, the red circle is the most important theme, and the least important one is shown in blue (Figure 1).

Results

After obtaining relevant information from the interviews and eliminating any redundant and overlapping information, 28 phrases were extracted. To clarify the output, similar phrases and words were combined (table 2). Then, these phrases were integrated to form eight main 4 themes. By re-analysing the cases and themes, two main constructs emerged: knowledge development (employee-related) and efficient training (organization-related). The relationships of the phrases and themes are shown in Table 1.

Table 1- Emerged Constructs and Themes

Constructs	Themes		Phrases
Knowledge development	•	Employees career development	Business Knowledge / skills Improvement / Implement Knowledge in Practice / Professional development / Real time information / Strengthened relationships with clients
	•	Employee knowledge development	Educational Needs / Self-learning
	•	Facilitate knowledge sharing	VBF (The virtual business Forum) / Group discussion / Knowledge sharing
	•	Creative and innovative environment	Ongoing learning / Leadership development / Traditional hierarchy / Continuous learning / Creative and innovative environment
Efficient training	•	Time efficiency	Maintain learning momentum / Self-learning
	•	Real-time access	Up-to-date information
	•	Learning tool	Learning profile / Identifying Training Needs / User-Friendly/ Learning tool / Vast library coverage
	•	Online learning	Remote access / Mobile Learning / Online Access

Knowledge development

Knowledge development refers to career-related training and knowledge-sharing among employees (Hamranova et al., 2014). One of the main barriers to sustained competitive advantage for businesses is the lack of knowledge development strategies (Hult et al., 2007). Since the educational needs of employees are constantly changing, businesses need to build and maintain knowledge-development capabilities that enable employers to enrich and empower employees. Some of the themes that emerged from the statements made by top managers' statements that are related to construct of employee knowledge development are as follows:

Respondent 1, Operations Manager at GE Global Learning: "GE has integrated getAbstract into existing learning processes to empower employees with on-demand external thinking that fosters collaboration and knowledge sharing."

Respondent 2, Senior project manager at Daimler AG Corporate University: "Our in-house trainers and coaches refer employees to getAbstract's book summaries every day. getAbstract enables them to focus on developing people to think strategically while assuring that our personnel is up-to-date on the latest information in every field of professional practice."

Respondent 3, Manager of Organizational Development and Training at KIA: "We're offering our employees a continuous learning cycle. We want to ensure that every one of them maintains a peak level of relevant knowledge, and we have seen positive results from this."

Respondent 4, Global Talent Management at Master Card: "There's something in the getAbstract library for everyone. You can connect it to someone's individual development plan beautifully. Regardless of what [an employee is] working on, that library will have something in it to help him or her."

Respondent 5, Chief product officer in Master Card: "The summaries suit well to an individual's career development plan. People don't have time to read entire books, but through getAbstract, they can get the essence of a book."

Efficient training
Some researchers claim that the effectiveness of different training delivery methods (i.e., face-to-face, e-learning, and mobile learning) are not significant (Paul, 2014); nevertheless, managers are supposed to decide on which training methods meet the best needs of theirbusiness interests. In all of the analyzed cases, it was argued that getAbstract offers the advantage of employees having 24/7 access to learning materials in a compact format that is not as expensive as traditional learning modes. Furthermore, getAbstract makes training available for companies which are in geographically remote areas with employees in dispersed locations (Welsh et al., 2003). Many of the interviewees mentioned that employees check the summaries while they commute to and from work, either by reading printed copies or through their mobile devices. One of the other benefits of getAbstract is that it tailors business knowledge based on companies' educational needs. Interviewees mentioned factors such as time efficiency, remote access, and user friendliness, which are related to efficient training. Some of the themes that emerged from top managers' statements that are related to the construct of efficient training are indicated in the following quotations:

Respondent 6, VP of Talent Management at the Western Union: "getAbstract is aligned to our real-time learning and development strategy. Employees enjoy self-selecting relevant and useful content from a diverse range of topics from thought leaders."

Respondent 7, Principal Global Head of Learning at the Carlyle Group:"getAbstract is very easy. It's compact. It doesn't require a big time. Through getAbstract, the company now provides fast, easy access to the knowledge employees craves, so that can be re proactive about their professional development during their time with the company."

Respondent 8, Chief People Officer at Hellmann:"Real-time bite-sized learning content through multiple languages which increase accessibility and usage."

Respondent 9, E.ON's e-content, and informal learning specialist: "At E.ON we started using the most read summaries from getAbstract to look at the topics people are most interested in and using them as 'early indicators' of learning needs or issues within the organization."
Leximancer output

With Leximancer, the cases are read and summarized to extract top managers' statements as well as important themes. To obtain better results, three manual adjustments are made. First, words with weak semantic information (such as a companies' name) were added to a stop-list to prevent Leximancer from incorporating them in the analysis. Second, similar concepts such as "employee" and "personnel" were merged to prevent them from being considered as separate concepts. Third, some concepts such as "knowledge" and "development" were combined into compound concepts ("knowledge development"). Leximancer generated a concept map (Figure 1). In the analysis of cases, career is identified as the most common theme across cases followed by business (56%), knowledge (32%), and provide (15%). Moreover, because career is within the red circle, this indicates that the concepts in this

theme are most prominent in the dataset, indicating that 'career' is the main theme of cases. The theme most related to career is business, indicating the themes of 'career' and 'business' are closely related.

Discussion
Figure 1 indicates that the career theme includes the words 'development', 'ongoing', 'learning' and 'mobile'. The interrelatedness of these concepts confirms that getAbstract Figure 1 - Leximancer Overall Map provides career development, mobile learning, and online access to content. The second most common theme, 'business', suggests the effectiveness of training for businesses regarding business growth, up-to-date education, and easy-to-use materials. The third most common theme, 'knowledge', reveals that the contents of the interviews include references to up-to-date knowledge, virtual knowledge, and the importance of training in service industries. The fourth theme, 'provide', suggests that there is a relationship between using getAbstract, 'time' 'efficiency', and 'management' 'competency'. It could be concluded that Leximancer provides more evidence about findings of the content analysis of the interviews in the previous stage. We also produced different maps for top managers' statements and a map showing reasons for subscribing across service and manufacturing industries.

Based on the map for managers' comments, the dominant theme is 'time'. Closely connected to 'time' is the concept 'business' and connected to 'business' is the concept 'easy'. This indicates that managers consider that getAbstract is a desirable business tool which is easy to use and time efficient. This also refers to efficient training tools that were coded in the first stage of the study. Moreover, the 'reason' map indicates that learning is the most dominant theme as shown in red, which also emphasizes 'employees' and 'access'. 'Access' occurs almost as frequently as 'learning,' indicating that both learning and access are frequently referred to in the original text, closely followed by 'employees'. Again, 'easy' was the most important concept of the second theme that is connected to 'time' and 'efficiency'. Even less common are the words 'tool', 'business', and 'knowledge' which are connected with the third theme. We propose that the reason for themes being more related to knowledge development is because that was introduced as the first coded construct. Surprisingly, 'learning' and 'knowledge' appear far less frequently than concepts associated with time, management and employees. Perhaps the time efficiency provided by summaries is considered a more important reason for subscribing to getAbstract than are learning and knowledge transfer. Moreover, we compared the reason for subscribing to getAbstract across service and manufacturing industries. Out of twenty-one cases, twelve cases were in the service industry, and nine were in the manufacturing industry. The most frequent concept in the service industry was 'knowledge', its range, and the variety that was related to customers. For instance, respondent 9, who is the director of learning and talent management of a financial service provider states that in getAbstract library employees can bring additional insight to their conversation and become trusted advisers to their customers." However, in the manufacturing industry the thematic summary emphasized up-to-date knowledge and easy learning and development.

Conclusion
By analysing consumption value perceptions across all cases, we capture businesses by utilities compact digital knowledge via mobile learning, benefit from several dimensions such as value-for-time, value-for-money, and quality. These combinations of values are used as the basis upon which businesses develop their subscriptions within the compact digital online library. We found that time was one of the most crucial elements for businesses. Also, we

noted that some organizations have a limited budget allocated for training and development purposes. Moreover, employees may have no time to sit in a class for formal training or scroll through hundreds of web pages, or read dozens of business books. On the other hand, managers acknowledged that their employees might not able to complete a one-hour e-learning program during a 30-minute lunch break. Therefore, they appreciate that employees can more efficiently use their time by using getAbstract. These combinations of values determine the extent to which businesses subscribe to a compact digital online library. In this study, we used the theory of consumption values to explain the better adoption of compact digital knowledge and mobile learning by the service industry. We recommend that other businesses, especially those with a large number of frontline employees and service providers, apply mobile learning and provide their employees with compact digital knowledge. This is also more effective for SMEs that have a limited budget for learning and development practices and also cannot offer formal onthe-job training for their employees. One of the limitations of this study is that little consideration was given to the negative consequences of 24/7 access anytime and anywhere (e.g. chaotic learning and overload interaction), which may result in a work-life-learning imbalance. Moreover, the application of compact knowledge in some business areas may lead to a loss of content, especially in the case of new employees with irrelevant experience. Therefore, further investigation is needed to address the negative aspects of applying online learning and compact knowledge in businesses.

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Using Learning Analytics to Guide Learning: An Analysis of Marketing Assignments

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Abstract
The increase in interest of marketers to explore the meaning of messages and brand sentiment in social media programs such as Facebook, Blogs and Twitter has seen increased demand for ever more sophisticated text analysis tools. Such developments in text analysis are finding their way into other applications and hold potential for education through the assessment of text based writing in assignments. This paper reviews a number of learning analytics tools and presents the results of a project which has analysed assignments for a marketing management subject in a masters course. Results are presented for five criteria identified from the subject's marking rubric and analysed through a computer program featuring word statistics, readability, term search and natural language processing. The results are compared to human marking grades. The findings highlight the opportunities such approaches have in guiding an understanding of student performance, supporting tutor moderation and in providing feedback to students.

Keywords: learning analytics, automated marking, readability, natural language processing, student feedback

Track: 10. Marketing Education

Introduction

With the emergence of big data and advances in tools such as text analytics, information retrieval, machine learning and natural language processing marketers are starting to explore new opportunities in understanding consumer behaviour and in solving marketing problems (Chintagunta, Hanssens & Hauser, 2016). While much of this work is still being advanced in a range of disciplines the opportunity arises for exploring how such techniques can be applied to the teaching of marketing and for the assessment of students.

Examples of automated analysis and evaluation of written text are emerging in a variety of contexts, from formative feedback in writing instruction (from primary through tertiary education), to summative assessment (e.g. grading essays or short answer responses with or without a second human grader). As class sizes increase there is a corresponding increase in the use of large-scale exams and the generation of a plethora of writing to be evaluated and assessed (e.g. 1000+ students in first year classes at University, NAPLAN in Australia, and exams based on the Common Core State Standards Initiative in the US and the rise in popularity of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCS)). At the same time, the increase in interest of marketers to explore the meaning of messages and brand sentiment in social media programs such as Facebook, Blogs and Twitter has seen increased demand for ever more sophisticated text analysis tools. Such developments in text analysis are finding their way into applications for education and pose potential for the assessment of text based writing such as assignments.

A history of automated writing evaluation (AWE) generally begins with the work of English teacher turned researcher Ellis Page, and his Project Essay Grade (PEG) beginning in the 1960s. (Although we might go back further to Turing's (1950) famous imitation game, since the aim of many machine scoring engines is to imitate a human rater.) In a 1966 article in the Phi Delta Kappan, Page insisted "we will soon be grading essays by computer, and this development will have astonishing impact on the educational world" (Page 1966, p. 238; emphasis in original). Ellis had an optimistic vision for writing feedback being provided to students much more extensively and in a much more timely manner than could be achieved by English teachers in school or college: "Just for a moment, then, imagine what the result would be if all student essays could be turned over to a computer, which would perform a stylistic and subject-matter analysis according to the general rules desired, and deliver extensive comment and suggestion for the student to the teacher by the first bell the next day" (1966, p. 239).

Something of Page's vision is now closer to reality in various automated formative tools, offering immediate descriptive feedback on writing (e.g. WriteLab, Turnitin's Revision Assistant, Pearson's WriteToLearn™, ETS' Criterion®, and Vantage Learning's MyAccess!). In addition to these proprietary products a number of freely available services from the academic domain are also available to examine text and extract phrases including Coh-Metrix, WordNet, TerMine, MALLET Stanford Core NLP and Natural Language Toolkit. However, there is a long way to go, and the development of the technology has in large part been focussed on grading essays for large-scale examinations to save time and costs, and dominated by large testing organisations, (e.g. ETS's e-rater®, Pearson's Intelligent Essay Assessor™ and Vantage Learning's IntelliMetric®). The software used to grade essays is largely proprietary, and much of the research conducted on its validity has been carried out by those working for the companies selling these products (see Ericsson & Haswell 2006 for a critique of this trend.) Indeed, much opposition remains to AWE, both in high-stakes scoring and formative feedback (e.g. CCCC 2003, 2009; Perelman 2014).

Nevertheless, as the technology advances and formative tools evolve to give more useful feedback, those inside the industry are using different terms to describe it. In 2003 Shermis and

Burstein edited a collection of work on the subject called Automated Essay Scoring: A Cross-Disciplinary Approach. In their updated version, published in 2013, the title shifted to Automated Essay Evaluation: Current Applications and Directions.2 As Whithaus points out in the foreword, "The shift indicates that feedback, interaction, and an altogether wider range of possibilities for software is being envisioned in 2012 than was seen in 2003" (Burstein et. al., 2013, p. viii). More recently, systems like WriteLab and Turnitin's Revision Assistant have focussed on the iterative nature of writing and on providing formative feedback, rather than grades, in order to encourage students to revise and rewrite their work.

AWE draws on multidisciplinary insights from computer science, linguistics, writing research, cognitive psychology, educational data mining (EDM) and learning analytics (LA). In this research, the use of business analytics methods are being applied to the development and refinement of software that can provide formative feedback to students, but also assist teachers in understanding their student's performance and areas where guided instruction could be directed in understanding terms and concepts covered, or not, in assignments.

Next Generation Rubrics
The Next Generation Rubric project was established at an Australian University as a collaboration between a small number of academics and a newly appointed business analytics team. The project was supported by an internal Learning and Teaching grant and sought to develop a proof of concept for a tool to provide students and academics information on the performance of text based assignments.

The starting point for the development of the tool was a marking rubric as these underpin many standardised marking schemes at Universities. While it is acknowledged that rubrics have come to have a range meanings to various people (Dawson, 2015), in this paper its meaning is based on Popham's (1997) definition; "a scoring guide used to evaluate the quality of students' constructed responses" and consists of an evaluative criteria, and guidance on expectations for associated scores or marks (Popham, 1997).

The project analysed assignments from two subjects, although the results reported here are based on the analysis of a major assignment for an introductory marketing management subject in a Master of Management course. Approximately eighty students had completed the subject in the previous semester and the assignment formed the basis of the corpus analysed. The assignment required students to write a new product report on a company introducing a new, and disruptive, service (video streaming). Students were asked to assess, analyse and make recommendations for the business based on sustainable, social and ethical concepts of a firm.

The marking criteria for the assignment included the elements of structure (including spelling, grammar and punctuation), evidence of research and correct referencing, critical analysis and identification of issues and recommendations based on marketing theories. Using the marking criteria as the basis for analysis a program was developed that would provide feedback on students' performance. By examining the results from the analysis a greater understanding of

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2 In addition to AES and AEE, other terms which are commonly used to describe automated writing analysis include automated essay grading (AEG) and machine scoring of writing (MSW). The terms "robo-grading" and "robo-reader" are also used popularly, often in a pejorative sense. Here we prefer AWE as a general term.

the computer's ability to assess student performance could be evaluated, and the results could be compared to the human issued marks for each assignment.

Methodology

Sixty final term assignments from a previous semester were randomly selected from a master's level class with the remaining assignments reserved for later analysis. Assignments were downloaded from the LMS and de-identified prior to analysis. Each was converted into a text file and assessed marks retained within the filename. Initial cleaning removed page numbers, images, cover pages, tables of content and any unnecessary symbols or characters.

A computer program was developed to automate the extraction of relevant measures for five major dimensions of the marking rubric; 1) critical thinking terms, 2) research and referencing information, 3) assignment statistics, 4) assignment readability and 5) key terms as identified through automated natural language processing. Assignment statistics and readability were extracted using functions provided by Microsoft Office Word (Microsoft, 2016). When extracting key words, stop words, which commonly occur in a language and have no value for the analysis, were omitted. During single word extraction the stemmed words were retrieved using Porter stemming algorithm (Porter, 1980) to transform the retrieved words to their root form. Critical thinking terminology was guided by Paul's (1995) list of critical thinking terms and TerMine was used to extract phrases. TerMine is an approach which provides automatic recognition of multi-word terms (Frantzi, Ananiadou & Mima 2000) based on the collocation of particular words with other words based on probabilities. It combines linguistic and statistical analyses to identify key terms in a document. A program written using C#.Net was then used to extract the key words. The results of each analysis were then compared to the marks achieved through human marking.

Results

As outlined above the corpus was analysed for critical thinking terms, citations, word statistics, readability and key word and phrases. The results are discussed in the following section as they relate to the human marked results. The assignments were organised into five groups, each with a different number of assignments, so averages are reported here, although it is acknowledged that weighting for assignment word length has not been undertaken in the results presented here. Table 1 presents the findings for the first four analyses while Table 2 presents details of the key phrase extraction.

Critical Thinking Terms

From Table 1 it can be seen that the use of identified critical thinking terms increased with grades, as could be expected. The overall average was 16.3 terms per assignment with A grade assignments reporting 18.7 while Fail grade assignments reported 16.7. The D, C and B assignments were around 17, although the C graded assignments had fewer, and even lower numbers than the F graded assignments.

In terms of the most used critical thinking terms, there were similarities across the graded assignments, although each had a different combination in their top three. They included the terms Analyse, Data, World, Problem and Fact. It appears that the 'A' assignments made more references to 'data' whereas the B, C and F assignments made greater use of the term 'analyse'.

Table 1: Summary of results from analysis of assignments

Human marked Grade	0-19 (F/<50%)	20-23 (D/50-59 %)	24-27 (C/60-69%)	28-31 (B/70-79%)	32-40 (A/80+%)	All Assignments
# of Assignments	3	12	18	20	7	60
Critical Thinking						
Average # Critical Thinking terms	16.7	17.5	15.7	17.7	18.7	16.3
Top 3 critical thinking terms (by frequency)	Analyse World Fact	World Analyse Data	Analyse Problem World	Analyse Data World	Data Analyse Problem	Analyse Data World
Citations						
Av Citations	9.7	17.7	12	13.2	30.7	15.2
Av Distinct Authors	5.3	8.25	7.2	6.8	13.6	7.9
Word Statistics						
Av Word Count	2151	2603	2697	2758	3284	2739
Av Paragraph Count	45	66	66	68	110	70
Av Spelling Error	8.3	26.8	27.5	26.5	35	26.9
Av Grammar Error	1.7	6.8	10.0	7.7	4.9	7.6
Readability						
Flesch Reading Ease	35.3	39.3	39.3	38.7	33.4	37.8
Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level	14.5	12.8	12.7	12.9	14.1	13.0

Citations

The number of citations and distinct authors were captured in the analysis of citations. The average number of citations was 15, with similar numbers for the B, C and D graded assignments and a lower number for F grade assignments. In contrast the A grade assignments had double the number of citations of the other assignments. The pattern is similar for the average number of distinct authors, although interestingly the D assignments had more than the C and B graded assignments.

Word Statistics

The assignment specified a word length of 2500 words, however the analysis indicates that the marker was lenient and did not penalise students for longer assignments. In fact students with longer assignments benefited with higher grades. The paragraph count also increases with the allocated grade. Investigation of the texts suggests the higher number of paragraphs is associated with the greater use of bullet points and or numbered paragraphs indicating greater organisation of ideas in the assignment and consistent with a report format.

Ironically the spelling error rate appears to increases with the grade, however this occurs as the result of the greater number of citations and use of authors with names that are detected as spelling mistakes instead of being actual mistakes. In contrast the number of grammatical errors decreases with the grade as could be expected.

Readability

The Flesch reading ease scores are similar across all grades with the exception of the A graded assignments where the score drops to 33.4. Scores in the 30-50 range are indicative of college level reading and are considered 'difficult to read'. Lower scores indicate more difficulty in readability. Of note was that some of the Fail graded assignments also had lower readability scores. The Flesch-Kincaid scores correspond to a U.S. grade level (higher scores equal higher levels of education). The results correspond inversely to the scores for the Flesch readability scores providing a grade level for the data between 12.7 and 14.5.

Key Phrase Extraction

Sixty key phrases were extracted from the corpus for examination using TerMine. The phrases were examined across three groups for convenience (bottom, middle and top) and the phrases and frequencies compared. The results are reported in Table 2.

Table 2: Key marketing related terms extracted and their frequency

Term	Bottom	Middle	Top
Free trial	29	21	14
Joint venture	29	20	14
Marketing mix	28	21	27
Marketing strategy/ies	11	24	47
New product	31	24	18
Target market	21	10	27
Brand awareness	-	12	16
Competitive advantage	10	-	25
Competitor analysis	10	-	-
Pricing strategy	-	16	-
SWOT analysis	-	9	-
Sustainable competitive advantage	-	-	15
Total marketing terms	169	157	203
Non-marketing terms	406	319	322
Marketing terms as proportion of all terms	34%	43%	50%

Examination of the list of terms identified phrases that could be related to marketing and its function in marketing strategy together with non-marketing terms which related to the case addressed in the assignment. The marketing phrases and their frequency for each group are listed in Table 2. All three groups with varying frequencies referred to the first six phrases. The next six terms were only mentioned by one or two of the groups. Examination of the frequencies of the marketing terms show that the top group have the most mentions of marketing terms followed by the bottom group then middle group. The frequency of non-marketing terms is also reported, as is the proportion of marketing terms in relation to the total mentions of all phrases. The results show that the top group had the highest proportion of marketing terms (50%) followed by the middle group (43%) then the bottom group (34%).

Discussion and future opportunities

The results presented here highlight opportunities for marketing lecturers and in particular subject coordinators of large classes, to undertake automated analysis of assignments to obtain greater understanding of student's performance in major pieces of assessment that are related to marking rubrics using tools from learning analytics.

Work on the project is continuing with the preparation of software to automate much of the process and to present data in a user-friendly dashboard for subject coordinators, which can

also be used to provide feedback to students. This would include the opportunity for subject coordinators to drill down into the data to identify students at-risk. A second part of the project involves developing a student dashboard that will provide feedback on individual performance for their assignment. Further work to refine the accuracy of the tool could include the use of additional measures, such as behavioural measures.

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Track 11:   Marketing Research

Innovation, orientation, driving and shaping: A comparative text analysis of strategic marketing corpora

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Abstract
In the search for competitive advantage numerous strategic marketing frameworks relating to 'the market' and 'markets' have developed over the years. However, the similarities and differences of these approaches have received little attention. Thus, these approaches are worthy of further interrogation so that the subtleties that lie within and between them may be better understood through comparing and contrasting their distinguishing conceptual themes. We examine a selection of text (corpora) relating to four predominant strategic approaches: "market innovation", "market driving", "proactive market orientation", and "market shaping". We report on how the corpora were selected and analysed, then key findings are presented and compared with generally accepted theoretical positions therein. We conclude these marketing approaches differ along key dimensions: responsiveness to existing versus future customer needs; the role of innovation; and innovation's interface with the marketing function. Additionally, we demonstrate how Leximancer provides insight in the analysis of related academic corpora.

Keywords: Leximancer, market innovation, market driving, proactive market orientation, market shaping

Track: Marketing research

Introduction

This paper interrogates four predominant strategic marketing approaches, namely "market innovation", "market driving", "proactive market orientation", and "market shaping". With few exceptions (e.g. Storbacka and Nenonen, 2015) scholars have paid little attention to their comparative features. Therefore, the similarities and differences of these approaches are worthy of investigation so that the subtleties that lie within and between them may be better understood. A fuller understanding of these nuances may be achieved through an examination of the concepts that underlie these approaches. Young, Wilkinson and Smith (2015) make a call for the application of the text analysis software Leximancer to perform analyses of the business marketing literature. Accordingly, we respond to that call by examining a selection of text relating to these select strategic marketing approaches. The purpose of this research is to develop a better understanding of the use and meaning of these terms through comparing and contrasting their distinguishing conceptual themes. We ask the question, "What are the key thematic similarities and differences between these four corpora?"

Leximancer

Leximancer (version 4) enables "a comprehensive lexicographic analysis of bodies of text" (Young, Wilkinson and Smith, 2015, p.112), thereby facilitating a superior analysis of text to that undertaken manually (Smith and Humphreys, 2006; Young et al., 2015). This analysis is conducted in two stages. The initial stage is an examination of the text for the most important "lexical terms on the basis of word frequency and co-occurrence of usage" (Smith and Humphreys, 2006, p.262). These words then comprise the initial terms that will populate a thesaurus, and around which other concepts can be assembled. The researcher can fine-tune the program's settings so as to deliver more focussed or relevant results and to remove irrelevant terms or other textual 'noise'. A strength of automated analysis over manual analysis is the reproducibility of results by different researchers providing the text selection stage has been undertaken systematically, and the program's settings justified and clearly defined (Smith and Humphreys, 2006). Leximancer's output allows for both statistical and interpretive analysis. A visual map of concepts is produced that displays the major themes present in the text based on their frequency of use, together with the most connected concepts to those themes. "The concept map can be thought of as a bird's eye view of the data, illustrating the main features (i.e. concepts) and how they interrelate" (Leximancer, 2011, p.117). Together with the concept map the researcher is provided with tables and other data that allow for further exploration of meaning.

Development and analysis of the corpora

The four strategic marketing approaches chosen represent predominant frameworks that feature a holistic view of the entire 'market': customers, competitors, and the firm itself. Scopus was searched for the appearance of the exact phrases ("market innovation", "market driving", "proactive market orientation", and "market shaping") in the title, abstract, or as keywords, of peer-reviewed articles in highly-ranked journals, that is, higher than a C according to the ABDC ranking database (ABDC, 2016). To broaden the volume of articles beyond the Scopus database a Google Scholar search was also undertaken. Due to limitations in the search function of Google Scholar the exact phrases could only be searched for in the title or abstract only. The number of articles that were selected to construct the four corpora were as follows: "market innovation" (117 articles); "market driving" (29 articles); "proactive market orientation" (29 articles); and "market shaping (22 articles).

Leximancer's settings were refined to ensure only sentence-like text was analysed, achieved by setting the 'prose test threshold' to the maximum of 5, resulting in reference lists

and other text in non-paragraph-like form being eliminated from the analysis. The generated concepts were further refined so that non-conceptual or meaningless textual 'noise' was removed. Other terms that were related to research method, process or analysis were also removed. Before removal, but after initial analysis by Leximancer, the concept lists were examined for their use in context (by querying the term) and by investigating the terms collocated with them. Other studies, undertaking comparative analyses of concepts dominating academic journal issues over time (e.g. Cretchley, Rooney and Gallois, 2010; Young, et al., 2015) have maintained concepts relating to research and data analysis as they assist in understanding the changing nature of scholarly focus over time. However, as this study is related to contemporary use of strategic marketing terminology rather than the study of them, these terms were removed from the concept list.

Results

The major themes (and relative connectivity) plus associated concepts (by corpus) are shown in Figure 1, which is constituted of the four Leximancer generated maps. Henceforth, all themes will be formatted as Bold italics with a capital letter and all concepts that lie within themes will be formatted as italics in lower case. Percentages express the degree of connectivity between the major theme in each corpus and its subordinate themes.

"Market innovation" "Market innovation" was the largest and broadest corpus examined, featuring 11,732 sentence blocks across 117 articles. Six themes emerged: Innovation, Research, Use, Economic, Price and Consumption. The themes Research (75%), Use (74%), and Economic (70%) demonstrate high connectedness with the most prevalent theme, Innovation. Price (31%) has some connectivity, but Consumption (2%) has relatively little. Within the Innovation theme we see high connectedness with concepts that help drive innovation (such as technology, knowledge and social) or are possibly subject to innovation (such as products). Within Research much business management-related terminology appears, e.g. management, firms, business, companies, together with innovation research-related terms, e.g. science, performance, development. Economic features many diverse concepts related to external or macro-economic dimensions that may constrain or enable innovation: from policy stems national, international, economic, economy, capital, sector, government. The single concept of economy marks the overlap with Price, but seems to relate to some negatively valanced concepts such as risk and problem. Attached to risk are the concepts countries, financial, bank and credit. Price and consumption are closely connected. Use features concepts related to process (e.g. change, time, exchange, form) as well as those key to business success in the modern age (information, competitive, strategy and value).

"Proactive market orientation" This was the second largest corpus (by the number of sentence blocks) featuring 9,001 sentence blocks across its 29 articles. This corpus displays a low level of connectedness between the most prevalent theme, Market (at 100%) and the subordinate themes: Research (only 22% connectivity), Innovation (21%), Firms (14%), Technology (6%) and, the outlier theme, Political (1%). Hence, Market features a number of densely packed concepts aligned with competitive accomplishment, e.g. success, competitive, relationship, proactive, responsive and performance. Connected to Market, but overlapping with Firms are customer, customers and needs. These are further connected to sales and products within Firms. Services and growth sit closely together within Firms. Information is also an important concept within this theme. Research is notable for its alignment with concepts relating to competitive advantage in the market place, e.g. marketing, strategy, strategic, approach and capabilities. Closely related to the marketing concept in Research, but overlapping with Innovation, is different, which also aligns closely with other Innovation-related concepts: radical, development and potential. Research and Technology do not directly overlap; instead, Innovation provides the bridging theme. Branching from the key innovation concept we see

process, based, and companies (coupled with system). Innovation and technology have a direct connection, and Technology features industry, use and service

Figure 1: Concept maps (concept visibility = 100%, theme size = 48%)

Figure 1: Concept maps (concept visibility = 100%, theme size = 48%)
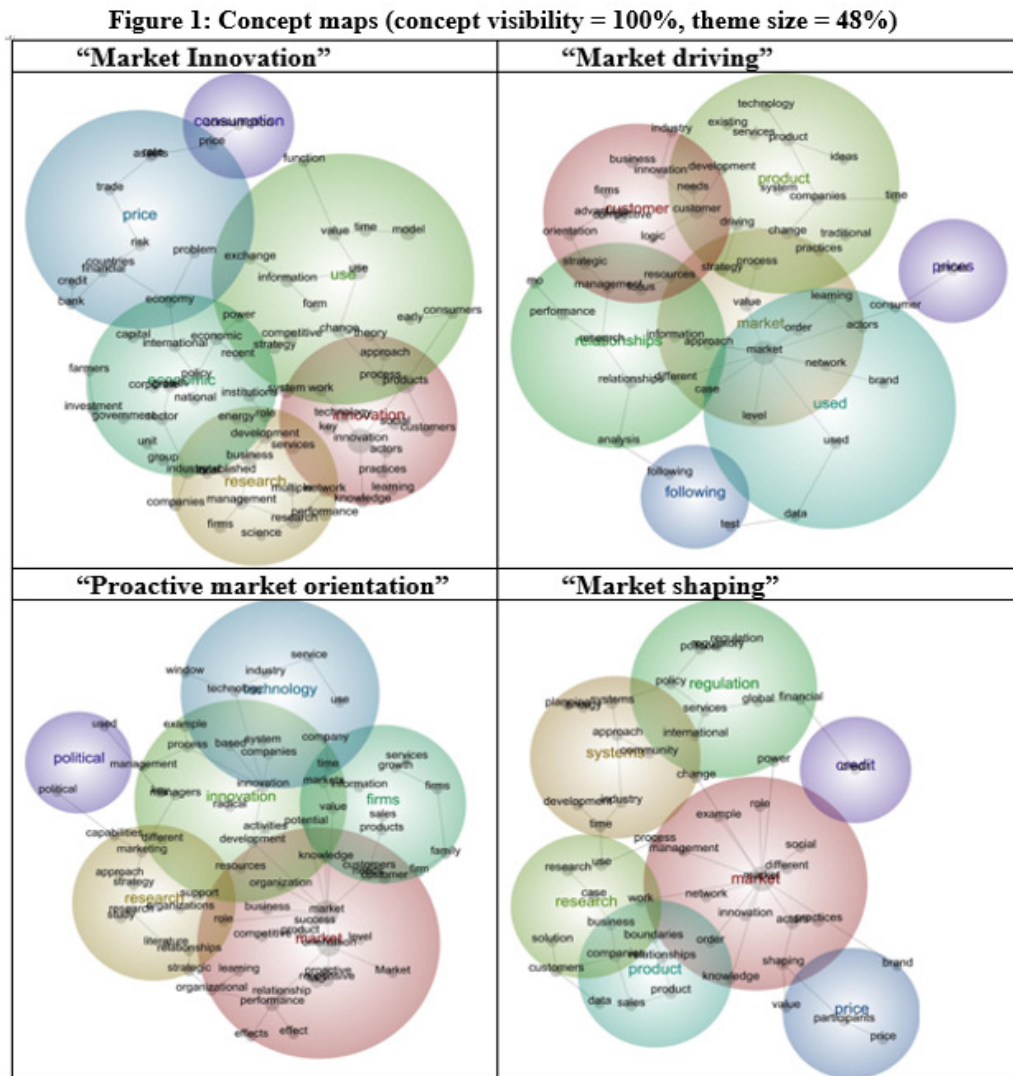
"Market driving" The "market driving" corpus has the same number of articles as "proactive market orientation" (29 articles) but features a smaller number of sentence blocks (3,109 as opposed to 9,001). "Market Driving" is the only corpus to predominantly feature customer- and network focused themes: Customer (100%) and Relationships (53%). Other major themes are Market (at 98% only mildly subordinate to Customer) and Product (75%). Within the Customer theme, strategic concepts competitive, advantage, orientation, strategic, focus and management are clustered together, connecting into Relationships. On the other side of the Customer bubble, business, innovation, customer, needs and development connect with Product, possibly demonstrating the strategic importance in this approach of meeting customer needs through product innovation. Further connecting into Product, and stemming directly from customer, are driving, change, practices, traditional. From product stems services, technology and ideas. Also within Customer is the concept logic. Inspection of text block

examples show this relates to the Service Dominant Logic. The major bridging theme within the "Market driving" corpus is Market, which overlaps into four other major themes: Product, Customer, Relationships and Used. An important concept within Market is value, which has multiple meanings including references to numerical values in research analysis. However, it also relates to both 'values' (from an ethical perspective), and 'value' (from a transactional or co-creative perspective).

"Market shaping" This was the smallest corpus by articles (22 articles), but with 5,977 sentence blocks was a larger data-set than "market driving". A feature of this corpus, as opposed to the others, is its more splintered nature with multiple themes having relatively little overlap. Market (100%) is the dominant theme, followed by four somewhat equally-proportional themes: Systems (46%), Research (39%), Regulation (37%), and Product (32%). The core Market theme is dominated by concepts alluding to plasticity and change, and drawn from contemporary marketing: actors, process, practices, shaping, different, innovation and knowledge. Graphically, actors and practices are closely collocated, and connect through to the Price theme through shaping to value and participants. Systems features little overlap with Market, but nevertheless is the second-largest theme. The only directly connected concept is change. Furthermore, Systems includes other concepts that reflect fluidity, including development, change, planning and approach. The overlap between Systems and Regulation is an interesting feature, directly joined by the concept policy. Regulation includes a number of outward-looking concepts: regulation, regulatory, and political; and (samples of text blocks demonstrate) alludes to the Global Financial Crisis that further connects into the smallest theme, Credit. Lastly, the themes Research and Product overlap. Two important concepts within Research, customers and solution, connect through companies within the Product theme, which also features relationships, data and sales.

Discussion and conclusion

It was expected that Market would feature prominently across all corpora, especially as it was always a search term. This is indeed the case but for only three of the four corpuses ("proactive market orientation", "market driving" and "market shaping"). Market does not appear at all in the "market innovation" results which, instead, feature Innovation, Research, Use and Economic as its most dominant themes. This would seem to reinforce the assertion that market innovation is primarily driven by technological innovation, rather than market processes (Kjellberg, Azimont and Reid, 2015; Lawlor and Kavanagh, 2015). Furthermore, it is the degree of technological innovation (from incremental to disruptive) that dictates whether existing customer needs are being met or entirely new markets created. The internal firm focus of the concepts within the Research theme (such as business and management) and the science concept also reinforce the reliance of this strategic approach on technology as the driver of competitive advantage. However, the external perspective in "market innovation" is Economic (including national, international, sector, government), suggesting that a core outcome of market innovation is the opening up of new markets (Kjellberg et al., 2015).

Like "market innovation", the literature tells us "proactive market orientation" also relies on research and development to be a main driver of strategy, but with a focus on future market needs (Lamore, Berkowitz and Farrington, 2013; Srivastava, Yoo, Frankwick and Voss, 2013). Reid et al. (2014) state that a proactive market orientation may even feature "radical innovation [that] deals with new products and views of the world that are considered truly unique and often foreign to current perceptions of reality" (p.1353). However, Storbacka and Nenonen (2015) assert there is an implicit assumption in this approach that the 'the market' itself is fixed. Our "proactive market orientation" results show the theme Innovation operates as a bridging

theme for almost the entire corpus. It includes concepts radical, development, knowledge, activities and system, and is closely linked, conceptually, with Technology. This reinforces the role of R&D to achieve competitive advantage, however, with "proactive market orientation" it has been demonstrated the marketing function plays a key role in partnership with R&D (Lamore, Berkowitz and Farrington, 2013). Accordingly, in our results the theme Research features concepts marketing, strategy, different and approach. Of the four corpora, "market driving" appears to place the most focus on the customer, with significant themes in Customer (100%), Product (75%) and Relationships (53%). Within Customer, competitive, advantage, orientation, strategic and management are clustered together, and connect into the theme Relationships. Relationships is also significant as a market driving approach may be characterised by the reconfiguring of supply chains to feature networks of relational partners (Elg et al., 2012). This is reflected in our results with the appearance of concepts actors, network and learning within Market, and (as mentioned in the results section) value (from a 'shared values' perspective). Within Product we see key concepts in system, change and strategy. This reflects another accepted approach to market driving which is to "gain a more sustainable competitive advantage by delivering a leap in customer value through a unique business system" (Kumar, Scheer and Kotler, 2000, p.129). This approach is remarkable, then, for being considerably less focused than other approaches on either macroeconomic factors or the confines of the 'market', and more focused on the development of new business systems, including supply chain reconfiguration.

All corpora feature single bridging themes that are highly conceptually linked across the corpus except, notably, "market shaping". Also, unlike most of the other corpora, Innovation does not feature as a theme in "market shaping". Instead, this approach is dominated by the Market theme, with closely linked, key concepts such as different, actors, network, practices and innovation. This is reflected in the literature which tells us "market shaping" accepts markets as dynamic, changing, and socially constructed, rather than rigid or fixed (Storbacka and Nenonen, 2015), and that "market agents are hybrid collectives'' (Araujo, Finch and Kjellberg, 2010, p.5) that jointly comprise "markets as ecosystems" (Storbacka and Nenonen, 2015, p.74). Moreover, markets are never entirely stable but are "shaped by the actions that can heat up or cool down a situation and possibly lead to another form" (Blanchet and Depeyre, 2016, p.43). Hence, the focus of "market shaping" is on innovating the market, and influencing, and creating, the networks of actors that appear within. It is apparent that although these four strategic marketing approaches ("market innovation", "market driving", "proactive market orientation", and "market shaping") are often used commonly in the strategic management and marketing literatures there are some subtle similarities and differences in their construct which our analysis has highlighted. Similarities include the role of innovation as a driver for competitiveness, but differences include the type of innovation, and its interface with the marketing function. Additionally, the contrasting outward- or inward-looking perspectives (economic versus regulatory; internal systems versus global partner networks), and the relevance of the customer within the different approaches is notable. We conclude that Leximancer is a valuable tool, facilitating a nuanced and comprehensive analysis of related academic corpora and thereby enabling us to extend and refine our understanding of these terms. It has potential for future application in the marketing discipline when an understanding of subtly contrasting material is required.

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Repurchase Acceleration – A Method to Remedy Hypothetical Bias and Projection Bias in Intention-Based Loyalty Measurement
*** Best Paper of Track ***

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Abstract
Recent advances in the literature and in practice have identified two critical biases in current intention-based customer loyalty measurements, namely, hypothetical bias and projection bias. We propose Repurchase Acceleration (RA), an incentive-aligned measurement for customer loyalty at the present time, to correct for these two biases. RA is compared with widely adopted intention-based loyalty measurements in an empirical study. The empirical results demonstrate that RA is much more accurate in predicting participants' repurchase decisions and that it captures more than twice the amount of information that is captured by the best intention-based loyalty measurement models.

Keywords: Customer Loyalty Measurement, Incentive-aligned Design, Information Acceleration, Hypothetical Bias, Projection Bias

Track: Marketing Research

Choosing Methods of Investigation

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Abstract
Methods of investigation may be used for social or psychological reasons rather than because they are appropriate to the research question. Some of the problems associated with the selection of methods are reviewed and suggestions are made to combat the use of inappropriate methods. In particular, there is a need to use methods that have generalizable findings, even at the expense of control. Often, weakness in the methods used is unavoidable and researchers need to be more open about such deficiencies so that these can be remedied in further research.

Keywords: methods of investigation, experiments, quasi-experiments, diffusion

Track: 11. Methods of marketing investigation

Introduction

The methods that we use in consumer research and related social sciences are either for:

Analysis, such as statistical methods, classifications, textual counts, or

Investigation, such as measurement instruments, experiments, surveys, observational studies, qualitative methods. Some model building (e.g. agent-based modelling) may belong to both groups but here we treat it as a method of investigation

We have rules for selecting methods of analysis which rest on the logic of statistical procedures and the appropriateness of the method for making relevant inferences. Thus, if we want to find out whether two sets of numbers have significantly different means we might use a t-test if the data were normal or, if not normal, a corresponding non-parametric test since these are the appropriate methods. Here, we can follow rules to choose an appropriate method and the rules are fairly well understood. There are problems of pedantic obsession with some methods of analysis but resolution of differences can be achieved because there are rules.

The situation is less clear with methods of investigation and the purpose of this paper is to review the way in which such methods are selected and to suggest ways of strengthening this aspect of our work. Sometimes researchers are quite open about preferences that cannot be justified by reference to criteria of appropriateness. The author recalls hearing Martin Fishbein's response to a question asking why he used 7-point scales for testing the theory of reasoned action. He said that, where he came from, the work of Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957) was highly regarded and that, if 7-point scales were good enough for the measurement of meaning by those researchers, it was good enough for him. The point here is that, whether or not there are good criteria for, in this case, scale selection, there are also social and psychological factors that may sometimes dominate in the choice of method. Other socially based reasons for choosing methods come to mind:

Those who examine doctoral students may find that they continue to use multi-item scales to measure singular concepts despite the strong arguments of Rossiter and his co-workers against this practice. Students and their supervisors may be concerned that examiners will prefer the Churchill (1973) tradition of multi-item measurement. Here we see social factors in contest with analytical criteria in the choice of method. Recent work suggests that Rossiter's thinking may yet prevail (see Bergkvist and Rossiter (2007), Kamakura, forthcoming, and Bergkvist, forthcoming).

Researchers use methods with which they are familiar and students may be directed toward such methods. Here, habit plays a substantial part in the decision.

Doctoral students are often advised to use experimental designs if they want publication. This design is seen as more scientific and more likely to meet the need for professional advancement but this may be questioned when the design incorporates high levels of control or is scenario-based since both of these can compromise the range of generalisation that is possible.

Standardised instruments take on a life of their own. For example, Feick and Price (1987), in their study of mavenism, indicated that relatively few people, perhaps about one or two per cent of the population, were true mavens but the mavenism scale that Feick and Price developed is routinely used to identify the top third of a population as mavens when testing for mavenism effects. Here, some clarification is required.

Methods may have intrinsic appeal

These few examples serve to make the point that methods may be used for other reasons than logic and appropriateness. The use of a method should rest on an argument but, frequently, the method is just introduced as an accepted procedure and potential weaknesses may be put aside. For example, few people question the value of controlled experiments but Pham (2013) has illustrated how such experiments may pass most of the tests needed for publication, while making very little contribution to knowledge. The poor contribution may be because the topic is unimportant or because the control in the experimental design restricts generalisation, or both. This limitation of controlled experiments is long-recognised as a technical problem (Campbell and Stanley 1963), but may be ignored by researchers eager to present their work in the best light. East (2016) has argued that there is a psychological basis for the preference for experiments: people value certainty and causal connection and the internal validity of an experiment gives both. However, as noted, when the conditions of the experiment are highly defined, it may be difficult to make useful generalisations from the findings. East suggests that this problem is discounted by researchers because the generalization of findings from an experiment is set in a different mental account (Thaler 2000). In this connection, agent-based modelling may also benefit from the liking for certainty and mental accounting. This procedure has high internal validity in the sense that a well-designed model ensures that true assumptions logically imply true conclusions. This gives a sense of certitude. However, if the object of the exercise is to confirm the assumptions, the truth of the conclusions does not serve this purpose. The conclusions might be true because of other factors, which were not covered by the assumptions. Again, this awkward reality may be placed in another mental account. The point here is that there may be mechanisms in thinking that support certain methods at the expense of others. Researchers should be wary of such mechanisms and should be prepared to justify the methods of investigation that they use in a rational manner.

In some fields any method is problematic

Some of the most important issues in social science are everyday occurrences that may be observed intermittently but are difficult to study systematically. In order to focus this discussion, one topic is chosen that is of central importance to marketing and social science generally. This is the way new ideas, practices and products become accepted: the diffusion of innovation. Essential to this process is the everyday influence of one person upon another, often by direct word of mouth, sometimes by observational learning and sometimes via telephone or Internet. In this process, positive advice assists adoption and negative advice holds it back. Such social influence can be observed but it is infrequent on any given topic and its outcome may be inaccessible to investigation. To study the basis of diffusion we need evidence on the volume, valence and impact of word of mouth among other matters. We focus on the problem of establishing relative impact. This has drawn the attention of those who use surveys (East et al. 2008, 2016), modellers (e.g. Goldenberg et al. 2007) and experimenters (e.g. Arndt 1967, Ahluwalia 2002). Each of these methods is fallible. Respondents to surveys may overstate the impact of either positive or negative advice so that the comparison between the two may be biased. This is equally a problem in experiments when verbal responses are gathered but, strangely, not much concern is expressed by experimenters about this matter. In addition, the control used in experiments may make generalization difficult. This is often because there is very meagre sampling of stimulus materials – the effect of advice may be studied using one form of words in one context which hardly does justice to the variety of ways in which information is transmitted. Another problem with such work is that heterogeneity in human behaviour is ignored – each subject in an experiment has one trial but, in everyday life, some people influence many others while others influence few. Agent-based modellers have the problem of choosing assumptions about the mechanisms that operate in transmission and the

character of the social network within which transmission occurs. These assumptions need to be validated before the modelling begins but this is usually difficult to do. Ideally, we would just observe the giving of advice and its consequences as it occurs naturally but this is only feasible when the advice is recorded, as in the case of Internet postings; here, impact may be measured either as an aggregate effect or by individual response. However, a number of features differentiate Internet influence from everyday face-to-face influence: Internet advice tends to be one-way, broadcast rather than narrowcast and the informants tend to be weak tie. Furthermore, face-to-face advice is more common (Keller and Fay 2012).

Accepting limitations
So we have the likelihood that method selection is biased and that any method used in important fields such as the diffusion of innovation has major deficiencies. It might be better if we started with less assurance. Researchers have evidence that findings are unreliable in marketing research (Hubbard and Armstrong 1994) while, in psychology, a team led by Nosek (Open Science Collaboration 2015) re-examined 100 studies in psychology and found that a large proportion could not be replicated. Despite this evidence, it is conventional when writing papers to put the case as strongly as possible. The reason for this is probably related to the same need for certainty mentioned previously. We may expect reviewers and editors to be more impressed by a strong argument. But this is fundamentally unscientific – it minimises the doubts that are intrinsic to research. Instead, we should be the first to note the limitations of our methods and the limited inferences possible as a result, and we should go into this in greater detail than the normal rather cursory list of limitations found towards the end of papers. Reviewers should welcome this. In the field of word of mouth impact, there are difficulties with the criterion of impact, participant reporting bias and other differences associated with the methods that we have reviewed. It is not likely that one study will answer the question thoroughly and, by expanding on the doubts and difficulties associated with research, we point the way in which the topic may be further developed.

Using quasi-experimental designs
In selecting the research design, it is possible to sacrifice some control in order to gain generalisability. The problem of producing a representative sample of word-of-mouth messages was tackled by Christiansen and Tax (2000) by using pairs of participants. One person had to originate the messages given to the other. This is likely to produce more realistic and representative material and, depending on the conditions set by the experimenter, may be used to study the ratio of positive to negative messages, the content used and the persuasive effect since the recipient can report on this (Christiansen and Tax used a one-week delay before measuring impact to allow time for it to stabilise). Another technique is to use a repeated-measures design where the same people are examined a second time so that changes from the first measurement can be observed. Using this method, the effect of advice on receivers can be examined to see whether it changes the volume of word of mouth that they give or raises their purchase rate. These methods have flaws. For example, in the Christiansen and Tax method, it may not be clear what elements in a message have effect and in the repeated-measures procedure, there is a problem of interaction effects between measurements (so that the second measurement may depend partly on the influence of the previous measure). These problems need to be set against the gains in realism and representativeness that these methods offer compared with more fully controlled experiments.

Using multiple measures and methods
An early paper by Campbell and Fiske (1957) recommended a multi-item, multi-method approach and, perhaps belatedly, it is now regarded as good practice in psychology and

marketing research to conduct several studies and to report these in one paper. Sometimes, this is used to focus on different aspects of a problem and sometimes to corroborate findings. When the latter is done, we suggest that it is important to use different methods. For example. East, Hammond and Lomax (2008) used a scenario experiment and a survey, to test the impact of word of mouth. There should be some scepticism about the repeated use of the same research design. This tests relationships within the limitations of the method but any systematic biases will affect all the studies conducted. Sometimes a variety of measures are needed. For example, the impact of word of mouth may be reflected in changes of attitude, thinking, intention, or behaviour such as purchase and onward transmission of messages and all of these may be important in studying diffusion effects.

Researching the productivity of different methods

Another strategy is to review how long-term citation (or some other criterion of scientific advance) is related to the method employed. Does experimentation advance our knowledge more than survey method? This seems a worthwhile mode of investigation but there are caveats. Suppose that we found that surveys are cited twice as much as experiments in the diffusion field. This could arise from method preference if, because of psychological factors, surveys are sparingly published so that only the best get through. Ideally, we would need to estimate the productivity of the method without such method preference.

Citation may sometimes be a limited indicator of research value. One advantage of surveys is that they provide a substantial quantity of findings, some of which may be unexpected but interesting so that they lead to further research. New research streams based on such serendipity can easily drop citation of the original research that provided the unexpected finding, despite its pivotal role.

Conclusion

In fields that cannot be systematically observed as they occur, such as diffusion, research findings are inevitably fragile and we should be more open about this problem both in the design of research and the tolerance of limitations. In such fields, we may need more studies using a variety of methods and be willing to sacrifice control in favour of generalisability.

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Evaluating Tourism Leadership Development Programs:
A Conceptual Framework

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Abstract
Effective leadership is seen as the key driver of growth in many sectors. Although not a new phenomenon in mainstream research, leadership in the field of tourism has only started to emerge. Despite limited research, leadership development programs (LDPs) do exist and are targeted to leaders (and potential leaders) in their destinations. However, leadership and LDPs cannot be effectively promoted to their target audiences without the concrete evidence of how such programs meet the needs of key stakeholders and their destinations. This paper proposes a conceptual framework of LDP outcomes, by assessing key stakeholder needs and destination leadership requirements along with intended and un-intended outcomes. With LDPs as the engine facilitating the change and innovation, the framework takes into consideration the leadership program context, input, process and product outcomes. It is intended that the proposed framework will provide a credible understanding of the long-term effects of LDPs on individuals, organisations and tourism destinations.

Keywords: Leadership, evaluation, and leadership development program

Track: Marketing Research (#11)

Introduction

An increasing amount of leadership development programs (LDPs) are being promoted to enhance individual leader skills and knowledge. LDPs are seen as the vehicle to destination leader-network development, and potentially to the development of tourism destinations. A tourism destination can be seen as a network of collaborating organisations that produce tourism experiences (Scott, Cooper and Baggio, 2008). However, in order to produce innovative tourism experiences, LDPs need to foster the development of leadership skills that will enable the development of better collaborative behaviour within the destination leader-network. In this research, the leader-network is conceptualised as the network of key destination influencers and decisions makers within the networked organisations. Effective destination leaders are assumed to make collaborative decisions within the tourism destination and contribute towards better outcomes (King and Nesbit, 2015). However, collaborative skills may not be the only requirement in today's uncertain business environment. Other leadership skills are needed to reflect the change in such environments (Canals, 2014). Increasingly, leaders are expected to be agile and able to make quick decisions despite the high level of uncertainty (Doz and Kosonen, 2010). In the tourism destination context, it appears that not only are individual leadership skills required but also collective leadership skills are needed, due to the existence of multiple stakeholders at the destination (Beritelli and Bieger, 2014).

To the authors' knowledge, no conceptual framework has been developed to evaluate the long-term LDP outcomes in the tourism destination context. Although an increasing number of researchers have started to conceptualise the network leadership and leadership at tourism destinations (Beritelli and Bieger, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Kozak, Volgger and Pechlaner, 2014; Pechlaner, Kozak and Volgger, 2014; Zehrer, et al., 2014), the research base for understanding of the intended and un-intended outcomes of LDPs to their stakeholders have not yet been addressed. Research is therefore required to generate new knowledge on how LDPs contribute towards the key stakeholders' needs. The aim of this paper is to propose a conceptual framework for evaluating long-term, intended and un-intended outcomes of LDPs targeting tourism leaders. The conceptual framework is developed based on the current review of the relevant literature on destination leadership, leadership development programs, and program evaluation.

This paper provides a significant contribution in three different ways. First, it adds to the current knowledge on the development of individual and collective leadership. Second, it provides a complete picture of how LDPs actually meet the needs of the key destination stakeholders and how such programs contribute towards the growth and development of tourism destinations. The new knowledge can contribute to future program improvements and better marketing initiatives.

Conceptualising Destination Leadership

Tourism plays an important role in the development of destinations and their economies, providing employment and generating income from visitors' expenditure. The wider benefits are directly seen from the purchase of tourism products and services, and the investments made in tourism related infrastructure (WTTC, 2016). Increasingly, the tourism industry is being challenged by many external and internal factors, particularly the continuous technological developments, fluctuating economic conditions and changing social-cultural tourism demands. Increased industry competition also contributes vastly towards the uncertain decision making within the industry (Dwyer, et al., 2009; Pröbstl-Haider, Melzer and Jiricka, 2014). Internally, destinations are constrained by availability of limited resources and capabilities and their

effective utilisation. Effective destination management, which refers to the holistic and ongoing process of planning and management of destination, is therefore required to enable the needed economic and destination development (Beritelli and Bieger, 2014). However, to manage this complex process that depends on the collaboration of various stakeholders, it is believed that the right leadership is needed to achieve the vision and goals for tourism destinations.

The destination stakeholders, among which are local communities, business groups, destination management staff, and government representatives, need to be fairly involved in the decision making and management of tourism destinations (Pearce, 2015). Only in this cooperative and involved manner can the various functions, such as destination planning, management and marketing   be carried out effectively. Such functions are traditionally managed through destination governance, without the obvious presence of leadership. Hristov and Zehrer (2015) recommend to combine management and governance with leadership to achieve better outcomes for destinations. Yukl (2012) defines leadership as a process through which one influences others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively through individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives. Without leadership, the existence of several different organisations and businesses might result in stakeholders adopting different tactics and not moving towards the common destination goal (Buultjens, Ambrosoli and Dollery, 2012). The literature indicates that visionary and collective leadership might need to be promoted instead of individual leadership to achieve better outcomes for destinations and their stakeholders in the long-run, as current problem-solving approaches do not seem to contribute towards the pre-established destination goals in the most effective way.

The literature that emphasises destination management and governance is extensive, however the literature that puts leadership behind the steering wheel of destination management seems to be limited (Pechlaner, et al., 2014; Pröbstl-Haider, et al., 2014). Pechlaner, et al. (2014) state that leadership that sets clear vision and goals for the future of the destination, plus promotes the awareness of quality and value of the destination, is a must; destination leadership refers to a proactive and long-term shaping of territories in a sustainable manner (Kozak, et al., 2014). Dwyer, et al. (2009) also highlight the importance of strategy in order to direct the destination stakeholders in the achievement of destination goals. Overall, it is believed that when leadership, governance and management all coexist, destinations are likely to be developed more effectively (Hristov and Zehrer, 2015). However, another aspect that needs to be clarified in the destination management context is whether destination leadership should be in hands of an individual leader or the collective of leaders (Kozak, et al., 2014). Various researchers believe now that collective leadership might be indeed a better choice, considering the structural complexity of many tourism destinations, in which various networks of actors coexist (Beritelli and Bieger, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Kozak, et al., 2014; Pechlaner, et al., 2014; Zehrer, et al., 2014).

The Role of Leadership Development Programs in the Destination Context
Leadership in time of constant change, high level of uncertainty, and demand for stakeholder cooperation requires an advanced level of leadership skills. Transformational approach to leadership and soft human resource practices are starting to be emphasised as the way to drive better performance (Boxall and Purcell, 2000; Pfeffer, 1998; Schneider and Bowen, 1993; Wright, Dunford and Snell, 2001). Many organisations are putting their managers through LDPs with the expectation that they will fit and be ready to manage changes effectively

(Robbins, et al., 2014). However, the challenge lies in the ability to equip today's leaders with the requisite skills.

LDP is seen as an intervention through which an identified gap between the current and ideal states of leadership capabilities is narrowed down (Thorne and Wright, 2005). Effective LDPs are programs that are able to meet the needs of the key stakeholders and the needs of the destinations. In the long-run, it is conceptualised that when a leader is able to consistently inspire, motivate and mobilise individuals and groups in the destination, overall goals are more likely to be achieved; as the outcome, leader and leadership are seen as effective (Yukl, 2012).

The leadership development literature now differentiates between two developmental streams, individual leadership and development of collective leadership. Traditionally, LDPs emphasised leader as the individual ultimately responsible for performance, and solely aimed at developing an individual's intrapersonal skills (Day, et al., 2014). After 1980s, however a paradigm shift occurred as leadership known to be occurring within the social context and collective leadership came to the forefront (Orazi, Turrini and Valotti, 2013). Social or relational skills were integrated into the content of today's leadership development programs (Blackmore, 2010). Today, both leadership types are important. Conger and Riggio (2007) underline that only well-developed individual leadership skills allow effective development of collective leadership skills.

In the tourism destination leader-network context, where a leadership development program is developed for all managers and leaders belonging to different businesses and organisations, it is important to set leadership program goals with help of the key stakeholders to maximise the outcomes to all the interested parties. Bass, Bass and Stogdill (2008, p.850) define network as "a set of people connected by friendship, influence, work or communication; networks are composed of people or stations and links between them". In this context, both the destination influencers and decision makers form the destination leader-network. Fulmer and Goldsmith (2000) therefore promote scanning of the external and internal business environments to accurately identify the possible leadership needs. Consequently, if all the stakeholders engage in identifying the key elements of effective leadership and outline the current leadership needs within the network, a leadership development program can be created to support the destination network strategy and direction.

Due to tourism destinations displaying network characteristics, the leadership in need is believed to be context and time specific (Canals, 2014; Kozak, et al., 2014). However, characteristics of effective leadership at tourism destination are yet to be established. A review of literature suggests that tourism destination leadership qualities might need to include cooperative and collaborative skills, communication skills and the ability to work with trust across the various stakeholders (Beritelli, 2011). In addition, Beritelli and Bieger (2014) emphasise the development of collective leadership skills, and Dwyer, et al. (2009) recommend the development of destination identity, to ignite an energy and encourage collaborative behavior amongst stakeholders. Overall, LDPs need to be designed and delivered in such a way that will allow for individual growth but also the broader attainment of wider destination goals in the long-run. Stimson, Stough and Salazar (2005) state that stakeholder cooperation and collaboration might indeed improve the use of destination resources and attain a market fit, which may also result in innovation and competitiveness, despite the changing business environment.

Evaluation of Leadership Development Programs

Various approaches have been used in evaluative studies of LDPs in different fields. Evaluation approaches refer to authors' idealised views to conduct program evaluations. As these approaches are often based on authors' beliefs and experiences rather than a theory, they might compromise the merit and worth of the program being evaluated (Stufflebeam and Coryn, 2014). Stufflebeam and Coryn (2014) identified and assessed twenty three different evaluation approaches commonly used by evaluation practitioners. Overall, each approach was found to have its own strengths and weaknesses. Stufflebeam and Coryn (2014) critically evaluated the twenty three approaches and through their study concluded that nine approaches were noteworthy. The authors evaluated each approach against the Joint Committee's 2011 standards to judge their utility, feasibility, propriety, accuracy, evaluation accountability and overall merit – from poor, to fair, good, very good or excellent. The authors studied the various approaches over a period of fifty years, and with the engagement of the key authors of each approach, they were able to establish which approaches are good and which are bad. The authors conclude that a combination of different approaches is frequently being used by researchers today. The authors however concluded that when a strong approach is selected and combined with evaluation standards, the evaluation is likely to be seen as effective (Stufflebeam and Coryn, 2014).

Within the leadership context, the extant literature shows that researchers evaluate effectiveness in terms of the outcomes of influence on the individual leader, the influence on a group of people, or the influence on an organization. Yukl (2012) suggests that setting specific goals and objectives can help to focus on the right set of key performance indicators, which in turn can indicate the degree of effectiveness achieved. Yukl (2012) recommends to evaluate more than one of the research groups (individual, group, organisation), over a longer period of time, to better understand the true leadership effects.

Leadership Development Program Evaluation Framework Development

The proposed conceptual framework for this study is based on the CIPP evaluation model developed by Stufflebeam (1971), and its leadership components - individual and collective leadership (refer to Figure 1). The actual CIPP model was applied in other research fields, primarily education, and is now being used for formative and summative evaluations of programs and personnel. The model emerged due to the many limitations of previous evaluations models, often seen as unworkable and irrelevant within the dynamic social environment (Stufflebeam and Coryn, 2014). The CIPP model proposes four different evaluations, which are the program context, input, process and product. Through the context evaluation the researcher establishes whether the program stakeholders' needs were identified and met, and to what extent these needs were achieved. When evaluating the program input, the researcher identifies and describes what content was prescribed and how the content was delivered, considering the participants' reflective feedback. Through process evaluation, the researcher identifies and describes the possible strengths and limitations regarding the program's teaching quality, learning support and the participant's initial readiness to learn. The final product evaluation allows the researcher to identify the intended and un-intended outcomes streaming from the program (Stufflebeam and Coryn, 2014).

The individual leadership and collective leadership theories underline the foundation of this study. This is derived from the overall aim of many leadership programs, which hope to foster and develop effective leadership. Individual leadership is mostly emphasised in the organisational context. It is evident that different leadership styles are used in organisations to

achieve better outcomes. Such styles mainly alternate between the transformational and transactional styles. Within the tourism context it appears that transformational leadership style is more preferred over the transactional style. The tourism context is very important to consider as the leadership stretches beyond one particular individual. Due to the collective nature of destinations (a collection of various businesses and organizations working in a partnership), collective leadership is believed to be a better choice to manage destinations more effectively (Beritelli and Bieger, 2014). Overall, the literature shows that individual leadership and collective leadership are both needed.

Fig. 1. Effectiveness of leadership development programs in the destination context: conceptual framework. *Source:* based on Stufflebeam (1971), and individual and collective leadership theories and concepts.

Conclusion

The paper has highlighted the role and importance of leadership development programs, particularly the importance of generating feedback about the outcomes to all the key stakeholders. Such knowledge is imperative as all stakeholders have the right to know and make decisions on concrete evidence and their perceived value. In attempt to generate such knowledge, the proposed framework combines one of the most comprehensive evaluations models with the theories and concepts surrounding individual and collective leadership. This framework therefore provides a move towards a more effective evaluation of leadership development programs developed for network environments. Given the absence of previous research to provide a systematic guidance of leadership program evaluations in the network leadership field, the framework that is proposed in this paper should contribute towards the body on leadership development and evaluation knowledge, and practically support the communication messages of future marketing efforts.

The proposed conceptual formwork is an important platform to understand the extent to which tourism-based LDPs contribute towards destination leadership-network development. The limitations of this research are underlined by the assumption that the leadership program participants have contributed towards organisational and tourism destination outcomes, and that the leadership program participants can clearly relate their leadership development to the actual program. Nevertheless, this study provides a holistic understanding of how leadership programs contribute towards innovative experiences at tourism destinations.

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A Political application of the Net-Promoter Score in New Zealand

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Abstract

Net-Promoter Score (NPS) was introduced as the only question required to measure customer loyalty and forecast company growth. Despite academic debate surrounding these claims, it is prominently used in commercial market research as it is simple to implement and interpret. However, NPS has received little attention on its ability to predict support for political parties. This research explores whether Net-Promoter is able to predict the results of current and future political polls in New Zealand. The NPS was collected from an on-line political survey (n=642) for five prominent political parties in New Zealand and compared against the results of six political polls. The findings indicate that the NPS and political polls are strongly correlated. In particular, it appears that the NPS is correlated with future voter share and therefore increases in a party's NPS will likely result in an increase in votes.

Keywords: Net-Promoter Score, Brand loyalty, political polls

Track: Marketing Research

Introduction

Customer loyalty measures are commonly used in academic and commercial market research, due to their perceived ability to predict actual purchase behaviour and future company profitability. In 2003, Fredrick Reichheld presented a single "would recommend" question, known as Net-Promoter Score (NPS), as an alternative loyalty measure to predict company growth (2003). The NPS is determined by asking customers "On a scale of 0-10, how likely is it that you would recommend [company X] to a friend or colleague?" with scores of 0 indicating "not at all likely", 10 indicating "extremely likely" and 5 indicating "neutral". The respondents who provide a score of 9-10 are grouped together as "promoters", 7-8 are "passively satisfied" and 0-6 are "detractors". The percentage of "promoters" is subtracted by the percentage of "detractors" to calculate the NPS.

When Net-Promoter was first developed, it was claimed by Reichheld to be the only loyalty question companies needed to ask their customers, as a close relationship was found to exist between NPS and company growth in most industries studied (Reichheld, 2003). Later it was claimed that a twelve-point increase in NPS corresponds to a doubling of a company's growth rate (Reichheld, 2006). Supporting the relationship between NPS and company growth, it was found that a seven-point improvement in NPS generates on average a one-percent increase in brand growth (Marsden, Samson and Upton, 2005).

Since the introduction of Net-Promoter, some marketers have replicated Reichheld's study and disputed the claims of its superior ability at predicting company growth rates over other customer satisfaction and loyalty measures. In particular, it is claimed that Reichheld (2003) and Marsden et al., (2005) correlated NPS with past growth rates and therefore, NPS's ability to predict future growth rates was not determined (Keiningham, Cooil, Andreassen and Askoy, 2007). To address this concern, researchers have replicated Reichheld's Net-Promoter methodology, using company growth rates from identical and future time periods instead of past growth rates. These studies have found that Net-Promoter is not superior to other customer satisfaction and loyalty measures (Keiningham et al., 2007; Morgan and Rego, 2006; Van Doorn et al., 2013).

Other researchers have criticised the NPS methodology. Specifically, the reduction of the 11-point scale into three categories, the calculation using only "promoters" minus "detractors", and the inclusion of respondents who indicate a likelihood to recommend of "neutral" or slightly above as "detractors" are highly criticised (Grisaffe, 2007). The consequence of clustering the 11-point Net-Promoter scale is that respondents' who indicate their likelihood to recommend as a six and a zero are both treated as "detractors", despite very different ratings.

Further research discovered that both positive and negative word-of-mouth (WOM) is given by "detractors" (East, Romaniuk and Lomax, 2011). Additionally, studies have found that a significant proportion of negative WOM is given by ex-users of a brand and customers who have never used a brand (East, Hammond and Wright, 2007; East et al., 2011). However, usually NPS only samples current users of a brand, highlighting that the metric is ineffective at capturing all negative WOM given.

Despite significant academic debate, the NPS calculation is relatively basic and easy to understand allowing companies to use this method to calculate loyalty without requiring expensive market research (Grisaffe, 2007; Keiningham, Askoy, Cooil & Andreassen, 2008). For this reason, NPS is being widely used in commercial market research by prominent

companies, such as GE, American Express, and Amazon, and is even reported to investors and used to determine pay bonuses for senior staff (Creamer, 2006).

While NPS is being used extensively commercially, its application to predict political results has received little attention. The concept of customer satisfaction does not directly apply to the performance of politicians. NPS may therefore have more relevance as an alternative metric in politics, compared to commercial applications where customer satisfaction has been found to be an adequate alternative. Recently, the company Promoter.io, of which Reichheld is an investor and advisor, have launched the Net Presidential Score, similar to NPS, to predict the next president of the United States.

Therefore, due to limited application of the metric to political results and the importance of political loyalty, this paper explores whether Net-Promoter is an accurate alternative at predicting political party votes to current polling data in New Zealand.

Methodology

The analysis employed data collected from a broader online political survey carried out in November 2015 to understand voters' evaluation and perception of various political parties in New Zealand (n=642). Participants were obtained from a commercial panel provider and included citizens who were at least 18 years old, the eligible voting age in New Zealand. The sample also contained gender, age, ethnicity, income compositions close to that of New Zealand census and Electoral Commission New Zealand data.

There are concerns that using online commercial panels may contain potential biases and not provide an accurate representation of the overall population. However, recruitment bias is minimised by using a large online panel (n = 75,000) and coverage bias is minimised as over 90% of the New Zealand population have internet access (Gibson, Miller, Smith, Bell and Crothers, 2013). Additionally, research has found that providing financial incentives for participation does not affect response quality and survey outcomes (Göritz, 2004).

Within the survey, participants viewed the logo of each of the five most prominent political parties in New Zealand in terms of vote share (National, Labour, Green, New Zealand First, and Māori), and were asked "On a scale of 0-10, how likely is it that you recommend voting for the 'X Party' to a friend or colleague?" A 0-10 numerical scale was provided to participants with verbal descriptors at 0 "not at all likely" and 10 "extremely likely". To further minimise bias, the order that participants viewed the five political parties was randomised.

For each of the five political parties tested, observed frequencies on the 11-point Net-Promoter scale were produced. The collected frequencies allowed for each NPS to be calculated by percentage of "promoters" (9-10) minus percentage of "detractors" (0-6), similar to that introduced by Reichheld (2003). Once the NPS was calculated for the five political parties, correlations with various New Zealand political polls were carried out to assess the performance of NPS as an alternative to current polling techniques. The two polls used in this study are the One News Colmar Brunton Poll and Roy Morgan Research poll, as these two polls are carried out frequently and include large sample sizes.

Results

Table 1 shows the NPS for each of the five tested political parties between 13 and 20 November 2015, using two Roy Morgan research polls for comparison. The NPS for each party was negative, ranging from -56% to -93%, highlighting that the percentage of "detractors" was

much larger than the percentage of "promoters". The NPS indicates that National has the strongest loyalty, followed by Labour, Green, NZ First and the Māori party respectively. The NPS was then compared against the two Roy Morgan Research polls taken during the same month, November 2015. Comparison of the NPS with the political polls, highlights that the parties with the greatest NPS also have the highest market share represented by the percentage of votes. This indicates that a positive relationship between NPS and voter share exists. If the NPS increases, the percentage of votes a political party receives in the polls also increases.

Table 1: Comparison of NPS with Roy Morgan Research Polls

	NPS	Roy Morgan Research	
	13 - 20 Nov 2015	26 Oct – 8 Nov 2015	23 Nov - 6 Dec 2016
National	-56%	49.0%	49.0%
Labour	-71%	29.5%	28.5%
Green	-74%	12.0%	13.0%
NZ First	-84%	6.0%	6.0%
Māori	-93%	2.0%	1.5%
n	642	862	882

To provide a more general result, the NPS scores were correlated against six political polls taken between October 2015 and February 2016, as shown in Table 2. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant correlation of 0.9 and above between the NPS and each of the six political polls. This indicates that significantly strong relationship exists between the NPS and voter share in these political polls.

In particular, the NPS has a 0.96 and 0.97 correlation with Roy Morgan polls taken in 2016 at a 1% significance level and a 0.91 correlation with the Colmar Brunton poll taken in 2016 at a 5% significance level. Similar to using the NPS to indicate whether a company will grow, these results highlight that when the NPS is applied to political data in New Zealand there may be the potential to predict future voter share. However, there is little variation in the correlation across the time the polls are taken and therefore, more research will be needed to ensure true predictive validity of the NPS in a political context.

Table 2: Correlation between NPS and Poll results

| Correlation | Colmar Brunton | | | Roy Morgan | | |
	10-14 Oct 2015	13-17 Feb 2016	26 Oct-8 Nov 2015	23 Nov-6 Dec 2015	4-17 Jan 2016	1-14 Feb 2016
NPS (n=642)	0.95*	0.91*	0.95*	0.96*	0.96**	0.97**
n	832	855	862	882	876	896

*Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Conclusion

This research discovered that the political parties in New Zealand with higher NPSs also have greater voter share in the Roy Morgan polls taken in the same month. Additionally, through correlations it was determined that the NPS has a significantly strong relationship with future Colmar Brunton and Roy Morgan polls. This suggests that improvements in a parties NPS will likely increase voter share. However, little variation was found across the polls taken across various time periods. Therefore, it cannot be assumed that predictive validity exists on the basis of the present data alone.

This study does not propose that political polls are abandoned altogether. The NPS on its own does not directly indicate how many seats a political party is likely to receive. Instead, it only provides an instrument for political parties to use as a measure of loyalty, and potentially of future changes in loyalty. If future research confirms the findings of this study, it would suggest that the NPS could be used in the political sector, similarly to how it is currently being used in the commercial sector.

Future research will need to be carried out across various time periods and countries. In particular, Net-Promoter data will need to be compared against actual election results as there are concerns that polling data may be inaccurate and biased. Comparisons of the NPS with election data will determine whether the NPS is more accurate than current political polls at predicting actual election results. Furthermore, longitudinal NPS data can be collected and analysed to determine the impact key political events has on changes in political party loyalty and whether this affects voter share.

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Effect of reward type on online survey participation and quality of responses

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Abstract
In an age of increasing consumer reluctance to answer online surveys, survey panels are resorting to offer various kinds of rewards to attract customers to answer surveys. Although there is extensive research on the effects of rewards on response rates in mail surveys, there is limited research on the effects of rewards in online surveys. This study attempts to address the gap in literature by comparing the response rate and response quality of five different reward types offered to online survey respondents, including monetary and non-monetary rewards. The results indicate that offering instantly redeemable small cash rewards on popular ecommerce websites yields the highest response rate. In terms of response quality, all reward groups, barring the 'points' group, yielded good quality responses.

Keywords: Mobile, Survey, Reward

Track: Marketing Research 2

Introduction

The advent of internet and emergence of ecommerce has propelled the growth of online research to colossal heights over the past 15 years. To keep up with this growth, researchers have developed innovative ways of accessing and utilising data from respondents – one of which being utilizing smartphones as a medium for distributing surveys. Despite the evolution of technology and means to collect data, researchers still find it difficult to achieve the needed quota of interviews on time for several reasons including fatigue, lack of time, complicated questions, etc. Given this backdrop, researchers are increasingly inclined towards using rewards as an incentive to increase survey response rates. In this context, a host of researchers have found that the use of rewards, be it monetary or non-monetary, has a positive impact on response rate and quality (Huck & Gleason, 1974; Armstrong, 1975; Shank et al., 1990; Church, 1993). Hence, researchers and practitioners, both alike, implement various forms of reward systems to motivate respondents in order to complete a survey (Bevis, 1948; Dohrenwend, 1970). The variations on the types of rewards are mainly of monetary (cash, gift coupons, prize draws etc.) and non-monetary types (altruistic rewards). Bosnjak & Tuten (2003) found that compared to no incentives, prize draws increase completion rates and also reduce various incomplete participation patterns.

The effect of the type and value of such rewards on response rates and quality has also been the subject of several empirical analysis. While results of some studies suggest that a non-monetary reward increases the probability of responding to a questionnaire (Robertson and Bellenger, 1978), other studies argue that monetary rewards (Cash/Gift cards/Prize draws) are far superior in enhancing both consumer response rate (Kanuk and Berenson, 1975; Furse and Stewart, 1982; Helgeson et al. 2002) and its quality. For instance, Champion and Sear (1969) studied the effects of an egotistic appeal (stressing the importance of the individual's response so that his/her opinions will be known), versus an altruistic reward (emphasizing a respondent's opportunity to do something for charity) on response rate. Surprisingly, the authors found that the egotistic appeal produced a greater response rate than charity reward in all categories of respondents examined. On a similar note, Robertson and Bellenger (1978) studied the effect of a charitable contribution on the respondents' willingness to answer a survey. The authors posit that the use of such charitable contribution increases the probability of responding to a questionnaire to a greater extent than does the promise of a cash reward. In their research on incentives in mail surveys, Gendall and Healy (2008) reported that the promise of a donation to charity had significantly increased the response rate in two out of three mail surveys they conducted.

In addition, there is also considerable evidence that responses to surveys are enhanced through the provision of monetary rewards (Huck & Gleason, 1974; Armstrong, 1975; Church, 1993). Shank et al. (1990) have investigated the effect of cash versus non-cash incentives in mail surveys. The authors demonstrated the effectiveness of immediate cash rewards over delayed non-cash rewards. Non-cash (mini-calculator) and cash (50 cents) incentives to every person who completed the survey increased the response rate significantly. Another study (Cobanoglu et al., 2003), assessed the effect of type of monetary reward on response rates and response speed of online surveys. Results indicated that offering a non-cash reward (luggage tag) incentive along with a prize draw incentive resulted in a higher response rate than simply offering only a raffle/prize draw incentive. Yet another health care study found that cash incentives increased response rates significantly (Wang et al. 2002). Birnholtz et al. (2004). conducted an experiment to determine the effectiveness of three 'invitation and incentive' combinations in a web-based survey - a $5 bill sent with the survey instructions via first class mail, a $5 gift certificate code to Amazon.com sent with the survey instructions via first-class

mail, and a $5 gift certificate code to Amazon.com sent with the survey instructions via email. Results showed that $5 bills led to significantly higher response rates than either gift certificate. In another study conducted by Goritz and Luthe (2013), cash lotteries relative to no incentives did not reliably increase response or retention and neither did it make a significant difference if one large prize or multiple smaller prizes were raffled. Also, Church's (1993) meta-analysis found that monetary incentives yielded higher response rates than gifts.

Although there is extensive research on the effects of rewards in mail surveys, there is limited research on the effects of rewards in online/mobile surveys. Also, given the lack of concurrence among authors, and the fact that no comprehensive effort has been made to date (to the best of our knowledge) to understand the best reward type, there exists an opportunity to address this issue. Against the above backdrop, the present research aims to understand which form of reward gives maximum high quality response rate in online/mobile surveys.

Methods
A survey comprising of a total of 10 questions was created using the online survey platform – 1getinsights.co and launched using Facebook Advertising. The survey URL was used as the destination URL for the Ad. Facebook users were redirected to the survey link when clicked on the Ad. The reward being offered for completing the survey was clearly mentioned on the Ad. Six such Ads were created, one for each reward group. The six groups are described below –

1.   *No reward (control):* No charity or cash incentive was offered (control group)
2.   *Egotistic appeal*: The importance of the individual's response was stressed so that his/her opinions will be known; No charity or cash incentive was offered
3.   *Instant cash*: A promised cash reward 0.5$ (to be credited to the wallet of a popular ecommerce website that can be redeemed **immediately**)
4.   *Points*: 100 points worth 1$ cash was added to wallet (Points could be collected **over a period of time** and redeemed for a gift voucher on a popular ecommerce website ONLY after a total of 1000 points are collected)
5.   *Prize draw*: Respondents would get to participate in a prize draw and the winner would win a gift voucher of 10$ on a popular ecommerce website
6.   *Charitable contribution*: A small cash amount of 0.5$ was promised to be contributed to a charity on behalf of the respondent

All six groups received identical questionnaires. The following variables were controlled across the six groups:

1. Number of questions (9)
2. Reach (~50000)
3. Duration (36 hours)
4. Target audience (Pan India; Age Group: 18 to 65 years)

Table 1 summarizes the six different experiment groups.

Table 1: Experiment groups and incentives offered

	No reward	Egotistic appeal	Instant cash	Points	Prize draw	Charity
Reward	-	-	Instant cash	100 points	Gift Voucher	Cash reward donated to a charity
Reach	51625	49687	49267	49243	49396	49291

There are two dependent variables in this study:

Response rate: Response rate was calculated by dividing the net responses by the number of clicks.

Response quality: Response quality was measured by assigning scores to each question. A few trick questions and open end questions were included as a part of the survey. Despite there not being a 'right' or 'wrong' answer in survey questions, the trick questions were designed such that, there is always a right answer. Scores were assigned to every response depending on the correctness of answers to such questions. The responses were then classified into either good quality responses or poor quality responses. The percentage of good quality responses for each reward group was then calculated and compared across groups.

Analysis and Results

Response Rate

Table 2 summarizes the response rates of the six groups. Our findings stand in marked contrast to those reported by Robertson and Bellenger (1978) but in accordance with that of Furse and Stewart (1982). The average response rate was 5%. The instant cash reward group showed the highest response rate of 15%, followed by the prize-draw group with 7% response rate (RR), and the points group with 4% RR. The control group and the charity group got a RR of 2% (Table 2) whereas the egotistic appeal group performed the lowest with just a 1% RR.

Table 2: Response rates of the six reward groups

	No reward	Egotistic appeal	Instant cash	Points	Prize draw	Charitable contribution
Reward	-	-	Instant cash	100 points	Gift Voucher	Cash reward donated to a charity
Response rate	2%	1%	15%	4%	7%	2%
Quality of responses	84%	87%	91%	64%	94%	97%

Pairwise z-tests of equality of proportions (Marascuilo, 1971) were used to examine if the response rates of each reward group varies significantly from every other reward group (Table 3).

Table 3: z test results between different reward types (response rate)

	No reward (Control)	Egotistic appeal	Cash reward	Points	Prize draw	Charity
No reward (Control)	-	-2.06*	-7.47**	-2.09*	-4.02**	0
Egotistic appeal		-	-6.62**	-2.58*	-3.97**	-1.21*
Air time			-	13.67**	7.64**	22.61**
Points (Gift card)				-	-2.22*	2.7*
Lucky draw					-	7.33**
Charity						-

*$p<0.05$
**$p<0.001$

The z-test shows significant differences in response rates between all the groups, barring the charity group. The response rate for the charity group does not significantly differ from that of the no reward control group

Response Quality

We also examined the effect of reward type on response quality. Table 2 summarizes the quality of responses of the 6 groups. The no reward control group, egotistic appeal group and the points collection group yielded poor quality responses. However, between the three, the points group performed the poorest. Only 64% of the respondents from the points group gave good quality responses. The quality of responses was quite high and acceptable for the rest of the reward groups.

Pairwise z-tests of equality of proportions (Marascuilo, 1971) were used to examine if the response quality of each reward group varies significantly from every other reward group. The z-test shows significant differences in response quality between all the groups, barring the egotistic appeal group. The response quality of the egotistic appeal group does not significantly differ from that of the no reward control group (Table 4).

Table 4: z test results between different reward types (response quality)

	No reward (Control)	Egotistic appeal	Cash reward	Points	Prize draw	Charity
No reward (Control)	-	-1.83	-5.02**	8.55**	-8.64**	-15.64**
Egotistic appeal		-	-2.36*	8.09**	-4.98**	-9.9**
Air time			-	13.7**	-3.08**	-8.57**
Points (Gift card)				-	-23.9**	-36.6**
Lucky draw					-	-3.61**
Charity						-

*p<0.05
**p<0.001

Conclusion

Although researchers are using online/mobile surveys more often than ever, there has been little research on the effect of rewards on the response rate & quality of such online/mobile surveys. This study made an effort to fill in some of the gaps in literature by comparing the response impact of different types of rewards offered to the respondents of online/mobile surveys. The results indicate that offering instant cash on popular ecommerce websites yields the best response rate. The prize draw incentive yields the second best response rate. The next best method in terms of response rate was giving points that respondents can accumulate over a period of time and cash it only after they receive a minimum number of points. However, this reward yielded poor quality responses. There was no significant difference in response rate between charitable contribution and offering nothing at all. Appealing to a respondent's ego received the lowest response rate much in contradiction with the results of the study by Champion and Sear (1969). In terms of response quality, the points group performed the poorest. Only 64% of the respondents gave good quality responses. However, the quality of responses remained high and consistent, averaging 92%, amongst the rest of the five reward groups. This indicates that no matter what the reward (with the exception of points collection reward), quality of responses remain the same.

Managerial Implications

Currently, a majority of the online panels use the 'points' system of rewarding its members. Members are awarded points for every survey they complete and only after a minimum number of points are collected, the members can redeem the points for a gift card. This process is quite tiring since the gratification for completing a task is much delayed. Based on the findings of the present study, the points collection method yielded both poor response rate and quality. A few other online panels donate to charity on behalf of the respondent on completion of a survey. However, in the current study, the charity method of rewarding the customers also yielded a very low response rate. It may therefore be recommended that researchers/research panels switch to using immediate gratification rewards such as instant cash rewards on popular ecommerce websites when conducting online surveys to achieve higher response rates. Since this cash can be immediately redeemed by a respondent, the gratification for complete the task is immediate. In addition to offering a small cash reward to all respondents, entering them into a prize draw for a bigger prize would increase the response rates even further. However, since

offering only a chance to participate in a prize draw has minimal impact on the respondents, it is recommended that researchers always combine the prize draw offer with a small cash reward for each respondent rather than merely offering a prize draw. If a bigger prize is impractical due to monetary limitations, it is desirable to offer just the small cash reward to the respondents

Direction for future research
Future research could investigate if demographic variables such as age, gender, household income, etc. impact the response rates of the different reward groups in online surveys. An attempt can also be made to understand if length of a survey has an impact on response quality.

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Exploring the Duplication of Purchase Law for Outdoor Advertisements

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Abstract
Outdoor advertising is frequently criticized for its lack of quantifiable reach with the few existing techniques having not been validated. This paper contains two studies using Bluetooth tracking technology that has documented the level of duplicated reach within outdoor advertising. This paper finds the duplication of purchase law can be extended to include outdoor advertising, and the level of opportunity to see (OTS) sharing between days is entirely predictable.

Keywords: outdoor advertising, duplication, Bluetooth tracking, reach

Track: Marketing Research

Introduction

Outdoor media is frequently criticized for lack of verified audience data on reach and frequency (Lichtenthal et al. 2006). This proves to be a significant issue as marketers are pressured to justify advertising expenditures (Srivastava et al. 2005). Understanding the duplicated reach of outdoor advertising is important to advertisers and the advertising industry as it determines the value of inventory. Outdoor advertising has not reached its full potential due to its inability to adequately measure return on investment (Quercia et al. 2011). Nevertheless, it is suggested to be the best way of reaching consumers who do not watch television (Sharp et al. 2014) as audiences cannot avoid, ignore, discard or click away (Semuels 2007). Outdoor advertising is growing in importance to practitioners due to its ability to reach elusive and mobile consumers who are less frequently exposed to traditional forms of media (Francese 2003).

It is common for media planners to use duplication data when making decisions affecting reach and frequency (Headen et al. 1979). Regardless of the marketers' goal, media price is based upon exposures; reach (how many people were potentially exposed) multiplied by the frequency (number of times they were potentially exposed) (Sharp et al. 2014). Advertising 'exposures' are therefore often called 'opportunities to see' (OTS) as it is not possible to guarantee a person has actually been exposed (Romaniuk and Sharp 2015). The use of outdoor advertising has grown steadily in past decades, at a compounded annual growth rate of 15% since 1970 (Lichtenthal et al. 2006). Since 1980 the global spend on outdoor advertising has increased from $2.14 billion to $30.43 billion in 2014 (Warc AdSpend 2015). Because of this large spend, it is important to verify the reach of outdoor.

Bluetooth is one of the forms of wireless communication used by the majority of smart phones, laptops and portable electronic devices (Abedi et al. 2013). Nowadays, their users often always carry these devices which offer marketers a unique opportunity to track people in specific areas (Leek and Christodoulides 2009). This has motivated researchers to successfully collect tracking data by capturing wireless technologies such as Bluetooth or WiFi (Abedi et al. 2013). While there has been much research into using the technology to research visitor behaviour in event settings (Stange et al. 2011; Versichele et al. 2012), as well as human movement activity (Abedi et al. 2013; Pels et al. 2005; Phua et al. 2015; Vu et al. 2010), to our knowledge, there have been no attempts to use this technology to measure the effectiveness of outdoor advertising.

This study fills gaps in literature by verifying the reach and duplication of outdoor advertisements. This will be done through three studies. The first two studies used Bluetooth tracking technology to anonymously log the MAC addresses of passersby who had the OTS an outdoor advertisement. The third study used intercept interviews to validate the representativeness of the Bluetooth tracking. These results will assist practitioners and media planners when planning advertising schedules.

Background

The underlying method used in this analysis was first used to help describe media consumption behaviour (e.g. Goodhardt and Ehrenberg 1969), and is now primarily used to describe the level of competition between brands. That is, what proportion of buyers of brand 'X' are also buyers of brand 'Y' (Ehrenberg 1988). Across a wide variety of conditions, it has been shown that the level of competition between two brands is largely determined by their size. Bigger

brands share fewer of their customers with smaller brands and smaller brands share a greater number of their customers with the bigger brands. This pattern is robust, and has been shown to hold for a wide variety of categories, such as flavoured milks (Sharp et al. 2003), deodorant and yellow fats categories (Scriven and Danenberg 2010) and instant coffee (Keng and Ehrenberg 1984; Keng et al. 1998).

The Duplication of Purchase Law originated with an investigation into television media consumption and determined programs shared viewers in line with their cumulative audiences (Ehrenberg and Goodhardt 1969). Findings were extended to the United States (Headen et al. 1979). The findings have been further expanded to other forms of media. For example, top 20 radio stations in New Zealand (Lees and Wright 2009; Lees and Wright 2013) and website visitation in Australia and the United Kingdom (Corkindale et al. 2013).

To date, this pattern has not been extended to study outdoor advertising. This leads to the first research question:

RQ1: Can the duplication of purchase law be extended to include outdoor advertising?

On occasions there are deviations to the Duplication of Purchase pattern. That being, groups of brands that share more with one another than expected. Deviations from the pattern are often referred to as partitions or clusters. Examples of partitions have vastly been found in many fast moving consumer goods categories, as well as in media contexts. For example, Western television show viewers (Ehrenberg and Goodhardt 1969) and music or talkback radio show listeners (Lees and Wright 2009; Lees and Wright 2013).

When analysing the Duplication of Purchase pattern it is important to understand if there are partitions to this law. This leads to the second research question:

RQ2: Are there any notable deviations to the duplication pattern?

Data collection and method
In order to explore the duplicated reach of outdoor advertising three studies were undertaken. Study one used an unobtrusive method of capturing the Bluetooth MAC address of passersby who had an OTS the outdoor advertisement. Study two replicates the first and was conducted the following month. Study three was an intercept survey designed to validate the representativeness of the sample of the first two studies. Studies one and two were designed to determine the level of within-medium reach duplication. The technology anonymously captures unique MAC addresses, timestamps and device names as respondents pass the outdoor advertisement. Bluetooth technology has been successfully validated as a way of measuring human movement (Phua et al. 2015) and is an appropriate measurement for this study.

The outdoor advertisement was located at a busy tram stop, along a major road in a major Australian CBD. In studies one and two laptops collecting the information were positioned approximately 10m away for a total of two weeks (ten weekdays and two weekends). 1,708 and 2,023 individual Bluetooth devices were captured, respectively. The technology captures MAC addresses for each day that are then de-duplicated to obtain a unique set of MAC addresses that are used as a marker for each individual. This is in line with previous studies in the area (e.g. Abedi et al. 2013).

In study three 267 responses were collected over a period of four days (two weekdays and a weekend). Systematically, every fifth person walking past was approached and invited to complete the survey, which had a response acceptance rate of 33%. The interviews looked at the travel patterns of people in the past week as well as whether they had a device with Bluetooth activated, and was conducted to ensure the MAC addresses collected were representative. The sample did evenly represent the general population (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2016). The Bluetooth incidence amongst age groups found those over 65 are underrepresented, while those under 35 are overrepresented. In total, 37% of respondents had Bluetooth switched on, consistent with previous studies (Phua et al. 2015).

Results
RQ1: Can the duplication of purchase law be extended to include outdoor advertising?

To calculate the duplication of OTS studies one and two are used. It is first required to calculate the reach of each day then calculate the duplication, the percentage of each day's audience that has also been an audience member of another day. Table 1 displays the duplicated audience reach falls in line with size. Therefore the duplication of purchase law can be extended to include outdoor advertising.

The second Friday in the study had the largest audience reach (13.6%) and the first Friday had the second largest (11.9%). Sundays had the smallest reach at 4.4 percent and 4.2 percent. The average level of duplication falls in line with the size of audience reach, with the highest reach day (Friday) having the highest levels of duplication and the lowest reach day (Sunday) having the lowest levels of duplication. This study displays the overall levels of duplication are low. If a marketer were to place an outdoor advertisement on one of the two Fridays, over a two-week period more than 90% of their reach would be a new audience.

To measure the level of fit between predicted and actual levels of sharing, the study uses a correlation between the average level of sharing between days and the expected level (Dawes 2016; Lees and Wright 2009; Mansfield and Romaniuk 2003). The correlation for the studies is 0.92 and 0.88 respectively, indicating the expected level of sharing is positively correlated with the observed level of sharing. The second measure of fit used is the mean absolute deviation (MAD), an average of the absolute deviations between the observed and expected levels of sharing (Goodhardt and Ehrenberg 1969; Lees and Wright 2009; Lees and Wright 2013; Mansfield and Romaniuk 2003; Uncles and Kwok 2008; Uncles and Kwok 2009; Wright et al. 1998). For these studies the MAD's are very low, 0.93 and 0.56 respectively. MAD's typically range from 0.8 for Chinese store chains (Uncles and Kwok 2009) to 4.0 for Chinese store types (Uncles and Kwok 2008). Therefore, the sharing matrix is an accurate way of determining the level of sharing between two days of an outdoor advertisement.

Table 1: Outdoor advertising Bluetooth duplication (Study One)

	Reach (%)	% of those reached who were reached again													
		Fri (Day 11)	Fri (Day 4)	Wed (Day 2)	Thurs (Day 3)	Thurs (Day 10)	Tues (Day 8)	Wed (Day 9)	Mon (Day 7)	Mon (Day 14)	Sat (Day 12)	Tues (Day 1)	Sat (Day 5)	Sun (Day 13)	Sun (Day 6)
Fri (Day 11)	13.6	-	9	7	8	9	6	9	8	8	2	3	3	0	1
Fri (Day 4)	11.9	10	-	10	10	5	5	10	4	4	3	3	1	1	0
Wed (Day 2)	11.5	9	11	-	12	7	9	8	4	7	2	2	4	1	2
Thurs (Day 3)	10.9	10	11	12	-	7	7	7	6	8	3	5	4	0	1
Thurs (Day 10)	10.4	11	6	7	7	-	7	10	5	5	1	2	3	1	1
Tues (Day 8)	10.0	8	6	10	8	8	-	10	8	8	2	4	4	2	2
Wed (Day 9)	9.5	12	12	10	8	11	10	-	8	7	4	4	4	1	1
Mon (Day 7)	9.0	12	5	5	7	6	8	8	-	10	3	2	2	1	3
Mon (Day 14)	8.9	13	5	9	10	6	9	8	11	-	3	2	3	0	1
Sat (Day 12)	8.5	3	4	3	3	1	3	5	3	3	-	4	5	0	1
Tues (Day 1)	8.0	4	4	3	7	3	5	5	2	2	4	-	4	3	2
Sat (Day 5)	6.6	6	3	7	6	5	6	6	3	4	7	5	-	2	0
Sun (Day 13)	4.4	0	4	1	0	3	4	3	3	0	0	5	3	-	1
Sun (Day 6)	4.2	3	1	4	1	1	4	3	6	1	1	4	0	1	-
Average Dup		8	6	7	7	5	6	7	5	5	3	4	3	1	1
Expected Dup		7	6	6	6	6	5	5	5	5	5	4	4	2	2

RQ2: Are there any notable deviations to the duplication pattern?
In order to determine the level of sharing between two dates of the same day (i.e. Monday and Monday), the level of sharing between two different types of day (i.e. weekdays vs. weekend), and the level of sharing between two time periods (i.e. week one vs. week two) the Partition Sharing Index (PSI) can be used. To date, this has been underused in literature but has shown promising results in studies (e.g., Sjostrom et al. 2014).

From Table 2 it can be seen the duplicated reach for a number of days and day type combinations are higher or lower than expected, with higher than expected highlighted in dark grey and lower in light grey. Individual days of the week share more with themselves than other days. However, there are deviations where sharing is lower than expected for Tuesday and Sunday. This could be explained as one of the Tuesdays was a public holiday and those commuting for work or study did not on this day. The same level of excessive sharing between can be seen between weekdays in comparison to all of the weekend, with excessive levels within weekdays and under sharing within weekends. As before, this could be explained as the CBD primarily being a place of employment and study.

While a number of days and day type combinations share more or less than expected, testing the levels of duplication between the two weeks found that the level of duplicated reach was as expected and there was no excessive or under sharing. Therefore there are no significant deviations to the duplication pattern and the duplication of purchase law can be extended to outdoor advertising.

Table 2: Partition Sharing Index for outdoor advertising (Study One)

	Reach (%)	% of those reached who were reached again													
		Mon (Day 14)	Mon (Day 7)	Tues (Day 1)	Tues (Day 8)	Wed (Day 2)	Wed (Day 9)	Thurs (Day 10)	Thurs (Day 3)	Fri (Day 11)	Fri (Day 4)	Sat (Day 12)	Sat (Day 5)	Sun (Day 13)	Sun (Day 6)
Mon (Day 14)	8.9	-	2.2	0.5	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.1	2.0	1.7	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.0	0.3
Mon (Day 7)	9.0	2.2	-	0.5	1.6	0.8	1.7	1.0	1.2	1.6	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.0
Tues (Day 1)	8.0	0.5	0	-	1.0	0.5	1.0	0.5	1.2	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.2	1.2	1.0
Tues (Day 8)	10.0	1.6	1.6	1.0	-	1.6	2.0	1.4	1.4	1.0	0.9	0.5	1.2	0.7	0.8
Wed (Day 2)	11.5	1.4	0.8	0.5	1.6	-	1.6	1.2	2.0	1.2	1.7	0.4	1.0	0.2	0.7
Wed (Day 9)	9.5	1.5	1.7	1.0	2.0	2.0	-	2.0	1.4	1.7	1.9	0.9	1.2	0.5	0.5
Thurs (Day 10)	10.4	1.1	1.0	0.5	1.4	1.2	2.0	-	1.2	1.5	0.9	0.2	1.0	0.5	0.2
Thurs (Day 3)	10.9	1.7	1.2	1.2	1.4	2.0	1.4	1.2	-	1.3	2.0	0.6	1.1	0.0	0.2
Fri (Day 11)	13.6	1.7	1.6	0.6	1.0	1.2	1.7	1.5	1.3	-	1.3	0.4	0.9	0.0	0.4
Fri (Day 4)	11.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	1.0	1.7	1.9	0.9	1.8	1.3	-	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.2
Sat (Day 12)	8.5	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.2	0.6	0.4	0.6	-	1.5	0	0.3
Sat (Day 5)	6.6	1.0	0.6	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.4	1.5	-	0.8	0.0
Sun (Day 13)	4.4	0.0	0.6	1.2	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.6	0	0.8	-	0.6
Sun (Day 6)	4.2	0.3	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.6	-

Discussion

This exploratory study suggests that the duplicated reach of an outdoor advertisement is entirely predictable. Using an objective measurement method this study has successfully shown the percentage an outdoor advertisement's audience will be shared on one day with another is approximately in line with the size of their audience. Further, the study highlights that while there are partitions within the pattern, these are the deviations to the norm and the duplication of purchase law can be applied to outdoor advertising. This study has important implications for academics and practitioners alike. The established, generalizable pattern found for consumer goods, services, durables and various advertising mediums also holds for outdoor advertising. Further, these findings inform marketers that the level of sharing between various campaign days is entirely predictable. While there is sharing of views between weekdays, weekends appear to reach a different audience, as there is an overall low level of duplication between the two. This is important for practitioners when deciding their media scheduling.

Limitations and future research

Bluetooth logging relies on the general public carrying a device with Bluetooth capability, that the device is in the correct mode to be detected, and that they are within range of the detector (Husted and Myers 2010; Kostakos and O'Neill 2008; Rice and Katz 2003; Versichele et al. 2012). For the logging to be duplicated, these requirements must have been met twice. This method also has the potential to under-represent those over 65 (Phua et al. 2015), as displayed in this paper from results of study three.

This exploratory study was limited to two Bluetooth data collection studies each with a two-week data collection period. Future research should extend this period, which would have positive influences upon results. This method of determining reach for outdoor advertising types could be validated across a larger time period, allowing marketers to know the influence of seasonality upon outdoor advertising reach, as well as allowing a greater number of respondents for investigating the long-term patterns that may influence media buying

decisions. Further, future studies should use multiple Bluetooth data collection points as this would increase the generalizability of these findings. Increasing the number of locations monitored would allow for the investigation of duplication between locations and days.

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The influence of marketing communications on the consumer path to purchase for both online and offline purchases

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Abstract

There are many different paths that retail customers may take to complete a purchase, such as using only physical stores, browsing online before purchasing offline, or browsing and purchasing online. This study investigates how browsing and purchase behaviour evolve across purchase occasions, and how marketers may influence this evolution. Hidden Markov Models reveal three online browsing states, and three purchase states, and model the effect of emails and catalogues from a brand and its competitors on transitions between these states. We find a number of similarities across brands in the way browsing and purchase behaviours evolve, and the influence of marketing communications. However, we also find differences due to the separate channel and marketing strategies of the brands. These results build on existing channel migration literature by incorporating browsing behaviour and providing a comparison across brands, and provide marketers insights to develop strategies to influence how consumer behaviour evolves.

Keywords: Multi-channel shopping, Channel migration, Path to purchase

Track: Marketing research

The Impact of Explicit and Implicit Customer Perceived Value on Brand Attachment

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Abstract
In both marketing research and business practice, the study of customer perceived value (CPV) is of great interest. However, better knowledge of drivers of CPV, and the effects on the overall brand performance from a customer's perspective, is still needed. That said, previous studies about CPV have not dealt with implicit and explicit information processing. In fact, as previous research from the field of neuroeconomics has shown, most mental processes are of so-called implicit nature, taking place hidden in the unconscious and automatic mind. Against this backdrop, the aim of the current paper is to fill this research gap. The empirical results provide evidence that both dimensions, implicit and explicit CPV, have a crucial but varying impact on the degree of attachment toward the brand.

Keywords: Customer Perceived Value, Brand Attachment, Implicit Information Processing, Reaction Time Measurement

Track: Consumer Behavior

Title: Consumer's Evaluation and Choice of Beer in Vietnam

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Abstract

Understanding the consumer's evaluation and choice for beer characteristics is critical for marketers, nutritionist and health educators. We used multi-profile best-worst scaling to understand how consumers evaluate beer attributes in Vietnam context. We found that beer brand, price and packaging method are significant determinants of consumer choice across four segments while alcohol percent had a bit effects. We also calculate consumers' willingness to pay for the preferable packaging method (glass bottle vs. aluminum cans) of each beer brand. Further, we examine how consumers' involvement in sensory attributes and marketing mix impact on the brand values estimated via choice models. We found that consumers who concerned more on flavor, alcohol percent and sale promotion are more likely to favor Heineken brand and less likely to favor Tiger. Consumers who rated more importance to the packaging and price are more likely to choose Saigon and Tiger brand, respectively.

Track: Marketing Research

Introduction

Vietnam has a long tradition of beer drinking culture. The beer consumption is expected to grow in the foreseeable future due to the increasing purchasing power. Beer market in Vietnam has thus caught great interests for foreign brands which increase the market competition. The aim of this study is to investigate consumers' preference for beer in Vietnam and also to identify different consumer segments based on a hypothetical choice experiment. Consumers are asked to assess the best and worst beer concept that is formed by a mixture of attributes. We estimated a four latent class ranking model in order to understand the average importance of beer attributes and consumer preference heterogeneity for the three beer brands in the study. The results provide knowledge on Vietnamese consumers' preference for beer and different consumer segments in the market, thus, it help beer business to formulate efficient marketing strategies.

Latent class model of ranking data

Our choice experiment included only three most consumed beer brands in the market, i.e. Saigon, Tiger, and Heineken. The probability of consumer i in the choice set t rank the three beer brands, for example Saigon>Heneiken>Tiger, can be formulated in a ranking logit model (RLM) as

$$P_{it}(\text{saigon} > \text{heneiken} > \text{tiger}) = \frac{e^{V_{saigon}}}{e^{V_{saigon}} + e^{V_{heneiken}} + e^{V_{tiger}}} \frac{e^{V_{heneiken}}}{e^{V_{heneiken}} + e^{V_{tiger}}} \quad [1]$$

In a latent class framework, the probability of consumer *i* in class *s* ranks three brands in choice set *t* can be expressed a LCRM:

$$P_{it|s}(\text{saigon} > \text{heneiken} > \text{tiger}) = \sum_{s=1}^{S} f^s \frac{e^{V_{saigon}^s}}{e^{V_{saigon}^s} + e^{V_{heneiken}^s} + e^{V_{tiger}^s}} \frac{e^{V_{heneiken}^s}}{e^{V_{heneiken}^s} + e^{V_{tiger}^s}} \quad [2]$$

in which, f^s represents the likelihood of finding an individual consumer i in class s or the class membership probability, and is equivalent to the class size. The probability of class membership (f^s) is the unconditional probability of belonging to class s and is commonly specified in the form of a logit function with linear relationships of consumer's characteristics (e.g. income, gender, education). V_{saigon}^s, $V_{Heineken}^s$, and V_{tiger}^s are observed part of the utility of respective beer brands in class s and can be expressed as follows.

$$V_{saigon}^s = \alpha_{saigon}^s + \sum \beta_{A,saigon}^s X_{A,saigon} \quad [3]$$

$$V_{Heineken}^s = \alpha_{heineken}^s + \sum \beta_{A,heneiken}^s X_{A,heineken} \quad [4]$$

$$V_{tiger}^s = \alpha_{tiger}^s + \sum \beta_{A,tiger}^s X_{A,tiger} \quad [5]$$

The parameters α_j^s and $\beta_{A,j}^s$ in equation (3), (4) and (5) are the alternative-specific constants and marginal utility of the product attributes (e.g., price, packaging methods, and alcohol level). The RLM and LCRM in equation (1) and (2), respectively, can be found in previous studies such as Train (2009), Vermunt and Magidson (2013), Skrondal and Rabe-Hesketh (2003), and Croon (1989). The distinct feature of our LCRM is that we will estimate the

alternative specific-effect attributes. This means the coefficients of α_j^s and $\beta_{A,j}^s$ are varied between the segments and also among beer alternatives, as clearly explained in equations (3) (4) and (5).

Choice Set Design and Data Collection
Before carrying out an official survey of choice experiments we conducted pilot surveys including some group interview to obtain the information on beer brands, attributes and levels that would be included into the choice sets. We decided to include only three beer brands such as Tiger, Saigon and Heineken, which the share in sum accounts for more than 80% of the city market. Table 1 presents the attributes and levels used in our CE. Only alcohol attribute is generic across three brands, other attributes are specific to each brand. The attribute levels are different among brands, reflecting the reality and also allow us to estimate the alternative specific-effect models.

Table 1. Attributes and Attribute Level in the Choice Experiment

Brand	Packaging method		Price (1000vnđ)			%Vol		
Tiger	Canned	Bottled	10.5	15	19.5	4.5	5	5.5
Heineken	Canned	Bottled	13.3	19	24.7	4.5	5	5.5
Sai Gon	Canned	Green Bottled	8.4	12	15.6	4.5	5	5.5
	White bottled	Red Bottled						

To generate choice sets, we followed suggestions of Louviere et. al. (2000), Kuhfeld (2010). First, we combined each attribute with every beer brands to formulate 9 set of factors. Then we used SAS macros (Kuhfeld, 2010) to create and evaluate the 224136 fractional factorial design. We chose the solution of 36 combinations (i.e. products) that has D-efficiency of 99.86%. We assigned 36 products into 36 choice sets and each choice set consist three beer brands. The 36 choice sets were divided randomly into 16 blocks, which is a common practice with too many choice sets in a single experiment (Louviere et al. 2000; Kuhfeld, 2010).

Our choice sets have two distinct characteristics as an example presented in Figure 1. First, they are labeled choice experiments, in which each choice option is labeled by a beer brand. The design has some advantages, for instance, it allows respondents to not only judge the beer attributes but also to compare the beer brands at the same time. Second, we did not ask respondents to choose one of available products in the choice set as traditional choice experiment. We asked respondents to evaluate the best and the worst option that they would certainly buy or would not buy, respectively. Data collected via this multi-profile best-worst scaling (BWS) (Lourviere, et al., 2015) allow us to estimate ranking choice models.

We assume that you and your family members are going to have a dinner in a normal restaurant, and you would like to drink beer. We also assume that the restaurant has only three brands of beer: Tiger, Heineken and Saigon. These beer brands are different from each other in price, alcohol level, and container (in bottle or can).

In each choice set of beers below, you are asked to choose **which option is the best** that you would buy for the dinner and **which option is the worst** that you would not buy.

Figure 1. Choice Set Example

A face-to-face interview was conducted with 405 respondents in Nha Trang city, Khanh Hoa province of Vietnam, in January 2014. The data were "cleaned" by removing respondents who did not complete the whole questionnaire or those we found that the answers are not reliable. The final sample of 390 respondents was used for analysis.

Results

A sample of 390 respondents including drinkers who have drank at least several times a year helps us to create 7020 observations[3]. We firstly estimated one class model of RLM explained in equation (1) to see the overall pattern of the effects. We used six demographic variables as covariates to estimate LRCM explained in equation (2). We chose a LRCM with four classes (4- LRCM) as the best solution, based on the minimum value of Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). Table 2 presents our estimated results. There are few significant covariates at the 5% level, indicating the segments were identified mainly by the consumers' preference of the products in choice set. To save the space, we did not include the covariate estimates in the Table 2.

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[3] That is: 390 respondents*6choice set*3options=7020 observations.

Table 2. Estimated parameters of ranking choice model

Attributes	One class model Coff.	z-value	Class 1 Coff.	z-value	Class 2 Coff.	z-value	Class 3 Coff.	z-value	Class 4 Coff.	z-value
Brands										
Heneken	0.81	1.21	0.68	0.56	3.89**	1.89	0.01	0.00	11.95***	3.07
Saigon	-2.20**	-3.30	0.99	0.77	-18.92**	-4.61	-2.34	-0.85	-2.97	-1.42
Tiger	0	.	0	.	0	.	0	.	0	.
Price										
Heneken	-0.17**	-20.41	-0.18**	-8.57	-0.60**	-8.00	0.10**	-2.89	0.01	0.13
Saigon	-0.05**	-3.95	0.99	0.77	-18.92**	-4.61	-2.34	-0.85	-2.97	-1.42
Tiger	-0.09**	-8.81	-0.09**	-4.00	-0.46**	-6.30	0.04	0.76	-0.06*	-1.99
%Vol										
Heneken	-0.08	-0.88	-0.07	-0.40	-0.32	-1.18	-0.41	-1.54	-2.29**	-3.51
Saigon	-0.08	-0.88	0.49**	-2.94	2.11**	4.35	-0.54	-1.56	-0.12	-0.38
Tiger	-0.16*	-1.81	-0.20	-1.23	0.02	0.06	-0.52	-1.42	-0.27	-0.95
Packaging										
Heneken Canned	0.17**	2.33	0.30**	2.16	1.19**	3.24	0.34	1.42	-1.15**	-2.79
Botled	0	.	0	.	0	.	0	.	0	.
Saigon Canned	-0.08	-0.71	-0.21	-1.18	1.05**	2.39	0.81	1.49	-1.23**	-3.06
Green botled	0.07**	6.67	0.07	0.33	3.98**	5.63	0.90	1.52	0.61*	1.96
White botled	0.07	0.68	-0.12	-0.64	1.51**	3.06	0.32	0.51	-0.74**	-2.02
Red botled	0	.	0	.	0	.	0	.	0	.
Tiger Canned	-0.24**	-3.27	-0.32**	-2.35	0.94**	2.60	-0.78**	-2.47	-0.65**	-2.73
Botled	0	.	0	.	0	.	0	.	0	.
Model statistics										
Log-likelihood	-3595.64				-3026.49					
BIC	7268.84				6631.70					
Hit rate (Firt choice)	0.61				0.74					
R2	0.19				0.49					
Class size	1.00		0.35		0.28		0.21		0.16	

**&*: the coefficient is statistically significant at the 1% or 5% level, respectively.*

In our models, prices and alcohol levels (%Vol) are continuous variables while packaging attributes and brand effects (i.e. alternative constants) are categorical variables. To avoid the infinite problem in the estimate, the categorical variables (i.e. one packaging level and one brand) must be normalized, which means that one level of the variables must be set to be a

constant (i.e zero in our case). The estimated coefficients of other levels and brand must be explained in a comparison with this normalized level. For instance, the brand effects should be examined in a comparison with the Tiger brand. In one class model, brand coefficients of Saigon beer is statistically significant at the 1% level and have a negative sign, indicating that consumers prefer Tiger brand to the Saigon. The insignificant coefficient of Heineken brand indicates that consumers are indifferent in evaluating Heineken and Tiger brand on average.

Price and %Vol attributes are continuous variables and the effects are explained easily straightforward. The coefficients indicate the choice probability change for the respective brand according to one percent of price (alcohol level) change. All price coefficients in one class model are significant at the 1% level and have negative signs, indicating the reasonable explanation of the estimates. The insignificant price coefficients, at the 5% level, indicate that consumers are not sensitive to the price of the beers. Consumers in the class 2, 3 and 4 do not concern the price of Saigon beer while consumers in the class 4 and class 3 are not sensitive to prices of Heineken and Tiger, respectively.

In general, alcohol attribute did not affect significantly the probability of the choice of beer. The insignificance of the coefficients indicates that consumers did not take the information of alcohol level into their consideration when choosing beer. Some coefficients of alcohol level are negative (positive) and significant (at the 5% level) in specific segments indicate that consumers prefer the low (high) alcohol level of respective beer brand. For instance, consumers in class 1 and 2 prefer the low alcohol of Saigon beer while consumers in the class 4 prefer the high alcohol level of Heineken.

One class model reveals that consumers in general prefer the canned package to the bottled Heneiken, prefer the bottled to the canned Tiger, and prefer the green bottled to other packaging methods of Saigon. The estimates in Table 2 allow us to calculate the willingness to pay (WTP) for the preferred packaging method of a specific brand. The WTP for getting a packaging method A of brand j in class s is calculated as $WTP_{Aj}^{s} = -\beta_{Aj}^{s}/\beta_{price,j}^{s}$. The calculated value indicates that the consumer's willing to pay a price premium for obtaining the preferred attribute level if the respective coefficient is positive. For instance, in one class model consumers are willing to pay a price premium of 1,022 VND for obtaining the canned Heineken, instead of bottled Heineken, while they are willing to pay a premium of 2,703 VND to drink the bottled Tiger instead of canned Tiger beer.

Table 3. Consumer's Concern and Brand Values

Important factors when choosing beer	Heineken Brand		Saigon Brand		Tiger Brand	
	Coef	t-value	Coef	t-value	Coef	t-value
Flavour	0.56**	2.28	0.09	0.51	-0.47*	-1.94
Package	0.11	0.39	0.56**	2.83	-0.02	-0.06
Alcohol level	0.85**	3.40	0.12	0.68	-0.80**	-3.29
Brand reputation	0.13	0.45	0.27	1.38	-0.20	-0.72
Price	-0.66**	-2.84	0.23	1.45	0.86**	3.82
Not being headache	-0.30	-1.01	-0.12	-0.59	-0.14	-0.47
Sale promotion	0.64**	2.58	0.04	0.22	-0.36	-1.51
Drinking situations	0.40	1.60	0.03	0.15	-0.40	-1.62
Not geting counterfait products	-0.07	-0.24	0.00	0.01	-0.06	-0.21
Constant	-2.67	-1.36	-7.38**	-5.40***	2.72	1.42

*** & *: the coefficient is statistically significant at the 1% or 5% level, respectively.*

The coefficients of brand measure the average effects of other factors that are not included in CE to the choice probability (i.e. α_j in equations 3, 4 and 5). In the marketing research the brand coefficients are considered as implicit value of a brand or the brand image in the market. We would like to see relationships between the factors that consumers concern about when choosing beer and these implicit values of brands. Firstly we obtain individual levels of each brand coefficients, that are computed as weighted averages of brand estimates at segment level by posterior membership probabilities (Green and Hensher 2003; Vermunt and Magidson 2005).Then, we apply OLS to regress the individual brand coefficients with a number of independent variables reflecting consumer's concerns when choosing beer. To measure the consumer' concerns when choosing beer we asked respondents to rate the importance of 9 factors (e.g. flavor, package, brand reputation) in a liker-scale (1: not important at all; 7: very important).

The Table 3 presents the OLS results for three brand implicit values. The statistically significant coefficients in Table 4 reflect how consumer's concern on a specific factor influences on the brand image. For instance, when consumers pay more attention on the flavor, they are more likely to choose Heineken brand, (indicated by the positive coefficient), but less likely to choose Saigon or Tiger. In a contrast, consumers who rated more importance to price, Heineken is less likely to be chosen. In general, flavor, alcohol level and sale promotion are positive while the price is a negative factor determining the brand image of Heineken. Packaging is positive factor determining Saigon brand image. Price is positive factor favoring the Tiger while flavor and alcohol level reduce the Tiger equity.

Discussion and Conclusion

Consumers may perceive that canned beers to be an inferior product because aluminum cans may change the taste profile of a beverage, or worse, pose a health risk due to absorbed aluminum (Blanco et al. 2010). However, Wixcox et al. (2013) conducted a series of sensory evaluation and found that the average consumer could not taste the difference between canned and bottled beers for 9 out of 14 types of beers tested. The authors concluded although consumers may taste differences between packaging methods for several types of beer, these differences may still be acceptable. Our results are consistent with the conclusion; i.e. consumers may be willing to pay a premium price for bottled beer of a specific brand (e.g. Tiger) but they prefer the canned of another brand (e.g. Heineken). Further, consumers do not have the same preference over the packaging methods. Consumers in class 2 and 3 prefer the canned Heineken but consumers in class 4 prefer bottled products and consumers in class 3 do not differentiate the bottled and canned beer.

Although there are a plenty of researches on consumer's choice of alcohol beverage, with focusing on wine products, surprisingly there is no previous study showing the influence of alcohol content information on consumer choice or perception. Our study reveals, on average, alcohol content (%Vol) is not important information considered by consumers for beer selection.

Our findings are meaningful to beer producers and marketers in a sense that help them to build up efficient production plan and marketing strategies. For instance, Heineken producers should pay more attention to class 1 and 2 for their canned product while attention to class 4 for the bottled. The favor, alcohol level and sale promotion are competitive advantages of Heineken brand, while price is a disadvantage. Green bottled product is the key item for Saigon beer category and the producer can increase the market share or profit by increasing this product line. Price is a competitive factor of the Saigon and this product should improve its quality in aspects of flavor and alcohol level (i.e. reducing %Vol). Bottled Tiger is favored in all segments, compared to the canned. Tiger producers can obtain benefit by supplying more bottled beer to the market and should keep in mind that packaging is a competitive advantage of their product.

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Marketing Analytics and Firm Performance

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Abstract

Marketers are increasingly expected to show measurable outcomes of their efforts - and modern information and communication technologies are facilitating and accelerating this trend. The deployment of marketing analytics is the central activity to enable capitalising on increasingly available and decreasingly costly data regarding marketing activities. We examine the critical roles of information processes and marketing accountability as key drivers of the deployment of marketing analytics and judge how the use of marketing analytics for marketing-related decision making contributes to firm performance. Using data supplied by 150 respondents we provide evidence that marketing accountability and effective information processes drive the deployment of analytics, and that in turn, the deployment of analytics drives firm performance.

Keywords: Accountability; Information Processes; Marketing Analytics; Performance

Track: Marketing research

Introduction

More than ever before, marketing departments around the world are increasingly expected to show that their efforts lead to measurable and desirable outcomes for their firms. Although that expectation has been present for many years, recently, the increase in the availability of high-quality, objective, population-level data at massively reduced cost compared to historical alternatives (for example measuring conversion rates from online advertising, vs. commissioning a large sample self-completion mail-out questionnaire, or in-home interviews of consumers) has led to the situation, where for the first time in the experience of many marketers working today, direct measurement of marketing impact is possible. Consequently, companies worldwide are spending billions of dollars on marketing analytics (Ariker et al., 2015; Columbus, 2015; Maddox, 2015), with expenditure in this domain likely to increase over the next three years. An intriguing finding of recent research into this area (e.g. Econsultancy, 2015) is that although most middle and senior managers report that they know they should devote more resources to deploying marketing analytics (i.e. acquiring, analysing and reporting on data relating to key performance indicators) they're not sure about the best way to do it (i.e. which software or services to acquire, what skill sets are needed by existing staff and new hires, as well as the best ways to communicate results etc.). This situation is reminiscent of the late 1990s "Web 1.0" days, where managers in most companies knew they should have a web site, but weren't quite sure why, or what to do with it.

However, one thing that most managers are sure about is that they expect to spend more on the deployment of analytics in the coming years. In fact, the most recent CMO survey results suggests that spending on marketing analytics will increase 68% in the next three years (CMO, 2016). Why? Because there is some evidence to suggest that the deployment of marketing analytics leads to superior firm performance (e.g. Germann et al., 2013). However, given the significant investments companies are expected to make in marketing analytics, there is surprisingly little academic and independent empirical evidence that examines whether or not companies across various geographies, contexts and industry structures benefit from these investments in the same way. Against this backdrop we seek to address two questions. First, do companies get financial benefits from deploying marketing analytics that justify the widespread investments? Second, what leads companies to deploy marketing analytics? Building and extending on the sparse empirical research that exists on the various antecedents of analytics use in companies we identify two critical antecedents of the deployment of marketing analytics: (1) marketing accountability; and (2) information processes. We posit that an increase in firm performance is the main consequence of the deployment of marketing analytics. To the best of our knowledge this is the first study to examine these two antecedents of marketing analytics and only the second, after Germann et al. (2013), to examine the effects of the deployment of marketing analytics on firm performance. This study is however the first to explore this relationship in a region outside of the U.S. and also in a different industry structure. To that end, this paper serves to contribute to the very limited academic and practitioner literature on the antecedents and consequences of the deployment of marketing analytics and to begin providing a foundation of findings for replication and extension.

Previous research

Our model draws on the resource-based view (RBV) of the firm (Barney, 1991; Penrose, 1959) and the dynamic capabilities perspective (Teece and Pisano, 1994) to model the antecedents and consequences of the deployment of marketing analytics.

The need for marketing professionals to be more accountable for the decisions they make has been identified as one of the most important capabilities of an effective marketing department (O'Sullivan and Butler, 2010; Verhoef et al., 2011). We also propose that the need to be more

accountable influences the way managers gather and analyse information via an organisation's information processes to make new decisions as well as affirm prior ones (Scholten et al., 2007).

H1: Managers who report greater marketing accountability in their firm will also report more effective use of IT (informational processes) for gathering marketing-related information.

Marketing accountability begins (and ends) with the marketing department taking responsibility for the marketing-related decisions they make. The use or deployment of marketing analytics, combining both technology and human resources and capabilities, serves as a mechanism or process whereby the likely or anticipated outcomes of a given marketing-related decision may be modelled and its impact on performance considered before it is given approval by senior management. The deployment of marketing analytics is a consequence of an accountable marketing department and it is only through the continuous and iterative process of data gathering, analysis and deployment of analytical output that both financial and non-financial outcomes associated with its use can be validated (and/or revised) over time (see also Juhl et al., 2013). The deployment of marketing analytics represents this systematic analysis for marketing-related decisions i.e. firms that demand higher accountability from their marketers also deploy more analytics.

H2: Managers who report greater marketing accountability in their firm will also report a greater use of marketing analytics for marketing-related decision making.

Learning from previous studies on CRM technology use failure (e.g. Chen and Popovich, 2003) the deployment of analytics is more than just the use of analytical software for marketing-related decision making purposes or an idea or perception that investment in technology alone is enough to improve performance (Diffley and McCole, 2015). Rather, it is "…an integrated and balanced approach to technology, process and people" (Chen and Popovich, 2003:672) to craft the most efficient and effective marketing strategy, solution or intervention based on customer/market insight to achieve a maximal return on marketing investment (ROMI). Germann et al. (2013:117) proposed that "…IT and data resources are important prerequisites for marketing analytics use." Several practitioner-related texts also forward the importance of information processes for analytical purposes (e.g. Davenport et al., 2010; Davenport, 2014).

H3: Managers who report greater use of IT (information processes) for gathering marketing-related information in their firm will also report a greater use of marketing analytics for marketing-related decision making.

Empirical support linking the use of marketing analytics to firm performance is sparse. We only found one academic study that examined the relationship between the deployment of marketing analytics and performance (Germann et al., 2013). They found that "The analysis of a survey of 212 senior executives of Fortune 1000 firms demonstrates that firms attain favourable and apparently sustainable performance outcomes through greater use of marketing analytics" (Germann et al., 2013:114). There are a limited number of studies in other functional areas (human resource management, supply chain management) that supports a similar relationship between analytical capabilities or data-driven decision making and performance improvements (e.g. Brynjolfsson et al., 2011; Trkman et al., 2010).

H4: Managers who report greater use of marketing analytics for marketing-related decision making in their firms will also report greater firm performance.

In our model, we control for the effect of business/industrial sector, fast-paced changing customer needs and company structure (independent vs. part of a parent company) to account for the variation in performance that is not due to the deployment of marketing analytics. This

is consistent with other studies in similar or related fields (e.g. Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; Slater and Narver, 1994 Vorhies et al., 2010).

Methods

An online survey was designed to collect data to test the model presented in Figure 1. Where possible, we used or adapted well established measures that have been previously validated in the extant literature to measure the constructs. All Likert-type measures were anchored on a 1 (low) – 7 (high) point scale. Items to measure internal information processes were adapted from the information capture, information integration and information access measures of the relational information processes construct developed by Jayachandran et al. (2005:183). Accountability was measured by adapting the items used by Verhoef et al. (2011:75), originally developed by Moorman and Rust (1999:196). Measures designed to capture the deployment of marketing analytics were adapted and expanded from German et al. (2013:127). Performance was conceptualised as a second-order reflective construct comprising overall financial performance of the firm (Morgan et al., 2009; Hooley et al., 2005); market effectiveness (Morgan et al., 2009); and ability to capture important metrics from customer interactions (newly developed for this study). The three control variables were measured as follows. Industry sector was measured using the same categories used by the Department for Business Innovation and Skills in their various industry reports. Ownership structure was assessed by asking senior managers if the organisation they work for was an independent entity or part of a 'parent' company (where controlling stake is outside the firm). The degree to which firms' believed that their customers' needs, wants and demands change quickly was taken from Germann et al. (2013:127).

The sampling frame consisted of a database of 810 past students from a postgraduate marketing programme at a leading triple accredited European business school. The sample included all past students from the programme that had a minimum of two years' work experience in a senior marketing role. This resulted in 150 completed and useable responses for structural equation modelling (SEM) purposes, representing a response rate of 18.5%. Table 1 provides an overview of the sample obtained. The majority of respondents were based in the Republic of Ireland and involved in the knowledge services (e.g. communications, digital and creative, financial and business, R&D, education) and other services (e.g. hotels and restaurants, retail, real estate, public services) sectors.

Results

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of manifest items and reliabilities of latent variables

Construct and Scale Item	Mean	SD	α	CR	AVE
Information Processes (Jayachandran et al., 2005:183)			0.91	0.91	0.63
We collect customer information on an ongoing basis	5.4	1.6			
The information collected from customers is updated in a timely fashion	4.8	1.7			
We integrate customer information from the various functions that interact	4.7	1.8			
We integrate internal customer information with customer information from	4.4	1.9			
We integrate customer information from different communications channels	4.5	1.8			
In our firm, relevant employees are provided with the information required	4.6	1.6			
Marketing Accountability (Verhoef et al., 2011:75)			0.78	0.80	0.58
The marketing department is effective at linking activities to financial	4.6	1.5			
The marketing department details the financial outcomes of their plans	4.6	1.7			
The marketing department pays little attention to the financial outcomes of	5.3	1.6			
Deployment of Marketing Analytics (German et al., 2013:127)			0.85	0.82	0.61
There is a culture in the marketing department of using analytics based	4.7	1.7			
In general, top managers only approve decisions when they are backed by	4.5	1.6			
Average of use of marketing analytics for marketing-related decisions	4.7	1.4			
Performance – Financial (Morgan et al., 2009; Hooley et al., 2005)			0.77	0.77	0.53
Overall profit levels achieved compared to competitors	4.9	1.4			
Return on marketing/sales investment compared to competitors	4.9	1.3			
Reaching financial goals compared to last year	5.1	1.4			
Performance – Metrics (new)			0.92	0.92	0.74
Customer lifetime value	4.2	1.8			
Share of the customer	4.4	1.7			
Customer equity	4.1	1.7			
Expected vs. actual returns	4.5	1.6			
Performance – Customer (Morgan et al., 2009)			0.83	0.84	0.64
New customers	4.5	1.2			
Stable or existing customers	4.3	1.0			
Premium customers	4.5	1.2			

The conceptual model was tested using SEM, using Mplus version 7.31 (Muthén and Muthén, 2012) via the MplusAutomation package (Hallquist and Wiley, 2014) for R (R Core Team, 2015). All other analysis was performed with R version 3.2.1 and SPSS version 21. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the manifest variables and reliability indices for the latent variables. Table 2 demonstrates that all the main constructs meet the guidelines for acceptable reliability and validity: the square root of every AVE is greater than any correlation between the latent constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) and the largest correlation between the latent variables is 0.60.

As shown in Figure 1, all four hypotheses were supported. All paths exhibited moderate to strong βs; were significant at the 1% level (even with a relatively small n); and supported the directionality of the relationships. Furthermore, the R2 values for the endogenous latent variables of theoretical interest in our study were: IP: 28%; Deploy: 76%; and Perform: 52% — thereby providing strong evidence for the predictive properties of our research model.

Table 2: Assessment of discriminant validity†

	Accountability	Info. Processes	Deploy	Firm	Metrics	Customer
Accountability	0.76					
Information Processes	0.28	0.79				
Deployment	0.54	0.60	0.78			
Firm*	0.18	0.21	0.34	0.73		
Metrics*	0.12	0.14	0.23	0.31	0.86	
Customer*	0.16	0.17	0.29	0.40	0.27	0.80

* = reflective measures of performance. † = The diagonal shows the square root of the AVE and off diagonal elements are the

We conducted tests of mediation to assess the position of Deploy as a key mediating variable in our model. We examined direct paths from both Account and IP to Perform and found them to be not significant. We tested direct paths in two ways: including the indirect paths (via Deploy) and then excluding them. When excluding the mediated paths through Deploy the model had lower fit (CFI = 0.93, TLI = 0.92, RMSEA= 0.07, SRMR = 0.09) and the two direct paths were non-significant. Testing for partial mediation, i.e. including the mediated and direct paths, the fit is similar to our original model, but the direct paths are non-significant. Taken together, the results of these models provide credible support for the mediating role of Deploy.

Figure 1: Modelling results
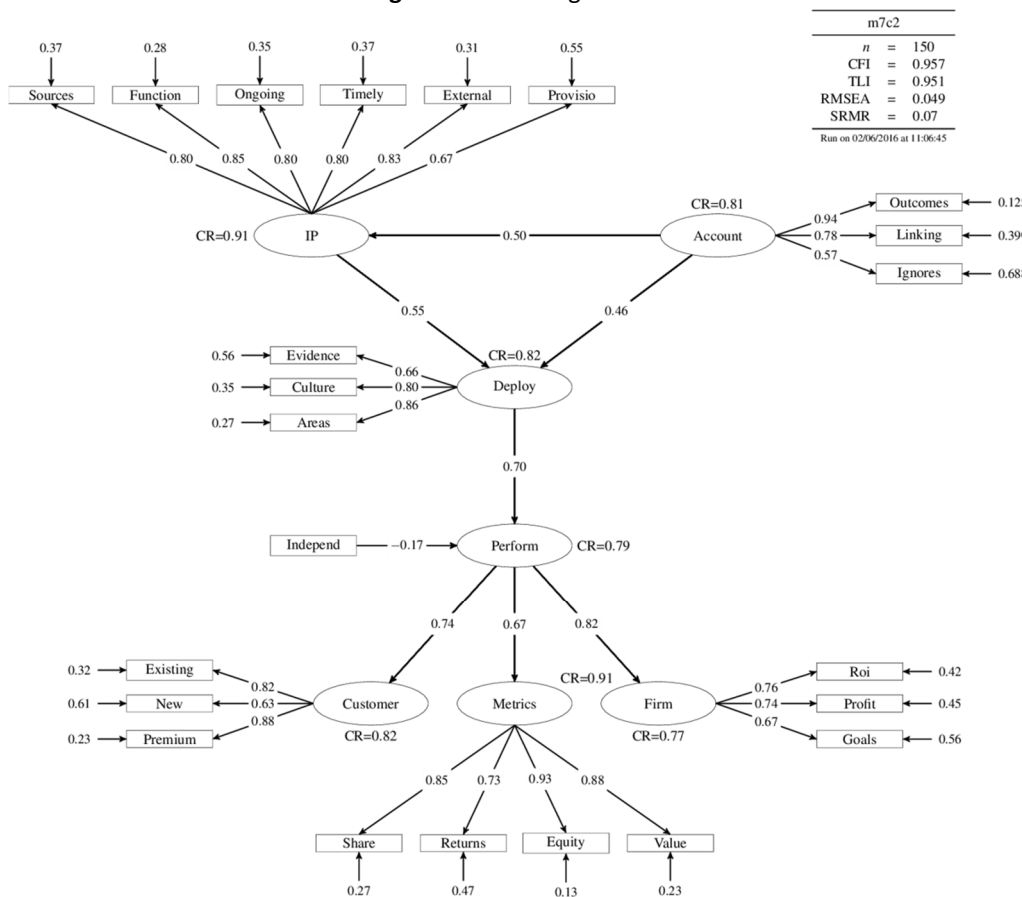
Of course, the usual caveats apply: our data are single-source, subjective, evaluations of firm attributes; and as no statistical model can "prove" causal relationships, we do not make causal claims. However the pattern of responses obtained are not inconsistent with our hypotheses.

Discussion

Our model positioned the deployment of marketing analytics as the key variable that mediates the path between marketing accountability, information processes and firm performance. Our data analysis provides evidence that the deployment of marketing analytics explains the relationship between (perceptions of) marketing accountability and firm performance and information processes and firm performance. Combined, this capability (i.e. not just having a resource, but using it effectively) illustrates the value and legitimacy of the marketing department within the firm (Moorman and Rust, 1999; Park et al., 2012). Marketers wishing to improve the effectiveness of their marketing function are mistaken to regard simply investing in marketing analytics as the single answer. Instead, hard and soft institutional change through Marketing and IT capability development, and a cultural change towards marketing accountability, are required. This represents a fruitful research domain and an exciting challenge for fellow researchers.

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Should we report t-tests and ANOVA?

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Abstract

This paper is prompted by recent debate on the utility of p-values and t-tests in science. A "statistically significant" t-test suggests that the mean of one group is probably different from the mean of another group. Unfortunately, we often also conclude that most or even all members of one group are different from most or all of another group. This manifestation of the ecological fallacy is common among students, managers, journalists, and many academics. Large samples exacerbate the problem, producing "statistically significant" results that may be unimportant for scholarly research or practical strategy. The Common Language Effect Size Indicator proposes an alternative question: What is the probability that any one member of one group has a higher (or lower) score than any one member of the other group? The question is well established in basic statistics courses, but answer requires a philosophical shift in thinking.

Keywords: Statistical significance, t-test, ANOVA, probability

Track: Market Research Methods

Introduction
The t-test for differences between two means has been a standard tool for more than a century, since William Gosset introduced the method in 1908 (Gosset (Student), 1908). We use the t-test to infer from a sample a range of values for the true mean of the population. When comparing two independent samples we use a t-test to decide whether the means are probably different by testing whether the difference in means is sufficiently different from zero. If the ratio of the estimated pooled standard error to the estimated mean difference is greater than a value determined by the sample size (usually something around 2) then we conclude there is a "significant" difference – a t-test.

Hubbard & Armstrong (2006) have lamented the failure of Marketing Research textbooks and Marketing scholars to properly differentiate between Fisher's p-value perspective, which considers a null-hypothesis only, and the Neyman-Pearson Approach, which frames either Null or Alternative hypotheses. The journal Nature in February 2014 published an editorial that summarised a growing unease among scientists with the value of t-tests and p-values as they are now routinely used (Nuzzo, 2014). This was followed up with a special edition on the importance of reproducible research practices (Nature, 2014). Importantly, we are reminded that p-values were never intended to be a final decider on a research question. The p-value was designed by Ronald Fisher in the early 1900's to be a quick first look at the problem at hand (Fisher, 1918). Fisher regarded p-values as an invitation to investigate further, and the decision on whether one group was different from another or whether an experimental treatment is effective should be given to deeper analysis and understanding of the problem and research method (Salsburg, 2002). The Nature articles reinforce recent calls from both the social sciences and hard sciences to think more critically about what a "significant" result actually means, and to present results in a more meaningful and sceptical fashion. For example, the editors of the prestigious journal Epidemiology complained,

Statistical significance tests are subject to facile misinterpretation, even to the point of producing incorrect conclusions. Second, P-values are used to cull results in a mechanical fashion when more nuanced thinking is required.
(Editors (Epidemiology), 2001)

From psychology, Cumming has argued persuasively for the substitution of p-values with repeated experiments and generous error bars (Cumming, 2011, 2013, 2014), and has provided useful free software for resampling experiments with existing data, and visualising results (Cumming, 2012).

Small-sample statistics on Big Data
Gossett created his analysis technique (originally he called it z, but Fisher made some small changes and renamed it Student's t) in response to the need for making inferences from very small samples, such as the quality of barley grain or dried hops for the brewing process. His tables of "significant" values ranged for samples of between three and ten. In most research published in scholarly journals the samples, even in sub-groups, are rarely less than 30, and frequently in the hundreds. As scanner and online tracking data become increasingly available, sample sizes become enormous. Statistical significance is usually determined by simply dividing an estimate by its standard error, which is estimated as a function of the sample

standard deviation and the sample size, as shown in equation 1. With more than one sample, the pooled standard error is calculated as in equation 2. As sample size increases, the standard error decreases and the t-test (or similar statistic) becomes larger. With larger samples we find "significant" results when there is no real change in the relationship at all.

Standard error

$$se = \sqrt{\frac{s_i^2}{n-1}}$$ (1)

Pooled standard error

$$se_p = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{s_i^2}{n_i - 1}}$$ (2)

t-test

$$t = \frac{x_1 - x_2}{se_p}$$ (3)

Consider the following situation as illustrated in Figure 1. Two independent samples are compared on some important brand evaluation. They are normally distributed with equal variances and the means are just one half of a standard deviation apart. As the accompanying table 1 shows, a sample size any more than 32 in each group will give a statistically significant difference. If these groups were men and women, would we really suggest a different marketing campaign for each sex? We suggest not.

Figure 5: Normal Distributions separated by 1/2 Standard deviation			
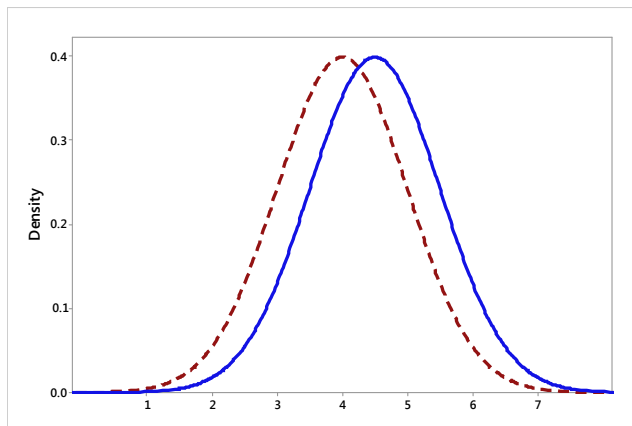
Table 3: Significance at varying sample sizes

n (each)	SE (pooled)	t-test	p (2sided)
2	1.41	0.35	0.757
4	0.82	0.61	0.573
8	0.53	0.94	0.377
16	0.37	1.37	0.190
32	0.25	1.97	0.058
64	0.18	2.81	0.007
128	0.13	3.98	0.000
256	0.09	5.65	0.000
512	0.06	7.99	0.000

The important point here is that when we ask "Is there a difference between groups?" then we typically revert to the routine test of difference between means – the independent samples

t–test. We often ignore the important issue of how much "overlap" there may be in the groups. Moreover, there is a very real risk that we, or at least our students and clients, will draw inappropriate conclusions from the simple proposition that the means are different. We can easily see a client reading that, say, "Average score for men is higher than average score for women on this issue". This may be interpreted as "generally, men score higher than women". And this quickly morphs into "all or most men score higher than all or most women". This wrong conclusion is known as the ecological fallacy: the belief that the average of a group applies to individual members of that group (Freedman, 2000; Winzar 2015). We see the ecological fallacy frequently in cultural research in Marketing and International Business where, for example, researchers accept that Australian managers are highly individualistic and Chinese managers are highly collectivistic. Actual measures at the individual level however show that there are many highly individualistic Chinese and many highly collectivistic Australians. Simply comparing means is a bad idea. The manifestation of the ecological fallacy evident here is the confusion with a group mean with individual likelihood of a higher (or lower) score. We can see from Figure 1 that, while the means of the two groups may be different, the proportion of "men" that have higher scores than "women" is not great. In fact, there would be a 69% chance that a male would have a higher score than a female, and a corresponding 31% chance that any one female scored than any one male.

It is clear that very small differences in means can be regarded as "statistically significant" when there is no real practical difference in the groups at all. In many cases, the likelihood that any one member of this group has a higher score than any one member of that group may be little more than a coin toss.

Alternative Questions and Answers

We argue that marketing academics and applied researchers should consider a quite different approach to reporting differences between groups. For many marketing and other social research questions we usually want to know if there may be differences between the groups overall. The appropriate answer then is not to test for differences in means but to test the probability that any randomly selected member of one group is different from any one member of the other group. Fortunately, this question is raised in many standard introductory statistics courses to test students' understanding of the properties of the normal distribution, and because it presents results in a manner that is easy for lay people to understand, including undergraduate students, it is known as the Common Language Effect Size Indicator (CLE). We calculate the CLE by finding the mean and variance of a joint distribution of the two different distributions and then calculate, or look up, the area under the curve. This can be done very quickly using a spreadsheet. Table 2 shows the relative proportion of times "females" are greater than "males" when the mean scores for each group differ by varying standard deviations, and when the standard deviations are the same.

| Table 4: Probability "Female" > "Male" at different mean differences (difference measured in standard deviations)												
Mean(F)-Mean(M)	-3	-2.5	-2	-1.5	-1	-0.5	0	+0.5	+1	+1.5	+2	+2.5	+3
P(F>M)	2%	4%	8%	14%	24%	36%	50%	64%	76%	86%	92%	96%	98%

We can extend the Common Language Effect Size approach to more than two groups as an extension to the usual Analysis of Variance calculations. In addition to asking if any means are

different and then testing which means are different using the post-hoc modifications of the t-test within most ANOVA packages, we can also present in a report the likelihood that any one member of a group has higher, or lower, score than a member of any other group.

Consider the example illustrated in Figure 3 where three independent groups are plotted, each with the same variances, and means are separated by half a standard deviation. We can see that members of Group A will have higher scores than the other two most often, but that sometimes members of Group C will be higher. So what is the probability that members of each group will have higher scores?

Figure 3: Three normal distributions of equal variance
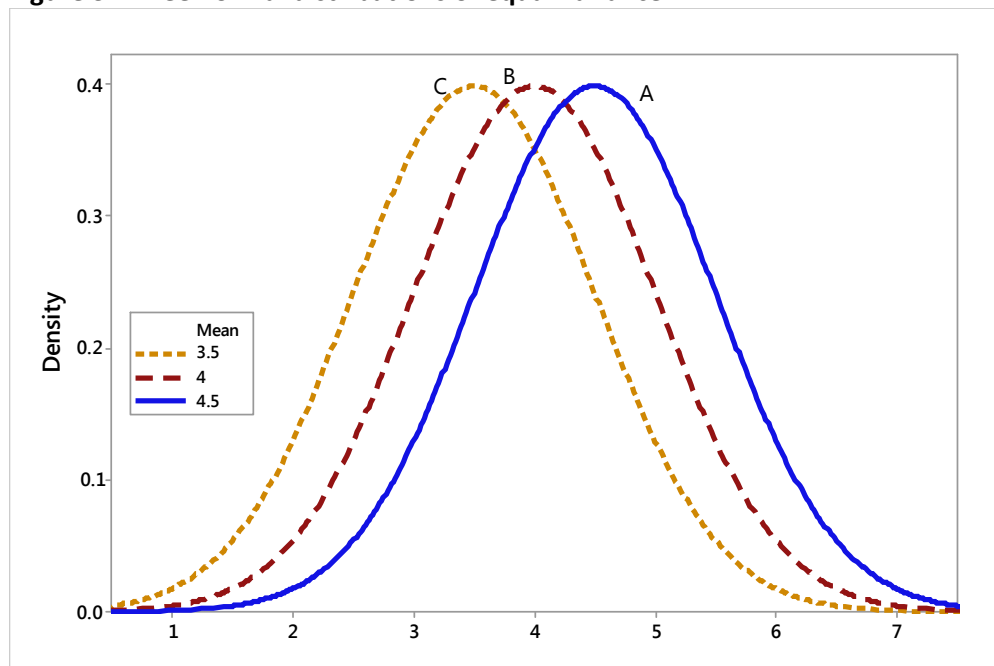
The algebraic solution to a maximum calculation from more than two groups involves some unpleasant multiple integration: Let ϕ_i be the PDF of X_i and Φ_i be its CDF. Conditional on $X_1=t$, the chance that $X_1 > X_i$ for the remaining i is the product of the individual chances (by independence) (Huber, 2012):

$$\Pr(t \geq X_i, i = 2, \ldots, n) = \Phi_2(t)\Phi_3(t) \ldots \Phi_n(t)$$

Integrating over all values of t, using the distribution function $\phi_1(t)dt$ for X_1, gives the answer

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_1(t)\Phi_2(t) \ldots \Phi_n(t)\, dt$$

In practice, such integration is achieved with simulation. Huber (2012) suggests resampling with about 2.5 million iterations using Mathematica® (Wolfram Research, 2014) for precision to five decimal places, but the author finds that about ten thousand iterations within a spreadsheet program such as MS Excel® provides accuracy to three decimal places (±1%)

which is sufficient for most social research purposes. A Monte Carlo simulation in MS Excel® generated three normally-distributed random variables with the means separated by a half standard deviation and standard deviations of one, as above. From a sample of 10,000 observations, we simply counted the number of times each variable was the "winner" with the highest value. In this case, Group A wins 55%, Group B wins 30% and Group C wins 15%.

Application to real survey data

We can apply very easily the method of relative frequencies – $p(a>b)$ – rather than simple comparisons of means – t-test or ANOVA – when analysing real survey data. Two approaches work well.

The first method is Monte Carlo simulation described above: it involves calculating means and standard deviations for each group, then generate random numbers with the same mean and variance properties. Relative frequencies of maxima, or minima, are recorded. Table 3 illustrates the Monte Carlo approach to calculating CLE. These artificial data represent a sample of students with 20 first-years, 15 second-years, and 17 third-years. Means and standard deviations provide input to a random number generated series of 10,000 runs for the three groups on, say, a quiz. By averaging the number of times each group member scores highest, then we have the Common Language Effect size. In this case, the frequencies are 10% 19% and 71% respectively. These are figures that a much easier for students and practicing managers to understand than ANOVA.

Yr 1	Yr 2	Yr 3	Run#	Gen1	Gen2	Gen3	Win1	Win2	Win3
3	4	7	1	2.41	3.88	5.16	0	0	1
2	5	5	2	5.87	1.82	3.07	1	0	0
2	6	5	3	2.18	1.63	7.35	0	0	1
4	4	7	4	5.59	2.75	6.54	0	0	1
3	3	7	5	5.52	4.29	7.94	0	0	1
3	1	8	6	3.62	6.47	6.56	0	0	1
3	5	4	7	4.34	2.59	6.61	0	0	1
4	6	6	8	1.42	2.07	4.97	0	0	1
3	1	4	9	4.08	5.42	4.62	0	1	0
4	3	8	10	3.19	3.39	5.14	0	0	1
3	5	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1	4	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
3	2	4	9995	3.01	5.40	3.70	0	1	0

6	5	5	9996	3.91	3.29	4.22	0	0	1
1	4	2	9997	1.28	4.67	5.95	0	0	1
2		8	9998	3.31	2.12	7.69	0	0	1
5		5	9999	4.10	4.65	4.10	0	1	0
5			10000	4.29	4.44	6.81	0	0	1
5									
5							p1	p2	p3
mean									
3.35	3.87	5.65					10%	19%	71%
stDev									
1.39	1.60	1.70							

The second CLE method is Bootstrapping: it involves repeated paired comparisons from the original data set. At each iteration, an observation is randomly selected from one group and compared with another randomly-selected observation from the other group or groups. Again, relative frequencies of maxima are recorded. The task can be accomplished quickly in MS Excel® using the What-If function, or using one of several Excel add-ins, such as XLSTAT (2016) or ResamplingStats (2013). A variant of this approach is to compare all observations from a group one-at-a-time with all observations from other groups, giving a complete non-repeated set of comparisons. Some adjustment to frequencies is required when dealing with ties. At the conference we demonstrate our simulation method using MS Excel®, and show how it improves interpretation and understanding of group comparison analysis.

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Supply chain resilience for performance: the moderated moderating effect of buyer-supplier relational practices and network complexities

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Abstract
Grounded on contingent resource based view and relational view, we predict that buyer supplier relational practices moderates the relationship between supply chain resilience and supply chain performance. We also envisage that supply chain network complexity interacts with buyer supplier relationship to influence the supply chain performance. Partial least square based structural equation modelling (SEM) is used to statistically test the model using data from 274 apparel manufacturers and their suppliers. Results reveal that buyer supplier relational practices and network complexity individually moderates the relation between supply chain resilience and supply chain performance. However it is affirmed that the relation between supply chain resilience and supply chain performance is not strengthened with the interaction effect of buyer supplier relational practices and network complexities. Our findings offer theoretical and practical insights for enhancing the buyer supplier relational strength and designing an appropriate supply chain network to improve supply chain resilience and performance.

Keywords: Buyer-supplier relationship, resilience, network complexity, supply chain performance

Track: Retailing and Distribution

Conceptualising the impact of perceived value on customer experience in shopping malls.

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Abstract
The aim of this paper is to conceptualise the factors that impact on consumers' experiences and intentions regarding visiting shopping malls. A review of the contemporary literature reveals an eight dimension scale measuring consumer perceived value in a mall, known as MallVals and how these values impact on their social and functional experiences during their visit. To extend this research, the conceptual model developed proposes that attributes such as tenant mix, atmospherics and entertainment are mediators in creating a positive mall experience. The paper contributes to theory by addressing the limited focus on the MallVal dimensions in the context of a western country through a proposed model.

Keywords: perceived mall values, tenant mix, atmospherics, entertainment, customer experience, customer revisit intention, retail, mall Article Classification: Conceptual paper

Track: Retailing and Distribution

Introduction
Today, the popularity of shopping malls has made them the third most visited place after home and work for customers in the USA (Ahmed, Ghingold, & Dahari, 2007). While revenue is predicted to reach $7.8 billion by the end of 2016, the annual growth rate of malls is only 1.6% (Kelly, 2016). To keep the mall relevant, the tangible and intangible attributes of a mall must be constantly adapted or renovated to create differentiated experiences for customers (Morrison, Gan, Dubelaar, & Oppewal, 2011). The customer behaviour perspective focuses mainly on the customers' functional and social experiences in the shopping environment (Devi Juwaheer, Pudaruth, & Ramdin, 2013; Gilboa, Vilnai-Yavetz, & Chebat, 2016) . However it is the antecedents to such customers' experiences that are important. Recent work on the MallVal scale has provided some insights, however the scale has only been tested in Middle Eastern shopping malls (El-Adly & Eid, 2015, 2016). Additionally, it is important to consider the effects from other mall attributes, such as the tenant mix, atmospherics and entertainment activities which are also proposed to impact the customer footfall and sales (El-Adly & Eid, 2016; Kesari & Atulkar, 2016). The impact of such mall attributes can be strategically controlled by the mall management to impact the customer's time spend in the mall (Zaidan, 2015). However, it is argued that limitations remain in the academic literature in terms of informing a viable marketing or business strategy for mall managers to implement regarding positioning strategies that create competitive advantages for a mall. Hence, it is important to continue to investigate ways to improve the value that malls provide shoppers and what experiences shoppers seek (El-Adly & Eid, 2016; Gilboa, et al., 2016). This conceptual paper aims to address this limitation with the following research question: "What is the effect of perceived mall value on customer's functional and social experience and how is this experience further influenced by the tenant mix, atmospherics and entertainment attributes of the mall that leads to customer revisit intention to the mall?"

Conceptual Development
Perceived Value in the Mall
Perceived value is defined as the value the customer gains relative to what the customer gives (Cai & Shannon, 2012). Understanding the consumers' perceived value in the context of malls is important as it aids the mall management in developing the mall environment and services that satisfy the customers, which ultimately create a positive brand image (Cai & Shannon, 2012). A limitation in the literature in terms of customer perceived value in the context of malls is because most of the literature focuses on specific store brands or product categories with a common focus on the utilitarian and hedonic perspective (Ribeiro Cardoso & Carvalho Pinto, 2010). Understanding the perceived value experienced by consumers in the shopping process has significant influence on satisfaction and loyalty in the mall, and the consumers' expenditure in the mall, as well as potentially increasing customer footfall (Olsen & Skallerud, 2011). One way to develop this understanding is through examining an eight dimension scale related to consumers' perceived value, called MallVals. A limitation of this scale at present is that has been developed for, and tested in, Middle Eastern shopping centres (El-Adly & Eid, 2015, 2016). This limitation is partially addressed in this paper by developing a conceptual model to examine the scale in a Western context. The MallVal dimensions are identified as utilitarian, spatial convenience, time convenience, transaction, hedonic, self- gratification, epistemic and social interaction values (El-Adly & Eid, 2015) and discussed as follows.

Utilitarian Value

Utilitarian value relates to the efficient and convenient manner of shopping for intended purposes (El-Adly & Eid, 2015; Ribeiro Cardoso & Carvalho Pinto, 2010). Often utilitarian customers view shopping as a task driven chore that focuses on buying the intended products as a mission for shopping (Carpenter & Fairhurst, 2005). Utilitarian shoppers have specific goals to be attained during their shopping trip. It is important then, that mall managers must satisfy these goals with mall attributes and services that are efficient, effective and cost saving (Kesari & Atulkar, 2016).

Spatial Convenience Value

Spatial convenience value is defined as the value the customer receives from undertaking a wide variety of shopping tasks without leaving the mall (El-Adly & Eid, 2015; Sundstrom & Radon, 2015). Spatial convenience critically impacts the shopping experience by enhancing the social, leisure and community aspects of customer's lifestyle (El Hedhli, Zourrig, & Chebat, 2016). The lack of spatial convenience in mall reduces planned shopping and socialisation (El Hedhli, et al., 2016). The ultimate goal for a mall manager is to provide a one stop shopping experience for customer by providing a large variety of retail tenants offering variety of product assortments in a quality and convenient manner (Yakhlef, 2015).

Time Convenience Value

Time convenience refers to the value for money the customer gains through extended trading hours or reduced buying process in the mall (El-Adly & Eid, 2015). For retail environments, providing time value is just as important as providing quality value in the products and services sold (Lin, Xia, & Bei, 2015). Compared to other convenience values, there is limited attention in the literature on time convenience value, particularly in the context of malls (Lloyd, Y.K. Chan, S.C. Yip, & Chan, 2014). Yet, time convenience is found to be one of the most important determinant for all types of customers when planning their shopping experience (Bhatnagar & Agarwal, 2015). For example, time convenience value has a significant impact on a customer's decision to extend their stay, their expenditure and their patronage in the mall (Bhatnagar & Agarwal, 2015).

Transaction Value

Transaction value refers to the value customers feel beyond product acquisition value which commonly known as 'bargain hunting' (El-Adly & Eid, 2015). Transaction value has a significant positive impact on customer behaviour and revisit intention towards the mall because customers will perceive the mall's product offerings as providing value for money (Sundstrom & Radon, 2015). In the context of malls, consumers' perceive transaction value in terms of the different retail tenants' prices, sales and discount offers(Lin, et al., 2015). Transaction value is important as it potentially impacts the level of excitement that customers may experience due to creating a trill of shopping in the mall that potentially could lead to positive customer experiences and revisit intentions to the mall (Cheng & Lee, 2011).

Hedonic Value

Hedonic value represents the sense of fun, pleasure and excitement the customer feels during their shopping experience in the mall (Carpenter, Moore, & Fairhurst, 2005; El-Adly & Eid, 2015).The subjective nature of hedonic value proposes a notion that mall attributes have a symbolic and emotional value for different types of consumers, therefore creating a unique connection between the mall and the customers (Olsen & Skallerud, 2011).Thus consumers' hedonic value would be influenced by the mall manager's ability to create an exciting atmosphere in the mall with entertainment facilities, events and overall environment (El

Hedhli, et al., 2016). Due to the high emotional and psychological nature of hedonic value, those customers who experience this value during their shopping show increased positive performance expectancy, as well as repurchase and revisit intentions in the mall because of the emotional connection made (Carpenter, et al., 2005; Ribeiro Cardoso & Carvalho Pinto, 2010).

Self-Gratification Value
This value refers to customers who view visiting the mall as a method of changing their mood or relieving stress seek self-gratification value (El-Adly & Eid, 2015). These type of shoppers are considered emotional shoppers that view shopping as an emotional task for self-gratifying reasons (Kesar & Sharma, 2015). If the mall manager is successful in creating self-gratification value for customers, the customers have a higher involvement and attachment to the mall which encourages future visits to the mall(Cai & Shannon, 2012).

Epistemic Value
Epistemic value is defined as the perceived value created when the product or service induces novelty and curiosity for the customers, yet there is limited attention to this value at the mall level with most of the focus on brand or store level (El-Adly & Eid, 2015). Creating an epistemic value for customers is a challenge due the short term and subjective nature of the value (Carlson, O'Cass, & Ahrholdt, 2015). It is believed that in the context of malls, creating epistemic value is possible by creating curiosity in a number for ways. Examples include: extending the variety of stores and product categories available, creating novelty through the continuous introduction of new events and entertainment, or by creating a desire for knowledge through enticing customers with the latest fashion, news and market trends (Carlson, et al., 2015).

Social Interaction Value
Customers that view the mall as an interactive place to experience positive shopping with others such as family, friends, salesperson and customers seek social interaction value (Albayrak, Caber, & Çömen, 2016; El-Adly & Eid, 2015). Over time malls have evolved to become social places for a community (Kesari & Atulkar, 2016).The increase in social interaction value potentially has a significant positive impact on customers' extended stay in the mall and customer footfall because customers view the mall as more than a place to shop and eat but rather to spend their leisure time (Lin, et al., 2015).

In drawing the dimensions of the Mallvals together, the following research proposition is stated: RP1. When applied to a Western mall context, to what extent would the MallVals determine how customers experience this type of retail environment?

Customer Experience
The customer's experience in retail settings is particularly important as such environments are regarded as experiential nature (Tynan & McKechnie, 2009) and they may seek enjoyable experiences while engaging in consumption activity that may go beyond just making purchases (Bailey, 2014). Such notions are consistent with some of the Mallvals discussed above. However, the constant change in customer behaviour and the blurring of communication and information sharing boundaries between customers has made understanding the customer experience more challenging (Kim, Park, Lee, & Choi, 2016) and this could affect their experiences in a shopping mall. The literature shows that customer experience can be categorised as functional and social which are discussed as follows (Gilboa, et al., 2016).

Functional experience
Customer's functional experience is affiliated with the mall's environment and attributes (Gilboa, et al., 2016). The functional experience in a mall is achieved through the mall's appeal and convenience, amenities, personnel and parking (Gilboa, et al., 2016). These constructs potentially provide convenience for customers and satisfy their rational motives and shopping objectives (Sachdeva & Goel, 2015). Research suggests that customers who perceived their shopping experience from a functional perspective are less loyal and only seek to have their shopping motives fulfilled in the most effective and efficient manner (Kim, et al., 2016). It is the mall manager's responsibility to develop a functional experience that eases planned purchases for customers in the least amount of time (Lloyd, et al., 2014). The malls functionality has been identified as positively impacting the overall shopping experience in the mall that encourages customers to revisit the mall in the future (Lucia-Palacios, Pérez-López, & Polo-Redondo, 2016).

Social experience
Shopping malls have become a major part of customer's lifestyles and have evolved from achieving shopping tasks to becoming social and recreational centres for entertainment and leisure activities (Devi Juwaheer, et al., 2013). Mall attributes and elements that significantly increase the social experience for customers are entertainment, atmospherics, ambience and the retail tenant mix that create a sense of enjoyment for shoppers (Bailey, 2014). Unlike customers who solely seek functionality in their shopping experience, customers seeking social experience in the mall are increasingly loyal in their choice of mall (Sharma & Sajid, 2016).
In drawing together the implications for the customer experience values, the following research proposition is stated: RP2. Given the influence on customer experience from the MallVals, to what extent would functional and social customer experiences predict consumer loyalty and revisit intentions to the mall?

Mall Attributes
As has been shown in the discussion above, there are mall attributes that influence not only the customer's experience in the mall, but their intentions to return. These mall attributes are solely controlled by the mall management and hence impact the customer's experience in the mall. In this paper three mall attributes are identified as being important and that they will act as mediators in the conceptual model proposed.

Tenant mix management
Tenant mix is viewed as one of the complex factors in mall attributes since it is a factor influenced by many other factors (Yim Yiu & Xu, 2012). Firstly tenant mix is influenced by the physical architecture and layout of the mall that helps in the positioning image of the mall (Merrilees, Miller, & Shao, 2016). Secondly tenant mix management is also a combination of the type of brands that have leases at the mall and the number of anchor tenants in the mall (Kim, Lee, & Suh, 2015). Finally, a successful tenant mix management provides accessibility and visibility for stores in mall with the presence and different types of entertainment services at the mall (Burnaz & Topcu, 2011). Fundamentally, tenant mix management is found to have significant influence on creating excitement in the mall as well as the image of the mall, which in turn influences the customer experience and intention to stay (Yim Yiu & Xu, 2012).

Atmospherics

Atmospherics is considered a three dimensional construct such as visible design, invisible ambience and social dimensions (Morrison, et al., 2011). The visible design elements of atmospherics consists decorations, displays, layout and artefacts (Kwon, Ha, & Im, 2016). The invisible ambience of atmospheric elements includes the lightening, music, scents, colours, temperature and mood in the mall (Kwon, et al., 2016). The social dimensions of atmospherics include elements such as the employees, customer service and mall personnel which, together with other elements evokes positive feelings within shoppers and the mall's attractiveness for visitors (Lunardo & Saintives, 2015). Besides setting the mood and emotions in the mall, atmospherics can create social value for customers by providing a positive environment for social interaction (Albayrak, et al., 2016).

Entertainment activities

Research has shown that entertainment activities in a mall can impact on customer experience, patronage, purchase intention and excitement (Devi Juwaheer, et al., 2013) while creating competitive advantage for the mall (Bailey, 2014). Entertainment in a mall can be viewed from two perspectives. The first is those tenants that provide entertainment such as cinemas and games arcades that increase variety in the tenant mix (Bailey, 2014). The second is non-tenant entertainment activities in a mall such as contests and seasonal celebrations (Albayrak, et al., 2016).The collective value of such entertainment activities creates positive experiences for consumers leading to increased emotional attachment and revisit intentions (Zaidan, 2015), as well as competitive advantage for the mall (Borgers & Vosters, 2011). Mall managers often utilise entertainment as a strategic tool in promoting the mall to increase patronage behaviour and sales as well as increasing competitive advantage (Shayekina & Tashenova, 2014).

Given the somewhat under-researched relationship of these three mall attributes in the presence of the MallVals, at present the conceptual model proposes that they may have more practical application as explanatory mediators that enhances the relationships between consumers functional and social experiences and their intentions to return to the mall. Therefore, the following research proposition is stated: RP3. Given the presence of the MallVals and their influence on functional and social experiences, it is proposed that the three mall attributes will act as mediators on these two consumer experience constructs and intentions to revisit the mall.

Theoretical contributions

This study aims to contribute to the theoretical concept of perceived value, customer experience and customer revisit intention in several perspectives. Firstly, this study will extend the newly developed MallVal dimensions in the context of a western country. Secondly, this study will achieve a better understanding of the customer experiences in the mall for practitioners to develop more innovative ways to enhance or create new experiences and services in order to retain customers despite the increase the trend towards online shopping. Finally, this study creates a theoretical understanding on the impact of mall attributes and entertainment activities on the customers' functional and social experience in the mall that could encourage future revisit intentions. The conceptual model showing the proposed relationships for all of the constructs discussed above is presented in Figure 1. This paper aims to contribute to the theoretical domain of customer experience in a shopping mall.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model
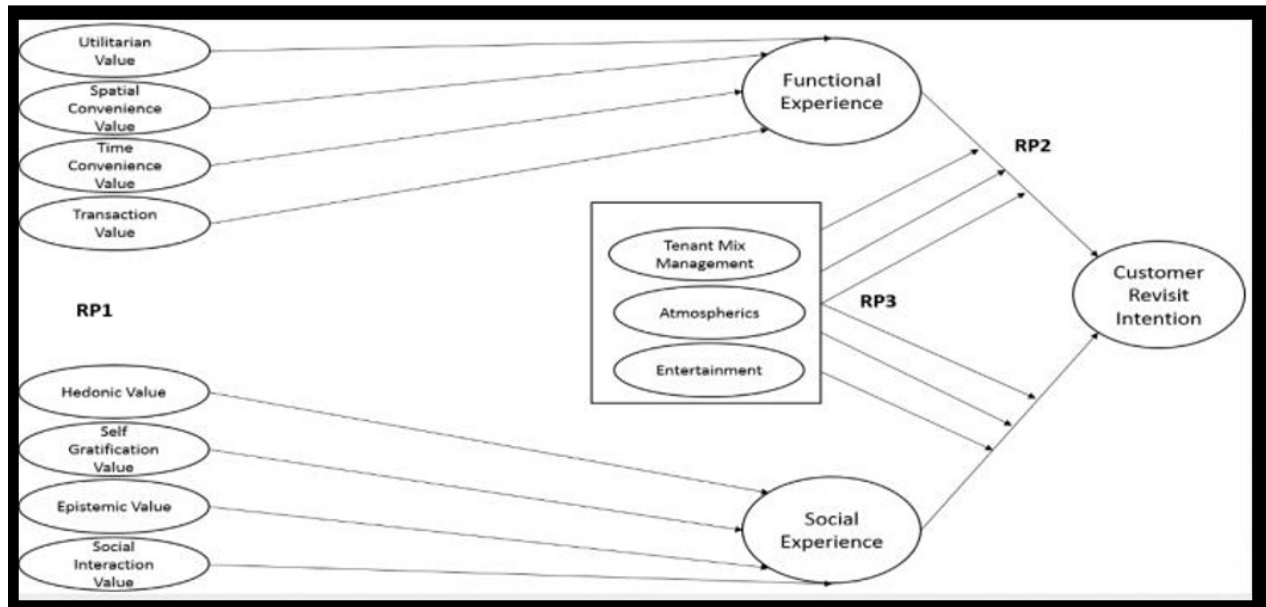
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"I Like to Pay by the Kilogram!"
Empirical Evidence for the Relevance of Package Size in Unit Pricing

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Abstract

Displaying unit prices is in many markets mandatory. Previous research on unit pricing focus on consumers' unit price awareness, comprehension and usage. Moreover, effects of unit pricing on consumers' product choice is another central aspect in literature. Yet, research on the influence of unit price measurement unit is scarce. This paper analyses the effect of the measurement unit in unit pricing on purchase intentions. We find that the use of larger units of measure (e.g. per kg vs. per 100g) leads to higher perceived prices as well as higher perceived quality although the actual price is equal. Taking package sizes into consideration, this measurement unit effect only arises for large package sizes (e.g. 450g) and vanishes for small package sizes (e.g. 125g). Subsequently, while price perception influences purchase intentions negatively, quality perception affects purchase intentions positively.

Keywords: Unit pricing, Package size, Quality perception, Price perception, Unit effect

Track: Retailing and Distribution

Retailing Underutilised Products: A POS Trial of Australian Oysters

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Abstract

This paper reports the results of a field trial conducted on behalf of the Australian oyster industry designed to increase oyster consumption through POS and in-store sampling. Oyster consumption is characterised by a base of very light consumers, many of whom do not even eat oysters once a year. POS strategies are an effective retailing strategy to drive behavioural change at POS. Five POS strategies were manipulated in seven specialty seafood stores in Australia. The results show that while in-store sampling is the most effective POS strategy, an integrated POS strategy comprising a range of materials has an added impact of educating staff who can then also assist in the sale process. Management commitment to the POS strategies is critical for successful implementation.

Keywords: Point-of-sale (POS), seafood, consumer behaviour, retailing

Track: Retailing and Distribution

The Role of Pricing Strategies and Location on Grocery Demand

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Abstract
Location is one of the most essential (if not the only) factors that affects the survival of the business. Our research incorporates the location coupled with the pricing strategy (Everyday Low Price (EDLP) vs. Promotion (PROMO) channel) to explain the grocery demand. A multi-variate spatio-temporal mixed model is utilised, incorporating the spatial lattice that allows to effectively capture the effect of location. The dataset originated from the United States grocery and supermarket data for 2012-2013 (which includes Target and Walmart). Preliminary results show the variation exists among different location even after accounting for socio-demographic background, price and product variants. From the competition perspective, we find that a PROMO store tends to compete with other PROMO stores. However, an EDLP store tends to compete with both EDLP and PROMO stores. PROMO and EDLP store are preferred in the densely and sparsely populated areas respectively.

Keywords – Retailing, Pricing, Strategies, Everyday Low Price, Promotional, EDLP, Hi-Lo, Spatial, Spatio-temporal, grocery demand.

Track – Retailing and Distribution

The power of cognitive proximity

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Abstract

The majority of people's everyday actions, such as grocery shopping, are based on habits. Even though better options might exist it is difficult for consumers to break their habits of where to shop. The purpose of this study is to assess how attractive a new grocery store ought to be, and what attributes that influence this attractiveness in order for a consumer to break their habit of shopping in one store. A questionnaire was distributed to undergraduate students and 266 usable questionnaires were obtained.

One sample t-tests were performed for each attribute, comparing consumers' regular grocery store with a store right beside, closer than, and further away. The result showed that consumers demand most of a grocery store situated further away. Yet, consumers also demand more even though the new store is right beside or closer. This shows the strength of consumers' cognitive proximity.

Keywords: Store switching, Store attractiveness, Consumer choice, Grocery store, store selection

Track: Retailing and distribution

Effects of Stakeholder Relationship Quality on Efficient Retail Crime Prevention: A Research Agenda

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Abstract

Research experts of retail shrinkage, security, crime, and loss prevention believe that irrespective of technical advancements all across the globe there has not yet been desired substantial positive changes in reduction of shrinkage and retail crime. Every year, retailers lose billions of dollars through reduction in retail inventories due to shoplifting, employee theft, supplier fraud, and deliberate administrative errors. Retailers do invest money in all sorts of tangible measures such as installing CCTVs, GIS, RFID tags, appointing private security guards etc. to reduce incidents of crime against them. However, the relations of retailers with their stakeholders are formal and transactional. It is today's necessity that retailers should constructively work upon building quality business transactions along with harmonious and safe relationships with their stakeholders. Our research is based on improving stakeholder relationship quality that ensures support for retailers to have secured business environment which results in effectively minimized retail crime incidents.

Keywords: Stakeholders, Relationship Quality (RQ), Retail Crime, Shrinkage, Retail security and loss prevention

Track: Retailing and Distribution

Introduction

Consistent technological revolution, globalisation and migration affect lives of people of this planet. There is a dramatic shift in the standard of living due to the 'progress' of the human race (Guthrie & Guthrie, 2006). Progress is a tangible entity which can be seen and experienced. Tene and Polonetsky (2015) argued that this 'progress' may be responsible for immensely dark social and ethical problems such as injustice and inequality due to increasing desire from peer pressure to have high standards of living. To fulfil these desires of high standards of living, ironically, some people divert towards criminal activities such as shoplifting (Elder, 1989). Shoplifting and similar deviant acts are offenses against retailers that affect them financially, socially and emotionally (Kennedy & Benson, 2016). It is known to the people of retail industry that shrinkage is a consistent growing problem (Elder, 1989). Like all other countries, unfortunately New Zealand retailers too face this problem. Retail business sector is believed as one of the most significant sources of New Zealand's revenue. In New Zealand, the largest contribution to overall services activity is from retail and wholesale trade; which values 18% of services Gross Domestic Product (GDP) that accounts for approximately $17,425 million (NewZealand, 2016). Guthrie (2003) argued that in New Zealand, shrinkage through retail crime is approximately one to two percent of sales. Also customers, employees and suppliers are identified as known potential stakeholders who are responsible for the shrinkage in retail. Several research studies have been independently carried out in line with this argument (Bamfield, 2004; Lasky et al., 2015). However, none of the studies has endeavoured to fill the research gap of evaluating the effects of maintaining good relationships with stakeholders on the possibility of better security as well as reduction in shrinkage and retail crime. Therefore, the researchers have decided to focus on the idea of improving stakeholder relationship quality through a theoretical framework and theory that expected to be helpful to avoid losses in their day-to-day business operations.

Theoretical foundation:

Authors of this research paper have intensively explored relevant existing literature in different aspects of retail crime, stakeholder theory and relationship quality to give a substantial basis as well as support to the previously mentioned proposition. It is worthwhile to look at each of these aspects into more detail.

Shrinkage, Retail crime, and Loss Prevention:

According to Charles (2011) shrinkage is "the loss of merchandise by a retailer, usually due to theft, but sometimes due to other reasons." (p. 165) Unknown reduction in the retail inventory results in financial and subsequent emotional losses (Kennedy & Benson, 2016). There are various reasons behind shrinkage however, four significant sources of shrinkage are; shoplifting, employee theft, supplier fraud and administrative errors (Bamfield, 2006). It is essential for retailers to understand the causes behind shrinkage to mitigate it effectively. However, it is lengthy and time consuming process. Instead of that if retailers strive to improve their practice of executing excellent and quality relationships with their stakeholders then it might reduce the severity of losses they currently face. The researchers of this study are assuming that relationship quality can be effectively sharpened through cause-related marketing and service quality. Three stakeholders; customers, employees and suppliers are mostly seen responsible for retailers and the basic reason could be the casual and uncertain attitude these stakeholders have towards retailers and retail theft (Bamfield, 2004). For customers, it seems to be a simple offence and for retail employees, it is helpful to support their day-to-day living through this kind of 'unethical perk' from their job (Elder, 1989). Ironically,

few research studies mentioned that people who steal from large retailers didn't feel guilty for the same as they believed that their act didn't target and affect a particular individual (Elder, 1989). Retailers face challenges to find the accurate source of shrinkage which results into a major issue of continued financial losses for them (Bamfield, 1988). Therefore, Brown et al. (1987) suggested that it is best practice for retailers if they take necessary precautions to at least minimise threat of shrinkage from their own employees through appropriate pre-employment integrity testing as enhanced morale of employees results in high productivity and better organisational loyalty (Bamfield, 2006). Similar is the case with suppliers as sometimes intentionally or otherwise they might end up doing something bad to retailers through supplying defective goods, less items etc.

Stakeholder theory:
The stakeholder theory looks at the importance of all stakeholders of a business. One of the most difficult tasks of retail businesses is to manage relationships (Ford et al., 2011). Retention of existing customers; maintaining healthy and harmonious relationships with suppliers, government agencies, financial institutions and other stakeholders, etc. have become some of the growing problems in complex retail business environment (Dawson, 2001). Lowson (2005) suggested that for making retail business successful, retailers should opt for a practical approach as well as strategy and they must use efficiently. Payne et al. (2005) argued that stakeholder theory is a pivotal matter in business strategy formation and implementation. "Relating is connecting, and at its simplest level, a relationship is a state of being connected", as Payne et al. (2005, p. 856) defined it. As per Ford et al. (2011), stakeholder theory emphasises that interfirm associations are company's most crucial resources, since in their absence, it cannot gain access to the resources of others, obtain the articles and materials it needs, or resolve problems of its customers and thus generate profits. The six-markets stakeholder model (Payne et al., 2005) can be helpful to retailers to identify, study and understand various important stakeholders and all domain areas important to them. Retailers may critically analyse these six-markets to identify and typecast important markets and then work upon gaining good business opportunities through these markets. In the context of retail loss prevention, it is strongly recommended that one more set of stakeholders needs due attention. Retail businesses should understand that they can only achieve good and harmonious long-term relationships with their customers, if they accomplish, recognize and maintain good, meaningful networks of relations with other relevant stakeholders; including, a new proposed stakeholder which is a set of security management and it includes; police, private security firms, agents, retail associations, and legal consultants. Present authors have labelled it as safeguard markets.

Figure I. Seven-markets Model

The seven-markets model (Figure-I), which is an extension of the six-markets model of Payne et al. (2005), is proposed for retail businesses to prevent losses through different means. Relationships do matter to retailers with all their stakeholders and by introduction of the seventh category of stakeholder i.e. the 'safeguard markets', it is expected to effectively help retailers to manage good relationships with all the stakeholders. The safeguard markets are the entities that are proposed to support and advocate secured retail operations.

Relationship Quality:

According to Siggelkow (2002), organisations are regarded as structures of fundamental, enlarging, autonomously independent, and changeable elements as well as the networks among all or fragment of these elements (pp. 126-129). Relationships are believed to be the building blocks of a successful organisation. Especially in today's globalised society and highly competitive business environment, it is economic to maintain good relationships with existing customers than to acquire new ones (Athanasopoulou, 2009). Therefore, organisations are seen striving to maintain long-term relationships with customers. When the quality of relationship is good then the relationship is successful and it ultimately helps organisations to grow. It is essential to know and understand the factors responsible to increase and decrease quality of relationships (the antecedents), how the quality of relationship can be measured (the dimensions) and the benefits of quality of relationships (the consequences). Further, Athanasopoulou (2009) concluded that the only effective area is the three key measurements of quality of relationship, including; trust, commitment and satisfaction; that have been used in many studies they reviewed and they have been validated in different context (p. 603).Collis et al. (1998) found the intangible elements such as trust, commitment and satisfaction are unconsumed while in use and Teece (2000) concluded that an organisation's excellent performance depends upon its ability to defend and use the intangible elements it creates (p. 52); nonetheless, finally Hitt et al. (2001) concluded that in organisations, intangible elements might produce a competitive advantage (p. 14) and that's why these elements must be

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addressed on priority. Based on Figure I, a new model of relationships among different retail stakeholders is shown in Figure II.

**Figure II.** Relationships among different stakeholders

In Figure II, the retailer is at the core of this model as present researchers will be evaluating relationship quality between retailers and all other stakeholders. The first level of relationship quality is of the supporting entities that help retailers protect as well as smoothly run their business. Therefore, present researchers have termed them as 'safeguard level' stakeholders. These stakeholders are divided into two categories, direct safeguard stakeholders and indirect safeguard stakeholders. The direct safeguard category of stakeholders contains police, private security providers and, retail association whereas the indirect safeguard category of stakeholders contain law makers as well as policy makers. The second level of this model is the community level and it is critical in nature as this level contains the potential perpetrators. As already discussed, customers, employees and, suppliers are stakeholders mostly seen

involved in retail crime this level is going to be the most interesting level to discuss their relationships with the retailer. The third and last level is the society as all the stakeholders are part of the society and must be considered.

Proposed outcome:

Safeguard marketing - A brief introduction:

Safeguarding is an act of defence or a precautionary measure warding off impeding danger or damage or injury. Safeguard protects against something negative. For example, a store security system is a safeguard against theft. The ultimate aim of safeguard is to ensure safety. Using a similar concept along-with the safeguard markets, the authors are endeavouring to develop a theory of safeguard marketing as an extension to the relationship marketing theory of Payne (1993).
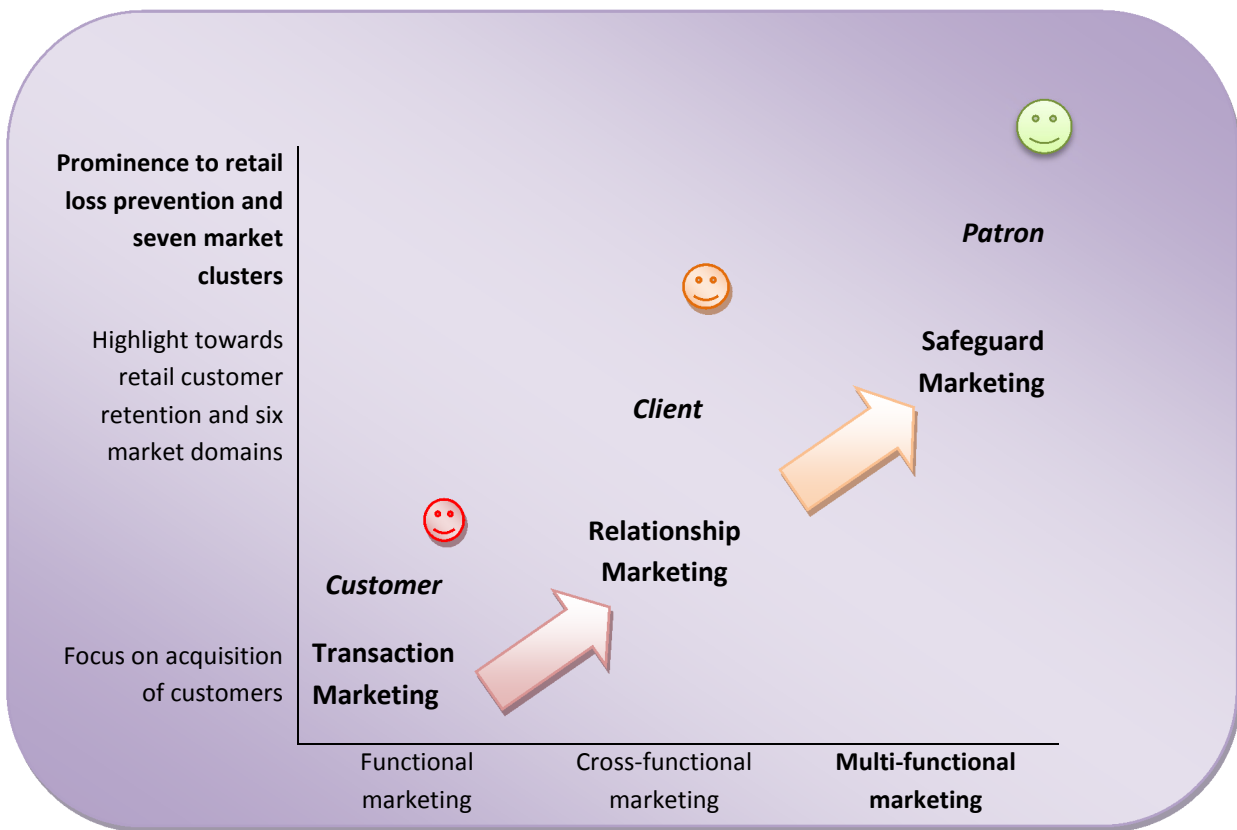
Figure III. Proposed evolution towards Safeguard Marketing

Figure III shows proposed evolution of safeguard marketing which is to be seen as an extension of the pioneering and benchmark study of Payne (1993) in relationship marketing. Safeguard marketing is a proposed revolutionary concept of marketing which was very rarely discussed before, especially in the retail sector. In general terms, the basic marketing relationship is limited to transactions only; with a focus on acquisition of 'customers'. Relationship marketing takes it further towards customer retention with the help of few models and to make them 'clients' (regular customers). Further, this new proposed concept of safeguard marketing is aimed to prevent losses and ensure safety of retailers as well as to some extent even, customers; in general, businesses at large and making them 'patrons' (regular honest ethically behaving customers) of the retail business. Each phase needs investment of

ample efforts to have good harmonious relationships to prevent retail losses. The patrons are the proponents who support the retailers to smoothly and safely run their business. Patrons belong to one of the stakeholder markets that might be helpful to safeguard retail businesses through cause-related marketing. Cause-related marketing is a way of promoting retail organisation's Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives. It is expected to fetch attraction of stakeholders towards retail organisations and then optimum service quality ensures fair service delivery and higher satisfaction of stakeholders. This elevated satisfaction level is proposed to positively boost morale of the customers to convert them as a safeguard resource advocating retail organisations safety and security.

Conclusion:
Proposed research question:

As a result of this research study, researchers are endeavouring to propose a theory of safeguard marketing which is planned to be designed along with the seven-markets stakeholder framework. It is believed to have a good foundation towards value-addition of the existing knowledge-base. Also, practically it is desired to be helpful to retailers with their relevant stakeholders to run smoothly and securely in their respective marketplaces; by preventing unexpected and may be even unforeseen losses.
So, the proposed question is:

How can stakeholder relationships lead to better retail security?
How do cause-related marketing and service quality help to improve stakeholder relationships?

Proposed research methodology:
The proposed research methodology is extensive and structured interviews with retail stakeholders to understand the critical and realistic elements of stakeholder relationships. Present researchers are expecting to get enough ideas from these interviews to design a good structured survey that will show the actual quantitative and qualitative nature of good stakeholder relationships on retail crime.

Proposed outcome:
Proposing and designing theory of safeguard marketing is the ultimate aim of the present researchers. Based on the analysis of responses from survey, basis for the safeguard theory shall be decided.

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The Beneficial Effect of Resilience in a Mediated Role Ambiguity-Sales Performance Relationship

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Abstract
Personal sellers oftentimes experience ambiguity-based role stress, which can be harmful to a seller's sales performance. However, the exploration of this process is mostly neglected, and thus, this adverse effect is not fully understood. Complementing existing research, we propose a framework that regards a seller's personal accomplishment and work engagement as mediators between role ambiguity and sales performance. In addition, we consider the psychological resource of resilience that may buffer the negative effects of ambiguity-based role stress on sales performance. Results from two online surveys among 142 and 175 personal sellers generally support our mediated role ambiguity-sales performance model and underscore the relevance of resilience and its beneficial effect on the impact of ambiguity-based role stress.

Keywords: Resilience, Role Ambiguity, Sales Performance, Work Engagement, Personal Accomplishment

Track: Retailing and Distribution

Segmentation of Social Media Online Shoppers through the Thailand Instagram Store

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Abstract

Instagram, a fast growing social media application, allows direct online retailing including presentation of excellent photos of merchandise. Consumers purchasing through Instagram, yield the second highest average order value among social media applications. To understand attitudes, purchase consideration and behaviour, a survey was conducted of 190 Instagram users in Thailand. Half of these respondents had purchased via Instagram during the past 12 months. These respondents are classified into four groups according to their lifestyle; namely modern shopper, economy shopper, risk-averse shopper, and impulsive shopper. Each group's attitudes, awareness, and purchase behaviour are compared. Direct referrals and presence at pop up markets influence each segment's awareness and purchase consideration of the Instagram store. The three most important factors that influence purchasing behaviour are customer's own purchase intention, price, and style of the product. Shoppers and non-shoppers are also compared. These results are contrary to previous findings. Implications and recommendations are provided.

Keywords: Instagram, Instagram retailing, Social e-commerce

Track: Digital Marketing and Social Media

Beware Of Strangers … Unless You're Looking at Making Connections for Shopping Tips

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*** Best Paper in Track ***

The current study examines how real time customer-to-customer (stranger) interactions (C2C) influence a customer's overall behaviour in the retail context. We implement a mixed method approach: eight in-depth interviews with sales assistants working in popular clothing retail stores, followed by two focus groups consisting of female customers ages – 19 to 25 years and 40 years and above – and lastly, a survey with 207 female participants across New Zealand. The findings reveal that customers turn to other customers (strangers) for social support and reassurance with their product choices and purchase-related decisions. In addition, it was also found that real-time C2C (stranger) interaction varied as a function of a customer's age. In particular, older customers relied on the opinions of other customers (strangers) more so than did younger customers.

The roles and sales effectiveness of front vs. rear endcaps

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Abstract
The effectiveness of various in-store promotions has been suggested to depend on their location in-store due to differing shopper traffic and potential exposure. This paper examines the sales effectiveness of endcaps or end-of-aisle displays located at the front or rear of a supermarket in terms of: (1) percentage changes in the total quantity of items sold, and (2) the share of sales coming from endcap vs. from within the main aisle. The study uses sales data from an Australian supermarket obtained via three product category based quasi-experiments The results showed that the rear endcaps generated a higher sales uplift than front endcaps (+416% vs. +346% respectively). However, when looking at the endcap share of sales, front endcaps contributed higher endcap-only sales than rear endcaps (34% vs. 24% endcap-only sales respectively).

Keywords: Endcaps, sales uplift, price promotions, in-store promotions, supermarket

Track: Retailing and Distribution

Examining the level of manufacturer concentration across product categories

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Abstract

The proliferation of brands and SKUs across product categories may create an impression that there are many competing manufacturers behind each brand. The paper systematically documents the manufacturers in twelve product categories in the UK over three years (2009 – 2011). The results show that the top ten manufacturers across the twelve product categories cover 89% of the total revenue, 38% of the brands and 62% of the SKUs on average. Furthermore, using Herfindahl-Hirschman Index as a measure of industry concentration, eight out of the twelve product categories also show moderate to high concentration. The level of manufacturer concentration demonstrates the enormous challenges faced by smaller manufacturers to grow their brands, and reinforces the importance of product distribution before any efforts are put to introduce new SKUs. The findings also highlight differences in brand strategies across the product categories, with manufacturers focusing on few key brands or through several sibling brands.

Keywords: brand, portfolio, manufacturer, market concentration, competition

Track: Retailing and Distribution

Augmented Reality: Consumer saviour or disruptive agent in the retail power pendulum?

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Abstract

Augmented reality has been hailed as a saviour for consumers, offering them more information, power and control over their decision-making. However, most research to date has overlooked any implications AR might have for manufacturers and retailers in their struggle to gain control in the retail paradigm. This paper provides a review of existing literature and provides compelling evidence that AR has the potential to be used by different stakeholders in the retail environment for their advantage. It outlines future scenarios, a number of propositions and research issues related to these challenges.

Keywords: Augmented reality, retail power pendulum, consumers, retailers, manufacturers

Track: Retailing and Distribution

Classification of e-commerce Decision Aids: A Study using e-Commerce Websites in India

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Abstract

Current technology advancements like online decision aids have reduced consumers search effort in making purchase decision. Decision aids are electronic tools that help consumers by customizing the website according to the individual preferences. On the basis of their interaction with consumers they are termed as passive and interactive decision aids. This study attempts to present a typology of the online decision aids used by various e-commerce websites in India based on their interactivity. The landscape of this study draws from the literature in decision aids and online marketing and in-depth interviews with industry experts, which is further validated by conducting a content analysis of 120 e-commerce websites across twelve business verticals. It was found that e-commerce websites in India use more interactive decision aids than passive decision aids and their usage further varies across business verticals.

Keywords: e- commerce, typology, decision aids, online marketplace, online retail

Track: Retail and Distribution

Introduction and Research Objectives

Online shopping platform offers enormous variety and choice to consumers which increase consumers' cognitive load and sometimes may lead to sub-optimal purchase decisions (Resnick and Varian, 1997). Technological advancements like online decision aids (DAs) help consumers ease their purchase decision-making and organizations to facilitate consumer actions (Steckel et al., 2005). Consumers seek suggestions from social connections, human experts, or expert systems to simplify the purchase decision processes (Senecal and Nantel, 2004). "Decision aids help consumers in making informed purchase decisions amidst the vast availability of online product offerings" (Wang and Benbasat, 2009; pp. 295); and can be assumed to influence online consumer behaviour.

Widely researched in Marketing, Information Systems and Human Computer Interactions, extant literature still does not provide a comprehensive categorization of various DAs. Ansari et al. (2000) broadly classifies recommender systems into collaborative and content-based filtering. Montaner et al. (2003) classifies recommendation systems into demographic, content-based and collaborative filtering; while, Vachon (2011) considers most of the DAs including RS but does not map these to the level of interaction that these DAs can have with e-commerce users. Hence, this study aims to bridge this gap by developing a classification of decision aids, based on information elicitation mechanism (interactive or passive) with the consumers. Classification can assist practitioners and academicians to understand how consumers' purchase decisions are influenced by specific DAs.

Hence, this study aims at meeting the following research objectives: (1a) to propose a classification of different types of e-commerce DAs based on method of information elicitation by the consumers; (1b) to validate this classification with e-commerce websites in India; and (2) among the DAs, we aim to explore the proportion of interactive and passive DAs and map these to different business verticals.

Research Methodology

The research methodology includes: (1) a literature review of extant classifications of DAs and expert systems comprising of recommender systems; (2) In-depth interviews with four experts from three organizations; a major e-commerce company having global presence, a third party software tool provider and big data analytics organization with their head quarter in India; and (3) A content analysis of 120 e-commerce websites, across 12 business verticals.

Decision Aids Classifications

Literature has multiple opinions regarding the nomenclature of DAs. Though recommendation systems (RS) have been researched, literature presents different schools of thought regarding their nomenclature. Recommendation agents (RA), RS and DAs are used interchangeably (Wang and Benbasat, 2009). Pfeiffer (2011) classifies RA as a subset of RS and Haübl et al. (2000) refers RA as interactive decision tools. Robillard, Walker and Zimmermann (2010) define RS as "software applications that aim to support users in their decision-making while interacting with large information spaces." They can be implicit or explicit in eliciting information from consumer (Robillard, Walker and Zimmermann, 2010). DAs are tools that assist shoppers by customizing the electronic shopping environment to their individual preferences (Haübl and Trifts, 2000). An interactive DA is capable of informing the consumer about product and merchant recommendations (Haübl and Trifts, 2000). Therefore, decision aids (DA) is adopted as a comprehensive term for the current study, which includes RS and RA.

The current classification is based on the information elicitation mechanism from the consumer, which is in line with Xiao and Banbasat (2007). Explicit interaction generates a consideration set from the information fed by the consumers and is matched with the product attributes. Implicit interaction method uses adept algorithms to provide recommendations (Pfeiffer, 2011). Also, literature mentions RS to be both manual and automatic (Schafer et al., 2001). Manual systems undertake processes that require human efforts while, automatic systems are data mining systems created with the purpose of real-time personalization. Breugelmans et al. (2012) categorize DAs into passive and interactive, which are similar to implicit and explicit DAs. For the current classification, DAs are drawn on a continuum based on their passivity and interactivity. This continuum is an abstract representation of the real-world observation. The entire typology of interactive and passive DAs is explained in detail and visually depicted in Figure 1. The classification of DAs based on increasing level of interactivity is mentioned below:

Figure 1: Classification of Decision Aids
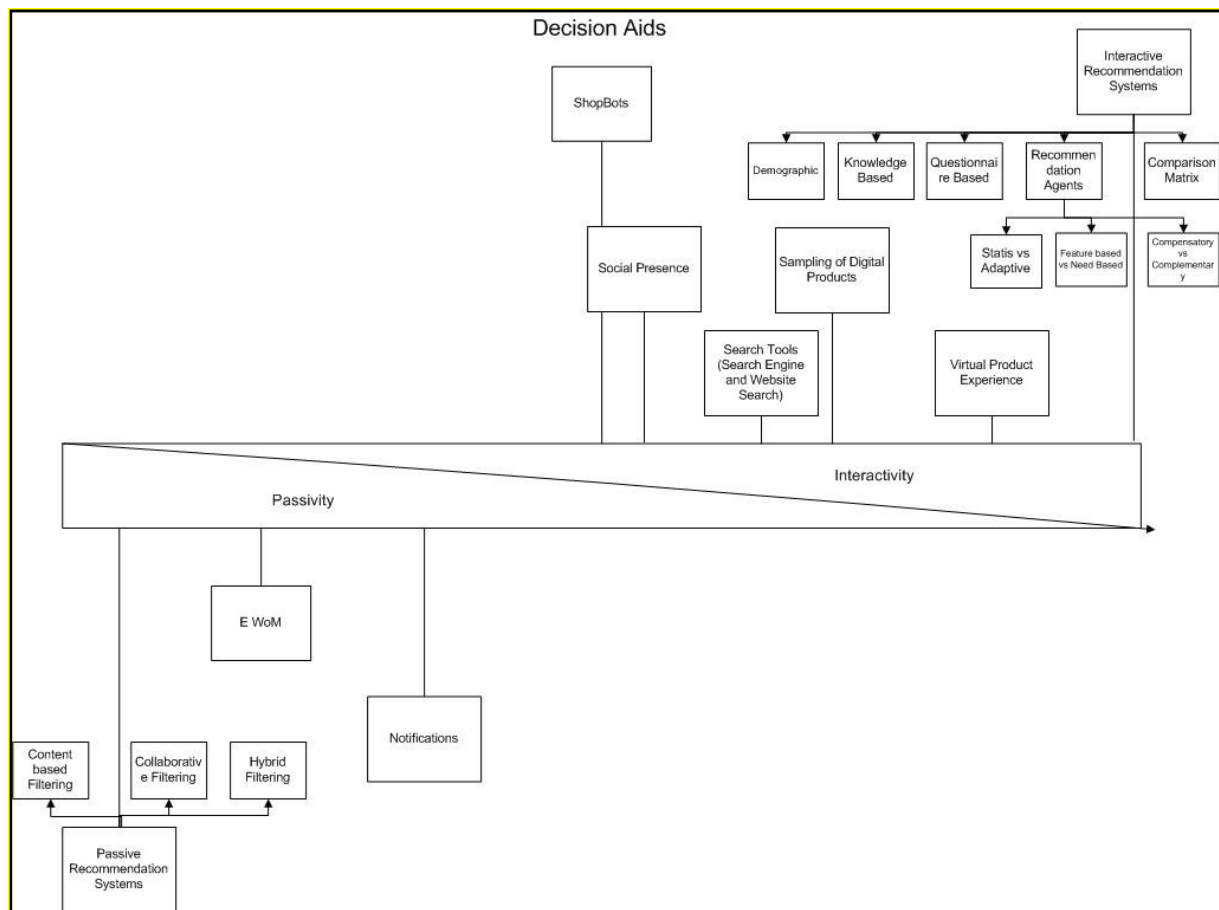
Passive decision aids:
Passive decision aids comprise of following decision aids:

Passive recommendation systems:
Some researchers bracket collaborative filtering, content-based filtering and hybrid filtering into RA (Xio and Benbasat, 2007); while others; differentiate them from RA (Breugelmans et al., 2012; Pfeiffer, 2012). In this study, we take the latter stance. An in-depth interview with the big data analytics organization reiterated the prevalence of passive RS to create more personalization. Collaborative filtering uses behavioural information to make suggestions to

the consumer (Ansari et al., 2000). They provide recommendations to consumers as 'Customers who bought also bought'. Contemporary literature mentions it as an implicit technique (Breugelmans et al., 2012; Pfeiffer, 2012). Content-based filtering recommends products similar to consumers' past purchases (Terveen and Will, 2001), for instance, 'Based on your purchase history'. Hybrid decision aids combine collaborative and content-based filtering (Xio and Benbasat, 2007).

Electronic word of mouth (e-WOM):
Passive DAs include e-WOM, which is analogous to offline word of mouth and has a credible influence on the consumer's purchasing behaviour. eWOM includes e-retailer's placement of reviews and testimonials and the content that consumers post on the website.

Notifications:
Interviews with experts suggested notifications as a DA. Notifications break the flow of the user activity and remind actions sought by the merchant. Notifications alarm the consumer during cart abandonment and also inform customers about offers, discounts and promotional activities.

Interactive decision aids:
Interactive DAs in increasing order of interactivity include:

Shopbots:
Interactive DAs include shopbots. Shopbots are software systems that lead to efficient decision-making through product-price comparison from various online retailers (Smith, 2002; Serenko et al., 2007). We include shopbots as they help consumers to make purchase decision by making comparisons within different sites.

Search tools:
Vachon (2011) added search tools under DAs. Search tools include search engines and in-website search tool which facilitate consumers to locate the products in the store. They can be accessed by a string based search.

Sampling of digital products:
Vachon (2011) mentions that sampling of products are offered online due the ease and speed of its offering and delivery. Consumers can sample trial versions, book previews and can form decisions on its basis.

Virtual product experience (VPE):
It is multimedia technology which facilitates virtual experience. "Customers can see not only a 3-D image of the product, but can examine it by zooming in and out and manipulating the images" (Vachon, 2011; pp. 18).

Social presence:
Vachon (2011) mentions that perceived social presence is enhanced by providing images or information of other consumers using the chosen product and by direct contact with the sales representatives. This direct contact can be through live chats or e-mail. Ability of the website to share the product with peers using a social network is a part of social presence.

Interactive Recommendation System:

Interactive RS include demographic DAs that provide recommendations based on consumer demographics (Burke, 2002). This approach may be oblivious of the actual purchase need (De Gemmis et al., 2009). Knowledge-based DAs employ the impact of product on the particular user to create a relationship between the consumer need and possible recommendation (Terveen and Hill, 2001; De Gemmis et al., 2009). Questionnaire-based DAs elicit consumers' preferences through simple queries. It duplicates real-world customer-salesperson interaction scenario and asks for product queries, customer profile and intended usage. RA make recommendations by adding weights to consumer preferences and link it with user's utility function (Pfeiffer, 2011). Comparative matrix enables buyers to compare product alternatives and thereby reduces the search cost and increases decision quality (McGinty and Smyth, 2002).

Validation of the Classification: Content Analysis

To explore and validate the expanse of DAs used by Indian e-commerce companies, a content analysis was conducted across business verticals. Having identified 12 contemporary domains in the ecosystem, top-ranked e-commerce websites were searched on Google for each vertical. A total of 120 websites were shortlisted. The chosen online verticals (number of websites) were marketplace (14), furniture stores (13), apparel and accessories (29), health and wellness (5), baby products (7), travel and ticketing (13), jewellery (6), eyewear (11), beauty stores (5), grocery stores (6), automobile stores (5) and pharmacy stores (6). For the content analysis, shopbots and hybrid DAs were removed from the list. In summary, finally 12 types of DAs were included in the study. Following the procedure of Lombard, Snyder-Duch and Bracken (2002) the study involves coding of the 120 websites by three independent coders. The coders were provided a coding manual describing the various DAs. The coders coded 1 or 0 for the presence or absence of the DAs on the website. Inter-coder reliability was measured using Krippendorff's Alpha. The reliability coefficients ranged in the acceptable range from 0.8533 to 0.9649 (Kassarjian,1977).

Results and Discussion

On an aggregate level the usage of interactive and passive DAs varies. 75.38 % websites rely on interactive DAs while only 24.7% rely on passive DAs. Across all business verticals, search tools (95%) and VPE (97.5%) are the most used interactive DAs while, content-based filtering (65.8%) and e-WOM (61.7%) are most frequently used passive DAs. A Chi square ($\chi 2$) test was performed to determine whether interactive and passive DAs were equally used by e-commerce websites across business verticals. The results show that across different business verticals interactive and passive DAs were not equally used [$\chi 2$ (1, N=906) = 245.9, p< .05]. The $\chi 2$ test results were similar for all 12 business verticals.

Table 1: Results of $\chi 2$ Analysis for All Websites and Across Different Verticals

	All Verticals	Market- place	Furni- ture	Appa- rel & Acces- sories	Heal- th	Baby Prod- ucts	Trave l	Jewe- llery	Eye wear	Beaut y	Groc- eries	Autom obil- es	Phar- macy
$\chi 2$	245.9[a]	38.6[a]	28.3[a]	68.3[a]	14.5[a]	9.9[a]	30.6[a]	11.3[a]	30.5[a]	7.7[a]	10.3[a]	14.1[a]	10.5[a]
df	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.000	.001	.000	.005	.001	.000	.001

[a] Indicates the value is significant at 5 percent significance level

The results depict difference in usage of interactive and passive DAs across verticals. Though, the results are counter to the thought that interactive DAs cannot be easily integrated with the traditional search process and hence, may not be widely used (Murray and Haübl, 2008). A closer insight showed that interactive DAs like search tools, VPE and RA are used by almost all e-commerce players; along with content-based filtering and e-WOM (passive DAs). This could be due to ease of incorporating these tools in the website and also because consumers over a period of time have become accustomed to these DAs.

Online marketplaces use almost all DAs except questionnaire-based and knowledge-based DAs. Some product offerings require high cognitive effort, by using more DAs the e-tailers help consumer maximize purchase behaviour. The vertical relies on content-based filtering and e-WOM; while, the e-tailers with more customer base also use collaborative filtering. Low customer base e-tailers might not use collaborative filtering due to new-user cold start problem (Herlocker et al., 2004), i.e., the inability of the system to provide meaningful recommendations in the absence of prior rating of the user in the rating table.

There is an increase in online furniture stores in India. The results show that furniture stores use questionnaire-based DAs and comparative matrix along with the most popular interactive and passive DAs (Search tools, VPE and content based-filtering). Functionality and uniqueness are key needs for furniture purchase, which leads to intensive search process. The interactive aids may have been incorporated in order to ease the intensive search.

Exclusive apparel and footwear stores provide content-based filtering and notifications, along with a limited use of interactive DAs. Nascence of this vertical could be a reason for reliance on passive DAs. These stores also use social presence and demographic DA to make suggestions, but their use is restricted due to lower customer base.

Online baby products stores use collaborative filtering along with most popular DAs (Search tools, VPE and content based-filtering). The reason could be that most consumers are first time parents and look at what other consumers bought to make an optimal decision.

Consumers tend to access search tools for tourism products (Xiang et al., 2008); but the results show that travel and ticketing websites use questionnaire-based DAs, social presence and VPE over search tools to cater to exact consumer needs. The presence of these DAs help consumers make better decisions, as they strategize their travel plans online based on limited information sources (Xiang et al., 2015). Travelers make independent travel decisions except when choosing tourist destinations and hotels; websites provide reviews about past traveler experiences to help travelers make these decisions.

Online jewellery, eyewear and beauty stores use similar DAs on their websites. Other than the popular DAs, jewellery and eyewear are the only verticals using sampling of products (through home or virtual-try-ons) and social presence. In these niche categories, as the product value increases, the importance of look and feel increases. Consumers want to see and try before they pay; virtual and home try-ons are a means to bridge the gap between perception and experience. According to VP, Caratlane, "The bill value triples when the customer has an option to try and buy.", (Singh, 2014). Preference of content-based filtering over collaborative filtering could be due to new-user cold start problem.

Online grocery stores have picked up their operation in the sub-continent. This is the only vertical with less reliance on both types of DAs. Nielsen (2015) report mentions the effect of

product categories and identification of unique customer needs on the adoption of these stores. Knowledge-based and questionnaire-based DAs could be useful in this vertical.

Automobile purchase decision requires involved financial commitment and invokes extensive search (Srinivasan and Ratchford, 1991). This could be a reason for websites to provide more DAs (both interactive and passive). Social presence and comparative matrix DAs used in the vertical thereby helps consumers to make a well-informed choice. Though purchase of automobile is impacted by what consumer's social connections have purchased; restrictive use of collaborative filtering may arise due to low sales data from online space. Hence, the organization cannot offer suggestions based on such information.

Most online health stores provide notifications and comparative matrix along with popular tools while, online pharmacy stores rely mostly on search tools, RA, e-WOM and content-based filtering. Questionnaire-based and knowledge-based DAs were expected to be used, but was observed otherwise. Industry expert from Netmeds.com mentioned that content-based filtering to assist consumers' search for generic alternatives of same medicine.

The study provides an insight to managers to identify the type of DAs that will increase consumers' decision quality. Recommendations by DAs affects the decision strategies and decision quality (Xiao and Benbasat, 2007). Therefore, managers can identify a perfect mix of passive and interactive DAs for their verticals. Recommendations provide added suggestions such as up- or cross-selling possibilities, which can lead to additional sales.

Limitations and Scope for Future Research

Interviews with more industry experts from all verticals, could lead to more in-depth insights. Consumers' trust and confidence on the DAs is a pertinent question (Benbasat and Wang, 2005) and can be researched further. This being an exploratory study, we only classify the DAs across different verticals. Future experiments and observational studies, can help understand when consumers use specific DAs during an actual online purchase process.

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Actor engagement in the sharing economy: A life-cycle perspective

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Abstract
The 'sharing economy' has experienced exponential growth over recent years, and has caused major disruption within various traditional markets worldwide. It is built on the notion of collaborative consumption, requiring engaged actors with similar disposition. The purpose of this paper is to provide initial insights into how actor engagement evolves, is impacted, and potentially drives regulative changes surrounding collaborative consumption experiences. Airbnb is used as the business context due to the range of engagement opportunities between actors. We employed an innovative social media listening tool, Radian6 Social Studio to gather longitudinal data from Airbnb's inception to the present. Findings demonstrate the dynamics in foci of actor engagement and how they mirror and potentially drive the 'sharing economy lifecycle'. Other contributions include an innovative new methodology for longitudinal studies.

Keywords: Sharing economy, collaborative consumption, actor engagement, Airbnb.

Introduction

The 'sharing economy' is based on an innovative business model that has experienced exponential growth over recent years, and has caused major disruption within various traditional markets worldwide, e.g. transport and accommodation (Allen & Berg, 2014). As a result, the concept underpinning the sharing economy has gained considerable attention from both industry (Allen & Berg, 2014; Cusumano, 2015) and academe (Belk 2014; Kim, Yoon & Zo, 2015). There are two focal literature spaces in which the sharing economy has significant popularity; the first is the marketing literature, with a focus on individuals and their disposition and interactions (i.e. engagement) to facilitate sharing of products and services; commonly referred to as 'collaborative consumption' (Belk, 2014). The second is the law literature, which approaches the issue from a regulatory framework perspective (Koopman, Mitchell & Thierer, 2015). Drawing from both perspectives and adopting a service ecosystem perspective, the purpose of this paper is to provide initial insights into how actor engagement towards collaborative consumption evolves, is impacted, and potentially drives regulative changes framing the collaborative consumption experience. We will demonstrate how dynamics in actor engagement mirror the 'sharing economy lifecycle".

Industry Case of Airbnb

Founded in 2008, Airbnb is now in more than 34,000 cities and 191 countries (Airbnb, 2016) and has been valued at approximately $10 billion (Spector, MacMillan & Rusli, 2014). The Airbnb business model exists via an online platform that connects those who have underutilised spaces (from spare rooms to entire houses) with individuals seeking accommodation. The role of Airbnb within the exchange is to facilitate connections, handle payment, provide coverage and user support, and self-regulate the community via feedback and reviews (Katz, 2015). Frequently referred to as one of the leaders in the sharing economy space, Airbnb features as the key context or case study in many articles (e.g. Ranchordás, 2015; Fraiberger & Sundararajan, 2015). Airbnb is used as the business context of this study due to the broad range of engagement practices between actors that can be observed, but also because of the regulatory restrictions and barriers Airbnb has faced as it gained momentum. Using this case example, this paper explores whether and how the foci of actor engagement have changed over time.

Literature review

Defining the sharing economy

The sharing economy, or the act of engaging in collaborate consumption, contains two key characteristics; temporary access or use of goods and/or services, and the model is predominantly facilitated online (Belk, 2014). Collaborative consumption is defined as "people coordinating the acquisition and distribution of a resource for a fee or other compensation" (Belk, 2014, p. 1597). The key benefit of the sharing economy is 'access rather than ownership' (Kim, Yoon & Zo, 2015), which results in efficient use of idle resources for mutual benefit between individuals (Allen & Berg, 2014).

The sharing economy, particularly in its early stages, exists within a flexible and self-governing market (Allen & Berg, 2014). The lack of regulation means that there are few barriers for individuals to act as 'self-employed contractors' within this space, and new ideas or innovations can freely emerge in response to consumers' changing needs or frustrations with the restrictions imposed on traditional market competitors (Allen & Berg, 2014). As the sharing economy gains traction, governments seek to introduce regulations to protect social welfare with the assumption that, if left unmonitored or self-regulated, the sharing economy interactions would eventually become exploitative and unsafe (Allen & Berg, 2014). However, these regulations can impose inflexible barriers which inhibit innovation and growth, and

which can eventuate in the sharing economy regressing back to a traditional market economy model (Allen & Berg, 2014).

Customer/Actor Engagement

Customer Engagement (CE) has become a buzzword for marketing practitioners, with developing and enhancing CE seen as a strategic imperative for fostering customer relationships (Vivek, Beatty & Morgan, 2012). Conceptualising and better understanding CE is also at the forefront of academic research, which is still working towards a mutually accepted definition, and ways to capture and enhance engagement in various contexts (Desssart, Veloutsou & Morgan-Thomas, 2016). Drawing on the Service-Dominant logic literature, actor engagement is necessary for reciprocal service exchange and interactions that are integral for resource integration and for value co-creation to occur (Storbacka, Brodie, Bohmann, Maglio & Nenonen, 2016). Vivik et al. (2012, p. 128) define CE as the "intensity of an individual's participation and connection with an organisation's offering and/or organisational activities, which either the customer or the organisation initiate." After an extensive review, Storbacka et al. (2016) move beyond the customer/ firm dyad, and conceptualised engagement from the perspective of an actor embedded within a wider service ecosystem. Their definition of actor engagement (AE) includes both "the actor's disposition to engage, and the activity of engaging in an interactive process of resource integration within a service ecosystem". Given the nature of value propositions within the sharing economy, it becomes necessary to go beyond the narrow perspective of customer/provider perspective and look at actor engagement (AE) to capture the multitude of perspectives of the range of actors involved. Using Airbnb as a case study originating from within the sharing economy, this paper considers how the foci of actor engagement within such a collaborative consumption experience may change over time.

Methodology

To date empirical investigations on CE are mainly limited to one set of actor and there is a strong reliance on survey based instruments (Hollebeek, Glynn & Brodie, 2014), netnography (Brodie, Ilic, Juric & Hollebeek, 2013), and case studies (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2015). More recent work made use of industry data using time series snapshots of daily volume of affiliation, conversations and responsiveness (Yang, Lin, Carlson & Ross, 2016). Survey-based research does not allow capturing the widely accepted dynamic nature of CE and Calder, Malthouse & Maslowska (2016) propose to use observable data from digital environments to enrich our understanding of AE. Therefore, this exploratory study employed an innovative social media listening tool, Radian6 Social Studio to gather longitudinal data over Airbnb's life cycle. Social media monitoring software provides functionality for listening, tracking, and gathering relevant content across wide ranges of social media. It listens for specific mentions across social media, identifies trending topics or phrases, details consumer sentiment, organises consumer information and identifies thought leaders and influencers.

In this research it was important to undertake a longitudinal study to examine changes in actor's perceptions since the start of Airbnb. Consequently, data were collected at five time points over 7 years (January-February in 2009, 2010, 2012, 2014 and 2016). Data were analysed by examining social media posts by country, language, author, sentiment, share of voice, top words, media types and social network. This software enables scrutiny of specific posts from the top words and sentiments. Accordingly, this research sought the top ten words associated with Airbnb at each selected time period and drilled down to the social media feed to extract posts from that time period. Neutral, negative and positive sentiments were also scrutinized to gather emotional insights.

Findings

Overall, the findings suggest that over time there have been changes in perceptions and topics of conversations that reflect and equally shape actors' engagement with Airbnb, lending support to the concept of a life cycle. Over time period 1 (2009), the total number of posts were 336 of which 99.4% were from USA and 0.6% from the UK. Sentiment was shown as neutral and the top words were: awesome, alternatives, crash, cool and cheap. In this early stage there is excitement about the concept and, as indicated in the following comments, a more relaxed view towards the Airbnb experience and initial/low level engagement between actors:

Follow @airbnb and check out http://bit.ly/airbnb if you need a place to crash or want to rent out extra space - awesome guys and idea.

Our roof leaks and has consequentially filled a lighting fixture with water. The switch reads: TURN THIS ON AND (you might) DIE. Nobody's tried it yet. But we're all in good company and have a sense of humor about the situation.

A year later (time period 2 - 2010), sentiment remained neutral and the top words were cheap, best, clever, hotels, sharing and world. The total volume of posts had risen to 1.3k with the majority still from the USA (91.3%). The UK and Australia both had 4.3% of the posts.

The posts below suggest that actors (both 'consumers' and 'providers') are valuing the sharing and connection of the experience:

What made the food taste better was sharing it w/all their friends that were Air BnB guests from the UK.

As a user (host) on the site, I can say it's been a great experience so far. I've hosted a handful of people in the past two months, made some extra cash to pay my rent, and met some cool people.

It's more than just low cost, too. It connects people in a new way.

The ability to save money (user) and share idle resources for income (provider) is also evident in these comments:

I work as a freelance travel photographer based out of NYC, and Airbnb is the first place I go for accommodations. No more overpriced tourist trap hotels

We're actually reducing our monthly rental costs by Airbnb'ing our spare room. How sweet is that?

At time point 3 (2012), the total volume of posts were 25.1k and sentiment was 84.4% happy and 15.6% unhappy. Top words were collaborative, share, love, social rental, growth and global. Scrutiny of the posts linked to these top words indicates that there is now an even stronger shift towards viewing the value of Airbnb as rising from the sharing experience and mutual engagement between actors.

True to all of our previous Airbnb experiences, Steve was a friendly and outgoing host who enjoys sharing his incredible beach with visitors like us.

However, what is also noticeable at this time point is that the issue of trust has now emerged as key issue both from a positive and negative viewpoint.

I put a higher expectation of trust on my renters than I allowed for renting in NYC. What ultimately keeps me going back to Airbnb is that need for trust. The social platform makes Airbnb feel more like a hostel than a hotel.

The problem of trusting a stranger becomes a significant drag on success. Airbnb, the rent-out-your-home service had a very bad and very public problem last year when a renter trashed and robbed a home.

At time period 4 (2014), the total posts were 79.9k with the sentiment at 82.6 happy and 17.4 unhappy. Top words were: experience, business, growth, regulations and global. At this stage, the issue of legality and regulations became more prominent as shown by the following posts:

IT IS IMPORTANT TO DO EVERYTHING LEGALLY Quebec is investigating 2,000 people for renting out their homes for short-term stays without a permit.

Laws that were created to preserve a way of doing business derived from an Industrial Revolution mindset. Airbnb has run afoul of the law in places like New York City, which has stringent regulations in place around renting.

In addition, although negative media in relation to Airbnb was deterring some, the sense of collaboration consumption was also apparent.

I think I am going to pass on Airbnb, I am seeing some very negative stories.

In the world of collaborative consumption, what's mine is yours and what's yours is mine - for a fee.

At time period 5 (2016) there were a total volume of 260.8k posts with sentiment at 39.8% negative and 60.2% positive. Top words were technology, money, uber, big business, time and hotel. Sentiment data shows quite a dramatic drop in positive attitudes towards Airbnb and posts indicate that consumers were becoming more suspicious and questioning authenticity of certain Airbnb offerings.

That listing looks phony to me. The photos look like photos of a magazine, not photos taken by a person.

I wouldn't stay in a place that has no reviews at all. It looks like it has just been added to the Airbnb list in January so i wouldn't want to be the first person to stay there.
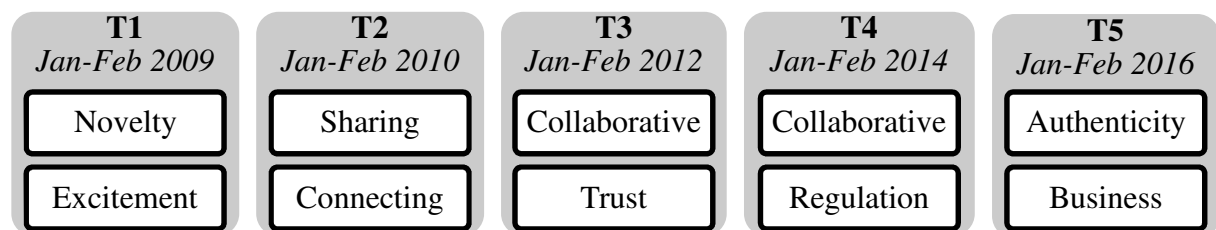
3 shot at an Airbnb in December.

It is also apparent that traditional professional renters have been entering this sharing economy space, which changes the dynamics of the actor-to-actor engagement back to that of a more traditional hospitality business.

In small towns you have on Airbnb only the ones doing this most professional. Not necessarily the best value for money offers.

On the positive side, one post highlights the enabling impact of technology for people to conduct business. The term business, however, indicates a more traditional concept, moving away from the notion of collaborative consumption.

I've been amazed with the explosion of Uber and Airbnb and other technology that kind of enables people to get together and conduct business together."

In summary, these findings show that there are changes in key words/perceptions since the early days of Airbnb until the present time. The shift in actors' perception of Airbnb from T1-T5 are reflected in Figure 1.

T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
Jan-Feb 2009	*Jan-Feb 2010*	*Jan-Feb 2012*	*Jan-Feb 2014*	*Jan-Feb 2016*
Novelty	Sharing	Collaborative	Collaborative	Authenticity
Excitement	Connecting	Trust	Regulation	Business

Figure 1: Changes in Actor Engagement over Time

Discussion

The preliminary findings from Social Studio Radian6 indicate various changes in the volume and type of conversations over time, including: 1) the size of the market; 2) the perceptions and interactions between actors; 3) the ratio of positive to negative sentiment; 4) the change from trusting actors to the introduction of regulations, and 5) the call for authenticity versus

the prevalence of business interests. These interactions and perceptions indicate the dynamics of actor engagement as the business expands and evolves.

Based on the changes in the key topics of conversations over time, this study provides valuable insights into the dynamics of actor engagement within the context of Airbnb. Initially dispositions and interactions of actors (i.e. level of engagement) centred on ideas of connecting and trusting. Over time, the level of actor engagement, stimulated significant growth of the Airbnb business triggering the need for regulations. The calls for regulation come from a range of actors within the ecosystem, including hosts, guests, local business communities and other affected parties. As a consequence, actor dispositions and actions that were dominated by a shared consumption experience were gradually transformed into a regulated hospitality experience with paying guests; more aligned with the traditional hospitality sector. As the terms 'authenticity' and 'business' highlight, the current stage of development shows the original idea of Airbnb is still relevant but in danger of being sidelined by the influx of commercial providers. These findings resonate with the notion of the 'Sharing Economy Lifecycle' (see Figure 2), a term coined in industry (Hawksworth & Vaughan, 2014), indicating the level of the sharing economies revenue and share of market taken from traditional competitors. Our findings demonstrate how the foci of individual actor engagement mirror a transition at industry level from 'sharing' and 'connecting' towards a more traditional customer/provider mindset with commercial gains at the forefront.

Figure 2: The Sharing Economy Lifecycle
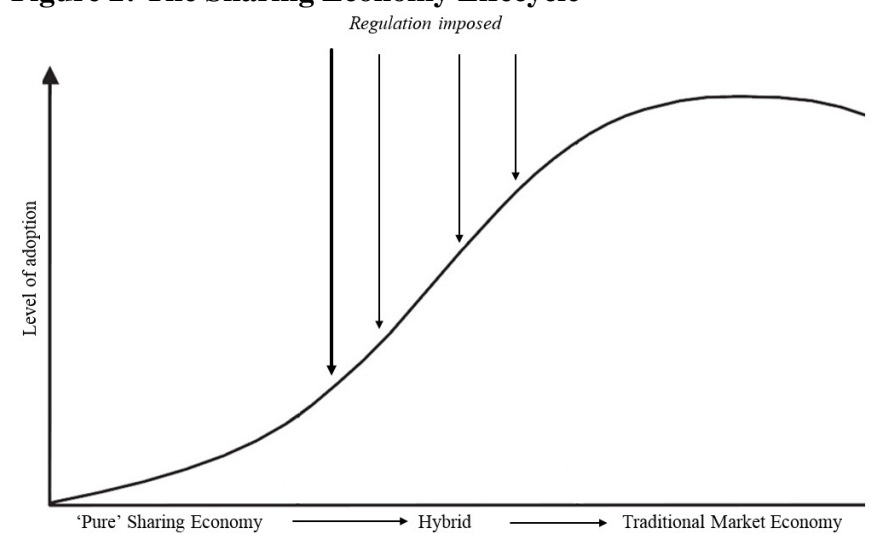
Conclusion

In conclusion, this exploratory research has opened a dialogue on the sustainability of a business anchored within the sharing economy. Contributions to the Services Marketing literature include: 1) demonstrating how actor engagement partly drives and is potentially driven by a sharing economy life cycle; 2) insights into the fluidity of actor engagement over

time thus opening up opportunities for further segmentation and indications of the sustainability of a service proposition, and 3) an innovative new methodology for longitudinal studies. Future research is now required to investigate other examples of the sharing economy for generalisability and to employ the social media tool to examine the diversity of actor engagement over the sharing economy lifecycle in more depth.

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Enriched Servicescape Framework and Value-In-Use

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Abstract
While servicescape research predominantly focuses on the influence of physical design of business establishment, the need for research arises in extending the framework going beyond the physical dimension. This paper proposes enriched servicescape framework (ESF) embedding industry specific stimuli. The commercial coworking spaces were selected as the research setting. 'Social' and 'Collaborative' service environment are proposed forming the (ESF) influencing the value-in-use experiences of the coworking members. Employing mix methodology the qualitative phase research was to discover the salient servicescape stimuli through unobtrusive observation of the coworking space and structured in-depth interviews. Then ESF is tested to evaluate the impact on the value-in-use in the quantitative phase. The conceptual focus of this paper enables another contribution in the field of service marketing management. The practical implication of conceptual relationship brought forth in this paper will help the managers' plan, design and manage the coworking space.

Keywords: servicescape, coworking space, value-in-use, collaborative dimension

When Exit is no Option – The Impact of Switching Costs on Customer Complaint Behaviour

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Abstract

Customers face several options of how to respond towards service failures. But how about those customers who cannot or do not want to leave their provider because of high switching costs? The present paper is about the relationship between switching costs and customer complaint behavior. Study 1 is a scenario-based experiment, study 2 uses a critical incident technique combined with survey-based measures of switching costs, dissatisfaction responses and complaint handling justice. The combination of these studies allows us to achieve high levels of internal as well as external validity. We identified different perceived switching costs leading to varying customer dissatisfaction responses: procedural switching costs favor customers' complaint behavior, relational switching costs increase their willingness to provide constructive feedback, financial switching costs carry the strongest potential to bind dissatisfied customers to the provider. Furthermore, we found switching costs to moderate the relation of complaint handling justice and customers' complaint handling satisfaction.

Keywords: Complaint Behavior, Switching Costs, Experimental Design, Critical Incident Technique

Identifying positional services: A consumer's perspective

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Abstract

Understanding how consumer goals influence the consumption of services is increasingly important in a service driven economy. While the implications of hedonic and utilitarian goals for service consumption have been acknowledged in the marketing literature, research examining the positional concerns of consumers (i.e. concern about performance in a personally significant consumption domain relative to others) in the economics literature suggests positional goals are also an important driver of services consumption. Research has been limited to the examination of broad consumption domains that have been identified by researchers as attracting the positional concerns of consumers. However, consumers' identification of the specific services they consume to address positional concerns is a gap in the marketing literature. This study addresses this gap by examining consumers' (N=351) perceptions of positional, hedonic and utilitarian value across 30 different services. Services offering positional value are identified and the implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Keywords: services marketing, consumption goals, positional concerns, positional value

Introduction

Services marketers are increasingly recognising the importance of consumer goals as the basis for developing effective marketing activities (Payne et al., 2008; Gummerus, 2013). Just as consumers have hedonic or utilitarian goals that motivate them to seek pleasure or functionality from services (Ng et al., 2007; Suh & Yi, 2012), consumers also seek the social positioning benefits that services can offer (Tynan et al., 2014). For example, beauty and university education services provide some consumers with enhanced attractiveness or professional qualifications respectively in comparison to others (Bloch & Richins, 1992; Salinas-jiménez et al., 2011). To achieve competitive advantage in these, and similar service environments, marketers need to understand the different goals consumers have in relation to service usage (Webster & Lusch, 2013). Social positioning consumption goals are particularly relevant for marketers in modern service economies where services consumption is increasingly seen as a way to enhance social position and quality of life (Gershman, 2014).

Examinations of the social positioning benefits offered by services, referred to in this study as positional value, have been limited in the marketing literature. However, economists have identified broad consumption domains, such as income, physical attractiveness, house size and education grades, that are influenced by the social positioning concerns of consumers (Solnick & Hemenway, 1998; Hillesheim & Mechtel, 2013). While this suggests that services associated with these broad consumption domains may be perceived by consumers as offering positional value (e.g. beauty services in the case of the physical attractiveness domain), research validating this assumption is yet to be conducted and represents a gap in the marketing literature that is addressed by this study.

Accordingly, this study seeks to identify services offering positional value based on consumers' value perceptions. By addressing this objective, this study contributes to the services marketing literature by identifying specific services perceived as offering positional value. In addition, the findings have important implications for service providers who can design services to enhance consumer value realisation.

Literature Review

The value concept is central to services marketing and refers to the benefit/s consumers derive from service consumption (Zeithaml, 1988; Ravald & Grönroos, 1996). Value is also strategically important as it underpins a consumer's goal-directed behaviour within the service environment and their engagement with specific service resources that facilitate goal realisation (Woodruff 1997; Van Doorn et al. 2010). Based on a comprehensive review of the extant value literature, Tynan et al. (2014) summarised the numerous types of value consumers seek through service consumption into three broad value categories including: 1) hedonic (value derived from experiencing the pleasure benefits sought from a service experience), 2) utilitarian (value derived from experiencing the functional benefits sought from a service experience, and 3) symbolic value (value derived from experiencing the status signalling and impression management benefits sought from a service experience). While the hedonic and utilitarian value categories are well supported in the services marketing literature (see Ng et al., 2007; Suh & Yi, 2012), examinations of symbolic value have tended to be in relation to the consumption of tangible products (e.g. Truong et al., 2008; Han et al., 2010).

In their seminal paper, Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) argued that tangible products convey a message about the owner due to the shared meaning attributed to that product within society (also see Witt, 2010). As such, consumption of tangible products of high status can be used to convey a desired, rather than actual, image of a consumer's social position (Mazzocco et al., 2012). The conceptualisation of symbolic value in the marketing literature is, therefore, insufficient for explaining how consumers use services to substantively, rather than symbolically, elevate their social position in a domain relative to other consumers. Examinations of the positional concerns concept in the economics literature provides a basis for further examination of this issue.

In the economics literature, positional concerns refer to the concerns individuals hold about their position relative to others in a consumption domain of personal significance (Hillesheim & Mechtel, 2013). The following broad domains have been identified as attracting positional concerns: income (Solnick & Hemenway, 1998); physical attractiveness (Solnick & Hemenway, 1998); clothing and size of house (Solnick & Hemenway, 2005). In addition, the more observable (or conspicuous) a consumption domain is, the more likely it is to attract positional concerns (Alpizar et al., 2005; Carlsson et al., 2007). In a more recent study, respondents were asked to classify what domains they considered to be positional and specified investing for future prosperity, education grades, intelligence, physical fitness, weight, and attractiveness as domains that attracted positional concerns (Hillesheim & Mechtel, 2013). These findings suggest that specific services that are related to the identified consumption domains may attract consumers seeking to improve their social position in the domain relative to other consumers.

The consumption of specific services can be influenced by positional concerns. For example, Bloch and Richins (1992) demonstrated that the consumption of beauty services is driven by consumers' concerns about physical attractiveness in comparison to others. More recently, Salinas-jiménez et al. (2011) showed that higher education services are consumed for the social positioning benefits on offer with consumers achieving higher life satisfaction when the level of education (e.g. a doctorate qualification) is attained by fewer others. These finding support the argument that the value derived through service consumption for some consumers is reliant on the capacity of that service to substantively improve their social position relative to others. This study refers to the capacity of services to position consumers in social space relative to other consumers as 'positional value' based on Beckert's (2011) use of the same term to describe the social positioning capacity of tangible products. It is argued that the term 'positional value' more accurately conveys the value sought by consumers looking to substantively improve their social position through the consumption of services whereas symbolic value refers to the capacity of services to signal a desired, rather than actual, social position. As such, this study is interested in identifying those specific services that offer positional value as perceived by the consumer.

Method

Based on previous marketing research that has categorised services based on the primary benefit derived from consumption (see Ng et al., 2007), this study utilises a descriptive design whereby consumers are asked to classify services based on the main type of value they perceive to be offered across a range of services. Simplified definitions were developed for the three main value categories identified in the literature including positional, hedonic and utilitarian. The definitions were presented to respondents as follows:

Services that show others status or social position have **'positional value'**.

Services that provide consumers with entertainment, fun or relaxation have **'enjoyment value'** (representing hedonic value).

Services that have a practical use or function provide consumers with **'practical value'** (representing utilitarian value).

Next, a list of 30 services was developed to reflect the three value categories. Specifically, 10 services were selected as representative of positional, hedonic or utilitarian value. The 30 services were selected from a master list of 204 services drawn from 12 industry sectors operating in the Australian economy, as identified on the IBISWorld database, to ensure services were relevant to the Australian consumer context. Services that were linked to one of the three types of value in previous research comprised the list of 30 services. For example, gyms and fitness services were selected as positional based on the relationship to the positional consumption domain of physical attractiveness by Hillesheim and Mechtel (2013). Similarly, spectator sport and routine banking were selected as hedonic and utilitarian services respectively based on previous research linking the services to these value types (see Ng et al., 2007). The 30 services are listed in Table 1 under the corresponding value category.

Table 1: List of services used in this study

Positional value	Hedonic value	Utilitarian value
Fine dining	Holiday resort	Fast food
Gyms and fitness	Rock concert	Plumber
Master builder	Personal sports coach	Trade training course
University education	Cinema	Electricity provider
Financial planning	Theme park	Routine banking
Social media	Art gallery	Child care
Beauty	Leisure travel	Library
Premium airline	Movie rental/streaming	Mechanical repairs
Cosmetic procedure	Spectator sport	Legal
Weight loss	Theatre	Car hire

The target population was Australian consumers over 18 years of age. An online research panel company provided the sampling frame and a quota sampling technique was adopted to ensure a representative sample was obtained. The final analysis for this study was conducted on 351 useable responses. Respondents accessed an online questionnaire where they were provided with the list of 30 services presented in Table 1. For each service, respondents were asked to indicate which of the three value types was the main type of value they considered to be offered by the service.

Results and Discussion

The sample (N=351) was representative of the Australian consumer population on gender (56% female) and age (18-30 years = 26%; 31-50 years = 38%; 51-64 years = 19.5%; 65 years and over = 16.5%). A frequency analysis was conducted on the value classifications for each service. For brevity, Table 2 presents the findings of this analysis for the 10 services that received the highest frequency of positional value classification from respondents. This enables comparison with the original list of 10 positional value services derived from the literature.

Value classification frequencies and percentages are provided under the corresponding value category headings in Table 2.

Table 2: Top 10 services in descending order of positional value classification (N = 351).

Service	Value frequency (percentage of sample)		
	Positional	Hedonic	Utilitarian
1. Premium airline	211 (60%)	99 (28%)	41 (12%)
2. Cosmetic procedure	176 (50%)	97 (28%)	78 (22%)
3. Personal sports coach	161 (46%)	80 (23%)	110 (31%)
4. University education	134 (38%)	14 (4%)	203 (58%)
5. Beauty services	115 (33%)	161 (46%)	75 (21%)
6. Financial planning	99 (28%)	17 (5%)	235 (67%)
7. Master builder	97 (28%)	15 (4%)	239 (68%)
8. Fine dining	96 (27%)	234 (67%)	21 (6%)
9. Social media	94 (27%)	219 (62%)	38 (11%)
10. Trade training course	92 (26%)	12 (4%)	247 (70%)

Results in Table 2 indicate that premium airline, cosmetic procedure and personal sports coach services were the only services perceived by a majority of respondents as offering mainly positional value (see shaded rows). While university education and beauty services were perceived as offering mainly utilitarian and hedonic value respectively, positional value was perceived as the main value type by one third or more of respondents (i.e. 38% and 33% respectively) indicating that a sizeable segment of consumers perceives these services as mainly offering positional value. Finally, financial planning, master builder, fine dining, social media and trade training course services represent a third tier of services whereby hedonic or utilitarian value clearly dominate as the main value perceived to be offered by these services but a proportion of respondents (ranging from 26%-28%) perceives these services as mainly offering positional value.

The results support the argument in the literature that consumers within the same service environment can have different consumption goals which differentially shape how they engage with the service (Suh & Yi, 2012; Gummerus, 2013). Using university education services as an example, most respondents (58%) perceived this service as mainly offering utilitarian value, but a sizeable proportion of respondents (38%) perceived the service as offering mainly positional value (38%). This suggests that consumers within the university education service environment are seeking different consumption outcomes with implications for how consumers interact with service offerings and how service provision caters for multiple consumption goals within the same service environment.

Comparison of the services in Table 2 with the original list of 10 services derived from the literature (presented in the first column of Table 1) highlights substantial overlap with eight services common to both. Exceptions included weight loss services (position 11) and gyms and fitness services (position 13). Instead, personal sports coach services (position 3) and trade training course services (position 10) were among respondents' list of top 10 services by positional value classification. Personal sports coach services were originally identified as a hedonic service based on Hopkinson and Pujari's (1999) discussion of sports instruction as a

component of hedonically motivated sports consumption (e.g. kayaking). However, personal sports coach services were identified by a majority of respondents in this study (46%) as mainly offering positional value. A possible explanation for this can be found in the economics literature where physical fitness, weight and attractiveness are identified as consumption domains attracting positional concerns (Hillesheim & Mechtel, 2013). Respondents may have selected personal sports coach services as mainly offering positional value due to the ability of this service to address their positional concerns in relation to physical fitness, weight and attractiveness (e.g. personal training services). Future research examining positional value perceptions in specific types of personal sports coaching services would further clarify this finding.

Similarly, trade training course services were originally identified as a utilitarian service based on the Ng et al. (2007) classification of higher education (being post-school education) services as utilitarian. While university education services are part of the higher education services sector, the literature has shown that university education provides positional benefits that are sought by consumers (Salinas-jiménez et al., 2011). In line with Ng et al. (2007) trade training course services were interpreted as providing utilitarian value through practical qualifications that build skills and enhance employability. However, the results indicate that for a particular consumer segment (26%), trade training course services provide social position enhancement opportunities and are therefore perceived as positional. Future research examining how consumer demographic characteristics influence positional value perceptions toward specific services would help clarify this finding and identify which consumer segments engage with services for the positional value offered.

Conclusion
This study is part of a larger research project. The aim of this study was to identify services offering positional value based on consumer value perceptions. The results indicated that services related to the consumption domains recognised in the economics literature as attracting the positional concerns of consumers (e.g. income, education grades, intelligence, physical fitness, weight and attractiveness) were perceived by consumers as offering positional value. This finding has two important implications for providers of services offering positional value to consumers. First, competitive advantage can be obtained through a consumer-centric focus on service provision that is based on an understanding of consumer goals. As consumer goals can vary within the same service environment, service providers need to be aware of how service design facilitates goal realisation for consumers seeking positional value through service consumption. For example, the provision of personal sports coach services may require tailoring to the specific goals of the consumer. Consumers with positional goals may be more directive and specific about their requirements from the service where as a hedonically motivated consumer may be more content to be guided by the provider. As such, the provider may need to spend more time in consultation with the positional consumer to clarify goals and the appropriate level of service required to address them. Future research aimed at identifying how positional goals shape consumer engagement with personal sport coach services differently to hedonic goals would be beneficial.

However, a second implication of the findings relates to the social dynamics between consumers competing for positional value within the service environment. Whereas personal sports coach services are consumed privately, university education service environments are characterised by a high degree of interaction between consumers where positional value

seeking may result in competitive behaviours within the service environment that create negative service experiences. As such, providers need to ensure that service delivery caters not only to those consumers seeking positional value, but also considers the impact of competitive behaviour on consumers within the service environment who have alternative consumption goals. Additional research is needed to assess how positional value seeking influences the consumer experience within service environments with a high degree of social interaction between consumers.

While the limitations inherent to cross-sectional studies is acknowledged, this study contributes to both theory and practice by providing a foundation for further examination of positional consumption dynamics in services. Specifically, this study identified service environments within which positional consumer goals may operate to shape the consumer experience. Future research directed at establishing the relationship between positional consumption goals and value outcomes for both consumer and provider would be of further benefit.

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A resource-based view of internal service branding

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Abstract
The services and relationship marketing literature provide a basis for the proposition that internal (employee) trust in the organization is crucial in the development of external (consumer) trust in the service brand. However, resource-based and organizational theories suggest that the implementation of management practices used and barriers faced in the establishment of internal trust depend on the availability of resources and complexity of organizational structures. This study contributes to extant knowledge by exploring these propositions in the context of large organizations and SMEs across service sectors. Interviews with managers and owners suggest that internal trust is critical in the development of successful service brands. However, an increase in available resources and structural complexity is associated with lower levels of personal trust, a more formalized approach to the implementation of management practices to control service performance, and more internal and external barriers to the establishment of internal trust.

Keywords: resource-based view; trust; service brands; SMEs; exploratory research

The impact of trust, perceived risk and website design on consumer decision making in choosing a dental service via online channels

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Abstract
When customers are searching for new dental service providers, what do they expect and perceive about the information on the Internet? How does perceived risk and trust influence their choice and selection process? This study develops a structural model, using PLS-SEM, to understand the relationship and influence between perceived risk, trust, and purchase intention. The attributes of online information are investigated to find the impact on trust and purchase intention to help dental service providers and marketers promote their practice more efficiently on the Internet. A survey of 214 new registered patients in Bangkok was conducted. The findings indicate that, an informative website has strong effects on consumer trust and purchase intention while location has neither an impact on trust nor purchase intention. Consumers show a high satisfaction rate with their selected dental service providers chosen from online channels. Recommendations to service providers and web site professionals are discussed.

Keywords: Online channels, services marketing, service provider selection

Dynamic Forms of Resource Integration in Social Networks

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Abstract
This paper describes how resource integration processes transpire in dynamic networks and in particular examines structures and practices that enable or constrain opportunities to access, adapt or integrate resources within social networks. Drawing on network theory to extend the theoretical development of service logic it provides a compelling argument for linking these two perspectives. Building on and extending prior work, the paper argues that consumer networks can: (1) continue in their existing scope and form; (2) extend the scope of services offered; (3) expand to offer new forms of service; (4) emerge as a completely new institutional form; or (5) energize by re-activating dormant ties. The paper outlines a typology of network functions that connects network theory to service-dominant logic to explain how networks function in dynamic contexts. The findings are particularly relevant to transformative service research concerned with societal well-being, community resilience and consumer productivity.

Keywords: social networks, resource integration, network theory, citizen-consumer, well-being

When Service Failure Leads to Sin: Exploring Service Transgression and Customer Forgiveness in a Multi-Faith Context

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Abstract

This study seeks to examine the notion of 'service transgression' which violates customers' religious beliefs through observing certain dietary guidelines that shape their religious identity. In this study, we explored service transgression in relation to religious dietary consumption through detailed narrative accounts of 15 participants consisting of Muslims, Buddhists and Hindu working adults residing in Malaysia. The responses from participants were contingent to the individuals' interpretations of their religious expectations in the assessment of the incidents. Observations from the interview protocols reveal common themes in the consideration of whether one has indeed transgressed against the religious norms, the assignment of blame and responsibility and reparation of relationships. The outcome of this study seeks to inform service providers on the impact of service transgression upon consumers particularly in a multi-faith context such as Malaysia. Additionally, this study provides insights into the implementation of service recovery strategies if and when such situation arises.

Keywords: service failure, service transgression, religion, service recovery

Customer experience, behavioural engagement and value co-creation in firm-hosted virtual communities

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Abstract

Our study empirically investigates interrelationships among consumers' positive virtual community experiences, behavioural engagement, customer value co-creation behaviours, and eWOM influenced purchase behaviour. Using an online quantitative survey of 432 firm-hosted virtual community members in Taiwan, and analysed with structural equation modelling, our results inform service practitioners of the importance of measuring and monitoring the current behavioural engagement as a psychological state of their community members. The findings also establish the importance of eWOM purchase influenced behaviour as a specific co-creation outcome within virtual communities. The findings offer insights into the effective management of virtual community experiential environments to achieve firm level outcomes.

Keywords: Online community, Customer value co-creation, customer engagement, Customer experience

Visual methods: Enhancing understanding of consumers' experiences of healthcare services

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Abstract

Consumer experiences of healthcare services, particularly consumer value and value cocreation within iterative service contexts, is challenging for researchers to study because of the intangible and ephemeral nature of service provision. While surveys and interview techniques have been used in the extant literature, very few studies have used visual techniques to study service experiences. Visual methods offer the consumer researcher a rich form of data that often cannot be provided through interviews alone. We discuss the use of a visual elicitation technique in combination with in-depth interviews to study consumer value and value co-creation in the Complementary and Alternative Medicine (CAM) healthcare setting. We provide insights into the benefits of visual methods to study consumers' healthcare service experiences and provide recommendations for researchers studying value in other service contexts.

Keywords: Visual methods, image-elicitation, healthcare services

Say What You Mean and Mean What You Say: Using Text Mining to Uncover the Dynamics of Customer Experiences

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Abstract

Due to its dynamic nature, understanding and managing the customer experience has become a pivotal but challenging task in both service research and practice. As a result, research has started to tackle the complex phenomenon with new methodological approaches to capture and measure the customer experience. However, understanding on the dynamic unfolding of the customer experience across different touchpoints along the customer journey remains scarce. Therefore, our study makes an attempt to analyse customers' perception of their experience by means of text mining. Since emotional engagement is deemed to be a crucial driver of the customer experience, we apply sentiment analysis to customer narratives about their experience with different services to uncover emotional valence in particular episodes. As a result, we show how the emotional dynamics within the customer experience unfold, thus, providing managers with insights into the design and management of the customer journey and touchpoints to enhance experience.

Keywords: Customer Experience, Customer Journey, Sentiment Analysis, Text Mining

A Journey of a Thousand Miles Begins with a Single Step: Uncovering Customer Activity Patterns to Enhance the Customer Experience

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Abstract

Customer activities are understood to be fundamental to the customer experience. Research has started to investigate particular aspects of customer activities, but insights on how those activities are performed and interplay with the customer experience remain scarce. In particular, the temporal dynamics as well as the combination of activities in terms of particular patterns continue to be a major subject for research. To account for the dynamics and complexity of customer experiences, different methods to capture and analyse data are needed. Therefore, our study draws on collecting data by means of customer narratives alongside with customer journey mapping. To analyse the data, sequence analysis on the transcribed customer narratives is performed to detect customer activity patterns. Hence, we add to understanding how customer activities unfold within the customer experience and provide service managers with insights on how to design activity-patterns to enhance the customer's experience.

Keywords: Customer Activities, Customer Experience, Customer Journey, Sequence Analysis, Customer-Dominant Logic

Does servitization lead to customer well-being? – Literature review, in-depth interviews, and research agenda

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Abstract

Transformative Service Research (TSR) with the aim to enhance customers' well-being utilising services and servitization comprising firms' strategic change from products to services in order to better meet customers' needs represent two important emerging fields in service research. Against this background, the purpose of our paper is to investigate and combine both research areas. We connected the research literature of TSR with customer perceived servitization and conducted 38 in-depth interviews in order to gain deeper insights on how servitization enhances customers' well-being. Our results show that both the eudaimonic and the hedonic dimensions of well-being play an essential role in service encounters. Customers, in the context of servitization, gain deeper insights into service provision processes, feel more integrated in service encounters, and therefore perceive a higher level of well-being. To conclude, our findings provide ideas about how servitizing firms can foster customer well-being by creating deep interactions in service encounters.

Keywords: transformative service research, servitization, customer, well-being, co-creation

The role of gratitude in examining the impact of customers' perceptions of relationship marketing investments on customers' perceptions of relationship quality with the firm

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Abstract

This paper highlights customer gratitude as a psychological mechanism that remains at work in making a firm's relationship marketing investment a success or a failure. The paper develops a Customer Gratitude Model (CGM). For theorists, the CGM offers a better psychological explanation of how relationship marketing investments are effective (or not effective) in achieving high degree of relationship quality between the firm and its customers. The paper suggests that service managers should invest time, energy, and money in stimulating customer gratitude, which subsequently improves customer trust in, satisfaction with, and affective commitment to the firm-all dimensions of relationship quality.

Keywords: Firm-Customer Relationship Management, gratitude, benevolence, affective commitment, satisfaction, trust.

Reciprocity in Tribal Systems: Implications for Service Ecosystems?

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Abstract

Traditional Māori tribes have held a set of values over hundreds of years. These values allowed the tribal systems to survive and to regulate social interaction among the members of the tribes, sub-tribes and families. One of the values, reciprocity, was critical for the co-creation of value to occur through exchange between the members of Māori society. This paper explores the traditional Māori custom of reciprocity, its inherent concepts of repayment and retaliation, as well as restorative justice and their connection to service ecosystems. The findings of this conceptual study are that repayment and retaliation as well as restorative justice had a very strong presence in Māori tribal society but both retaliation and social justice are under-researched topics in the area of service ecosystems.

Keywords: Reciprocity, repayment, retaliation, restorative justice, Māori tribes, service ecosystems

Making social services reachable

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Abstract

Recent developments in service research and calls to action have emphasised the need to better understand the ways in which services contribute to wellbeing including populations that exist at the bottom of the pyramid. The paper on case study research undertaken with a kaupapa Māori (indigenous) social service provider to better understand how value can be co-created with 'hard to reach' populations. That is, those deemed to be in need of social services but, for whatever reasons, do not access or constructively engage with services. Drawing on Transformative Service Research, Cultural Historical Activity Theory and Engagement Theory we model the relationship between engagement, service uptake and outcomes as two interacting activity systems relating to the client and the social service provider. Our findings identifies the main enablers to the co-creation of value and well-being and highlights the necessity of finding a sufficient fit between the client and provider activity systems.

Keywords: Social services, 'hard to reach', activity systems, engagement, co-creation

Introduction

Recent developments in service research and calls to action have emphasised the need to better understand the ways in which services contribute to wellbeing including populations that exist at the bottom of the pyramid (Anderson et al., 2013; Ostrom et al., 2015; Fisk et al., 2016). Despite being highlighted as a potential area where service-related wellbeing research or Transformative Service Research is significant (Anderson et al., 2013), the transformational effects of service on vulnerable populations is currently under researched.

The paper aims to address this gap by reporting on case study research undertaken with a kaupapa Māori (indigenous) social service provider to better understand how value can be co-created with 'hard to reach' populations. The term 'hard to reach' is defined in numerous ways that includes demographic, cultural, behavioural and attitudinal, and structural features (Brackertz, 2007). For Boag-Munro and Evangelou (2012), the 'hard to reach' include the "vulnerable, under-served, socially excluded, disengaged, marginalised non-(or reluctant) user, high risk or at risk, families with complex needs and minority groups" (p. 211). Such terms along with others resonate within the New Zealand governmental context, and because Māori have poorer wellbeing and social indicators than others in New Zealand, they are often included in the category of 'hard to reach' (Ministry of Justice, 2010).

In the social services sector and the literature, the term 'hard to reach' is recognised as problematic, as it can label and stigmatise, as well as placing the onus and attributes of being 'hard-to-reach' solely upon populations (Flanagan and Hancock, 2010). Being 'hard-to-reach' may not lie with the individual, but rather with the service (Flanagan and Handcock, 2010). For this reason, we focus on how services can be made more reachable by initiating or improving the engagement between the service provider and the service user in a manner that aims at co-creating value and hence improving well-being.

This paper is divided into four sections beginning by describing the theoretical framework followed by the methodology. Key findings are detailed and the theoretical and practical implications are then discussed.

Theoretical framework

Our orientating theory draws on Transformative Service Research (Anderson et al., 2013), Cultural Historical Activity Theory (Engeström, 2015) and Engagement Theory (Higgins and Scholer, 2009) to explore the relationship between client and social worker engagement. We utilise a general 'co-creation' language and view co-created value as wellbeing (Black and Gallan, 2015). Engagement with 'hard to reach' populations involves the interaction between two focal service systems which are integrated into the overall service ecosystem including funding agencies, other social service providers, volunteers, family/whānau and community groups (Foote et al., 2015). These focal service systems are:

The 'client service system' which is the set of relationships that sufficiently describe the client's network of actors, resources and needs in connection to the service sought
The 'provider service system' which is the set of relationships that sufficiently describe the service provider's network of actors, resources, mandate and context associated with the service proposition on offer.

Following Engeström (2015) we conceptualise the client service and the provider service system as two interacting activity systems (Figure 1). Activity is therefore a co-creative act achieved by a subject through a division of labour in the context of other actors mediated by rules and norms, resources and other actors' contributions (Helle, 2000). When the client and provider activity systems interact potential tensions arise due to the fact that the joint target of value co-creation is either unclear or there are contradictions, ambiguity or tensions in the understanding of the objective of the potential co-creative processes (Engeström, 2001). Therefore, it is proposed a 'fit' between the two activity systems is central. That is, the primary target of value co-creation has to be agreed on to become a joint target for shared co-creative activity of the desired value experience. Agreement in regard to the target is necessary so that both actors can negotiate the service co-creation proposition. For the co-creative activity which follows, each actors integrates the elements of their respective activity systems. Activity might become routine, that is, a practice (Engeström, 1987; Schatzki, 1997). These known practices might be shared knowledge but in some cases they may not be known by both service systems and have to be learnt first.

Figure 1: Orientating theory
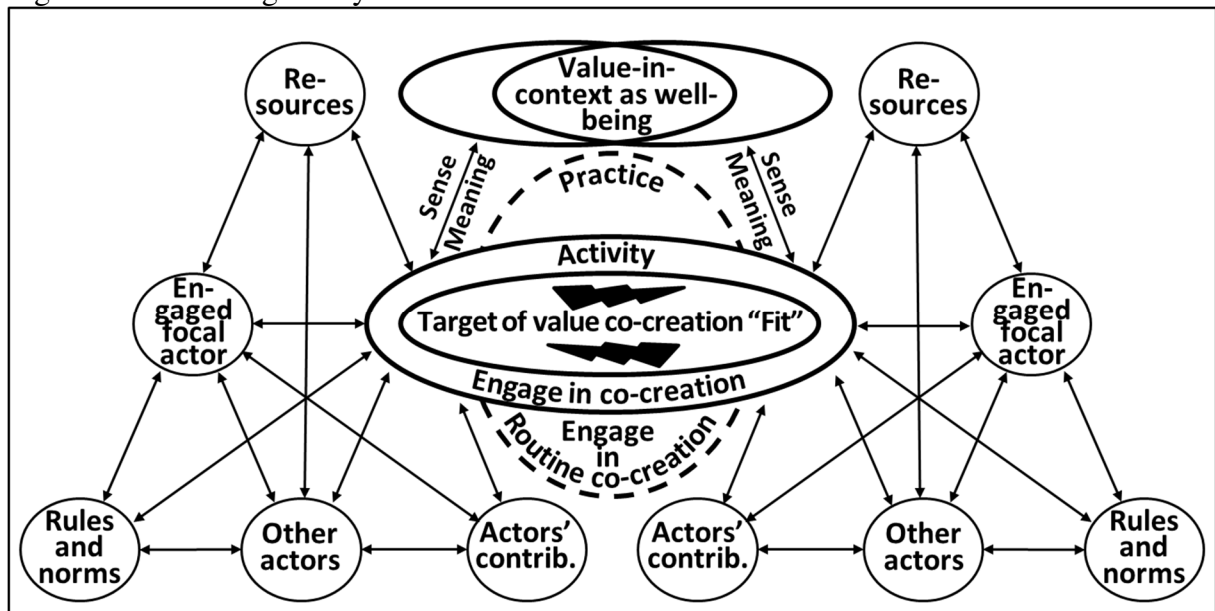
Methodology

Given that relatively little is known about how social services engage with 'hard to reach' populations, this study adopts an exploratory case study approach (Yin, 2014). The organisation in focus is a kaupapa Māori (indigenous) social service provider called He Waka Tapu which offers social services to whānau4 (families) which support their healing and restoration, builds whānau capacity, rejuvenates and refashions traditional practices, and strengthens whānau wellbeing. Whānau can access services such as anger management, alcohol and other drug, personal health and whānau services. He Waka Tapu receives referrals from over 30 different social service providers, employs 37 staff and has over 2,000 registered clients (Burrow, 2016).

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4 The definition of whānau is, "extended family, family group, a familiar term of address to a number of people — the primary economic unit of traditional Māori society. In the modern context the term is sometimes used to include friends who may not have any kinship ties to other members" (Māori Dictionary, 2016).

Mixed methods including document analysis and semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from April to September 2014. Ethics approval was obtained. Semi-structured interviews were audio recorded and then transcribed for latter analysis. Transcripts were carefully read and then coded against concepts set out in the above theoretical synthesis. New codes were developed to capture emergent themes. The relationship between engagement, service uptake and outcomes was modelled as two interacting activity systems relating to the client and the provider system.

Findings

Figure 2 summarises the findings of the case study. Given space limitations the following section describes the way in which the client's activity system interacts with the provider's activity system to create sufficient 'fit' to enable the co-creation of value. The client is the focal actor in the client activity system. Clients appear to have different levels of engagement during the interactions with the social workers, dependent on the co-creative activity, as expressed by one client:

"Depending on what we were doing, but I was definitely engaged the whole way through, but I never went under engaged" (Māori male, 28 years)

Other clients pointed out that the support they received was very invaluable, while the engagement emerged as a result of time and contact with the social worker. The persistence of the social worker assisted the client to adapt to a place where they were able to cease resisting change and to begin to engage with the He Waka Tapu social worker as well as their own social challenges. A client reveals:

"[The social worker] wants you to come every week and they want you to make that commitment and be engaged…. It's not easy to get out of [the appointments] if you don't feel like going, you can't cancel…." (Māori female, 37 years)

For Māori, the client is not solely an individual seeking service, but one who also embodies the interests, needs and values of other actors especially the wider family/whānau. Ancestors (tūpuna) and the next generation (mokopuna) provide a rationale and spiritual motivation for their personal transformation. The target of value co-creation can therefore be multifaceted and include dealing with specific issues such as alcohol abuse and anger management problems, but can also extend to cultural and spiritual determinants of well-being:

"[T]hey [He Waka Tapu] offer that spiritual reality and the wairua [Spirit], and that is, you know, for a lot of government agencies or [rehabilitation places], it's not really covered (…). Whereas Māori-based [ones], which this is, you know, takes that focus on the spirituality side of, that's what you're lacking" (Māori male, 49 years)

For many clients, engagement with the social service represented a journey and due to the co-creative activity this helped to improve the client's perceived value-in-context and well-being. The context of value co-creation was at times influenced again by other actors in the activity system contributing to co-creation by providing mutual support and opportunities to learn from each other.

"[In] the beginning when I didn't really wanna go there even though I knew I needed to (…). But, definitively being in a [group], listening to other people's way of dealing with things is more beneficial than someone just telling you the answer" (Māori male, 27 years)

This client's initial reluctance to engage changed when interacting with other actors such as clients in group sessions. Value was derived from peers rather than from interacting with the social worker alone although the social worker was important to clients by providing a platform for growth and healing. Depending on the service accessed by the client, staff adopted particular roles including counsellor or nurse but also took on roles such as client advocate (when dealing with other actors, such as mainstream services) and support worker (for example, providing transport). The contribution to co-creation of value and well-being between staff and the client was seen as facilitative rather than directive.

For some clients, the first step in transforming their lives was to realise that their general target(s) of value co-creation, or in a wider sense their attitude and (lack of) objectives in life, had to be revisited. In many cases this first step was 'crisis driven' and prompted by an intervention by whānau or a statutory agency such as a court:

"My [partner] said that if I don't [get help] then we'll probably break up" (Māori male, 27 years)

Making use of the programmes offered by the social service depends on the ability of clients to mobilise resources, including transport and child care, and to integrate the service offerings into their day-to-day lives. Many clients live in difficult socioeconomic circumstances due to dependence on government subsidies and lowly paid (and inflexible) employment. Due to this, He Waka Tapu also provided practical support including taking clients to appointments. Yet, despite offering services in a child friendly way, the lack of client resources sometimes created barriers to engaging with He Waka Tapu:

"They were looking at trying to put me into the parenting courses and that, but it didn't work with childcare. Yeah, they were running it on a day that was suitable for me and then they changed the day and it just didn't work with my wee ones, so, unfortunate" (Māori female, 34 years)

Furthermore, the ability to initially engage depended on what resources the client possessed, such as an awareness of the service as well as the skills and competencies to judge whether the service proposition of a social service provider was the right 'fit' for them and was sufficiently aligned with their interest, needs and values. One client stated:

"You have a need and it's a matter of trying to fit a round bolt in a round hole and I've been getting triangles and squares [with mainstream providers]" (Māori female, 41 years)

For clients, a culturally holistic approach to well-being was highly valued and served to differentiate the He Waka Tapu social service from other mainstream organisations where one client said, that they felt they had been put in the 'too hard basket'. Clients reported feeling accepted and understood. Responsiveness and empathy was key to a positive engagement experience. For some clients, an insufficient 'fit' at other mainstream services would result in the offer of engaging with this social service being rejected and ultimately disengagement. For others, repeated attempts to engage with mainstream services still did not produce the necessary 'fit', a sign that clients were unable to make sense of the service co-creation proposition by a mainstream provider resulting in mismatches between the client and staff activity systems:

"I've been to a [mainstream service provider], day group but they [the staff] work in a box, and that's how they work, and I couldn't figure anything out with them. I mean I still gave them [my best effort], like they tried their best" (Māori male, 45 years)

Clients identified what He Waka Tapu provided to enable the right 'fit' including what resources were seen as critical. Many staff were able to draw on past experiences with alcohol and other drug, anger or parenting problems to make a connection with clients which helped build trust, enabled clients to feel comfortable and facilitated to arrive at a fit of the target of value co-creation. Clients were also alert to the resources of the service to meet their cultural needs. Staff are predominantly Māori and the use of the Māori language and cultural practices such as pōwhiri (a traditional Māori welcome) signalled that the service was culturally competent and would be a good 'fit'. Inviting clients to become part of a whānau/family and to participate in whanaungatanga (the practice of establishing relationships) established norms of respect, trust and commitment that lay the foundation for ongoing interactions. Being recognised as belonging to a whānau/family, hapū/sub-tribe and an iwi/tribe and that clients have whakapapa (genealogy), tūpuna (ancestors), a tuarangawaewae (a place to stand), a marae (traditional meeting house), and an urupā (cemetery) once again highlights the importance of the other actors as well as their felt (spiritual) contribution that locate the client's activity system in a cultural context.

Figure 2: Co-creation between client and provider activity systems
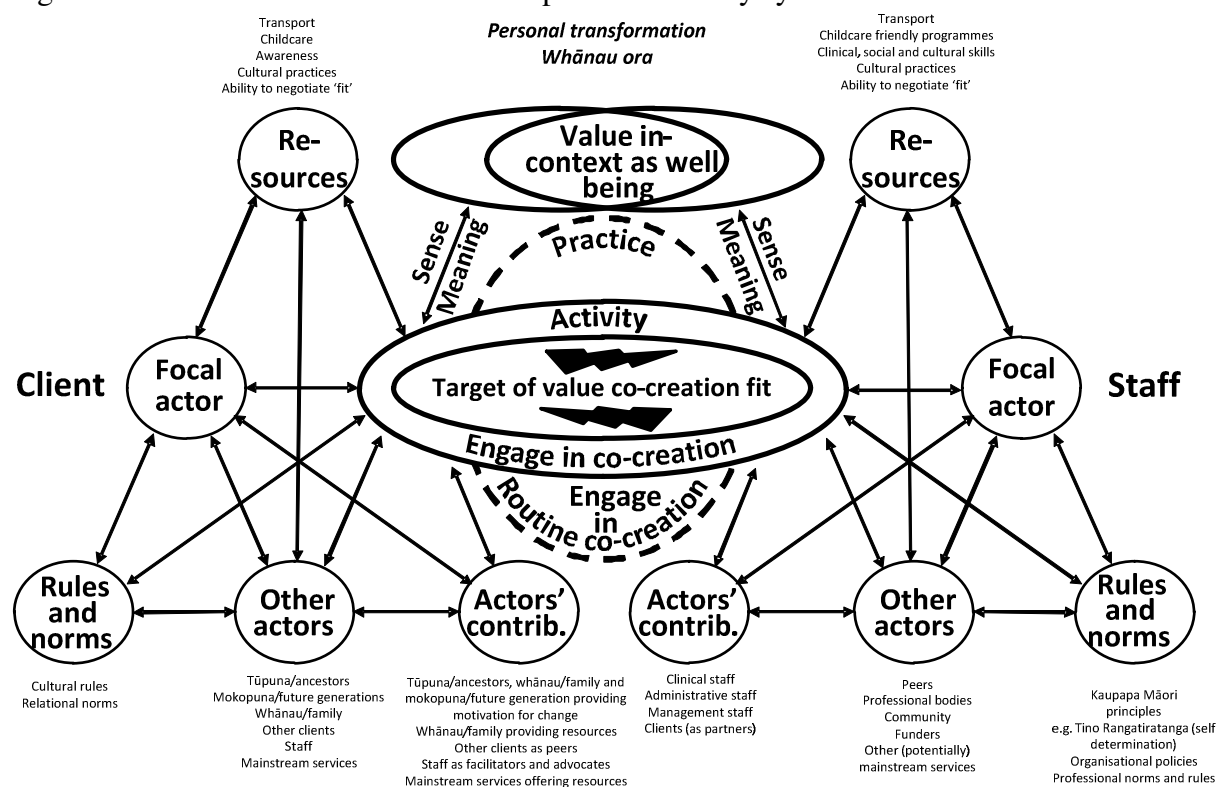
Discussion and implications

The findings have illustrated how engagement, service co-creation and well-being outcomes arise from the ways in which the client and provider activity systems interact. The case of He Waka Tapu has highlighted major barriers to engagement with the 'hard to reach' including the inability of clients to mobilise the resources necessary to co-create service and the difficulties that some mainstream services appear to have in negotiating sufficient 'fit' between client and provider activity systems. The case study has also identified main enablers to the co-creation of value and well-being. That is, other actors and in this specific context culture in particular. A limitation of the above analysis is that Figure 2 sits in a historical/political context. Significant health, social and economic disparities have arisen between Māori and non-Māori due to colonisation, institutional racism and poverty (the co-destruction of value) and kaupapa Māori social services are facilitating a recovery, revitalisation and restoration of whānau wellbeing. Within this historical/political context, a richer analysis then needs to understand both the past, present and future trajectories of these interacting activity systems.

Social service providers need to develop greater awareness that not only includes the social service on site but the entire activity system of the client. The findings also indicate that to facilitate co-creative activities, a 'fit' is necessary between activity systems. Achieving 'fit' is a practical accomplishment of skilled actors who draw on the resources, rules and relationships with others. By understanding the way in which value and well-being is co-created in this context, these relationships enhance transformative service delivery.

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Trust and the Internet of Things: Dimensions and Predictors

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Abstract
This research contributes towards an understanding of the role of relational trust within Internet of Things (IoT) contexts. Whilst trust issues have previously been researched in both real and virtual contexts, the IoT presents new challenges with the convergence of psychophysiological, behavioural and attitudinal information in real time on a continual basis across multiple actors. Crucially, there may be no cardinal or central actor on which to base trust decisions. These findings suggest trust dimensions and their predictors may vary according to potential IoT applications and that respondent' current understanding and experience of technologies coupled with the extent of imperfect knowledge maybe an underlying factor influencing these.

Keywords: Internet of Things; Trust; Trust Management; Techno-service system; Ecosystem

Introduction

The IoT environment is built upon the rapid development of internet, mobile and near field technologies (such as Wifi and Bluetooth) and communication networks (Schrammel, Hochleitner & Tscheligi, 2011). Current predictions suggest that within a decade, IoT will consist of billions of objects and devices or things that will have the potential to seamlessly connect with people to produce services and to interact and share information about themselves with each other and their environments (Eloff, Eloff, Dlamini & Zielinski, 2009). IoT benefits are embedded within the value of products and services, and there is an implicit agreement that the user allows providers to use data generated from transactions and interactions incorporating psychophysical and behavioural information (Bolger, 2014). This data may be re-used at an organizational-user level and potentially at a societal level. However, whilst trust issues have previously been researched in both real (e.g., Leonidou, Leonidou & Kvasova, 2013) and virtual contexts (Taddei & Contena, 2013), the IoT presents new challenges with the convergence of datasets across complex evolutionary networks of actors, where data about actions is collected in real-time on a continual basis (Liu, Lehdonvirta, Alexandrova & Nakajima, 2011). This has implications for the nature of trust and its predictors and how traditional models developed in face-to-face RM and desktop computing contexts may be transformed for use within an IoT context (Schrammel, Hochleitner & Tscheligi, 2011). Crucially, an IoT environment may have no cardinal or central actors on which to focus trust decisions (Bao & Chen, 2012). To this end, the purpose of this research is to examine the nature of trust within a range of IoT contexts and identify potential predictors of such trust dimensions.

Literature Review

In contrast to traditional exchange based views of marketing, within an IoT environment, there may no cardinal or central entity (human or machine) on which to focus trust decisions (Bao & Chen, 2012). Within these multi-partite contexts, trust becomes a fundamental component of the value proposition itself rather than an antecedent or consequence, residing within and across a network of actors and objects. It is embedded in the data derived from interactions and behavioural responses and re-used to provide services and environments for consumption by the provider, their personal or extended network and other beneficiaries in the wider network. As such, trust may be treated as a strategic management opportunity, critical to network sustainability and service development. Trust management may therefore refer to a declaration of credential information, or disclosure of relevant information, often decentralized across a distributed network of actors and objects. This is borne out of the emergence of the ubiquity of technologies and, more specifically, the embedded nature of technologies that extend and bind the relationship beyond the originating firm to include third parties in a customer focused proposition delivery network. Interactions within IoT networks involve exchanges between different types of agency (Gummesson & Grönroos, 2012), with relationships existing between those closely linked and distally networked in the enactment of some service experience for an end customer. In effect, the customer engages not with individuals within the network but with the service system. This system includes other customers, businesses, public services, devices, machines and software (e.g. Frow et al, 2014). From an actor's perspective within the system, they will likely be unaware of the full extent of their role or the range or scope of activities encompassed within the IoT network they are interacting with to deliver a service or receive experience. Trust, as traditionally conceptualized for dyadic relationships (e.g. Morgan & Hunt, 1994) cannot be easily applied because of imperfect knowledge about the service system, its actors and their agency. In such circumstances, trust may merely be an indicator of confidence (Giddens, 1990) or indeed be faith-based and blind (Simmel, 1978). Such observations on trust and confidence appear particularly pertinent to IoT contexts. However,

extant Information Systems (IS) research has primarily concentrated on hardware technology and the adoption of standardized platforms and protocols. Such research has tended to ignore the decision making and recommendation provision elements IoT systems will potentially fulfil. (e.g. Söllner, Hoffmann, Hoffmann, Wacker & Leimeister, 2014) . Consequently, the notion of individuals entering relationships with such systems and the entities within them and responding to them in a way comparable to interacting with other humans has been widely neglected with a few notable exceptions (e.g. Nass, Fogg & Moon, 1996). To address this, notions of trust from a number of disciplines were reviewed in an attempt to examine and capture the potential multi-disciplinary theoretical foundations of trust within IoT contexts. These included: interpersonal (e.g. Remel, Holmes & Zanna, 1985) and organisational (e.g. Smith, Leahy, Anderson & Davenport, 2013) trust literatures; IS and automation literatures (e.g. Cho and Chan, 2015), computing and networking literatures (e.g. Jansen, Hoffmann, Hoffmann & Leimeister. 2013), virtual and online trust literatures (Hong, 2015) and latterly; Human-Computer Interface (HCI) literatures (e.g. Madsen & Gregor, 2000).

Methodology
The methodology comprised two key parts. Initially, a videographic approach comprising a three-stage integrated framework was adopted (Belk & Kozinets, 2005). The first phase involved identifying themes of emergent IoT technologies and classifying them by potential use (Krippendorff, 2013). Three key contexts of application were identified: a transport context; a household context and; a healthcare context. These were subsequently developed into storyboards and scripts. Films were then made using a machinima filmmaking technique to animate visuals in Second Life® (SL) portraying the potential of IoT technologies to connect actors across networked communities with devices within service contexts. Films were subsequently pre-tested in focus groups and then incorporated into an online quantitative survey.

The questionnaire comprised key two parts. The first part focused on potential predictors of trust in an IoT context and were drawn from dimensions previously identified as relevant as a result of a review of the literature. These centred on behavioural and generalised attitudes in relation to trust in technologies (McKnight et al. 2002), perceived risks of using technologies (Yan, Zhang & Vasilakos, 2014), concerns regarding the storage, collection and use of data (Smith, Milberg & Burke, 1996) and the perceived competencies of respondents in networking within online and offline contexts (Macdonald & Uncles, 2007). Subsequently, respondents were allocated to one of the filmed scenarios and asked to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with a number of statements related to trust (1=Strongly Disagree and 5= Strongly Agree). In all, twenty scale items were used and related to the trust dimensions of reliability (McKnight, Carter, Thatcher and Clay, 2011), competence (Mcknight, Choudhury & Kacmar, 2002), benevolence (Bhattacherjee, 2002), faith (Madsen & Gregor, 2006), personalisation (Komiak & Benbasat, 2006), security (Salisbury et al, 2001), understandability (Madsen & Gregor, 2006), integrity (Mcknight, Choudhury & Kacmar, 2002). Concerns regarding the storage, collection and use of data were re-measured after viewing the scenarios. Data were collected in New Zealand in early 2016. Employing a global market research agency, a quota sampling process was used to ensure a sample representative of the national population in terms of age and gender (over 18s only). Data were collected using an online interface (e.g. Deutskens, Ruyter and Wetzels, 2006). In total, 1200 usable responses (400 per scenario) were collected and analysed.

Findings

Before conducting the analysis, it was necessary to check how realistic respondents perceived the filmed scenarios and introduction film to be. 88.2% of respondents considered 'Introduction to the Walker Family' to be 'realistic' or 'very realistic. 67.5% of respondents considered the Travel Management (TravM) System scenario to be 'realistic' or 'very realistic. 88.5% of respondents considered the Household Management (HHM) System scenario to be 'realistic' or 'very realistic' and 75% of respondents considered the Treatment Management (TM) System scenario to be 'realistic' or 'very realistic'. These values were considered sufficiently high to continue the analysis. Initially, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the trust components was conducted across the three scenarios followed by regression analysis for each of the dimensions identified. The suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed across all the scenarios. Inspection of the correlation matrices in each scenario revealed the presence of a large number of coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) values was all exceeded the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970) and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance. Preliminary findings suggest differences in the results for the dimensionality of trust across the IoT scenarios presented and the predictors of these.

The Transport (Travel Manager or TravM System) Scenario

This EFA resulted in a three-factor solution accounting for 64.1% of the variance (see Appendix 1: Table 1). All items loaded significantly with minimum of .35 for a sample of this size (Hair et al, 1995). With one item there was significant cross loading ('The TravM system would know what I want') and this item was removed from further analysis (The results are presented in Table 1 of the appendices). The results suggest that within such this IoT context the trust component may comprise of what we have labelled as a 'constancy' dimension (52.8% of variance), an 'understandability-familiarity' dimension (7.2% of the variance) and a 'performance assessment' dimension (4.1% of the variance). The reliability of all the scales was established by utilising Cronbach's alpha. The constancy, understandability-familiarity and performance assessment dimensions had alpha scores of 0.931, 0.806 and 0.841 respectively. These values are all above 0.7 so the scales can be considered reliable for this sample. Regression analysis was conducted to identify the variables that are the most important in predicting each of the dimensions for the Travel Management context (see Appendix 2: Tables 1, 2 & 3). 31.5% of the variance in constancy was explained by five variables: competency in online networking, competency in offline networking, concerns over profiling and perceived risk of technology. For understanding, 77 % of the variance was explained by competency in online networking and competency in offline networking. For performance assessment, 29.7% of variance was explained by competency in online networking, competency in offline networking, concerns over profiling and concerns over security.

The Household (Household Manager or HHM System) Scenario

This EFA resulted in a two-factor solution accounting for 61.3% of the variance (See Appendix 1: Table 2). All items loaded significantly). Again, one item significantly cross loaded ('The HHM system would be honest') and this item was removed from further analysis (The results are presented in Table 2 of the appendices). The results suggest that within this IoT context the trust component may comprise of what we have labelled a 'constancy' dimension (55.0% of variance) and an 'experiential based performance assessment' dimension (6.3% of the variance). Chronbach alpha tests for the constancy and experientially based performance assessment dimensions had resulted in values of 0.912 and 0.847 and hence indicating reliability. As for the first context, regression analysis was conducted to identify the variables that are the most important in predicting each of these two dimensions (see Appendix 3: Tables

1 & 2). 37.8% of the variance in constancy was explained by six variables: competency in online networking, competency in offline networking, concerns over profiling, concerns over security, generalised trust in technology and perceived risk of using technology. For experiential based performance assessment, 31.7 % of the variance was explained by five variables: competency in offline networking, concerns over profiling, concerns over security, generalised trust in technology and perceived risk of using technology.

The Treatment (Treatment Manger or TM System) Scenario
This EFA resulted in a one-factor solution accounting for 65.3% of the variance. All items loaded significantly suggesting trust within this context is uni-dimensional. We have labelled this dimension 'System Wide Trust' or SWT. A Chronbach alpha test for SWT resulted in a value of 0.971 and hence indicating reliability. Regression analysis for the Treatment Manager context revealed 43.7% of the variance in SWT was explained by six variables: competency in online networking, competency in offline networking, concerns over profiling, concerns over security, generalised trust in technology and perceived risk of using technology (see Appendix 4:Table1).

Discussion and Conclusions
These findings contrast with extant research on trust dimensions within B2C, B2B, offline and virtual contexts. The identification of dimensions that are somewhat 'generic' in nature suggests a limited user understanding coupled with imperfect knowledge. This consequently impacts the ability of users to make performance assessments as understanding-familiarity diminishes depending on the IoT context. This is reflective of Giddens (1990) premise that, under such circumstances, confidence or faith based trust is evoked. With the TravM system, respondents perceive they have the ability to understand the service (indicated by the 'Understanability-Familiarity dimension) perhaps based on current knowledge of GPS systems. With the HHM system, understandability-familiarity and the ability to gauge performance are now interrelated and consequently load together. In both instances, there is also an element of faith or confidence based trust indicated by the constancy dimension and predicted by previous on-line/offline networking experiences, concerns over the collection and use of information and generalised perceptions of the risk of using and trust in technology. With the TM system, reflective of a credence service coupled with the complex nature of the system, we posit understandability-familiarity is minimal and this has a significant impact on ability to make performance assessments. Consequently, trust becomes entirely based on confidence and faith in the system as a whole performing reliable. Hence, trust becomes unidimensional and is system wide. Exploration of the proxies used for trust in this context would be an interesting direction to take future research.

References - References are available on request

Appendices

Appendix 1: Table 1: Factor Analysis Results for the Trust Component in the Transport (Travel Manager or TravM System) Scenario

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
The TravM system would be a safe place to coll. and rec. sensitive info. about me	.943		
The TravM system would be concerned about my personal privacy	.821		
I would have faith in the TravM system providing the best advice	.767		
If I was uncertain about a decision, I would accept the TravM system's advice	.701		
The TravM system would be truthful in its dealings with me	.700		
The TravM system would keep its commitments	.688		
The TravM system would have the skills and expertise to make correct decisions	.675		
I would feel secure with sensitive info. being coll. and fed back to me by the TravM system	.674		
The TravM system would act in my best interest	.629		
The TravM system would be honest	.615		
TravM system would be dependable	.560		
The TravM system would be open and receptive to my needs	.499		
I understand how the TravM system would work		.899	
I understand how the TravM system would assist me with my decisions		.787	
It would be easy to follow what the TravM system does		.773	
The TravM system would perform reliably			.799
The TravM system would do its best for me			.784
The TravM system would correctly use the information I would provide to it			.775
The TravM system would understand my needs			.729

Appendix 1: Table 2: Factor Analysis Results for the Trust Component in the Household (Household Manger or HHM System) Scenario

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
The HHMM system would be a safe place to coll. and rec. sensitive info. about me	.945	
If I was uncertain about a decision, I would accept the HHM system's advice	.880	
I would feel secure with sensitive info. about me being coll. and fed back to me by the HHM system	848	
I would have faith in the HHM system providing the best advice	.825	
The HHM system would be concerned about my personal privacy	.777	
The HHM system would act in my best interest	.711	
The HHM system would have the skills and expertise to make correct decisions	.671	
The HHM system would keep its commitments	.556	
The HHM system would be dependable	.574	

The HHM system would know what I want	564	
The HHM system would understand my needs	561	
The HHM system would be open and receptive to my needs	.550	
The HHM system would be truthful in its dealings with me	.527	
I understand how the HHM system would work		.793
It would be easy to follow what the HHM system does		.679
The HHM system would do its best for me		.675
The HHM system would correctly use the information I would provide to it		.588
The HHM system would perform reliably		.546
I understand how the HHM system would assist me with my decisions		.537

Appendix 2 Table 1: Travel Manager: Regression Analysis with Constancy Dimension

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	t- value	VIF	Sig	Model $R2$
Constancy	(Constant)					.315
	Componlinenetwork	.136	.570	1.754	.014	
	Compofflinenetwork	.136	.656	1.523	.008	
	Comptechsoph	-.066	.584	1.713	.221	
	Concprofiling	-.231	.555	1.803	.000	
	Concsecurity	.205	.576	1.735	.000	
	Trusttech	.254	.855	1.170	.221	
	Risktech	-.301	.883	1.132	.000	

Table 3: Regression Analysis with Componlinenetwork, (Compviness with online networking), Compofflinenetwork (Compviness with offline networking), Comptechsoph (perceived level of technical sophistication), Concprofiling (Concerns about collection and use of data), Concsecurity (concerns about data security)

Trusttech (Trust in technology) and Risktech (Risk of using technology)

Appendix 2:Table 2: Travel Manager: Regression Analysis with Understanding Dimension

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	t-value	VIF	Sig	Model R2
Understanding	(Constant)					.770
	Componlinenetwork	.374	.570	1.754	.000	
	Compofflinenetwork	.660	.656	1.523	.000	
	Comptechsoph	-.055	.584	1.713	.083	
	Concprofiling	.020	.555	1.803	.527	
	Concsecurity	.039	.576	1.735	.222	
	Trusttech	.002	.855	1.170	.945	
	Risktech	.000	.883	1.132	.993	

Table 4: Regression Analysis with Componlinenetwork, (Compviness with online networking), Compofflinenetwork (Compviness with offline networking), Comptechsoph (perceived level of technical sophistication), Concprofiling (Concerns about collection and use of data), Concsecurity (concerns about data security)

Trusttech (Trust in technology) and Risktech (Risk of using technology)

Appendix 2: Table 3: Travel Manager: Regression Analysis with Performance Assessment Dimension

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	t-value	VIF	Sig	Model R2
Performance Assessment	(Constant)					..297
	Componlinenetwork	.068	.570	1.754	.219	
	Compofflinenetwork	.056	.656	1.523	.282	
	Comptechsoph	-.039	.584	1.713	.480	
	Concprofiling	-.205	.555	1.803	.000	
	Concsecurity	.370	.576	1.735	.000	
	Trusttech	.244	.855	1.170	.000	
	Risktech	-.285	.883	1.132	.000	

Table 5: Regression Analysis with Componlinenetwork, (Compviness with online networking), Compofflinenetwork (Compviness with offline networking), Comptechsoph (perceived level of technical sophistication), Concprofiling (Concerns about collection and use of data), Concsecurity (concerns about data security)

Trusttech (Trust in technology) and Risktech (Risk of using technology)

Appendix 3:Table 1: Household Manager: Regression Analysis with Constancy Dimension

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	t-value	VIF	Sig	Model R2
Constancy	(Constant)					.378.
	Componlinenetwork	.130	.642	1.558	.009	
	Compofflinenetwork	.174	.643	1.554	.000	
	Comptechsoph	-.043	.648	1.543	.380	
	Concprofiling	-.219	.403	2.482	.000	
	Concsecurity	.155	.440	2.271	.010	
	Trusttech	.243	.759	1.318	.000	
	Risktech	-.338	.796	1.256	.000	

Table 6: Regression Analysis with Componlinenetwork, (Compviness with online networking), Compofflinenetwork (Compviness with offline networking), Comptechsoph (perceived level of technical sophistication), Concprofiling (Concerns about collection and use of data), Concsecurity (concerns about data security)

Trusttech (Trust in technology) and Risktech (Risk of using technology)

Appendix 3: Table 2: Household Manager: Regression Analysis with Experiential Based Performance Assessment

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	t-value	VIF	Sig	Model R2
Experiential Based Performance Assessment	(Constant)					.317
	Componlinenetwork	.072	.642	1.558	.164	
	Compofflinenetwork	.128	.643	1.554	.014	
	Comptechsoph	.034	.648	1.543	.511	
	Concprofiling	-.146	.403	2.482	.026	
	Concsecurity	.333	.440	2.271	.000	
	Trusttech	.256	.759	1.318	.000	
	Risktech	-.282	.796	1.256	.000	

Table 7: Regression Analysis with Componlinenetwork, (Compviness with online networking), Compofflinenetwork (Compviness with offline networking), Comptechsoph (perceived level of technical sophistication), Concprofiling (Concerns about collection and use of data), Concsecurity (concerns about data security)

Trusttech (Trust in technology) and Risktech (Risk of using technology)

Appendix 4: Table 1: Treatment Manager: Regression Analysis with System Wide Trust

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	t-value	VIF	Sig	Model *R2*
System Wide Trust	(Constant)					.437
	Componlinenetwork	.131			.007	
	Compofflinenetwork	.155			.001	
	Comptechsoph	-.025			.576	
	Concprofiling	-.125			.018	
	Concsecurity	.169			.000	
	Trusttech	.332			.000	
	Risktech	.-399			.000	

Table 8: Regression Analysis with Componlinenetwork, (Compviness with online networking), Compofflinenetwork (Compviness with offline networking), Comptechsoph (perceived level of technical sophistication), Concprofiling (Concerns about collection and use of data), Concsecurity (concerns about data security)

Trusttech (Trust in technology) and Risktech (Risk of using technology)

Offline and online environments in a relational marketing approach

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Abstract
The objective of this paper is to study the relational benefits that the clients of three different service industries receive according to whether they maintain an offline or online relationship. The development of the Relational Benefits Index allows for a comparison of differences that arise between the measures of confidence benefits, social benefits, and special treatment. This study fills a gap in the research on existing differences between the perception of these benefits when company-client relationships are developed using the offline or online channels and among different types of companies. In this sense, an online relational marketing strategy allows companies to have lower costs and for all efforts to technologically develop this channel to be satisfied.

Keywords: relational marketing; online; offline; service business; MANOVA

Conceptualising Customer Value Formation – A Customer-Dominant Logic Perspective

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Abstract

This paper conceptualises customer value formation in the context of online customer communities. Positioned in the customer-dominant logic of service and by applying the abductive research methodology, the paper introduces and qualitatively deepens a conceptual model of customer value formation by juxtaposing the locus and the scope of value. The multi-method study of five customer communities reveals several benefit and sacrifice factors of members' value formation. In so doing, the findings reveal previously hidden aspects of customer value. Based on the findings, customer value formation is characterized as (1) selfto-provider driven by capability, (2) collective-to-provider driven by care, (3) self-to-self driven by choice, and (4) self-to-collective with connection as driver. The paper challenges companies to consider customer communities as sources of value in customers' daily lives. The conceptual framework is used to determine managerial strategies for enabling individual and collective value in the customer and provider domains.

Keywords: customer communities, service value, customer domain, customer-dominant logic

The Influence of Service Staff Sex in Gendered Service Recoveries: The Effects on Customer Forgiveness, Satisfaction and Repurchase Intention

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Abstract
While gender roles are becoming progressively blurred today as a result of the feminist movement, there remains an element of genderisation in certain service fields and some distinct sex stereotypes associated with particular occupational roles. While service genderisation is quite well-considered in marketing research, the concept has largely been unexplored in a service failure context. This paper serves as an introduction to the potential moderating role that gender congruence of a service plays on levels of customer forgiveness shown towards transgressing frontline staff. More specifically, this paper explores the current understanding of forgiveness in marketing, as well as the dynamic nature of occupational sex roles which are argued as being crucial considerations in the development of successful service recovery strategies. Within this, linkages between the forgiveness variable, customer satisfaction levels and intention to repeat purchase are identified as potentially significant based on previous studies in service failure research.

Keywords: Service failure, forgiveness, recovery, service genderisation

Consumer Engagement in Online Communities – A Practice Based Approach

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Abstract
Despite extensive interest by practitioners and academics to understand and harness customer engagement (CE), definitions still vary and empirical studies trying to operationalize CE are scarce, limited in capturing the dynamic nature of CE, and draw mainly on the Service-Dominant logic (SDL) perspective. However, such a theoretical foundation has its limitations, especially in exploring CE in a C2C context, and in considering the social aspects of such communities. The objectives of this study are twofold: (1) to advance the conceptualization of CE by reconciling SDL with social practice theory; (2) to explore the dynamics of CE through C2C engagement practices. The context of the study is expatwoman.com/dubai. The paper identifies engagement practices and demonstrates how iterations of those practices over time result in specific engagement routes within C2C on-line communities. These can serve as a starting point to better understand the dynamics of CE at individual and at group level.

Keywords: Engagement, online communities, practice theory, C2C interactions

Introduction

Customer Engagement (CE) has become a buzzword for marketing practitioners. Developing and enhancing CE is a strategic imperative for fostering customer relationships (Vivek, Beatty and Morgan, 2012), essential in developing sustainable competitive advantage, driving sales growth, and increasing profitability (Bijmolt et al., 2010). Consequently, practitioners took the lead in attempting to understand CE; followed by growing attention to the concept from marketing scholars (e.g.: Bowden, 2009; Brodie et al., 2011; Hollebeek, 2011; Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas, 2016). Despite extensive conceptual work in this area (see Dessart et al. 2016 for a review), definitions still vary and empirical studies trying to operationalize CE are scarce, and mainly based on the Service-Dominant logic (SDL) perspective (Brodie et al., 2011). However, such a theoretical foundation has its limitations, especially in exploring CE in a C2C context, and in considering the social aspects of such communities. To overcome such theoretical limitations, several authors have argued that SDL needs to be reconciled with a cultural theory (Arnould, 2006), such as practice theory (Reckwitz, 2002), as also recommended by Brodie et al. (2011). Moreover, the literature thinks of CE as a process which is dynamic and iterative (Hollebeek, 2011), yet empirical work exploring the dynamics is limited (Brodie et al., 2013). Therefore, a better understanding of the dynamics of CE is necessary in order to anticipate and/or influence changes in the life-cycle of a brand or on-line community.

The objectives of this study are twofold: (1) to advance the conceptualization of CE by reconciling SDL with social practice theory; (2) to explore the dynamics of CE through C2C engagement practices. The context of the study is expatwoman.com/dubai, a for-profit online community, dedicated to supporting and connecting expat women worldwide. The unit of analysis is the discussion "thread", made up of conversations between members.

Background

CE in online communities

An extensive review of the engagement literature by Storbacka, Brodie, Bohmann, Maglio and Nenonen (2016) defines actor engagement "as both the actor's disposition to engage, and the activity of engaging in an interactive process of resource integration within a service ecosystem". Several observable properties of engagement activities have been put forward, comprising of: co-production vs co-creation, relational properties, informational properties and duration of interaction. There is increasing interest in CE in the context of online communities (e.g. Gummerus, Liljander, Weman and Philström, 2012; Brodie, Ilic, Juric and Hollebeek, 2013), however the literature draws on a narrow theoretical perspective. CE is now widely perceived as a multidimensional concept, comprising of a cognitive, emotional, behavioral and social dimension (Vivek, Beatty and Morgan 2012). The social dimension forms the essence of engagement in online communities (e.g. Chan and Li, 2010). While previous work mainly focused on brand communities, the focus here is on non-brand related virtual C2C communities, which represent a substantial proportion of C2C virtual communities (Schau, Muñiz, and Arnould, 2009).

Social practice theory: an overview

Strong implicit links exist between social practice theory and engagement in the literature, as indicated by the repeated use of the word 'engagement' in using practice theory to examine value creation in brand communities (Schau, Muñiz, and Arnould's, 2009). While conceptualizations of practice are highly heterogeneous (Schatzki, 1996; Warde, 2005), it is generally agreed that practice theories promote observable behaviour as fundamental to

understanding social phenomenon (Schatzki 1996). Thus, a practice is seen as "a routinized way in which bodies are moved, objects are handled, subjects are treated, things are described and the world is understood (Reckwitz, 2002, p. 250). According to Schatzki (1996) a practice may be conceptualized in two ways. First, a practice may be seen as a coordinated entity of doings and sayings which is both temporally and spatially orientated. Second, a practice may be seen as performative, in which it is necessary to carry out and perform the practice for its actualization and sustainability (Schatzki, 1996). Schatzki (1996) identified three means of linking such doings and sayings to form a coordinated and coherent practice: (1) understandings (i.e. knowledge of what to say and do); (2) procedures (i.e. explicit rules and instructions) and; (3) emotional commitments (i.e. emotionally charged ends and purposes). Emotional commitment in particular can be seen to relate to engagement, as recognized by Warde (2005) who identified "emotional engagement" as a way to stimulate consumption practices. In addition Wiertz, and Ruyter (2008) suggest that it is through engagement in community practices that commitment is achieved. Schau et al. (2009) identified four engagement practices. However, such practices fail to reflect the multi-dimensional nature of CE.

Methodology and data collection

As context, we used the on-line community 'expatwoman.com' which is supporting women and families taking on new expat challenges and connecting women worldwide. It is a for-profit online community, independently owned and funded mainly by advertising. Expatwomen.com represents the largest website in the English language. It has 500.000 unique visitors per months and 3.5 million monthly page views. The website acts as an engagement platform and is popular in the Middle East. We focused specifically on community members linked into the Dubai community (expatwoman.com/dubai). We examined 1080 threads in the selected Dubai/UAE forum between August 2015 and April 2016, where each thread is composed of a number of posts (reaching around 100 posts in some instances).

The complexity of CE in an on-line community context and the scarcity of empirical work called for the use of qualitative methods to accommodate the exploratory nature of this study. A "Social Constructivist" interpretive perspective has been adopted, which considers knowledge to be rooted in the interactions (Creswell, 2014) or practices (Burr 2003) that exist between people and their environments. We undertook netnography as it allows for the collection of rich relevant data in its natural setting and facilitated exploring the dynamics of the CE processes in an online community via engagement practices and C2C interactions. Our netnography involved collecting data via an ongoing non-participant observation; ensuring unobtrusiveness, and hence increases authenticity and integrity. Since this research adopts a practice approach for studying CE, an inductive thematic analysis was employed, where the themes were identified from the data rather than attempting to fit the data into a coding frame that pre-existed based on literature.

Findings

Our analysis started off by identifying the various engagement practices in the community under study. Following several iterations of coding, nine engagement practices were identified, which were subsequently organized into three thematic categories: 1) cognitive engagement practices, 2) emotional engagement practices, and 3) social engagement practices. These map onto the engagement dimensions: cognitive, emotional, and social. As for the behavioral dimension of CE, we draw on Kozinets (2002) who regards the mere act of posting in itself a social action, thus resembling a behavioral practice. Hence, all identified practices reflect, through the act of posting, the behavioral dimension of engagement.

Next, the three thematic categories and the practices contained within each are reviewed. First, cognitive engagement practices are highly utilitarian and related to the fulfillment of the forum's main function, which is to facilitate information and knowledge exchange; composed of two practices: leaning and sharing. The former refers to the acquisition of knowledge and cognitive skills, and includes the following activities: seeking advice, justifying, updating, and lurking. Whereas sharing refers to the active contributions of members to knowledge co-creation within the online community through the provision of relevant information and experiences, and includes the following activities: advising, reviewing, and explaining. Sharing can be a response to another member's learning practice, or it can be voluntary sharing of important information or warnings that are deemed useful for the whole community, hence reflecting high norms of voluntarism.

Emotional engagement practices focus on feelings and emotions and reflect the affective nature of relationships between members. Undergoing such practices helps creating an emotionally-safe environment that encourages intimacy; including three practices: The first is venting, which is the expression of negative emotions about unfavorable experience(s) or concern(s), and usually reflects the need for emotional and moral support from other members. The second is empathizing, which refers to understanding and sharing the feelings of other members, and lending them emotional support when needed. It further includes offering reassurance and encouragement, and concerns the provision of affective resources and creates a sympathetic atmosphere where emotional and moral supports are offered when required, hence reinforcing the moral bonds within the community. It is usually a reactive practice entailing responding to another member's venting practice. The third, is the practice of appreciating, where members acknowledge the benefits they are gaining from belonging to the community and express positive emotions and gratitude for the community, its members, and its resources (whether information or socio-emotional support).

Finally, the third identified thematic category is that of the social engagement practices, which are concerned with the members' nonfunctional interactions related to socialization. It includes four practices: welcoming, chatting, governing, and staking. Welcoming denotes the greetings of new members (Schau, Muñiz, and Arnould, 2009). It further involves helping them dispel possible anxieties about active participation by reaching out to them, encouraging them to further participate, and helping them to blend in. Whereas chatting, refers to the engagement in nonfunctional interactions and discussions that are primarily for entertainment purposes, rather than communicating information. As for governing, it entails providing explicit directions to ensure that community norms are to be followed. Finally, in staking members delineate their specific domain of engagement, hence selecting the group that they will socialize with. This practice entails recognizing variances within the community membership, and highlighting intragroup similarities and differences. We see these three thematic categories and the practices outlined in Figure 1. This model addresses our first objective to advance the conceptualization of CE by reconciling SDL with social practice theory, as it identifies specific practices which are performed in relation to each of the thematic categories of engagement.

Figure 1 A Model of Engagement
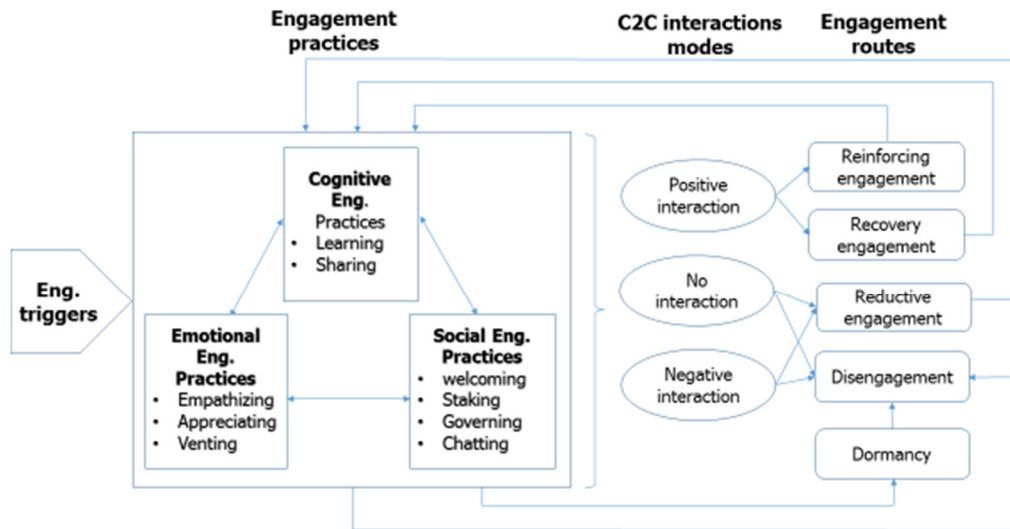
Our second objective was to demystify the dynamics of the engagement process in the online community under study. In Figure 1 we also see the outlining of a practice-theory informed framework that explains engagement as a process. C2C engagement processes are mostly triggered by the need for information or advice. The process is iterative in nature rather than following an orderly sequential progression over time, and involves an interplay of relevant practices. The interplay can involve practices within the same thematic category (intra-thematic) where such practices work together toward their thematic function or goal. Or between different categories (inter-thematic), where practices work together across the three themes, hence practices are integrated and engagement deepens (Schau, Muñiz, and Arnould, 2009). Practices were found to be combined in complex ways affecting engagement progression. We labelled combinations of practices over time as engagement routes.

The type of route depends on the nature of C2C interactions between members, including positive, negative, and no interactions. The latter refers to the case when a member's post does not get any replies. As for the positive and negative modes, the analysis draws on Echeverri and Skålén's (2011) conceptualization of congruent (matches) and incongruent (mismatches) elements of practices to understand when each takes place. The findings suggest that when the interacting members have congruent elements of practices, then positive C2C interactions take place. However, when such elements of practices are incongruent, negative interactions occur. A positive C2C interactions mode can lead to reinforcing or recovery engagement. The former refers to an escalating engagement where the member is motivated to undergo further positive iterations with progressive adoption of more practices from all three themes, and hence over time engagement evolves and deepens. It is through this route that newbies (those new to the forum) gradually move from the periphery of the community (where the forum is considered mainly as an information exchange platform) to the community core (where socialization takes place and personal relationships develop). However, if the positive C2C interactions are experienced at a subsequent iteration, following no interaction or negative interaction, a recovery engagement route is followed where further engagement iteration(s) will take place in an attempt to mitigate the effect of previous demotivation (resulting from previous no or negative interactions) before reinforcing engagement can then take place. During recovery, a member would refrain from endorsing new practices and would just continue undergoing the

already adopted practices, which are typically limited to the cognitive practices: learning and sharing.

As for the 'no interaction' and 'negative interactions' modes, they can both lead to the following three routes. The first route is reductive engagement, which entails a member being demotivated (but not to the extent of becoming dormant or disengaged), and hence deciding to undergo more engagement iteration(s) (albeit with less motivation and with a reduction in the practices involved) to become limited to just the learning practice, but with all its constituent activities. The second route is dormancy, referring to a temporary state where a member who has been previously more active becomes inactive and shifts to passive engagement. The observations reveal that this route is adopted when a member is too demotivated to remain actively engaged, and hence shifts to passive engagement. It entails a minimum engagement level and involves only 'lurking' (i.e. an activity within learning practices). Finally, the third route that can be induced by the no or negative interactions modes is disengagement, which refers to the termination or conclusion of a member's engagement with the community. Following this route, a member abruptly terminates the engagement with the community even though it was still considered needed and valuable. Finally, naturally occurring dormancy and engagement cases were also observed that are not related to any demotivation.

Conclusions

From a theoretical perspective, the study contributes by enriching and advancing our understanding of the concept of CE in two ways. Firstly, the empirical evidence not only supports the dynamic nature of CE, it also identifies specific engagement routes within C2C on-line communities, which can serve as a starting point to better understand the dynamics of CE at individual and at group level. Secondly, this study demonstrates that a social practice theoretical perspective offers an alternative route to empirically exploring CE within a C2C online community. By making use of existing and easily accessible longitudinal data, the identification of practices through netnography provided first empirical evidence of the dynamic nature of CE as advocated by Chandler and Lusch (2015). In addition, it allowed the identification of distinct engagement routes, which was only possible through the use of longitudinal data. Finally, this exploratory research offers a platform for undergoing further research. A useful endeavor would be to extend the study beyond a single online community and to investigate the engagement practices in a wide array of various communities, and hence move towards more generalization by identifying a common set of practices across such communities. Also, the gendered nature of the community under study can be considered a limitation, yet it offers interesting opportunities for future research to consider communities with more gender diversity and perhaps compare the findings. Another interesting area for future research would be to overlay these results with those obtained through network analysis, which can be highly useful in identifying the core members in an online community, to see how engagement practices and routes map onto specific members or segments of the community. Today's consumers live multi-platform lives, with one foot online and the other offline. Hence, to successfully manage CE depends on an understanding of the dynamics of both contexts, and the ability to see opportunities where they can complement each other. Thus, a comparative research that considers simultaneously both off and on-line contexts can be useful in this regard.

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Value dimensions related to customer experience in mobile banking service

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Abstract

Mobile applications have become a common platform for digital services. Banks have been considered pioneers in the digitalisation of services, as mobile technology is changing the form of financial services. The objective of this study is to understand the perceptions of the users of a mobile banking service, i.e. what kinds of value dimensions are related to the customer experience. Empirical data was collected using qualitative methods: theme interviews and diaries. In this study, value was defined to emerge through customer experience, and based on the results we argue that it would be important to take customer experience more into account in value-related literature to enhance our understanding of this complex phenomenon. Based on our findings it can also be said that a mobile banking service mainly creates utilitarian and hedonistic value, instead of social value, related to the social status and identity of the user.

Keywords: mobile banking, digital services, customer experience, customer value

Introduction

Over the past decade, mobile applications have become both a common interaction channel between companies and consumers, and a method to offer various kinds of services (Dube and Helkkula, 2015). Banks have been considered pioneers in the digitalisation of services, as new mobile technology that has already become established, is changing the form of banking and financial services, and the future methods of use (Heinonen, 2006; Chemingui and Iallouna, 2013). However, in order to further develop mobile services to better meet customers' needs, it is important have in-depth understanding of their value to customers. This study focuses on understanding what customers value and consider relevant and important in a mobile banking service and its use. According to Helkkula and Kelleher (2010), an integral part of customer value is service/customer experience, and it is, therefore, important for the definition and understanding of value, to also understand the experience created by the service. In other words, value is constructed on experience that is gained from the service (see Frow and Payne, 2007). The definition of customer experience has varied (Gentile et al., 2007) and the concepts of 'customer experience' and 'service experience' are often used as synonyms (Jaakkola et al., 2015). Accordingly, in this study they refer to the same phenomenon. However, as in our empirical study, customer plays a key role in experiencing value, we chose to use the term "customer experience" as our main concept. There are several reasons why understanding customer experience in this particular context is important. First, customer experience related to mobile applications has not yet been sufficiently studied, albeit the growing importance of this field of business (Dube and Helkkula, 2015). Consequently, it would be critically important to understand customer experience, as it would help companies to differentiate their products and services on the market and enhance customer satisfaction and loyalty (Frow and Payne, 2007; Gentile et al., 2007). Secondly, there has been limited academic research on the relationship of customer experience and value, and how they are connected to each other (Helkkula and Kelleher, 2010). Finally, although there has been growing interest in customer-centric logic and service experience (e.g., Heinonen et al., 2013), only few empirical studies have been implemented. This study aims to fill this gap in research by analysing value through the experiences of users of a mobile banking service.

The objective of this study is to understand the perceptions of the users of a mobile banking service, i.e. what kinds of value dimensions are related to the customer experience. This study thus aims to answer the research question: "What kind of value is related to the customer experience of a mobile banking service?" The study is implemented as a case study that is phenomenological in nature and linked to an interpretive consumer study. Empirical data has been collected using semi-structured theme interviews and a diary method, in order to ensure data that is as comprehensive, profound and versatile as possible. This paper continues by discussing the conceptual foundations of the study. The following chapter presents the research methods and in the empirical section, the experiences of the users of a mobile wallet service are analysed. Finally, conclusions answer the research question, present managerial implications and suggest avenues for future research.

Conceptual foundations

Value has been studied extensively over the past decade in the field of marketing especially related to services, and research on customer experience has also increased in number in the past couple of years (see e.g., Heinonen et al., 2010, 2013; Helkkula et al., 2012a). Value is referred to emerge through co-creation between a customer and a company, and recently customer's active role in the value creation process has been emphasised. To be more precise, it has been argued that a company cannot offer ready-made experience or value, but only value propositions. (Vargo and Lusch, 2004, Gentile et al., 2007, Heinonen et al., 2010). In addition,

value is regarded as experiential, in other words, it is considered to be perceived through experiences (Helkkula et al., 2012a). The concepts of customer experience and value are heavily intertwined and it is difficult or even impossible to fully separate them. For example, according to Helkkula and Kelleher (2010), customer perceived value influences cumulative customer service experience and vice versa. Therefore, also in this study they are approached in parallel and as "the two sides of the same coin".

When analysed from the phenomenological perspective, customer experience and value can be specified as an individual's internal and subjective awareness or perception of a service (Holbrook and Hirchman, 1982, Lemke et al., 2011). Experience and value are thus created only in the mind of an individual who is connected to a service on an emotional, physical, intellectual or spiritual level, and participates in the service. In addition, they are both subjectively socially constructed, as well as situation-specific and contextual (Helkkula and Kelleher, 2010). As Helkkula and Kelleher (2010) suggest, from the phenomenological perspective, customers are active producers of their own actual, but also imaginary experiences. Hence, experience and value should be analysed from a wider perspective, which covers all moments before, during and after the actual use of a service, as well as imaginings of using it (Heinonen et al., 2010; Helkkula et al., 2012a; Dube and Helkkula, 2015). In addition, as experience and value are also socially constructed, experiences and accounts of other people can affect the customer experience (Dube and Helkkula, 2015).

The experiential value obtained from a service also contains various dimensions related to its nature. Traditionally, value has been divided into two dimensions: utilitarian and hedonistic (e.g., Batra and Ahtola, 1991; Addis and Holbrook, 2001). When a customer is evaluating the utilitarian value, s/he considers how useful a service is, and when evaluating hedonistic value, s/he considers how pleasant the feelings and emotions are that the service invokes in him/her (Batra and Ahtola, 1991). When considering value as experiential phenomenon, also a third dimension can be attached to it: a social one. When evaluating social value the customer evaluates how a service influences her/his social status, or how it affects his/her own identity (Holbrook, 2006). In this study we explore value through the comprehensive experience related to using a mobile banking service. Following the recent study of Dube and Helkkula (2015) on service experience in the mobile application context, customer experience is here divided into four areas: outcome, process, time and location. The outcome of a customer experience refers to what is experienced, i.e. what the end result of the service experience is for the customer. In that case, the goal is to find out what the customer obtains from the service. The process dimension of a customer experience refers to how the experience is formed for the customer and how the interaction between the service and the customer functions (Heinonen, 2004). The temporal dimension refers to past, current and future elements of time. Finally, location refers to the use location and environment. In all these four areas, value that is experienced can include practical dimensions based on operations (i.e. utilitarian value); emotional and experiential dimensions (i.e. hedonistic value); or social dimensions i.e. customer's social environment and the opinions and experiences of other people (Holbrook, 2006).

Methodology

Next, with the preliminary understanding, this paper continues on to presenting an empirical study of the value dimensions related to customer experience in a mobile banking service. This is done via a qualitative study that has characteristics of phenomenological research strategy, where the views and experiences of the people who participate in the phenomenon being studied are adopted as "facts". In phenomenological studies of experiences, a result that can be analysed objectively cannot be produced on the events and their progression, but rather as an understanding of a researcher, respondent and reader on the phenomenon. (Helkkula et al., 2012a). The object of this study is a mobile wallet application X developed by a bank Y. With the help of the application, users can store their balance, banking, payment card, and loyalty card information in their phones. They are able to keep track of their own finances and purchase history with the help of graphs that show how much, where and on what they have spent money. The users can also create various budgets for their spending, and monitor them. In addition, the application offers benefits directed at its users. Mobile wallet X application is a free of charge and functions on iPhone, Android and Windows phone. Empirical data was collected using two different kinds of qualitative methods: theme interviews and diaries, in order to collect data that offers precise and in-depth information. Users who use the service regularly were asked to participate in and sign up for the study on the Facebook and Twitter pages of the application, and on the researchers' own Facebook pages. A total of 14 consumers participated in the study. They were 20-39 years old, and both genders as well as various occupational groups were represented equally. All participants were interviewed and they kept a diary of their use of the application for two weeks. Interviews were carried out as semi-structured theme interviews, and they varied in length between 24 and 55 minutes. All interviews were recorded and transcribed word for word. The transcribed material amounted to a total of 276 pages (not including diaries). The participants were guided to write diaries daily considering every occasion they used the application, based on free accounts of their experiences, thoughts, and events related to using the application. Diaries were delivered as word documents. The data was analysed using theory-based content analysis method. The analysis was implemented with the help of themes that were used as a basis for coding the data. They were at first based on the theoretical framework, but also new themes were allowed to freely emerge from the data. NVivo software was used to facilitate the content analysis and stimulate the researchers' interaction with the large amount of data.

Findings

First of all, our findings indicate that interaction between the service and the user, i.e. the process of the customer experience, experienced by the user, creates value for the user. Based on the data, value is created through ease of use, real time operation, visuality, a sense of control and trust. On the basis of the data, users perceive ease of use and real time operation as technical and functional, i.e. utilitarian value, whereas visuality, a sense of control and trust appeal to the consumer's emotions, and appear as hedonistic value. As an example of the utilitarian value, one respondent said: "It is very important that it is easy to use. And I think it really makes my life easier because I don't have to go to the bank to take care of things but I can use this mobile wallet anytime and anywhere." (Man, 39 years). Second, it was evident from the analysis that the value of the mobile wallet application is closely connected to the context, i.e. time and place. As the application allows users to decide where and when to use the service, the value of the service is dependent on the use situations. Based on the data, the user, however, does not actually experience time and place as separate dimensions, but feels that they are both part of the use situation. Therefore, temporal and location dimensions are replaced by a concept of "use situation". Here, flexibility and location based content were identified as utilitarian value dimensions, and entertainment and sense of security as hedonistic value dimensions. The

former is illustrated by a following citation: "It is really handy and useful for me that it [application] shows you the discounts of the nearby stores when you walk around or for example look for a place to have a dinner." (Woman, 31 years)

Third, the findings indicate that in the case of the mobile wallet application, the outcome dimension of customer experience relates to the application replacing other services, affecting consumption behaviour, providing financial benefits, including game-like features, pioneering, and constructing a personal consumer identity. The users describe replacing other services, affecting consumption behaviour and financial benefits as sensible, functional properties of the service, i.e. utilitarian value. For example, a man (33 years) described: "If I'm in a shop and I'm wondering should I buy something or not, then mobile wallet X may influence my final buying decision". On the other hand, the users described that they experience the game-like features and personal emotional attachment as creating hedonistic value. Also the user's social context affected her/his experience. The application created value by enabling a certain type of pioneering status, and it was also perceived to influence the construction process of consumer identity. Therefore, pioneering and constructing consumer identity can be regarded as social values. One respondent illustrated this by saying: "I heard about this [mobile wallet X] first time from my friend and as I'm usually very interested in technology and applications, I decided to try it. And it seemed nice and that is why I started to use it regularly." (Woman, 33 years).

Fourth, the findings indicate that the users often mirrored their previous experiences onto current experiences and wondered what kinds of use situations could be related to the service in the future. In addition, the users imagined what kinds of features could be developed to the service in the future, and what the service would be like in an ideal situation. The following citation illustrates this: "It would be fantastic if you could add some virtual elements to this service! That would be super cool and I'd definitely try them immediately." (Man, 36 years).

To sum up, the empirically grounded framework in Figure 1 illustrates the value dimensions related to customer experience. Based on this study, it can be said that the users of the mobile wallet X application experience several value dimensions that are related to the application on the benefit, emotion and social levels. Interestingly, the application does not, however, create a lot of social, but mostly utilitarian and hedonistic value. In addition, the study reveals that customer experience in mobile banking context consists of the customers' previous and current experiences of the service, expectations and views of future use situations and experiences, and imaginary experiences of what the service and its use experience would be like in an ideal situation. Hence, various dimensions of temporality affect, continuously and non-linearly, the formation of experience in the background, and they are, therefore, presented in the form of a spiral (see also Helkkula et al., 2012a).
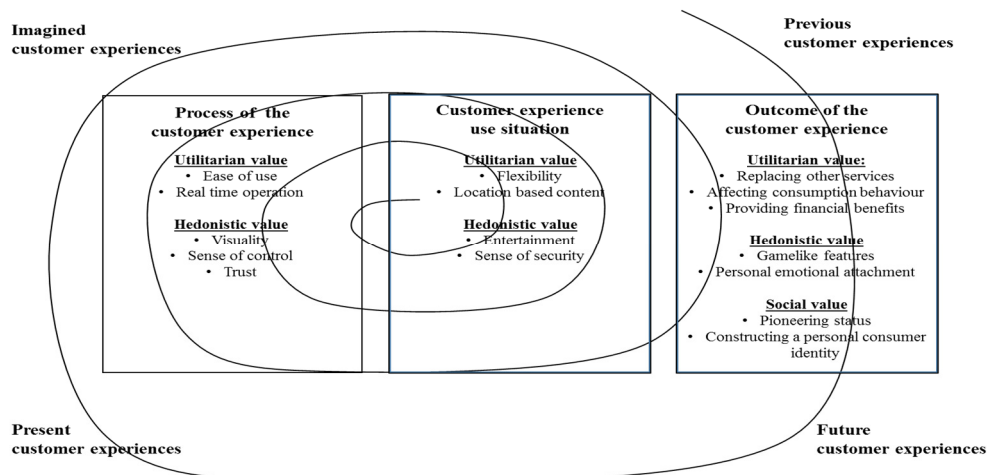
Figure 1. Value dimensions related to customer experience in mobile banking service.

Conclusions

The objective of this study was to increase our understanding of value dimensions related to service experience in the context of a mobile banking application. Our findings indicate that value dimensions can be divided under process, use situation and outcome of customer experience (see also Dube and Helkkula, 2015). Based on our findings it can also be said that a mobile banking service mainly creates utilitarian, i.e. practical, and hedonistic, i.e. emotional, value, instead of social value, related to the social status and identity of the user. It is interesting that social value does not seem to play a bigger role, but perhaps this particular context has an influence on this, as banking services are perceived as distinctly private and personal in nature.

In this study, value was defined to emerge through customer experience, and based on the results we argue that it would be very important to take customer experience more into account in value-related literature to enhance our understanding of this complex phenomenon. This study also supports the findings of Helkkula and Kelleher (2010) and Helkkula et al. (2012a) in that value is considered to be related to previous, current, future and imaginary experiences that together form the comprehensive customer experience for the user. In addition, it introduces new perspectives on mobile banking services as it identifies several dimensions that help us understand what creates value for the customer while using mobile banking services. Moreover, even though this study was limited to banking services, many of the findings can also be utilized in future studies on mobile services.

With the help of this study, the banking industry in particular, as well as other providers of mobile services, are provided with the possibility of identifying value dimensions, which customers find important in mobile services. They can be considered as cornerstones when exploring how a mobile service is experienced and what kind of value creating elements can be attached to and included in it. Understanding customer experience and the related value dimensions is part of the more extensive customer-centred thinking that companies can and should use in their business operations in order to create competitive advantage. It is also important for companies to understand different temporal aspects of customer experience. Although it is difficult to identify the user's illusions of ideal experiences, they do offer important information on e.g., how users would like to use the service in the future and what kinds of experiences they would like the service to create for them in the future. Both actual and imaginary experiences are important in terms of value, but through understanding

imaginary experiences, a company can acquire a clear competitive edge. Finally, the study shows that it is important that mobile services are linked to the daily life of customers so that they feel that they gain value from them. When the service is an integral part of customers' life, it is used more often and the customers may also create a strong relationship with the service and the service provider.

To conclude, this study serves as a basis for future studies examining mobile banking applications and other mobile applications. In addition, it can be helpful to studies investigating customer experience and experiential value, be it on the fields of marketing, finance and banking, technology, usability among others. As a limitation, this study is conducted in a developed country and the findings (specifically concerning the social value) could be different in an emerging market context. In the future, our current understanding of customer experience and experiential value could be deepened with the help of comparisons. Mobile banking applications could be compared with other applications, such as news applications, and in that respect, such study could focus in greater detail on how a certain service context affects customer experience and value. In addition, since mobile applications are usually designed to be used by the masses, the studies regarding customer experience, value and mobile banking services could also be complemented with quantitative data. Such studies would provide us with complementary information regarding e.g., what kinds of issues users value the most in a service, or what kinds of correlation relationships various value elements have with each other.

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Understanding customer conditions for co-creative innovation processes

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Abstract

A firm's ability to leverage customer co-creation for innovation processes is emerging into a central success factor. We argue that customers' ability to participate in such cocreation processes is framed by the synergy of their interpersonal and intrapersonal factors. We develop a conceptual model to examine the effects of customers' interpersonal (social embeddedness) and intrapersonal (self-efficacy and innovativeness) factors on co-creation behaviours. The data was collected in an online service system and analysed using multi-group SEM techniques. Overall, the findings suggest that customers' social embeddedness has a significant influence on co-creation behaviours; and self-efficacy and innovativeness have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between social embeddedness dimensions and co-creation behaviours. We contribute to the understanding of co-creation for innovation processes by illustrating the significance of the synergy between customers' interpersonal and intrapersonal factors that impact their co-creation behaviours.

 Keywords: co-creation, innovation, value co-creation behaviours, innovativeness, service systems

Is it ethical to use fear appeals when advertising services to a vulnerable audience?

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Abstract

Advertising is a powerful promotional tool that marketers use to build awareness of an organisations product or service. The success of their communication efforts lie in being able to effectively and efficiently reach their target audience. This study examines the relationship between the marketers' use of fear as an appeal when targeting the elderly; a group often considered vulnerable, and whether the choice of an anxiety provoking message appeal is deemed to be an ethical marketing practice. Findings from quantitative research revealed that advertisements with even a mild fear appeal are considered unethical when the audience are of a vulnerable nature, and that a relationship exists between the perceived ethicality of an advertisement and the level of discomfort the audience feels when viewing it. Results of this study provide a better understanding of the effects of advertising tactics that involve a disadvantaged target audience who may be prone to manipulation.

Keywords: Fear appeals; Ethical advertising; Elderly; Vulnerable target markets.

Introduction

Advertising and promotion form an integral part of an organisations' marketing program with the strategies designed to effectively reach as many of their targeted market as possible. Messages aimed at these markets can be informative, and/or persuasive, in order to encourage consumers to purchase the organisations products. One of the most important creative strategy decisions for an advertiser is the choice of appeal to be used and whether it should be focused on the rational aspect of the consumer's decision making process; which emphasises the functional value of the brand. Or the emotional, such as humour or fear appeals which stimulate feelings around the brand message (Dix & Marchegiani, 2013). Another central decision is the choice of target market demographic most appropriate for the advertising message. When the target market includes groups of people who are considered vulnerable as the preferred choice of target group, concerns are raised as to their ethicality.

From a promotional perspective, funeral services and plans come under the heading of service marketing (Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker, 2007). Funeral companies offer a service that is essentially intangible and although the consumer may become the owner of a burial plot or cremation plaque, the service the company provides is what the customer is actually paying for. Funerals are a very sensitive subject for most people so marketers have to not only sell something that most people don't want to think about, but also have to take into account the sensitivity of the subject. As death is inevitable for everyone eventually there is a need for someone to bear the expense of the funeral. This usually falls on the closest family member, so, insurance companies offer a funeral plan service where consumers can invest their money over a number of years so that when they die the costs of their funeral are covered and loved ones are not subject to these expenses.

A number of funeral companies base their advertising strategy around the fact that the person left paying the bill is often not in a financial position to do so. To emphasise this point they use testimonials from people who have experienced burying a close relative and found themselves liable for funeral costs at a time when they were still grieving. By demonstrating the difficult time ahead consumers are encouraged to plan ahead by the use of a fear appeal. The question of ethicality arises when using this form of advertising particularly when the audience is a vulnerable one such as the elderly (Williams, 2012). While studies provide empirical evidence of a positive relationship between the level of fear in an appeal and the level of anxiety it causes (Arthur & Quester, 2004; Dillard & Anderson, 2004; Spence, 1972), there is very little evidence as to how an anxiety provoking form of advertising affects a vulnerable target market, and specifically the elderly. Furthermore, the majority of contributions to marketing ethics have demonstrated that there is a great deal of confusion as to what is deemed ethical practice, as different moral philosophies (teleological or deontological) base their perception of ethicality on different values (Stefan, 2015).

Literature review

Marketing Ethics

There appears to be consensus in the marketing ethics literature that guidelines need to be followed to ensure that organisational marketing efforts are not only kept within a legal framework, but are based on sound ethical reasoning (Tsalikis & Fritzsche, 1989; McKinley, 2012). Emphasis is placed on what factors influence an individual's ability to make ethical decisions, and models are used to give an account of the actual processes an individual goes through when making decisions regarding ethical issues (Tsalikis & Fritzche, 1989; McKinley, 2012). There are differing views as to what constitutes ethical decision-making, and if ethics should be taken into consideration at all when making marketing decisions. For example, abiding by the law, or acting in the company's own self-interest are considered by some to be sufficient in covering any ethical dilemmas in the marketing environment (Gaski, 1999). There are many conflicting theories and ideas associated with ethical evaluation (Tsalikis & Fritzche, 1989; McKinley, 2012), and ethical reasoning has long been recognised as based on moral philosophy (Nill, and Schibrowsky, 2007), where actions are judged by their consequences, or outcomes are irrelevant and it is the action itself which is right or wrong. Within this context there are also other important factors that need to be considered such as egoism, justice and relativism (Tsalikis & Fritzche, 1989). Ethical judgements are reached by using a combination of deontological and teleological evaluations, as well as an individual's own set of personal mores, and the decision process is based on their philosophical ideology, their culture, religion, and family values (Hunt & Vitell, 2006). The work of Hunt & Vitell (2006) and Tsalikis & Fritzche (1989) reflect a constant debate on the variables that affect ethical decisions in the marketing literature, making it almost impossible to set guidelines that encompass universal views on normative ethics. The ethicality of using fear appeals in advertising is not only based on the content of the advertisement but on the target market chosen (Wolberg, 2005). The target audience for funeral insurance plans tend to be people in their middle ages with low incomes; considered vulnerable due to their disadvantaged financial state, and the elderly who are a known vulnerable group.

Vulnerable Groups

Vulnerable groups are defined as being susceptible to harm and unable to protect their own interests due to a lack of intelligence, education, resources, strength or other numerous contributing factors (Mechanic and Tanner, 2007). The Oxford English Dictionary also cites 'capable of being persuaded or tempted' as a definition of the word vulnerable. Studies have shown that vulnerability is based on certain limitations, physical, cognitive, motivational and social (Mechanic & Tanner, 2007; Wolberg, 2005). The literature also states that there are situations that render people vulnerable for a limited period of time due to their circumstances, and therefore vulnerability is not always considered a permanent state but one that changes depending on certain variables (Wolberg, 2005). However whatever the cause of a person's vulnerability; ensuring they are not taken advantage of should be the main ethical concern for marketers (Mechanic & Tanner, 2007; Wolberg, 2005). Marketers shouldn't target vulnerable groups if the criteria for their campaign are based on the vulnerability of the group (Brenkert, 1998). For example, if the message strategy was to use a fear appeal to promote the use of a brand of tyres, and the target market was comprised of the elderly, by showing a grandmother crashing a car with her grandchildren as passengers designed specifically to reach such a vulnerable target group, the advertising campaign would be considered unethical. However, the notion of vulnerability is hard to define as it is a matter of degree, can be temporary or

permanent, and the recipient may not even be aware of their limitations and are therefore less able to protect themselves (Brenkert, 1998).

The Elderly as a Vulnerable Group
According to the ABS website (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2014), between 1994 and 2014 the proportion of people aged 65 years and over increased from 11.8% to 14.7%. During the same time period the proportion of people aged 85 years and over has almost doubled (from 1.0% to 1.9%) indicating that there is a substantial market for products aimed at the elderly and a lucrative opportunity for marketers by directing marketing campaigns at an aging population. The more problems an individual has accrued throughout their life the more vulnerable they become, and on average an individual can add around 3% of deficits or problems for each year they have lived (Marianti and Schroder-Butterfill, 2006). This assumption would therefore mean that the elderly have a much higher chance of being vulnerable purely through the number of years they have lived.

Fear Appeals
Fear appeals are used by marketers to elicit an emotional response to a perceived threat that is made apparent through various forms of communication, motivating the recipient towards action to alleviate the threat (Duke, Pickett, & Grove, 1993; Hastings, Steed & Webb, 2004; Williams, 2012). The fear appeal works on the assumption that the audience viewing the advertisement will have a reaction to the message that causes a feeling of anxiety. This can only be relieved by either stopping the behaviour outlined in the advertisement, or, by purchasing the product advertised to reduce the chance of a negative outcome (Hastings et al, 2004; Williams, 2012). When the target group is considered vulnerable the ethics of such marketing tactics become more apparent as vulnerable groups do not always have the coping mechanism needed to be able to make an informed decision when under pressure (Donovan & Henley, 2003; Duke et al, 1993).

The literature that formed the basis for this study suggests that vulnerable consumers are more likely to be exploited as vulnerability and opportunism go together (Shultz & Holbrook, 2009), and that marketing to the vulnerable without taking into account their vulnerable status is morally unjustified (Brenkert, 1998). Furthermore fear appeals can have unintended negative effects, such as heightened anxiety among more vulnerable audiences. For example, the level of fear used in advertising and the level of vulnerability that the target audience have is directly related to the level of anxiety that will be experienced, and therefore the perceived ethicality of the use of the fear appeal, in turn this can have an impact on purchase intention.

Methodology
Research design
To obtain data representative of the target population (Australians over 18 years of age living in Western Australia), a convenience sample of students and employees from an Australian University were sent an online survey via their staff or student email address. Using a snowball sampling method participants were requested to pass the email on to friends and colleagues. The survey required respondents to view an advertisement for a funeral plan service under two different conditions (vulnerable and non-vulnerable), and complete an attached questionnaire. As the focus of this study was on the perceived ethicality of the ad in relation to the audience's level of vulnerability, the questions were developed to elicit measurable responses to questions

and statements that related to the ethicality of the ad from both a vulnerable and non-vulnerable standpoint. The commercial used in the survey used anticipatory fear arousal by showing a very sad old women sitting alone, indicating how bereft she is feeling now she is left to pay for a funeral. This type of ad was indicative of the advertising currently being used by several insurance and funeral companies, and was created in the form of a print advertisement using the threat of a negative outcome to get the audience's attention (anticipatory fear arousal), along with information to encourage a change in buyer behaviour.

The questionnaire included a range of items for each construct, such as the respondent's attitude towards the message appeal used in the advertisement, the level of anxiety the ad may cause, and the target markets appropriateness, also an item on purchase intention, and a series of demographic items. To evaluate the perceived ethics of the use of fear appeals to vulnerable target markets the survey respondents were asked to look at a print advertisement for a funeral plan, read a scenario designed to infer that although the target was elderly they were not considered to be vulnerable (condition 1), and answer a number of questions. The respondents were then asked to look at the same print ad again using the second scenario designed to infer that the audience were not only elderly but were also vulnerable (condition 2), and answer the same questions with the second scenario in mind. Their response to each item for scenario 1 and scenario 2 was measured using a Likert scale of strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). Respondents were then asked a number of demographic items such as age, gender, marital status, and parental status, to obtain data that could be used to make comparisons between the two conditions.

Data collection & analysis
A total of 155 questionnaires were received by Qualtrics during the data collection process. Thirty-one questionnaires were discarded that were incomplete with a 124 valid responses for analysis. Sample characteristics included a large majority of females (82%) with 59% being younger than 30 years, 27% falling between 31 and 50, and 14% were over 51 years of age. Fifty one percent of the sample was single, 31% married and 18% identified as other. Only 33% of the sample had children. To analyse the data several tests were conducted including frequency tables to provide an insight into the demographic profile of the sample and ANOVA to examine the relationship between demographics and ethical perceptions, Chi-square tests were also used to test the significance of the statistics. In addressing the research question and hypothesis, sample means of the level of perceived ethicality of the ad with relation to condition 1 and condition 2 were analysed and an independent sample t-test was conducted to estimate sampling error. The completed test was then examined to determine whether a two tailed significance of $p < .05$ was reported inferring a statistically significant difference between means. ANOVA was also used to test the level of perceived ethics in condition 1 when compared to different items, and the level of perceived ethics in condition 2 when compared to the same items. These tests were used to determine which if any items influenced the respondent's perceptions of ethicality. Further analysis looked at the relationship between the vulnerability of the audience and their perceived purchase intention with t-tests to check the significance of the data.

Findings

Results showed that the mean score for the ethicality item (I consider the ad to be ethical) in condition 1 (non-vulnerable) was 2.90 and the mean score for the same item in condition 2 (vulnerable) was 3.04. A paired samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of the level of perceived ethicality in the two conditions (not vulnerable and vulnerable). The results showed there is a significant (Condition 1 X=2.90, SD = .953and condition 2 X=3.04, SD = 1.039), t (123) = -1.987, p = 0.049), difference between the two conditions suggesting that levels of perceived vulnerability have an effect on perceived ethicality. Specifically the results suggest that the more vulnerable the target audience is perceived to be, the more unethical the advertisement is perceived. The results indicate that there is a relationship between perceived vulnerability and perceived ethicality. Further analysis indicated that the demographic profile of the respondents had no effect on the perceived ethicality of the ad whether the audience were vulnerable or not. However, there was a significant relationship between how uncomfortable the respondents felt when viewing the ad and their perceived ethicality of the ad for both the vulnerable and non-vulnerable conditions. With regard to whether companies have the right to use whatever means necessary to reach their target audience, respondents in both conditions disagreed with this suggestion and a relationship was found to be significant between their perceived ethicality of the ad and their disagreement with the proposed suggestion. The relationship between the vulnerability of the audience and how the respondents viewed the likelihood that they would purchase a funeral plan would indicate respondents were only slightly more persuaded under the more vulnerable scenario. Respondents also answered whether they would seek more information about funeral plans based on the ad, the results showed the majority of the sample (93%) would not.

Discussion

The current study found that the level of discomfort in viewing an advertisement using a fear appeal to a vulnerable audience had a significant relationship with the perceived ethicality of the ad. Therefore the results of this study support the view that this form of advertising puts pressure on an already vulnerable audience to purchase a product they may not be able to afford, and can therefore be considered unethical Furthermore, the use of fear as a message appeal was shown by the high negative response to purchase intention to be ineffective as a marketing message which also provides support for findings from prior research into fear appeals and the effectiveness of this type of advertising strategy when targeting vulnerable populations. For example, LaTour and Rotfeld (1997) found that individuals have different cognitive responses to fear appeals, which in turn have an impact on how a product or service is perceived ethically, therefore influencing purchase intention. When levels of anxiety are heightened with the use of a threatening message, the audience are likely to have a negative response to the ad and the brand (LaTour and Zahra, 1989). The results of this study are consistent with this.

Limitations

The relevance of the topic with the audience has an impact on how the ad is perceived ethically, as the closer the audience are to the subject matter in the ad the more likely they are to respond to it (Donovan et al, 2003; Johnston & Warkentin, 2010). This view is supported by the current study with results showing that with a sample predominantly under the age of thirty (60%), unmarried (52%) and childless (66%) participants may have found it hard to relate to being old and having to pay for a funeral, therefore it was not surprising that 93% responded negatively to whether they would consider purchasing a funeral plan after viewing the ad.

Marketing Implications

This current study was effective in recognising that ethics do play a major role in advertising and buyer decision making, with empirical evidence to show that the general population do perceive ads to be unethical when the audience are known to be vulnerable. The research also indicated that if marketers choose a fear appeal to target a vulnerable audience for their campaigns, they take the risk that the general population will consider the ads unethical which in tum could result in negative brand association.

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The Ties that Bind Fans to a Sports Team and a Sporting Event: The Case of Team 'All Blacks' and the Rugby World Cup 2015

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Abstract
A significant omission in the sports marketing literature is the role and influence of discrete emotions on team attachment and whether the latter can predict attachment levels to an event. Using the team 'All Blacks' and the event of the Rugby World Cup 2015, the study evaluates a theoretical model that postulates several relationships between team identification, discrete emotions, satisfaction, team attachment and event attachment. A sample of 324 'All Blacks' fans revealed that the emotions of happiness and love can be predicted by the level of team identification. Low levels of felt anger contributed to high satisfaction with team performance (negative relationship) but high levels of sadness contributed to high satisfaction (positive relationship) with team performance. Satisfaction with team performance cannot predict attachment to both team and event but team attachment can significantly predict event attachment. Implications for sports marketing and event marketing are suggested.

Keywords: team attachment, discrete emotions, event attachment, sport identification, satisfaction

When mindfulness does matter in service brand experience

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Abstract

This study examines the perception of other customers (OCP) as an antecedent to service brand experience and word-of-mouth (WOM). Our theoretical extension includes a mediation model in that OCP influences service brand experience via mindfulness, and that service brand experience results in increased WOM. We tested the model using PLS-SEM and then confirmed the mediation using bias correct bootstrapping techniques. We further substantiated the findings by performing fsQCA. On the basis of the findings, we concluded with a discussion of the implications for theory and further research.

Keywords: Other Customers' Perception; Mindfulness; Service brand experience

Introduction

The presence of other customers in a retail service environment will influence the experience occurs in the "moment of truth" for many customers. Whether this influence is positive or negative depends largely on the appearance and behavior of the other customers. Prior research has identified three dimensions that determine the perception of other customers (OCP), namely similarity, physical appearance and behavior (Brocato et al. 2012). While the influence of OCP on service brand experience (SBE) may appear straightforward, for OCP to have an affect requires some level of perception, attention and awareness on behalf of the individual. As such, the potential influence of a mechanism that activates an individual's attentiveness to extrinsic cues is a distinct possibility. We posit such a mechanism is that of mindfulness.

Advocates of mindfulness theory posit that mindfulness is characterized by an existential orientation, where presence and context is an active, liberated existence (Langer 1989). While a customer's service brand experience will differ in intensity, duration and evaluation (Brakus et al., 2009), the current study proposes that a customers' level of mindfulness will be pivotal to how they evaluate their brand experience within a retail context. The existing body of research on mindfulness in retail or service settings is still in its infancy, yet it provides the potential for a large range of theoretical and managerial implications. For example, Langer and Moldoveanu (2000) have shown mindfulness allows people to become more engaged with the different tasks set out before them. Because of this, the relationship between OCP, a customers' level of mindfulness and SBE presents an interesting research opportunity. Generally, heterogeneity is expected in customers' levels of awareness and attentiveness in a service setting. The different levels of mindfulness will not only shape the brand experience, but behaviors relating to the sharing of experience-relevant information and word-of-mouth (WOM). This research contributes to existing theory by validating the role of OCP as a determinant of brand experience and demonstrating the mediating effect of mindfulness on the relationship between OCP and brand experience.

Conceptual Foundations

In a retail service environment, what customers see will influence their service experience. Indeed, vision is the primary sense used for product perception and object identification. Spence and Gallace (2011) used the term 'affective ventriloquism', whereby information received in one sensory modality will shape or bias perception in other modalities. However, affective ventriloquism is not a phenomenon exclusive to sensory modalities or sensory level perception. In fact, affect may be transferred between concepts by an individual and may also be context dependent. For example, customers in a retail environment will inevitably be exposed to other customers and this exposure to other people is likely to drive affective response (Bornstein, 1989).

The idea that other customers will influence an individual's service experience has been forwarded by a number of researchers. Social cues are a component of the service environment, and such social cues are often a result of customer-customer interactions. These customer-customer interactions manifest themselves in different ways. For example, simple observation of other customers may be sufficient. In this respect, individuals will observe other customers and evaluate the quality of the service delivery. When this happens, output quality of the service

is judged by the target customer as well as other peripheral customers in the environment. Alternately, customer-customer interactions may include direct, physical contact. In a retail setting, such incidental touch between customers has been shown to have a negative influence on willingness to spend and brand experience, compared to when customers are not touched (Martin, 2012). However, the touch experience does not have to involve both customers. When an individual observes another (attractive) customer touching a product, for example, they will report a more positive evaluation of the product, in what Argo et al. (2008) describe as a 'positive contagion effect'. Thus, when the surrounding customers are assessed as congruent with a person's own self-image, then their brand identification and brand experience will be more positive than if the surrounding customers were viewed as incongruent with the individual's self-image. This congruence or similarity between customers will not only influence the overall brand experience, but has positive effects on attitudes towards the service, other customers and behavioral intentions. As a result, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1. Perceived similarity between customers will have a positive influence on service brand experience

There is a broad body of research on physical appearance and its role in service delivery. However, much of the extant literature focuses on the physical appearance and in particular the attractiveness, of service employees. For example, staffs who are physically attractive, display emotion and provide help have a positive influence on customer satisfaction. Similarly, Söderlund and Julander (2009) found that higher levels of service employee attractiveness resulted in higher levels of customer satisfaction. Nonetheless, Söderlund (2011) called for additional research on the topic, stating that "the physical attractiveness of other customers may have an impact on the overall evaluations of a retailer" (p.179). In this sense, it is plausible the influence of other customers' physical appearance on product evaluations will have a similar effect on evaluations of the service experience. As result, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2. Perceived physical appearance of other customers will have a positive influence on an individual's evaluation of service brand experience.

While the physical appearance of the different actors within a service setting will influence a consumer's perception, the public, social nature of service encounters means the behavior of others is also likely to play a role. This is because an environment consists of time, place and behavioral dimensions, where the three dimensions are determinants of a service experience. In fact, this concept was built upon by Lehtinen and Lehtinen (1991), who proposed the behavior of other customers may be a greater influence on the evaluation of service brand experience than the staff providing the service. Essentially, customers should adhere to a commonly accepted sequence of role behaviors that are appropriate or suitable for the given scenario (Brocato et al., 2012). When all customers adhere to this process, one would expect a more amicable, inclusive and less threatening environment. As a result, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3. The perceived (suitable) behavior of other customers will have a positive influence on an individual's evaluation of service brand experience.

Mindfulness is a complex construct that includes both state and trait dimensions. Indeed, Brown and Ryan (2003, p. 822) defined mindfulness as both a state and trait concept where "both dispositional and state mindfulness predict self-regulated behavior and positive emotional state". Mindfulness occurs when the attention and awareness of current experience

is enhanced. Existing research on mindfulness adopts either a trait or state definition and uses one as the basis for theory development. In this manner, mindfulness is seen as either a top-down or bottom-up emotion regulation strategy, where it is conceptualized as either a mental trait present in all people (top-down) or a phenomenological process that is typical of a bottom-up mechanism (Chiesa et al., 2013). The current research looks to incorporate both aspects of mindfulness in a broader, more holistic definition that may be more relevant in a retail or service setting. Specifically, that a person's predisposition to mindfulness (trait) is activated when the situation or immediate environment requires cognitive processing (state) beyond that which occurs during automatic, habitual or routine behavior.

Mindlessness occurs when the scenario, environment or context involves automatic, habitual or routine information processing or decision-making. In such situations, the nature of the routine task means people don't need to devote cognitive resources to any mindful activity. As such, their behavior occurs independent of any predisposition to mindfulness. However, when individuals encounter a complex, dynamic environment where routine decision-making is replaced by deeper cognitive processing, boundary conditions are met whereby a person's predisposition for mindfulness determines whether they use mindful activities in order to process the external environmental cues they perceive. In such a situation, it is their trait-based mindfulness that acts as the mechanism for processing environmental stimuli in order to construct different psychological outcomes. In a retail setting, a consumer is likely to notice other customers and if the OCP factors are congruent with the brand personality of the retail environment, or congruent with the individual's self-identity concept, this will have a positive influence on the attention, awareness and, ultimately, mindfulness of the consumer.

In effect, we anticipate that an individual's perception of other customers (OCP) will activate their predisposition for mindfulness. In turn, mindfulness will cause the individual to receive and respond to new information, develop new attitudes and modify their behaviors accordingly. When this happens in a retail or service setting, the resulting change in attitudes will influence a customer's evaluation of the service brand experience. Recent research in cognitive neuroscience provides clarity on the processes at work. In a review of research in cognitive neuroscience, Lieberman (2007) demonstrates that humans reflect upon themselves and others in ways that are common across the population. In this respect, humans will often attempt to assess the state of others as well as others' psychological traits and mental states, while at the same time reflecting on their own current and past experiences and their own self-concept. As Lieberman (p. 271) points out we "coordinate our activity with those around us, use feedback from others to understand ourselves, make sense of others based on our self-theories, and develop personal attitudes about social groups" in order to develop a coherent social world that conforms to our perception of accepted social norms.

Thus, the view we have of other people, which is essentially our overall OCP, will guide attitudinal development. At the same time, our own internal processing, self-reflection and personal level of mindfulness is likely to influence the overall effect of OCP on the evaluation of service brand experience. In this respect, mindfulness allows individuals to experience the local environment in a receptive and non-judgmental way. As a result, mindfulness has an effect that reduces emotional exhaustion and improves satisfaction in the given context (Hülsheger et al., 2013). At the same time, mindfulness will mediate the effect of OCP on service brand experience, by removing any neuroticism or negative emotions (Fetterman et al., 2010) that may affect the relationship between OCP and service brand experience. Because of this, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4. Mindfulness will mediate the relationship between OCP and service brand experience. Specifically, mindfulness will mediate the effects of (H4a) similarity, (H4b) physical appearance and (H4c) suitable behavior on service brand experience.

In the previous sections of this paper, we propose that brand experience is influenced by the perception of other customers (i.e. similarity, physical appearance and behavior) via mindfulness. In turn, we would expect the brand experience to have a corresponding positive influence on WOM. As such, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H5. The service brand experience will have a positive influence on WOM.

Research Method
We measured OCP using a thirteen-item scale adopted from Brocato et al (2012), tapping into three dimensions: similarity (five items), physical appearance (four items), and suitable behavior (four items). Mindfulness was measured using a seven-item scale adopted from Barber and Deale (2014). We used the brand experience scale developed by Brakus et al (2009) with 12 items tapping into sensory, affective, behavioral, and intellectual dimensions. We measured WOM using a five-item scale developed by Harrison-Walker (2001) and adapted to suit the service setting. All items involve a 7-point Likert-type scale with anchors "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree".

Respondents were shoppers at a luxury department store in a metropolitan city. Data was collected via a convenience sampling process through mall-intercept technique. A total usable sample of 184 responses was obtained with gender randomly split 59.2% female and 40.8% male. Ages were randomly distributed with 66% of respondents in the 18-30 group, 28% aged 31-50 and 6% aged 50+. The measures of the study exhibited strong psychometric properties. Factor loadings of the focal constructs ranged from 0.53 to 0.84. All composite reliabilities ranged from 0.77 to 0.90. The AVE values (from 0.66 to 0.77) were considerably larger than the correlations among these factors (from 0.23 to 0.65). HTMT ratios for all reflective constructs in the model (from 0.30 to 0.76), were below the conservative threshold of 0.8. We examined common method variance using the social awareness of emotion construct as a marker variable. Our findings show that common method bias is minimal.

We controlled the potential for endogeneity in our model by using a two-stage least squares (2SLS) approach with three instrumental variables (age, gender, and income). Results showed that endogeneity was not a concern (Durbin-Wu-Hasman chi-squared test: χ^2=0.68, p-value= 0.88; Wu-Hausman F-test: F[3,174]) = 0.22, p-value= 0.88).

Findings
We tested the proposed hypotheses using PLS-SEM. We then confirmed the mediation using Preacher and Hayes' (2008) procedure. We further substantiate the findings by performing fsQCA (Ragin 2008). We followed the procedures outlined in Hair et al (2014) to test the proposed hypotheses. Analysis provided empirical support for hypotheses 1-3 in that similarity (Model 1, β=0.19, t=2.40), physical appearance (Model 1, β=0.13, t=1.84), and suitable behavior (Model 1, β=0.45, t=7.02) are positively related to brand experience. We found the positive effect of similarity on brand experience in Model 1 became insignificant in Model 2 (β=0.09, t=1.22). The variance accounted for (VAF) was 0.52, in support of hypothesis 4a. Similarly, we found that the positive effect of physical appearance on brand experience in Model 1 became insignificant in Model 2 (β = 0.03, t = 0.41). The VAF of 79% showed the total effect of physical appearance on brand experience was indirect, in support of hypothesis

4b. We also found that the positive effect of suitable behavior on brand experience in Model 1 became weaker in Model 2 (β=0.45 in Model 1 versus β=0.32 in Model 2). The VAF was 0.29. Thus, in support of hypothesis 4c, mindfulness partially mediates the effect of suitable behavior on brand experience. Finally, in hypothesis 5, it was predicted that brand experience is positively related to word of mouth (Model 1, β = 0.64, t=12.82). We confirmed the mediation effects by using the bootstrapping bias-corrected confidence interval procedure. This procedure uses an OLS path analysis to estimate the coefficients in the model. Analyses revealed that similarity (β=0.21, 95% confidence internal [CI]=0.11, 0.33), physical appearance (β=0.26, 95% confidence internal [CI]=0.15, 0.39), and suitable behavior (β= 0.22, 95% confidence internal [CI] = 0.12, 0.35) had significant indirect effects through mindfulness on brand experience.

We applied fsQCA to provide further support for the findings from PLS-SEM. We adopted the calibration approach recommended by Ragin (2008) with three qualitative anchors: 0.95, 0.5, and 0.05. We set the frequency threshold at 3 to ensure that the configurations selected captured at least 80% of cases. We set the consistency threshold at 0.90 which is above the minimum consistency threshold of 0.80 (Ragin 2008). Third, we used the Quine-McClusky algorithm to logically reduce the truth table rows to simplified configurations. The fsQCA results show three configurations of causal conditions (i.e. SIM*SUI*BE; SUI*MIN*BE; SIM*PHY*MIN*BE) that explain the presence of word-of-mouth with an overall consistency level of 0.88 and an overall solution coverage of 0.53. The solution exhibited acceptable consistency (>0.80) and the three identified configurations account for 53% of the membership in the presence word-of-mouth. Importantly, the results showed that none of the causal conditions (i.e. similarity, physical appearance, suitable behavior, and brand experience) are sufficient conditions for the occurrence of word-of-mouth, but their combinations are (SIM*SUI*BE + SUI*MIN*BE + SIM*PHY*MIN*BE → WOM). Thus, the fsQCA results complemented the PLS-SEM findings.

To examine the robustness of the proposed model, we examined two competing models. First, we examined the mediating roles of similarity, physical appearance, and suitable behavior on the relationship between mindfulness and brand experience). We found that the mediating model was not empirically supported. Second, we examined the moderating role of mindfulness on the relationships among similarity, physical appearance, suitable behavior, and brand experience. The results didn't support these relationships. Thus, our proposed model appeared more adequate than the two competing models.

Discussion and Implications
Our study makes two main contributions to the extant literature. First, our findings are in line with the theory provided by Libai et al. (2010) where observational learning theory was used to explain how we learn from watching others. No doubt, consumers will observe others in a retail or service setting and use that information to learn processes, service functionality and accepted norms. However, the current study has extended this theory, as it appears to be the first evidence that observation of the OCP dimensions is used to guide an individual's understanding and evaluation of a service brand.

Second, our findings indicate not only does OCP influence an individual's state of mindfulness, the resulting mindfulness mediates the relationship between OCP and SBE. This would appear to be the first indication that mindfulness mediates the OCP-SBE relationship. This may be due to the fact mindfulness has a calming influence on neuroticism and negative emotions, as per Fetterman et al. (2010). A calming influence fits with the concept of 'affective ventriloquism' proposed by Spence and Gallace (2011), whereby the affective response to

stimuli in one sensory modality or conceptual dimension will pull or bias perception in other modalities or dimensions. In this respect, it is entirely plausible when people observe other customers, their affective response to such customers will bias their response to, and evaluation of, the service brand experience. While these findings are exciting and provide further understanding of the forces at play in service environments, they also present questions for future research. For example, independent of the OCP dimensions, can mindfulness be manipulated within the boundaries of the service setting? If it can, then what are the determinants of mindfulness that can be altered? In this respect, it may be that other environmental factors such as ambient lighting, sound and spatial layout might influence the mindfulness state. Should this be the case, then how do these factors interact with the OCP human element? Furthermore, are the effects of OCP on SBE and mindfulness maintained in situations where increased sensory demands are placed on consumers, or where cognitive load is magnified? In conclusion, our study provides a promising foundation for understanding the managerial implications of other customer perceptions and shopper mindfulness in enhancing service brand experience and positive word of mouth.

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Exploring Different Forms of Service Exchange within a Collaborative Exchange Network

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Abstract
Although collaborative consumption has recently become the focus of interest in both practice and research, research examining this phenomenon is still nascent. In particular, limited research explores collaborative consumption in the service domain. This study takes a step to rectifying that by examining a full range of exchanges that are fostered in one service network, a time bank. Time banks are intriguing because they create a local exchange market for services where its customers are also service suppliers. Members bring an hour of their service to market at the time bank. They generate value by offering a range of services, such as gardening, carpentry, babysitting, and community organizing. We report on a four year ethnographic study of a time bank. We integrate insights from social exchange theory to build an understanding of how the TB facilitated a range of dyadic and group service exchanges to meet both individual and community needs and we briefly discuss a framework to illustrate these forms of exchange.

Keywords: Collaborative consumption, time bank, social exchange theory, productive exchange

Better together: Co-creating value in an online support group

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Abstract

Investigating the impact of the technological transition of transformative services on consumers' well-being outcomes is critical from a Transformative Services Research perspective. The purpose of this research is to explore the value co-creation experiences of obese consumers in an online social support group. A netnographic study of an online social support group for a stigmatised group of consumers revealed online support groups provide consumers with more than just information on weight management. These online support groups give consumers the opportunity to co-create valuable experiences. Of the three consumption values co-created in the online social support, emotional value was consumer dominant, and social value and functional value were found to be both consumer and service dominant. Implications for theory and practice are discussed along with limitations and directions for future research.

Keywords: Transformative Services Research, co-created value, Netnography, online support groups

The Influence of Customer Participation on Psychological Ownership towards Customized Services

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Abstract

Services such as vacation trips have to be customized prior to the actual service delivery. In the customization, customers oftentimes actively participate. Despite a vital discussion on the effects of customer participation on evaluation and preference of services, research on its effects at the specification stage is scarce. However, since participation in the specification is before the actual purchase is made, customers´ evaluation of this process has important implications for service providers. We build on recent research on psychological ownership and show that that increased customer participation in the specification stage increases customers´ psychological ownership towards the service. We find this effect evolving through "the three routes" of subjective ownership feelings with positive consequences for subsequent purchase intentions.

Keywords: Customer Participation, Service Process, Psychological Ownership

Building Client Psychological Comfort through Communication Style In Financial Advisory Services

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Abstract

Professional services are typically highly customised, complex and high in credence properties with accompanying uncertainty and anxiety where most clients have limited ability to evaluate service quality with confidence. However clients can and do evaluate their personal interactions with a professional service provider. This research therefore examines the role that professional service providers' communication style plays in generating client psychological comfort and subsequent relationship commitment. Selfadministered questionnaires were distributed to clients of a financial advisory firm in Australia. The results show that a professional service provider's affiliative communication style has a positive impact on client psychological comfort, which in turns drives relationship commitment. Additionally, it also suggests an alternative model which exhibits a direct influence of affiliative style on relationship commitment. Hence, to promote client psychological comfort and relationship commitment, managers should encourage training and the use of an appropriate communication style among service providers.

Keywords: psychological comfort, communication style, professional service, relationship commitment

Boosting Loyalty through Customer Participation in Service Attributes:

A Study in the Retail Banking Sector

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Abstract
This study incorporates bank choice behaviour and customer participation into a theoretical framework in explaining customer loyalty. Specifically, the purpose of this study is twofold: (a) to examine the extent to which attributes of bank choice behavior (i.e., search, experience and credence) influence customer loyalty; and (b) to explore the role of customer participation in mediating the bank choice behaviour-customer loyalty relationship. Data was collected in a Vietnamese retail banking sector through a survey with 466 customers using personal loan services. The findings indicate that bank choice behavior and customer participation play a vital role in predicting loyalty of customer. The results also support that customer participation is the biggest impact to customer loyalty, followed by credence attributes and experience attributes. Managers thus need to ensure the presence of all service attributes in service offers and process. Particularly, customers participation must be encouraged in the services in order to promote loyalty.

Introduction

Customer loyalty is a key performance outcome in the retail banking services (Beerli, Martín, & Quintana, 2004). Explicating the extent to which customer participation influences customer loyalty has emerged as a topic of interest in marketing literature (Auh et al., 2007; Ngo & O'Cass, 2013). Research has shown that attracting customers to service production and process substantially lead to customer loyalty, considering that the customers hold responsibility for service outcomes (Eisingerich & Bell, 2006). Nevertheless, banking services comprise three service elements or bank choice behaviour attributes; search, experience, and credence attributes (Darby & Karni, 1973; Mitra, Reiss, & Capella, 1999), which might vary in their degree of influence on participation among customers and subsequently affecting customer loyalty. This research therefore develops a model to explore the role of bank choice behaviour in affecting customer loyalty and to examine the potential mediating effect of customer participation on the association between bank choice behaviour and customer loyalty in the retail banking sector within the transitional economy of Vietnam.

Conceptual Background

Bank Choice Behaviour

The underlying model of the bank choice behaviour was first stemmed from the economics of information theory (Darby & Karni, 1973; Nelson, 1970) and was subsequently developed within the services literature (Babakus, Eroglu, & Yavas, 2004; Bloom & Pailin, 1995; Lynch & Schuler, 1990). Advocates of this theory suggested three attributes that represent indicators of consumer's choice decisions: search, experience, and credence (Darby & Karni, 1973; Mitra, Reiss, & Capella, 1999). Search attributes are qualities that customer can accurately evaluate ahead of making a decision (Srinivasan & Till, 2002), such as interest rates, fees and charges, or availability of ATMS offered by a bank (Babakus, Eroglu, & Yavas, 2004). Experience attributes denote qualities that customer can precisely evaluated only after purchasing and using the services. In a retail banking context, experience attributes involve promptness and efficiency of the services offered, support, attentiveness, and expertise of employees. Credence attributes are qualities that customer may or may not assess even after the purchase of the service as they do not possess the needed technical knowledge or experience to confidently evaluate the service. Examples in the retail banking context are the trustworthiness of the bank, the bank's adoption of recent technologies, as well as honesty and expertise of the employee (Babakus, Eroglu, & Yavas, 2004; Darby & Karni, 1973).

Customer Loyalty

Loyalty has been regarded as one of the most essential constructs in marketing as it concerns with customer's repurchase behaviour (Caruana, 2002), tendency to hold favourable attitudes to products/services, and acquisition and/or use of the products/service (Bowen & Chen, 2001). A conceptual definition of loyalty therefore embraces both behavioural aspect (i.e., repeating purchase only from a particular provider) and psychological state (emotional and or cognitive) (i.e., holding positive attitudes towards the provider and voluntarily maintain relationships based on the benefits received) (Bendapudi & Berry, 1997; Gremler & Brown, 1996). This study considers loyalty to a particular provider as a multidimensional concept. Extensive literature has indicated that client loyalty with a service comes about as a result of satisfaction that allows customer loyalty to occur after customers experience the service. For search attributes of retail banking services, Ford, Smith, and Swasy (1990), however, suggest that customers can inspect and draw inferences about the attribute (e.g., interest rate, overdraft privileges) before purchase. Search attributes can be assessed often by customers before

making a purchase of services with the least scepticism toward advertising claims and relatively unambiguous (Ford, Smith, & Swasy, 1990; Hoch & Ha, 1986). As a result, there are possibilities that customers depend on their cognitive basis in drawing conclusions from search attributes between retail banking services (Wu, 2011) which leads to customer loyalty to a specific bank. Therefore, this study hypothesises that:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive effect of search attributes on customer loyalty.

In opposition to aspects of search attributes, the other two attributes are not easy for customers to confirm and confidently evaluate the services before using them (Darby & Karni, 1973; Nelson, 1974). When assessing experience service attributes, customers need to rely on their own experience of using the services to draw conclusions about the quality of the services (Kirmani & Wright, 1989; Nelson, 1974; Shapiro, 1983). A behaviour of a service personnel, for instance, is thus crucial for customers to comprehend the services (Ennew & Binks, 1999). As customers are satisfied with the service encounter and employees by gaining social benefits and customised personal services (Gwinner, Gremler, & Bitner, 1998), customer loyalty is likely to take place. For credence service attributes, customers cannot assertively evaluate the attributes even after using the services (Darby & Karni, 1973). Therefore, in the absence of other indication, customers tend to evaluate credence attributes based on their basis perception of the services (Kirmani & Wright, 1989; Shapiro, 1983), social bonds (e.g., interpersonal interactions), and structural bond (e.g., receiving customised services and technical professional knowledge) received from a service encounter (Hsieh, Chiu, & Chiang, 2005). Accordingly, credence service attributes can be determined and lead to customer loyalty. In a retail banking context, this study hypothesises that:

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive effect of experience attributes on customer loyalty.
Hypothesis 3: There is a positive effect of credence attributes on customer loyalty.

Customer Participation
Customer participation involves the degree of customers being an active participant in the production and supply of services (Dabholkar, 1990; Lengnick-Hall, Claycomb, & Inks, 2000). Services marketing literatures have emphasised on increasing customer active engagement in services production and distribution (Auh et al., 2007) to create long-term relationships with customers (Bendapudi & Leone, 2003) and enhance service quality (Dabholka, 1990). In relation to bank choice behaviour, customer participation can play an important role in stimulating customer loyalty. A participation the customers put in examining search attributes (e.g., put efforts in explaining their needs in a loan service), experience attributes (e.g., share opinions and suggestions with a bank staff to gain best investment outcome), and credence attributes (e.g., be involved in deciding how an investment should be planned) (Chan, Yim, & Lam, 2010) allow communication flow to take place and be integral to an establishment of trust and strong relationships (Sharma & Patterson, 1999). Accordingly, we expect that customer participation will facilitate bank choice behaviour and customer loyalty. That is, search, experience, and credence attributes lead to increased customer participation which, in turn, results in higher customer loyalty:

Hypothesis 4: Customer participation mediates the relationship between search attributes and customer loyalty.
Hypothesis 5: Customer participation mediates the relationship between experience attributes and customer loyalty.
Hypothesis 6: Customer participation mediates the relationship between credence attributes and customer loyalty.

Methodology

Banking services in Ho Chi Minh City, one of the biggest economic centres of Viet Nam, are selected to be the research setting. Data was collected through online and direct survey with respondents who are using personal loan services from 39 large commercial banks. The measurement are adopted from literature using five point Likert scales (1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree); bank choice behaviour (Babakus, Eroglu, & Yavas, 2004; Devlin, 2002) measured the customer's perception, opinion, and behaviour of the retail banking services on search, experience, and credence attributes; customer participation (Auh et al., 2007; Chan, Yim, & Lam, 2010; Ngo & O'cass, 2013); and customer loyalty (Auh et al., 2007). The questionnaire was developed in English and translated into Vietnamese using a forward-translation (Brislin, 1980) and from Vietnamese back to English by means of back-translation method (Hambleton, 1993). Over one month, of 581 responses received from online and direct survey using a quota sampling method. 466 responses are usable, yielding a 80.2 percent response rate. Most respondents were female (51.9%), aged between 25-29 years (22.1%), hold a Bachelor's degree (69.5%), and earned 5 to lower 10 million VND per month.

Analysis & Findings

Measurement Model Testing

After running an Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analyses on the measurement model, composite reliability (CR) of all constructs ranges from .89 to .92, depicting high level of internal consistency reliability (Hair et al., 2010) (Table 1). Items in each construct obtain high average variance extracted value (AVE ≥ 0.5) with no cross loading, suggesting satisfactory convergent validity and discriminant validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The reliability of all variables is satisfactory with the Cronbach alphas ranging from .85 to .90. Test for model fit yields acceptable results after modifications; $\chi2$ (390, N = 465) = 676.222, p<.000, CMIN/DF = 1.734 (CFI = .96, GFI/AGFI = .91/.89; RMSEA = .04, PCLOSE <1.000).

Table 1 Descriptive statistics

	Mean	S.D.	AVE	CR	1	2	3	4	5
1. Search Attributes	4.19	0.67	0.520	0.896	(0.87)				
2. Experience Attributes	3.66	0.72	0.628	0.922	0.49	(0.90)			
3. Credence Attributes	3.93	0.76	0.626	0.909	0.48	0.67	(0.88)		
4. Customer Participation	3.47	0.75	0.651	0.903	0.53	0.59	0.59	(0.87)	
5. Customer Loyalty	3.74	0.79	0.685	0.897	0.48	0.59	0.60	0.65	(0.85)

Note: Values in parentheses on the diagonal are internal consistency estimates. Off-diagonal numbers are correlations between constructs. All correlation significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

Hypotheses Testing

We performed structural equation modelling (SEM) to test the hypotheses using SmartPLS. Table 2 illustrates that all attributes produce significant positive effects on customer loyalty ($R2 = 44.8\%$). Credence attributes have the strongest positive impact on customer loyalty ($\beta = 0.31$, $t = 2.777$), followed by experience attributes ($\beta = 0.29$, $t = 2.355$), and search attributes ($\beta = 0.18$, $t = 1.934$). Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 are supported.

Table 2 Result of hypotheses testing

| Hypothesis	Path	Path weight	t-statistics	S.E.	R^2	Decision
H1	SA → CL	0.18	1.9339	0.0935		Supported at p<0.1
H2	EA → CL	0.29	2.3546	0.1247	.448	Supported at p<0.05
H3	CA → CL	0.31	2.7769	0.1125		Supported at p<0.01

To test the mediating effect, we added customer participation in the model. The results show that all paths in the model yield significant positive effects through customer participation (Table 3). All direct effects of bank choice behaviour decrease in strengths towards customer loyalty when the mediation of customer participation is present. The researchers calculated the variance account for (VAF) which confirms a full mediation of customer participation for all bank choice behaviour on customer loyalty (Hair et al., 2014). Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 are thus supported at 95% confident level. There is an increase in R2 of customer loyalty from 44.8% to 51.7%. The results suggest that customer participation fully mediates the association between bank choice behaviour and customer loyalty as shown in Figure 1.

Table 3 Result of hypotheses testing (continue)

Hypothesis	Path	Path weight	t-statistics	S.E.	R^2	Decision
H3	SA → CP	0.26	3.2235	0.0801		Supported at p<0.05
	SA → CL	0.09	0.8950	0.0976		
H4	EA → CP	0.27	2.4384	0.1106	.467	Supported at p<0.05
	EA → CL	0.19	1.4218	0.1374		
H5	CA → CP	0.29	2.8955	0.0990		Supported at p<0.05
	CA → CL	0.21	1.6912	0.1225		
	CP → CL	0.36	3.1134	0.1168	.517	

Notes: T-statistics must exceed minimum acceptable level of 1.96

Figure 1 Conceptual Model
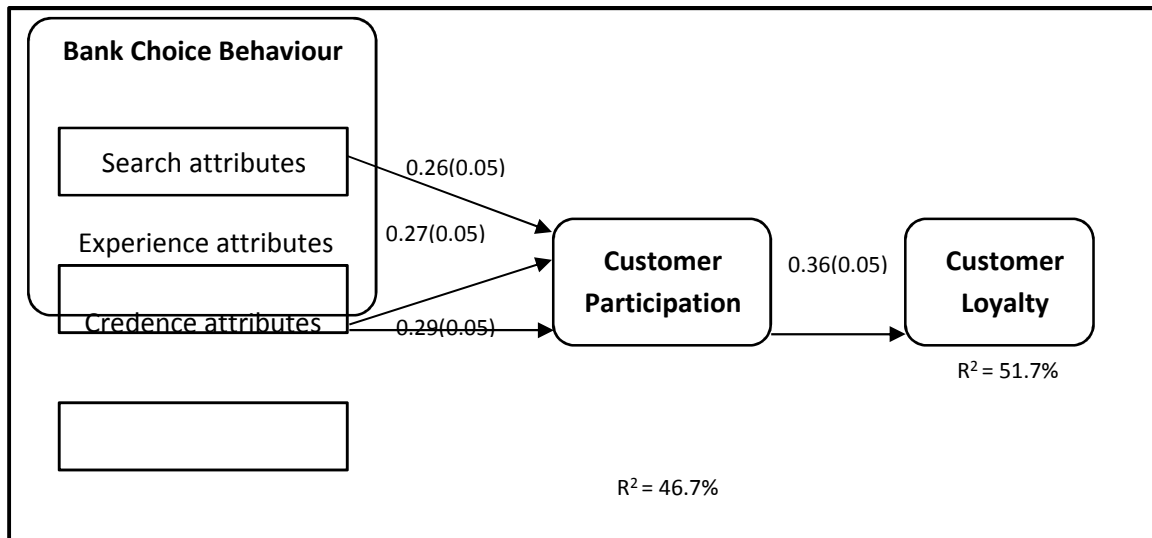
Discussion

This research reveals that bank choice behaviour plays a vital role in explaining customer loyalty in a retail banking services context. Search attributes, experience attributes, and credence attributes all yield significant positive impacts on customer loyalty. In accordance with Ford, Smith, and Swasy (1990), even before purchasing or using, customers can inspect observable attributes and draw conclusions about the services in which affecting their degrees of loyalty. For experienced customers, they can determine the quality of the service and thus their loyalty based on the service encounter as well as service employees, as suggested by Ennew & Binks (1999) and Gwinner, Gremler, and Bitner (1998). Similarly, credence attributes of the services, which are mostly difficult for customers to evaluate even after consuming the services, also directly influence and produce the strongest impact on customer loyalty. As indicated by Hsieh, Chiu, and Chiang (2005), customers' service perception, social bonds, and structural bond gained from encountering a service can be assessed and substituted for service quality which stimulates customer loyalty. Managers in retail banking should therefore put an emphasis on developing effective service attributes in order to attain customer loyalty. Information of the services, through published media or employees, must be easy to access, well-communicated, and competitive. Experience that customers will obtain from the bank, including all service process and personnel, should be carefully designed to convey timeliness, attentiveness, friendliness. To encourage customer loyalty through credence service attributes, managers must ensure their bank representatives are equipped with up-to-date product knowledge as well as knowledge on banking and financial industries. Employees must display expertise and trustworthiness to signal the quality of the services.

Moreover, this research also shows the importance of customer participation in being the largest part in stimulating customer loyalty, followed by credence and experience service attributes. Customers who observe each service attributes and are as well actively engaged in the service process substantially increase degrees of loyalty. In line with Eisingerich and Bell (2006) and Sharma and Patterson (1999), participation of customers generates communication between customers and employees in processing the services which leads to trust, long-term

relationship, and hence loyalty. Therefore, bank managers should concentrate on boosting participation of customers in line with the provision of effective service attributes so as to reach greater customer loyalty. Service facilities must encourage regular and effective communication between customers and bank employees, bringing customers to be actively involved in the service from credence, experience, and search attributes. However, the findings of this research are discussed in the light of certain limitations which deserve attentions from future study. Further investigation should be put on examining the effects of the attractiveness of alternatives (of other service provider) and heterogeneity of customers (in type of services received, personality, and background) which might play a part in moderating the association between bank choice behaviour and customer participation and/or between bank choice behaviour and customer loyalty. Finally, as banks are more becoming digitized, future research needs to consider the role of digital technology in creating and retaining bank customers utilizing the multi-touch point strategy.

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Customer involvement and loyalty in new product co-creation communities: the case of Domino's

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Abstract

The impact of customer involvement in NSD on customer loyalty is still unknown, because most studies examine loyalty perceptions of only active participants in cocreation, while the few studies involving co-creation observers provide conflicting results. Research is also limited, as it measures user participation only at the design level, while customers are empowered to participate at all NSD stages. This study contributes to the literature by developing a model capturing the various levels of customer involvement in NSD co-creation and then, measuring its impacts on two type of user loyalty: brand loyalty and loyalty on innovation community. Data were collected from users of the Domino's Mogul pizza toolkit empowering them to participate in all NSD stages and also to become pizza entrepreneurs by designing and selling their pizzas. Findings comparing the brand loyalty and the innovation community loyalty perceptions of users with various levels of co-creation involvement provide useful insights.

Keywords: co-creation, New Service Development, loyalty, brand, online communities

Customer creativity in a health care context: exploring the role of environment

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Abstract

While current research emphasizes that customers can be a rich source of creativity and provides an alternative to inside-out service development, it remains silent on the role of environment. Drawing on theory and insights from innovation and creativity literature, this article explore the influence of different environments on customer creativity in a health care context. Results suggest that depending on environment, customer creativity differed significantly in the dimensions of originality, user value, and clinical value. In addition, results suggest that studying creativity outside the boundaries of the firm can provide unique knowledge and contribute to advancing knowledge on customer cocreation in innovation. The findings indicate that if health care providers view the experience through the customers' eyes and take part in their creativity in different environments; they can respond more effectively to customer needs and thereby enhance the service experience

Keywords: Consumer creativity, service innovation, value co-creation, health care

Will they stay or switch? Consumer intentions to purchase and switch in the mobile telecommunication industry

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Abstract

This study aimed to discover the elements of consumer intentions to purchase and switch in the Mobile Service Provider. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 21 participants, identifying various determinants of overall service quality and values that play an important role in choosing a service provider. Based on the interview results, it was inferred that certain factors, including network coverage, price value, and voice and non-voice services, affect consumers' motivations to buy from or switch mobile service providers. Conversely, in-store service, information quality and website information support, and corporate social responsibility do not play a major role in consumers' decision. The findings enable the providers to make strategic decisions on service investment.

Customer Experience of Mobile App Service Failures: Investigating (Halo) Effects of App Inaccessibility

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Abstract

Customer experience (CE) has become a key topic in both academic research and management practice. In today's technology-driven world, however, a whole range of new media touchpoints are evolving and creating new consumer experiences (Schmitt 2010). In particular, the emergence of mobile application software (app) has explosively grown in conjunction with the worldwide use of smartphones in recent years. Understanding interactions with, and consumption of, mobile apps is of critical importance. Despite a growing number of studies CE research still remains fragmented. Responding to the call "to think differently about the customer experience" (McCollKennedy et al. 2015, p. 433) this study explores the phenomenon of mobile app service failure experiences (MASFE) and the effects of app inaccessibility on perceived lack of benefits, app usage satisfaction/intentions and firm-related outcomes (word of mouth, loyalty intensions). We further investigate moderating effects of users' habits and inertia. Discussion and implications are provided.

Keywords: Customer experience, mobile app, service failure, app usage, word of mouth

The social aspect of customer online experience – Dimensions, drivers and outcomes

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Abstract

Despite the importance of social networking sites and social cues available in a firm's online presence, existing research on customer online experience (COE) considers cognitive and affective experiences as two key dimensions of COE; and thus ignores the relevance of any social aspect in the conceptual domain of COE. This study, based on a qualitative research approach, investigates whether COE involves a social dimension i.e. social experience. An inductive thematic analysis of the in-depth interview transcripts was employed to identify the dimensions, drivers and outcomes of social experience. The findings of the study extend the conceptual domain of COE by exploring the drivers and dimensions of social experience, and highlight corresponding managerial implications for e-retailers.

Keywords: Online retailing, online purchasing behaviour, online shopping behaviour, e-retailing

Consumer acceptance of self-service technologies: An ability-willingness model

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Abstract

Prior research on consumer acceptance of self-service technologies (SSTs) has primarily focused on consumers' willingness and neglected their ability to use technologies. This is evident in many SST studies investigating adoption intentions. However, drawing upon the ability-willingness framework, we suggest that ability is also a relevant, important dimension of SST acceptance in that using a SST often requires skills and some level of confidence. Therefore, this study goes beyond the exclusive focus on willingness and develops a SST acceptance model that captures both consumers' ability and willingness. A cross-sectional field survey approach was used to recruit real consumers who were using supermarket self-checkout. Results from structural equation modelling based on 281 consumers highlight the critical role of ability and show that consumers' willingness and ability to use SSTs are determined by different factors.

Keywords: Self-service technology, technology acceptance, consumer willingness, consumer ability

An epidemiological framework for problem gambling and electronic gaming machines:
an Australian perspective.

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Abstract

Although traditionally Australian culture has included having "a drink, a smoke and a bet", the 1999 Australian Productivity Commission into Gambling sent 'shock waves' throughout society with the realisation that, far from being a 'benign' social pursuit, the social costs to those who were addicted to Electronic Gaming Machines (EGMs) were substantial. As a result, a raft of regulatory restrictions ensued. This paper focuses on issues surrounding problem gambling with regards to EGMs. We begin with a discussion of EGMs, then move to discussing various constructs relating to the Epidemiological Framework for Problem Gambling (Productivity Commission 1999). Organisations in the gambling industry need to become socially responsible in terms of corporate governance practices. The Socially Responsible Index is a tool that can be employed by organisations in order to ascertain their position on an annual basis. Other recommendations are then made towards socially responsible marketing strategies in the gambling industry.

Keywords: Gambling, problem gambling, social marketing, electronic gaming machines (EGM), conceptual paper

How Health Claims in Food Choices Are Evaluated: What Consumers Nominate as Essential versus Intended Behaviour

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Abstract
We examine the potential disconnect between the value of health claims (e.g. nutritional information and front of pack labelling) to consumers when asked to nominate their importance in decision making without reference to an environment where competing considerations occur such as brand, the benefits of other product features and price. We draw parallels to research in ethical consumption, but outline unique distinctions of a so-called attitude-behaviour-gap in the present context of food choices. We propose a framework that suggests evaluations of importance of health claims are closely aligned to perceptions relating to an ideal-self rather than preferences in circumstances where competing trade-offs are recognised. We provide results relating to a preliminary empirical study in the context of household consumption of bread, which provides support for the hypothesised effects. The results have implications for substantive and applied researchers considering questions about how health claims are evaluated by consumers.

Keywords: food choices; healthiness; perception; attitude-behaviour gap; consumer bias

Measuring the food environment: is less necessarily more?

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Abstract
Social marketing maintains a strong focus on consumers, but recently has begun to take a more ecological view of behaviour, examining multiple levels of influence—personal, social and environmental. The food environment appears to be a major influence on eating behaviour, and has attracted attention of researchers who have measured it in a number of ways. This paper examines a short-form version of the Nutrition Environment Measures Survey (NEMS)—an observational food outlet audit tool. Results obtained using the short-form are compared with the results from the original long-form collected in 25 food outlets in Australia to consider the utility of the shortform measure. The results indicate that several critical dimensions of the food environment known to influence eating behaviour are not assessed. The short form also produced inflated scores compared to the original version for this data set. Future iterations must balance instrument brevity with the capacity to produce robust insight.

Keywords: Social marketing, obesity, eating, food environment, observation

Measuring barriers to healthy eating

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Abstract
This study reports the first step towards a multi-faceted measure that in time will be used to understand barriers to healthy eating. The aim of the measure is to extend understanding of healthy eating beyond a singular behaviour, towards a more concrete measurement form. A three step process was used to develop an initial bank of survey items that together take a finer grained view of healthy eating. First, 44 items were sourced from the literature and adapted to relate to specific eating behaviours included in the Australian Dietary Guidelines. Second, an expert panel (n=15) assessed the items resulting in a final pool of 18 items for testing. Finally, a convenience sample of 423 respondents completed an online survey. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were used to assess the validity of the items. A four factor, 13 item solution was obtained. Management implications, limitations and future research directions are outlined.

Keywords: Social marketing, obesity, healthy eating, survey development

What drives behaviour change? An exploratory study of the determinants of change in binge drinking

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Abstract

Changing behaviour is the ultimate goal for social marketers. To understand how behaviour change can be achieved, we need to move beyond theories that focus on explaining and predicting behaviour, which is not the same as behaviour change. This study reports an empirical examination using an existing data source to examine change. The aim was to identify what are the drivers of behaviour change in the context of adolescent alcohol drinking. Data was collected from a social marketing program aimed at changing drinking attitudes. Change scores for behaviour and available psychographic measures were created, and results of multiple linear regression show that a change in injunctive norms is a determinant of alcohol drinking behaviour change. Future research is recommended to extend our understanding to additional variables that lead to behaviour change and replication in different social marketing program contexts is recommended before definitive conclusions are drawn.

Keywords: social marketing, behaviour change, behaviour, change, binge drinking

Are Social Warnings the New Frontier in Standardised Tobacco Packaging?

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Abstract

Standardised packaging of tobacco products creates an opportunity to refresh on-pack warnings and ensure these have high salience among all smoker sub-groups. Using a choice modelling experiment, we estimate the effects novel warning messages and themes identified in formative work had on young adults, the group where smoking prevalence peaks. A sample of 474 smokers and 476 susceptible non-smokers evaluated warnings featuring health, social, financial and cosmetic themes. Among smokers, all test images were more aversive than the control, particularly warnings featuring the effect of smoking on babies, a dying smoker and animal testing. Non-smokers found health and cosmetic messages more aversive than the other themes tested. Our findings highlight the heterogeneity of the smoker population, even within a defined demographic. Standardised packaging offers policy makers a crucial opportunity to introduce more varied warnings that could stimulate cessation and deter initiation more effectively than health warnings alone.

Key words: Standardised tobacco packaging; temporal construal; choice modelling; on-pack warnings

Drivers and Benefits of Philanthropy in the US, Spanish and NZ Wine Industries

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Abstract

This cross-national study explores the drivers of philanthropy in the American, Spanish and New Zealand wine industries, the philanthropic activities being carried out by wine businesses, and the benefits (if any) that these businesses are gaining from undertaking these philanthropic activities. The authors interviewed winery owners or managers to obtain qualitative data, which has been subsequently categorised to identify common themes and differences across wineries or nations. It was found that all of the interviewed wineries are undertaking philanthropic activities, with the most common activity being the donation of wine. Philanthropy across these wineries is predominantly being driven by altruistic rather than strategic motives, and the main benefit to arise from philanthropic activities is personal satisfaction, rather than any improvements in business performance.

Keywords: philanthropy; wine industry; cross-cultural; motives; benefits

Evaluating the Emotional Impact of Dissuasive Images and Messages on Smokers and Non-Smokers

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Abstract

Typically, on-pack tobacco health warnings present health risks designed to arouse fear. However, many young adults rationalise or reject these health-oriented warnings, which they view as distal and irrelevant. We developed warnings featuring more proximal and social effects, and tested the negative affect elicited using a novel instrument: the modified Geneva Emotion Wheel. We drew a sample from an online panel, surveyed 474 smokers and 476 susceptible non-smokers, and estimated their responses to diverse warnings. Warnings that presented proximal outcomes and drew on themes of social justice and choice deprivation resonated with young adults and could promote cessation and deter initiation among this core demographic. We are currently testing associations between affect arousal and choice patterns to examine the modified Geneva Emotion Wheel's potential as a new method of rapidly testing potential warning impact.

Key words: Standardised tobacco packaging; affect arousal; on-pack warnings

Virtual social capital: The way forward to creating peer-to-peer value

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Abstract

As technology has progressed over time, so too have the ways in which people now communicate, interact and socialise. As such, the rapid integration of the online world within modern society has undoubtedly shifted the manner in which networks are now established, connected and mobilised. In response to this issue, virtual social capital and peer-to-peer value co-creation in computer-mediated environments presents an area of research that may provide positive social outcomes in relation to harm-related consumption. This research aims to explore how peer-to-peer social interactions contained within computer-mediated peer-support networks forms virtual social capital. The types of value and resources co-created, within the virtual network by way of the social interactions that take place are revealed. This research contributes by offering a theoretical framework of virtual social capital that illustrates the significant role that cognitive resources play in the efficient co-creation of value and the development of virtual social capital.

Keywords: Online community, social capital, co-creation, peer-to-peer value, and social interaction

Introduction

With the proliferation of the internet, computer-mediated interaction, communication and activity via the internet have become inherently social, providing an excellent medium for the support of far-flung, intermittent, networked communities which bridge together people, organisations, and knowledge (Wellman, 2001). Thus, computer-mediated communication has become a key instrument in modern life, playing an integral role for many individuals and placing new emphasis on the social science based disciplines to further develop and extend existing theoretical concepts and ideas (Wellman, 2001). One such theoretical concept that garners further attention is that of social capital and its transcendence into the realm of the online or virtual world. As with traditional offline social capital, virtual social capital also encapsulates properties of social life (Putnam, 1993), based on trust, norms of reciprocity and identification (Chiu & Hsu, 2008). Likewise, virtual social capital is collective in nature, resource driven and derived from networks of relationships possessed by an individual (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), in much the same way as offline social capital. Research within the health context has also inferred that informational and emotional support are vital and a sought-after source of value for peer support network members (Coulson, 2005; Mo & Coulson, 2008; Laone & D'Allessandro, 2013). However, the value, resources and social goods attributed to virtual social capital are potentially different from that of the offline world due to the group-specific nature and types of peer-to-peer activity that take place within the virtual world. Therefore, the need for further empirical research that takes into account the capital differences between online versus offline social capital and the manner in which value is created are warranted.

In comparison, value co-creation is also greatly dependent on sociability in the form of peer-to-peer interaction, whereby value in various forms is jointly created via interactive activities from which peers integrate their resources with different actors, engaging, combining and sharing (Uhrich, 2014). As a consequence, virtual social capital and value co-creation are seemingly intertwined. Namely, they are both dependent on social interactions that take place within networks, which in the modern age occurs not only within physical space but virtual space, which has rapidly become a principal method to which people now communicate, interact and socialise (Wellman, 2001). Although some attempt has been made to establish how virtual social capital is formed in virtual communities (Loane & D'Allessandro, 2013), fundamental questions remain unanswered. For example, what constitutes social capital within an online context? How is social capital formed and by which mechanisms does social capital facilitate peer-to-peer value co-creation? To fill this gap, this research seeks to; 1) explore how peer-to-peer social interactions contained within a computer-mediated peer-support network, forms virtual social capital; 2) uncover the different types of value and resources that are co-created and distributed within the virtual network by way of the social interactions that take place. These objectives are aimed at illuminating the dynamics in an online health community where rich information and knowledge is shared and exchanged by the interconnected members.

Value co-creation and social capital

Social capital at its root captures the idea that actors within a network structure accrue, acquire and claim access to resources possessed by the network through their deliberate connectedness, sociability, and interaction (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Paxton, 1999). Resources attributed to social capital can be found in various forms such as useful information, new knowledge, personal relationships or the capacity to organise groups to facilitate change (Paxton, 1999).

Research surrounding social capital in the virtual context has substantiated its relevance to the real world. For example, the research conducted by Magsamen-Conrad, Billotte-Verhoff, & Greene (2014), which examined the normally negative effect of communication technology addiction in individuals prone to self-concealment, found that many individuals are not comfortable with face-to-face communication. Rather, the presence of computer-mediated channels of communication provides these particular individuals with the ability to communicate and foster beneficial inter-personal relationships, which improved their mental well-being. Several other studies within the context of mental well-being have also demonstrated the existence and importance of virtual social capital, noting its positive effect on mood (Phung, Gupta, Nguyen, & Venkatesh, 2013), self-esteem and life satisfaction (Johnston, Tanner, Lalla, & Kawalski, 2013). These studies indicate the extent to which virtual based social interactions affect individuals positively in a tangible and measurable manner. Therefore, the evidence suggests the internet acts as a connective platform for the creation of new types of social capital extended from the offline world and independent in its own right.

Value co-creation is inextricably linked to social capital theory. Co-creation in the context of social capital refers to the joint creation of value between peers through interaction (Mathwick, Wiertz, & Ruyter, 2008; Loane & D'Allessandro, 2013). It enables peers to co-construct experiences and experience environments through dialogue (Phung, Gupta, Nguyen, & Venkatesh, 2013) that result in collective resource availability and positive potential outcomes for network members. Sociability and peer-to-peer interaction produce the necessary conditions needed to support social capital through trusting relationships which build upon acts of goodwill and facilitate the value co-creation process (Loane & D'Allessandro, 2013). Moreover, the presence of social capital within the community facilitates further acts of goodwill in the form of generalised exchanges of information and support (Adler & Kwon, 2002), resulting in the creation of value for community members such as better informed service encounters, treatment guidance, enhanced quality of life and improved self-management (Loane & D'Allessandro, 2013). Subsequently, the creation and maintenance of social capital hinge on the activity that takes place between peers and is effectively co-created. Therefore, without peer-to-peer activity trusting relationships and goodwill cannot be developed to a level where social capital can be established and value can flow freely through the network. Based on the aforementioned research, the relationship between social capital and value co-creation is undeniable, grounded in logic and made possible by our need to be social and communicative beings. However, as technology has progressed over time, so too have the ways in which people now communicate, interact and socialise. As such, the rapid integration of the online world within modern society has undoubtedly shifted the manner in which networks are now established, connected and mobilised. It is therefore, apparent that a heightened level of scrutiny should be placed on understanding the effect of the online world in relation to social capital and value co-creation in varied contexts, as the types of value, functions and outcomes attributed to these two concepts will potentially extend the overall understanding of these theories.

Method
Netnography was chosen as the most relevant and suitable data collection technique in relation to the objectives and purpose of this research (Kozinets, 2002). A conventional approach to content analysis was utilised within the following research study. A mix of both inductive and deductive approaches was applied to the textual analysis of the data in order to facilitate the research objectives. The data was collected from, the Daily-Strength online support group, The Daily-Strength or DS community is a comprehensive online support network for people to connect with one another. The website hosts a number of different support networks in relation

to various interests, these include ADHD, depression, cancer and addiction to name a few (DailyStrength, 2016). The sampling method employed in this research is purposive sampling. The duration of observation and subsequent data collection process took place over seven weeks from April 27th, 2015 until June 8th, 2015. In this time, the researcher visited the DS community on a daily basis. No contact was made with any member, as engagement with the community was purely observational. The data chosen for collection was based on the level of activity contained within each discussion.

Discussion and Findings

Trusting, supportive and non-judgemental relationships are a key driving force behind the formation of social capital within the Daily-Strength or DS community. Overall, the capacity of the DS community to form social capital is heavily influenced by trusting social relations and activity. Trusting relations result in collective cooperation, which liberates informational and supportive resources. These resources express the collective experiences held by the network, which become historical assets that enhance the knowing capability of the group and provide new members with a template for the conduct of social affairs within the network. Therefore, the assets, resources, and value made available are a result of social activity in an environment that is non-judgemental and socially supportive. The valuable information exchanged is collectively formed through a consensus approach that is appropriated by members to achieve positive social outcomes such as better informed decision making, enhanced well-being, trusting group-specific friendships and improved coping with emotional stress. Perhaps one of the more understated aspects regarding the formation of virtual social capital is the significant role and relevance that shared representations, interpretations, and systems of meaning play amongst group members (Cicourel, 1973). It was found that the sharing and exchange of personal narratives based on lived experiences, laden with emotion and authenticity, showcases the dramatic nature of the situations faced by members as illustrated by the following small extract from a member's full-length post:

"It's 3:40 in the morning. Crying and sick to my stomach because of guilt over having to call the police to have my drunk alcoholic younger (36) brother removed from my home. I know his actions caused it. Still doesn't seem to stop the tears."

This staging of emotion as depicted above is driven by the urge for impression management (Goffman, 1959), utilising narrative methods to tell a story. The stories crafted are built upon connected events, which seem to reach members on a shared emotional level, effectively constructing an emotional performance (Zurcher, 1982) that uses common and expressive language to influence the nature of the subsequent interaction. Fittingly, narratives of experience contain key elements of well-crafted storytelling. For instance, they exhibit adversity, struggle, hope and other human characteristics that are bundled up into a cohesive script, based on factual events that demonstrate the inherent drama that member's experience from which peers identify, sympathise and relate to. The result of such activity is the elicitation of identification, solidarity and most importantly, reflective learning amongst participating members. Furthermore, shared systems of belief were found to be another significant factor. It appears that spirituality and the belief in a higher power also fortify the resolve of many members in the face of adversity giving guidance, hope, and optimism to those members who subscribe to such beliefs.

The formation of Virtual social capital in the DS community

Figure 1 illustrates the formation of virtual social capital. As peer-to-peer activity is initiated, trusting social relations encourage cooperation through the effective use of language, narratives of experience and shared systems of belief. These cognitive resources enhance the network's ability to communicate, resulting in the efficient integration of individually held assets and resources, combining them in such a way that the sum of these parts results in the formation of higher valued assets which are deposited in the network. As a consequence, virtual social capital is formed. As social activity continues, goodwill and social capital flow back to the network, encouraging further interaction. This enables virtual social capital to be continually developed via acts of generalised reciprocity, resulting in the accumulation of value, assets, and resources that can be easily distributed amongst members of the network and utilised to affect positive social outcomes such as improved well-being, better-informed decision making, and enhanced coping strategies.

Figure 1: Formation of virtual social capital in the DS community.
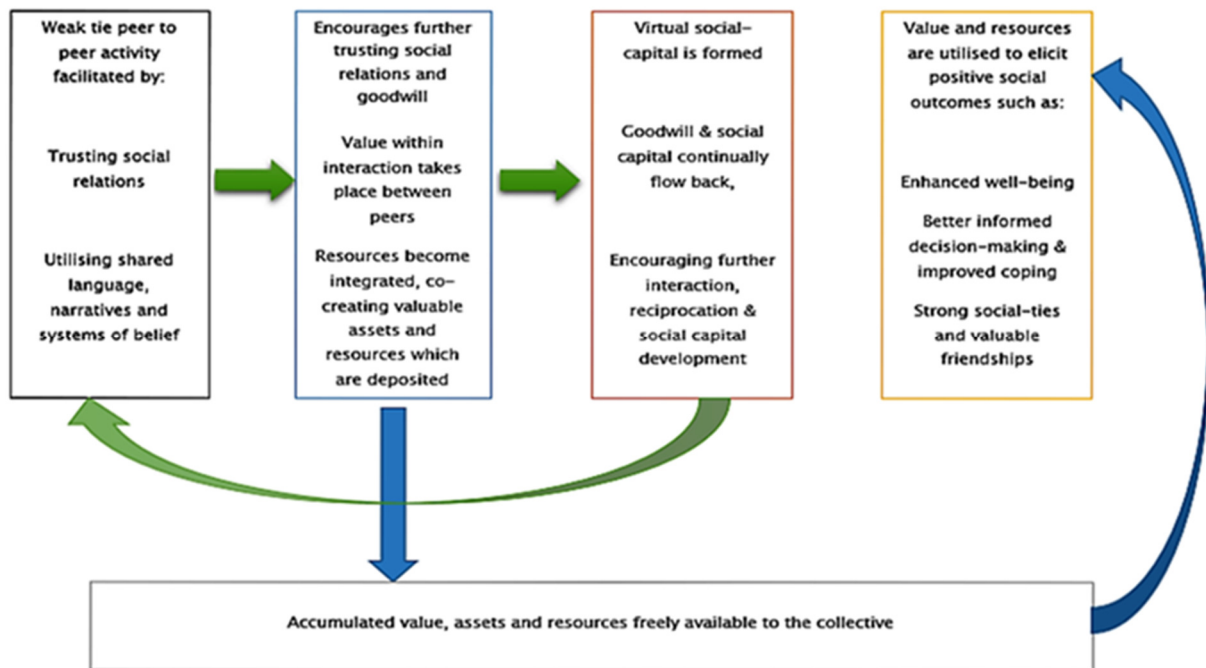
The value and resources co-created and distributed within the virtual network

The descriptive use of language, narrative storytelling and the staging of emotion were found to be key cognitive resources that assisted the formation of virtual social capital. Narratives of experience were observed to foster enhanced solidarity, trust, and identification amongst network members, eliciting meaningful interaction and supporting social bonding. Accordingly, narratives of experience are held to be increasingly necessary for individuals to piece the discrete fragments of experience together through an individual coherent story that says something about the people within the experience (Richards & Wilson, 2006). This capacity to make sense of things is an important source of value as it allows individuals to

better understand the social world by making connections between their experiences and the systems of abstract symbolism we use to describe our world (Ankor, 2012). Accompanying narratives of experience is the staging of emotion through textual expression. The utilisation of narrative expression as the principal means to demonstrate felt emotion provides a virtual staging area for the enactment of human behaviours (Zurcher, 1982), giving context to lived experiences from the viewpoint of those actors within the experience and identifying the nature of the situation. As such, participants that utilise such descriptive communicative techniques within peer-to-peer social activity are seemingly better equipped to connect with one another. The enhanced ability of participating members to connect with one another through narratives of experience is valuable as it affords members the opportunity to present themselves and their actions in such a way as to fashion desired impressions before an audience (Goffman, 1959). Subsequently, narratives of experience that showcase emotion are an efficient way of shaping the emotional experience, affecting the responses of participating members who are invested in the well-being of each other and the collective respectively. The value attainable within this particular process is multi-faceted. Firstly, it enables responding members to better support the needs of those members seeking support. If members can better identify the needs of others they can provide support in the best way they see fit. Thus, the assets and resources they hold are efficiently integrated to better serve the individual and collective needs of the network. Furthermore, the use of narratives which utilise staged emotion seemingly provides psychological relief through the open expression of strong emotions; causing catharsis. This type of cathartic value is available to all members who participate actively in the exchange of informational support and resources, giving participants the open opportunity to vent pent-up emotions through textual free expression, which helps purge hostile feelings and other emotions from the psyche (Bushman, Phillips, & Baumeister, 2001). Lastly, the altruistic value associated with helping others and the value garnered from shared religious ideology and belief systems were also found to be a subsidiary source of value associated with the formation of virtual social capital.

Conclusions

Cognitive resources enhance the network's ability to connect and communicate on a meaningful group-specific level, intensifying trust, social bonds, group identification and group solidarity. More importantly, cognitive resources were observed to affect the nature of peer-to-peer interactions and the subsequent value that is co-created. Resulting in the efficient integration of individually held assets and resources, combining them in such a way that the sum of all parts results in the formation of higher valued assets, which are deposited in the network. The theoretical framework of virtual social capital developed from the findings contributes knowledge to the existing research by illustrating the significant role that cognitive resources play in the efficient co-creation of value and the development of virtual social capital. In relation to specific findings detailed in this research, a key finding of note is the extension of knowledge in relation to shared narratives and systems of meaning. This idea that narratives of experience enable enhanced cognitive and symbolic meaning to be encoded and decoded, producing different sets of value is a powerful insight.

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The Social Impact of Active Cause Marketing

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Abstract

This paper reports the early stages of research investigating the social impact of 'active' cause marketing campaigns and the participation it engenders. Conceptual understanding and measurement of social impact in this context is important for a variety of reasons: 1) to understand the value created, i.e. how these campaigns affect individuals, and in a broader sense, society, 2) to enable companies to compare social returns of different marketing activities, 3) to contribute to government social policy. This study extends the work of Lee, Cornwell et al. (2012) which proposed five dimensions to measure the social impact of sport. We discuss the value that participation in organised sports activities provides and consider the extent to which these insights apply to an active cause marketing initiative. There is similarity in that both require consumers' active participation. The framework is extended via insights from Social Marketing, Sponsorship, Health, Non-profit and Voluntary Sector literature.

Keywords: Active Cause Marketing, Social Impact, Well-Being

Introduction

Cause-marketing campaigns are initiatives driven by a company, supportive of a meaningful cause, and are perceived by customers to be making a positive contribution to society. Increasingly, companies are striving to achieve positive social and environmental outcomes, for example Proctor & Gamble (2016) states: 'We aim to improve the health and well-being of all the communities we touch'. In this research we are particularly interested in investigating the subset of cause marketing campaigns that are active; those which encourage consumers to make a personal sacrifice or significant physical contribution that will directly benefit an external community in need, and/or an environmental issue (adapted from Kotler, Burton et al. (2013, p. 282). Examples include: Clean up Australia Day, RockCorps (Optus), Love is in Your Blood (Lynx/Red Cross Blood Donations), Walk4BrainCancer, Vinnies CEO Sleepout, etc. All of these include consumers providing their time to show support, make a statement and/or do volunteer work for the campaign's organisers. Most of the marketing literature to date has focused on understanding how such campaigns benefit the organisation or the cause, for example, the effect they have on brand equity (Varadarajan and Menon 1988, Wymer and Samu 2009). Academic research on social impact of such campaigns on participant volunteers is surprisingly lacking.

Our definition of social impact for an individual is adapted from Roche (1999) and Emerson, Wachowicz et al. (2000). Social impact is significant or lasting improvements in an individual's life, brought about by a given action or series of actions as a consequence of a change in resources, inputs, processes or policies. Whilst the study of social impact and social impact assessment has gained traction in a range of fields (Vanclay, Esteves et al. 2015), this definition is most relevant to this context. Our proposed framework (Figure 1), which extends the work of Lee, Cornwell et al. (2012), focusses on the positive changes that active participation in marketing campaigns, i.e. undertaking activity, can bring. The underpinnings of the framework are discussed and justified and we conclude the paper by presenting the future research that will be guided by it.

Proposed Conceptual Model

Figure 1 presents the extended conceptual model that will guide the research. This shows a process whereby active participation leads to various kinds of social well-being (depicted by arrow 1) and subsequently to an enhanced quality of life (2). The Model also highlights the "virtuous cycle" feedback processes at work, whereby social impact and enhanced quality of life lead to increased propensity to be involved in active cause marketing (3, 5 and 4 respectively). However it is beyond the scope of this paper to consider all the depicted relationships in depth. Therefore this section focuses on justifying the proposed relationships between active cause-marketing and the five dimensions of social impact (Figure 1). One of the original dimensions, 'health literacy' has been replaced with 'pro-social attitudes'. Whilst the dimension of 'pro-social attitudes' is not explicit in the original work of Lee, Cornwell et al. (2012), it is implied in their discussion of the positive outcomes of participation in organised sports activities. Furthermore, literature exploring the formation of pro-social attitudes confirms that such attitudes may be stimulated through 'social practice' - structured opportunity and social resources (Janoski, Musick et al. 1998). Thus, it has greater relevance to the context of active cause marketing – a participant may develop greater empathy for social causes, and a greater concern for the welfare of others.
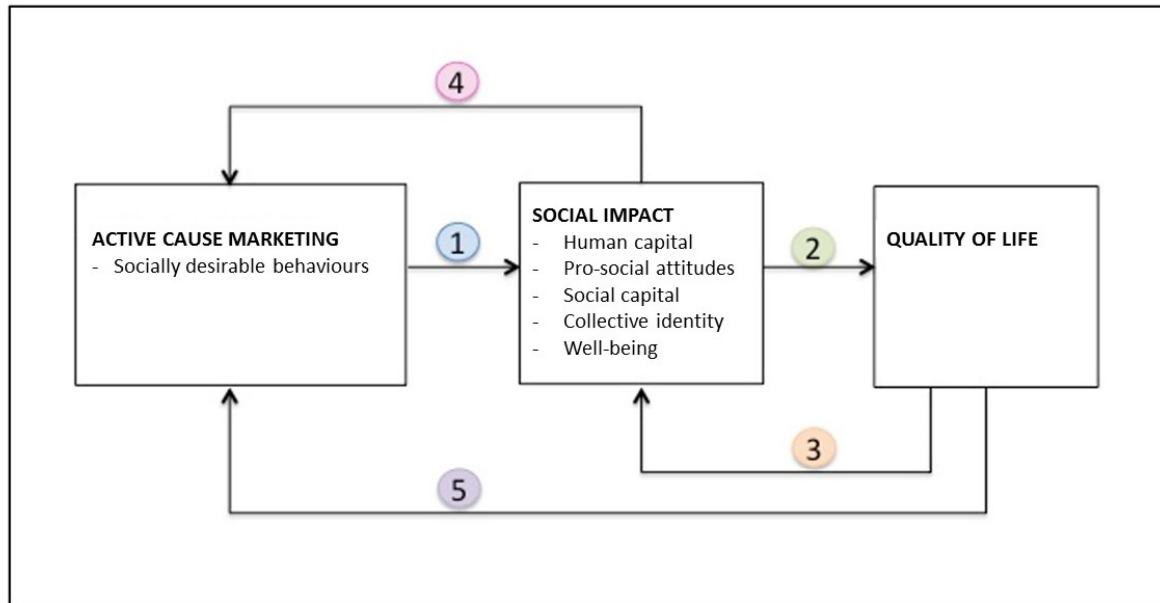
Figure 1: Conceptual linkage of Active Cause Marketing to Social Impact and Quality of Life

Active cause marketing and human capital/pro-social attitudes

Human capital is defined as 'the attributes of individuals in terms of knowledge, skills, competencies, and attitudes conducive to personal development and societal well-being' (Lee, Cornwell et al. 2012, p. 26). Whilst human capital may be developed through formal education and training, it can also be gained through experience. Individuals are taking greater responsibility for developing their own human capital in this way (Gratton and Ghoshal 2003). Individuals who spend more time and effort in developing skills, improving their education, and gaining experience are more likely to secure better incomes, and contribute to the overall well-being of society (Sen 1997). Indeed, increasing individual human capital can lead to greater empowerment, freedom of choice, and more opportunities for economic and social engagement (Lanzi 2007) and the development of pro-social attitudes, i.e. a more altruistic orientation towards others (Eisenberg, Guthrie et al 1999) and social capital (discussed below).

Participation in an active cause marketing initiative can help individuals to gain knowledge, inter-group skills, and an appreciation of the value of collaboration. In a related study by Eley and Kirk (2002), youth participating in a community sports training program demonstrated positive outcomes of leadership skills and prosocial motivations. Volunteers interviewed at the National Kidney Foundation Surf Festival reported high levels of motivation due in part to the opportunity to learn and collaborate, take initiative, and perform multiple roles at the event (Parris and Peachey 2012). Likewise it is anticipated that participants in a cause-related initiative may improve individual human capital by increasing their knowledge of the cause and potential impact, and enhancing physical and social competencies and positive attitudes. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1a): Active participation in a cause marketing initiative is positively associated with development of individuals' human capital.

Hypothesis 1b): Active participation in a cause marketing initiative is positively associated with increased pro-social attitudes.

Active cause marketing and social capital
This concept of social capital has been defined in a variety of ways but is generally considered in terms of enhanced relationships with others. Typical of this is a definition offered by Lee, Cornwell et al. (2012, p. 26) in which social capital consists of 'social relationships … including trustworthy and diverse networks, social proactivity and participation in community, conduciveness and cooperation…'. From an individual's perspective, social capital allows the person to better interact with different actors of groups to which he or she belongs. These actors can help build networks and relationships which often provide useful support and information. Various forms of social capital (e.g. ties with friends and neighbours), have been found to be positively related to social impact of an individual's (heightened) self-esteem and life satisfaction (Ellison, Steinfield et al. 2007).

Active participation in a cause marketing initiative provides opportunities for the development of social capital as participants may be introduced to new people with the possibility of building ties with those in different ethnic groups, geographical areas, age groups, professions or social classes. Even if the participant undertakes a cause marketing activity with his or her friends, it is a new situation which can help in further strengthening existing social bond. The dynamic is similar to that described in the literature of volunteering. Undertaking a physical task (e.g. cleaning up a beach) with others, makes the individual part of a team trying to achieve a joint goal. In this context, participants communicate and share knowledge and information. In volunteering research, it has been found that participants start regarding other group members as 'family'(Fraser, Clayton et al. 2009). The task becomes more of a 'social activity'. It was also reported that members of such a group become so familiar with each other that they are known to interact beyond the event platform. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1c): Active participation in a cause marketing initiative is positively associated with increased social capital.

Active cause marketing and collective identity
As indicated above, part of the building of social capital involves the meaning and a sense of belonging individuals draw from being an active member of a group. "Collective identity" refers to this sense of belonging to a social group or community (Lee, Cornwell et al. 2012, p. 26). Social Identity Theory (Tajfel and Turner (1979) articulates this as a process, individuals categorise themselves and others as a way of understanding the social environment, they then adopt the identity of the group they feel they belong to, and finally, they compare that group with other groups. The more one identifies with a group, the greater the likelihood of engaging in collective action (Lalonde and Cameron 1994). Strong identification with an entity can also help to boost individuals' self-esteem.

As noted in the literature of volunteering, involvement in a shared activity can encourage the participant to identify with a particular group of people. It may help in establishing a group identity amongst the participants (Fraser, Clayton et al. 2009) which is connected to and facilitates a sense of similarity with co-participants. This sense of similarity arises from the perception of shared values that working together on a meaningful project engenders. Social psychology literature argues that the positive affiliation with valued groups and activities are central needs (Hieder 2013). These associations come from oneself and from others in the group but identity can be further facilitated by one's more extended network. Non-participating family members and friends, media or colleagues may look at participation in a cause marketing event positively and this may further generate feelings of pride and self-esteem in

the individual. Such perceptions of prestige, generated by external elements may further help in developing collective identity. Therefore it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1d): Active participation in a cause marketing initiative is associated with growth of collective identity.

Active cause marketing and well-being
Well-being is a comprehensive concept, and includes outcomes such as good health, strong relationships, alleviation of depression and anxiety and growth in self-esteem and positive affects. Diener and Seligman (2004, p.1) define well-being as: 'peoples' positive evaluations of their lives, includes positive emotion, engagement, satisfaction, and meaning'. Our focus is on the way participation in meaningful activity influences physical and psychological well-being which in turn contributes to social well-being and impact.

Several studies have shown that physical activity has beneficial effects upon conditions such as obesity, cancer, cardiovascular disease and sexual dysfunction, as well as mental conditions such as depression and other forms of mental dysfunction (Fox 1999). Whilst nearly everyone wants to be healthy and feel a positive sense of well-being, many lack the drive, commitment and/or opportunity to participate in regular individual physical activity.

Participation in other group or team based activity appears to provide greater incentive to participate and commit to physical, fitness-based activities. Studies examining participants' motivations to engage in physical activity reveal that both team-based sport and group-based leisure activities tend to be linked to intrinsic motives, such as competition, affiliation, enjoyment and challenge (Kilpatrick, Hebert et al. 2005). Increased motivation results in these activities being more enjoyable in and of themselves, and participants are more likely to continue to participate. This results in improved health and well-being. Additional results focussing on participation in team sports shows it to be positively linked to well-being (Wann 2006).

This suggests that organised group activity can be motivating, engaging and empowering, and is likely to lead to improvements in well-being. Cause-related fitness events share some similarities with group-based sport and leisure activities. Research on charity walks/runs, swim-a-thons and bike-a-thons indicate that not only do participants benefit from the physical activity, but also gain intangible benefits. For example, participants who attended the Susan G. Komen Foundation's Race for the Cure event besides reporting positive feelings of altruism, sense of purpose, community, and fun, also reported positive feelings for fitness (Scott and Solomon 2003). Through active participation, individuals improve their overall well-being. Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1e): Active participation in a cause marketing initiative is positively linked to individuals' psychological well-being.

Hypothesis 1f): Physically-focussed active participation in a cause marketing initiative is positively linked to individuals' physical well-being.

Conclusion and Future Research
This research takes a multi-disciplinary approach to further the understanding of the social impact of active cause marketing on the individual, drawing on literatures of social marketing, sponsorship, health, non-profit and voluntary sector as well as the foundational literatures of

psychology, social psychology and developmental psychology. The discussion of the conceptual framework that has been developed from this indicates that social impact is multi-faceted and that the various facets overlap and interact to a substantial degree. This presents substantial challenges for researchers seeking to increase our understanding of social impact and quality of life, including those who research this in particular contexts such as active cause-related marketing.

Future research will involve further development of conceptual model to recognise and frame the complex processes involved. Using an abductive design (DuBois and Gadde 2002) we will undertake qualitative interviews with participants, companies and non-profit organisations, relating to their experience with active cause marketing. This will be followed by a quantitative online survey with potential and past participants of active cause marketing events to test the aforementioned six hypotheses and the others indicated in the conceptual model. The outcomes of this research may be applied to other areas, for example, the measurement of the social impact of active cultural programs, urban renewal programs, and other volunteer initiatives. We hope that our work will also stimulate others to follow us in researching in this area including: consideration of the motivators for organisations to undertake active cause marketing campaigns, the impact of campaign design on likelihood and depth of participation in different segments and the collective impacts of participation on the wider community both in the medium and long term.

The practical implications of this research are threefold. For companies, the ability to understand and measure the social impact of an active cause marketing campaign enables more reliable and valid comparison of other marketing programs and the building of an effective social marketing profile. It may also enable the company to effectively communicate these benefits of particular programmes to stakeholders, which could be valuable in terms of their corporate social responsibility image. For governments and universities, both of which have recently devoted attention to social impact initiatives, further research in this area would add to the body of knowledge and contribute to social policy. Development of more and better active cause marketing initiatives based on the understanding of their value will provide additional opportunities for individuals to participate and to participate in programmes that have particular meaning of them. Enhanced quality and quantity of active cause marketing initiatives has the potential to further improve participants' human capital, pro-social attitudes, social capital, collective identity, and psychological and physical well-being. This may in turn have a positive effect on their overall quality of life.

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Mother Fits Prevention & Lover Fits Promotion: The Relational Mental Representation and Regulatory Fit

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Abstract

Close relationship partners could induce powerful motivations for consumers due to the undeniable importance of social life to consumers. These motivations could change consumers' perceptions, emotions and behaviors. Even mere psychological presence of relationship partners can elicit such motivation and goals without conscious awareness. According to regulatory focus theory, goals are broadly defined as "representational structures that guide the system in its pursuit of a reference or end state" (Aaker and Lee, 2006). Given that there are various close relationship partners, we hypothesize different relational roles could induce different selfregulatory goals. Specifically, activating mental representation of "mother" will induce avoidance goals, making people more prevention-focused and more easily persuaded by prevention framed information; activating mental representation of "lover" will make approach goals more accessible, making people more promotion-focused and more easily persuaded by promotion-framed information. This hypothesis has been tested by secondary marketing data analysis.

Keywords: mental representation, social relationship, regulatory focus

Not All Narrative Thoughts Are Created Equal: Narrative Closure and Counterfactual Thinking in Responsible Drinking Narratives
<mark>*** Best Paper of Track ***</mark>

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Abstract
The presence or absence of a finale causes stories to differ in narrative closure. Inspired by the artful use of uncertainty in entertainment, health narratives often lack closure, implying rather than openly disclosing the negative consequences stemming from the targeted behavior. This paper demonstrates that narrative closure, and the interaction with the dispositional need for cognitive closure of the receiving audience, leads to different types of narrative thoughts. Low closure generates conjectures aimed at completing the interrupted narrative. High closure generates counterfactuals aimed at replotting the narrative in search for alternative courses of action that could have prevented the negative outcomes. However, only counterfactuals increase self-efficacy and protective intent. In addition, the persuasive effect of narrative closure, qualified by need for cognitive closure, is serially mediated by narrative transportation and counterfactual thinking. These findings contribute to narrative theory and health communications, cautioning against the use of low closure health narratives.

Keywords: Counterfactual thinking, Extended Transportation-Imagery Model, Health messages, Narrative closure, Need for cognitive closure, Narrative transportation, Self-efficacy.

Introduction

Health campaigns are increasingly delivered in narrative rather than informational format to tap the power of narrative persuasion (Shen, Sheer and Li 2015). The persuasive power of narratives — series of connected events revolving around the characters of a story and conveying a non-overt message about a topical issue (Kreuter et al. 2007) — depends on their ability to transport the audience into the narrative world (i.e., narrative transportation), overcoming the barriers of rational thought (see van Laer et al. 2014, for a meta-analysis). While transported, the audience is more likely to internalize the message content without rational scrutiny of the supporting arguments (Green and Brock 2002; Green 2008; Moyer-Guse' and Nabi 2010; van Laer et al. 2014), with persuasive effects enduring over time (Appel and Richter 2007).

While the superiority of narrative over informational formats is proven (Braverman 2008; Shen et al. 2015), the influence of narrative structure on the effectiveness of health narratives is little understood. Narrative structure defines the Aristotelian triad articulating the causal flow of the story into initiation (protasis), peak (epitasis), and release (catastrophe) (Butcher 1907; Cohn 2013). The initiation sets the events in motion, creating a context for action to unfold and introducing the conflict. Following the initiation is the peak, which further develops the events and explodes in the narrative climax, disrupting the equilibrium. Finally, the release or finale discharges narrative tension by disclosing the outcomes and wrapping up the events depicted by the story (Todorov 1968).

The presence or absence of the finale influences the level of perceived narrative closure, namely the "phenomenological feeling of finality that is generated when all the questions saliently posed by the narrative are answered" and the climax is resolved (Carroll, 2007, p. 1). Recent consumer research on the topic distinguishes between high and low levels of narrative closure (Russell and Schau 2014). Narratives characterized by high (vs. low) narrative closure do (vs. do not) answer most of the salient questions raised by the narrative (Russell and Schau 2014). In this paper, we distinguish between low and high narrative closure on the basis of the absence or presence of the finale.

Many health narratives end at their peak without disclosing the final outcome (Keller and Lehmann 2008), implying negative consequences but leaving the audience in a state of suspension. This narrative approach is reminiscent of the artful use of uncertainty used in novels and movies to stimulate curiosity (Madrigal and Bee 2005) and increase the tension of a story (Abuhamdeh, Csikszentmihalyi, and Baland-Jalal 2015). Other narratives present fully developed scenarios in which the actions of the characters unfold in certain negative consequences, providing a clear sense of cause and effect (Dhalstrom 2010). While the two approaches are equally appreciated in practice, we contend that different levels of narrative closure have differential persuasive effects on the basis of the narrative thoughts they generate (Escalas 2004).

Grounded in social marketing communication, this paper investigates the role of narrative closure on the persuasiveness of health narratives, the boundary conditions influencing this effect, and the underlying mechanisms explaining this process. In so doing, this paper answers growing calls for research on narrative persuasion in both consumer research (van Laer et al. 2014) and health communication (Shen et al. 2015). Our findings have relevant implications for both theory and the design of effective health narratives.

Hypotheses development

Our first contention is that narrative closure has a positive effect on persuasion, qualified by the audience's personal dispositions in terms of tolerance toward uncertainty. Uncertainty can be amusing and intriguing in narrative fiction (Madrigal and Bee 2005; Abuhamdeh et al. 2015). At the end of Season 5 of Game of Thrones, the audience was hooked in anticipation for nearly one year wondering if Jon Snow was truly dead. On the contrary, uncertainty becomes distressful when appraised in reference to a potential threat (Hirsh, Mar and Peterson 2012). Psychological entropy theory defines uncertainty as function of the number of potential options available to the individual (Hirsh et al., 2012). The simultaneous existence of multiple potential scenarios in reference to a threatening situation is appraised as an aversive state (Hirsh et al., 2012). Not knowing the finale of a health narrative is expected to trigger a feature-matching process aimed at resolving the appraised uncertainty through the completion of the narrative rather than the internalization of the key takeaways.

Whether or how people make causal explanations in response to a stimulus, however, depends not only on situational factors but also on the perspective and dispositional qualities of the audience (McGill 1989; Mayrhofer and Waldmann 2015). Dispositional theories of causation acknowledge that the dispositional traits of participants involved in a causal process influence the nature of the causal links generated (see Mayrhofer and Waldmann 2015, for a review). Metacognitive theories of consumer judgment corroborate this expectation, as subjectivity and personal traits foundational to individual perspectives "qualify the implications of accessible declarative information" (Schwarz 2004, p. 332). Need for cognitive closure (NFC), in particular, reflects the motivational need for a clear answer as opposed to ambiguity and uncertainty (Kruglanski 1990; Webster and Kruglanski 1994). High NFC reflects a need for order and predictability and a higher willingness to establish a clear link between cause and effect in comparison to low NFC. When confronted with high (vs. low) closure narratives, people high in NFC will react more (vs. less) favorably because their dispositional need for closure is satisfied by a corresponding level of situational closure. On the contrary, low NFC is expected to suppress the positive persuasive effect of narrative closure as it reflects a state of comfort with uncertainty and ambiguity opposed to high NFC. That is, people low in NFC will react similarly to both low and high closure narratives.

H1: The influence of narrative closure on intentions is higher for people high in NFC, but not significantly different for people low in NFC.

Our second contention is that the level of narrative closure dictated by the story's structure leads to the generation of corresponding story-consistent narrative thoughts. Low closure narratives do not disclose the finale, weakening the associative link between behavior and consequences and leading to the generation of narrative thoughts aimed at complementing the causal chain of events. That is, we expect the process of mental imagery at the basis of narrative transportation to focus on plausible outcomes (i.e., effects) resulting from the characters' actions (i.e., cause). We use the term conjectures to define narrative thoughts aimed at completing a narrative by construing one or more potential outcomes. High closure narratives, conversely, strengthen the associative link between behavior and consequences by disclosing the finale, fixing the meaning of the narrative (see Russell and Schau 2014). Since the narrative is complete, people focus on narrative thoughts about alternative courses of action (i.e., causes) that could have prevented the negative consequences (i.e., effect). We label these narrative thoughts counterfactuals and, drawing from counterfactual thinking theory, we define them as thoughts about what may have happened in the past if different decisions were taken (Byrne 2005; Epstude and Roese 2008). Countering factual reality with an imagined one,

counterfactuals create "what if" alternatives to events and actions (Epstude and Roese 2008), imagining alternative "causes" that could have prevented the effect (Frosch and Byrne 2012). The provision of a finale in high closure narratives is thus expected to aid the process of counterfactual thinking as it makes available additional information (i.e., the effect) necessary to re-imagine the causal chain of events.

H2: High (vs. low) narrative closure leads to (a) more (vs. less) counterfactuals and (b) less (vs. more) conjectures.

Our third contention is that the qualified effect of narrative closure is carried over persuasion through a serial moderated mediation with narrative transportation as the first and counterfactual thinking as the second mediating factors. First, people high in NFC are expected to be more transported into narratives with high closure, as they provide a defined causal structure of events to an audience in need for certainty, whereas people low in NFC are expected to appreciate both high closure narratives and the curiosity, anticipation, and mystery provided by low closure narratives. Second, prior research demonstrates that people high in NFC engage in more counterfactual thinking in situations of normative violations or deviation from the status quo (Manetti, Pierro and Kruglanski 2007). We contend the same mechanism will trigger in a scenario in which negative consequences unfold as the result of an irresponsible action (e.g., crashing as a result of drink driving). The serial link between narrative transportation and narrative thoughts rests on the Extended Transportation – Imagery Model (van Laer et al. 2014). In turn, counterfactual thinking supports decision making and influences the formation of intentions (see Byrne 2016). The anomalous replotting of unexpected situations at the basis of counterfactuals is expected to aid the understanding of how different courses of action could have prevented the negative outcomes. Counterfactual thinking thus enables the creation of organized structures of information about the situation analyzed called schemas (Paas, Renkl, and Sweller 2003; Young et al. 2014). Schemas can be retrieved at a later stage to guide decision making in analogous situations (Young et al. 2014). Prior consumer research on narrative transportation supports this contention as "stories often include a key learning point or moral, which story receivers can retrieve to exert control over their behavior consistent with the story's takeaway" (van Laer et al. 2014, p. 811). The above discussion leads to the articulation of the following hypothesis:

H3: The interactive effect of narrative closure and NFC on (a) intentions and (b) self-efficacy is serially mediated by narrative transportation and counterfactual thinking.

Methods[5]
One-hundred-and-sixty-five U.S. residents (Mage = 35.73, SD = 11.53; 48.5% female) with a valid driver's license were recruited from a U.S. online panel. The study was a 2 (Narrative closure: low vs. high) x 2 (Need for cognitive closure: low vs. high) between-subjects design. The stimulus employed was a short story on drink driving designed based on the guidance provided by the literature (Thompson and Kreuter 2014). Narrative closure was manipulated as a categorical factor by either implying or openly disclosing the finale of the story. In the low closure condition, the story ended with the protagonists running a red light and suddenly hearing the screech of brakes. In the high closure condition, the story continued by briefly disclosing that the protagonists impacted a motorcyclist, who died as a consequence of the

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[5] We conducted three studies. Study 1 was a preliminary investigation aimed at understanding the differential effect of narrative closure on narrative thoughts using a thought listing task. Study 2 was the main study. Study 3 ruled out alternative explanations based on the nature of the disclosed consequences. Due to space constraints, only the results of Study 2 are reported.

impact. Need for cognitive closure (NFC) was measured as a continuous moderator and simple effects tests were performed using a floodlight analysis (Spiller et al. 2013).

Participants were first screened for alcohol consumption ("Did you drink any alcoholic beverage in the last six months?") and possession of a valid driving license. Next, participants completed a battery of items measuring need for cognitive closure on a five-item, seven-point Likert scale ($\alpha = .84$) adapted from Roets and Van Hiel (2011). Then, participants were randomly assigned to one of the two experimental conditions. After exposure to the experimental stimuli participants filled a battery of items recording narrative transportation ($\alpha = .72$), counterfactuals ($\alpha = .91$), conjectures ($r = .86$), and self-efficacy ($\alpha = .94$) and behavioral intentions. All scales were established instruments validated by prior literature, apart from intentions. Intentions were measured by asking to rate the likelihood to use a newly developed iOs/Android App capable of estimating blood alcohol concentration (BAC) and notifying when the BAC is over the legal limit for driving in their country. Finally, participants completed manipulation checks, provided socio-demographic information (age, gender, smartphone ownership), and completed a confound check on processing fluency.

Results

Diagnostic test for homogeneity of variances and manipulation checks returned satisfactory results but are not reported for space constraints. For the same, a confound check ruling out processing fluency as a mediating mechanism alternative to narrative transportation was conducted, returning satisfactory results.

H1: Intentions. A linear regression with narrative closure, NFC, and the two-way interaction as predictors indicated a significant interactive effect ($\beta = .291$, $F (3, 161) = 8.41$, $p < .004$). The interaction was decomposed through a floodlight analysis, locating the Johnson-Neyman points at JNLow = 1.44 and JNHigh = 4.44, such that narrative closure had a positive effect on responsible drinking intentions for any model where need for cognitive closure was smaller than 1.44 (BJN = -1.08, SE = .54, p = .05) or greater than 4.44 (BJN = .38, SE = .19, p = .05). The only other significant effect was that of narrative closure ($\beta = .158$, $F (3, 161) = 4.62$, $p < .033$). These results provide support for H1.

H2: Counterfactuals and conjectures. A similar analysis was performed on counterfactuals, finding a significant interaction between narrative closure and NFC ($\beta = .293$, $F (3, 161) = 8.33$, $p < .004$). The only other significant effect was the main effect of narrative closure ($\beta = .199$, $F (3, 161) = 7.17$, $p < .008$), such that high closure narrative led to the generation of more counterfactuals in comparison to low closure narratives. These results provide full support for H2a. For conjectures, the same linear regression revealed only a significant main effect of narrative closure ($\beta = -.36$, $F (3, 156) = 25.64$, $p < .001$). The interactive effect ($p < .310$) and the main effect of NFC ($p < .342$) were both non-significant. These results provide partial support for H2b.

H3: Moderated serial mediations. Hayes's (2013) PROCESS macro with 10,000 bootstrapped samples and a covariate serial mediation model (Model 6) was used to test the hypothesis that the qualified effect of narrative closure on self-efficacy (H3a) and intentions (H3b) is mediated by narrative transportation and counterfactual thinking (Figure 1). For self-efficacy, the total indirect interactive effect was significant but negligible (B = .13, SE = .06, 95% CI = [.0345, .2808]). These results support H3a but must be interpreted with caution due to the small effect size and the small amount of explained variance in self-efficacy ($R^2 = .15$). In addition, a simple mediation analysis was conducted on the full sample to shed light on the role on

narrative transportation in increasing self-efficacy through counterfactuals. Results confirmed the significance of the indirect effect of narrative transportation over self-efficacy through counterfactuals (B = .11, SE = .05, 95% CI = [.0360, .2193]), with narrative transportation having no significant direct effect (B = .063, SE = .07, p < .357). For intentions, the total indirect effect of the interaction term on intentions was large and significant (B = .41, SE = .12, 95% CI = [.1772, .6653]). The full model explains a large amount of variance in intentions (R^2 = .48).

Figure 1: Summary of findings
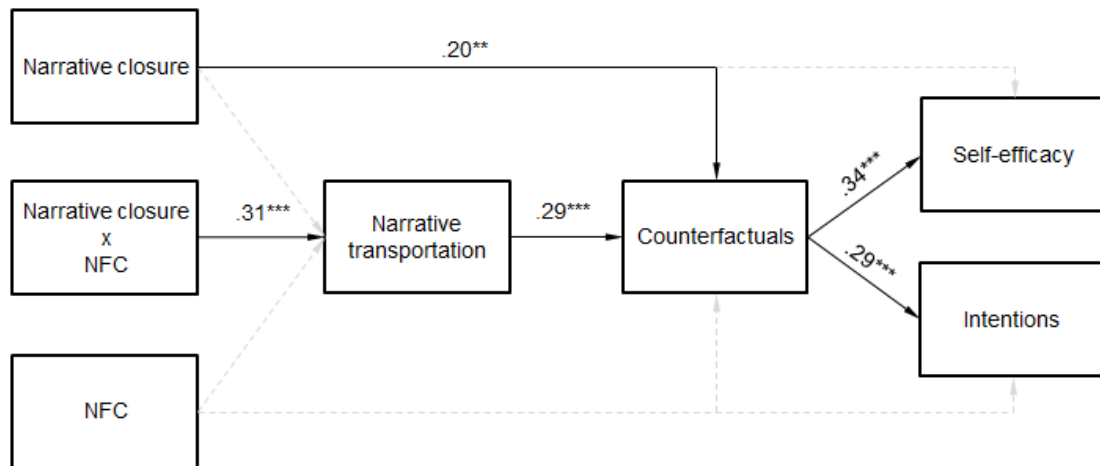
*** p-value < 0.01; ** p-value < 0.05; * p-value < .10. Dashed paths in grey represent non-significant relationships. Intermediate paths omitted for clarity.

Discussion

This research set out to understand how narrative closure influences the persuasiveness of health narratives. Our research results in three key contributions.

Our first contribution rests on the articulation of narrative closure as a key determinant of persuasion in health narratives. We extend the concept of narrative closure introduced in consumer research by Russell and Schau (2014) from the study of evolving narrative brands to the study of the structure of health narratives. In accordance with the authors' findings, we demonstrate that closure fixes narrative meaning and endows the story with causality, facilitating cognitive processes aimed at replotting the meaning of the emerging narrative. We also take into account the interpretative processes of the receiving audience by building on the work of van Laer and colleagues (2014) on the role of dispositional traits as interpretative filters. Specifically, we examine the role of need for cognitive closure in interacting with narrative closure to produce different reactions in the receiving audience. Importantly, the isolation of the qualified effect of narrative closure sheds new light on the lack of persuasive effects in cessation health narratives (Shen et al. 2015).

Our second contribution is to extend current knowledge on the nature and the persuasiveness of narrative thoughts. Recent meta-analytic work (van Laer et al. 2014) has highlighted a lack of investigation around narrative thoughts, namely representations of the structure of the story which contain "precise narrative cues, such as characters or objects (van Laer et al. 2014, p. 804)". While prior research has mainly focused on the effect of narrative transportation in reducing critical thoughts (Green and Brock 2002), we show that stories can lead to a prevalence of different narrative thoughts. Specifically, we provide evidence for a nexus

between narrative closure and the dominant typology of narrative thoughts generated: low closure narratives generate mainly conjectures whereas high closure narratives generate mainly counterfactuals. We show that counterfactuals are positively associated with persuasion. These findings add to narrative theory and to the Extended Transportation – Imagery Model by providing a more nuanced classification of narrative thoughts, showing that not all narrative thoughts are created equal and their typology depends on the story's structure (see Escalas 2004).

Our third contribution is to isolate the underlying mechanisms through which the qualified effect of narrative closure influences persuasion. The interactive effect between narrative closure and need for cognitive closure is serially mediated by narrative transportation and the ensuing counterfactual thoughts. By illuminating these processes, we also shed light on the relationship between narrative transportation and self-efficacy proposed by van Laer and colleagues (2014). The Extended Transportation – Imagery Model developed by van Laer, de Ruyter, Visconti and Wetzles (2014) presents self-efficacy as a direct consequence of narrative transportation. The authors' proposed framework clearly depicts a positive direct effect from narrative transportation to self-efficacy and an indirect effect carried over by affective reactions, critical thoughts, narrative thoughts, and beliefs. We demonstrate that the anomalous replotting of the story at the basis of counterfactuals leads to the formation of stronger cognitive schemas at the basis of self-efficacy.

This research also offers guidance on the design of effective health narratives to public policy and practice. Our findings caution against the use of low closure narratives aimed at hooking the audience and increasing curiosity and attention. Differently from entertainment, the use of low closure proves to be detrimental in a health educational context. Health narratives should have closure, disclosing the negative consequences stemming from the targeted behavior. By fixing the narrative meaning, high closure health narrative strengthen the associative link between behavior and consequences and enable a more nuanced process of narrative re-elaboration, which results in greater confidence with the story's key takeaways. Our findings demonstrating that the process of counterfactual thinking is positively influenced by narrative transportation point towards the design of highly transporting stories. The inclusion of identifiable characters and attention to verisimilitude are but two of the key antecedents of narrative transportation that can be manipulated to enhance narrative transportation (van Laer et al. 2014), and thus counterfactual thinking.

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Co-designing a social marketing intervention aiming to promote active school travel

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Abstract

To reverse the decline in Active School Travel (AST) many interventions have been designed by public health and active travel experts. However, there is evidence that target audiences of AST interventions, i.e. parents and children, are not being involved in the process of designing the interventions. The current study attempts to address this gap and extends the use of co-design in social marketing into the AST intervention area. This paper reports a formative research study employing a co-design process to explore parents' preferences in regard to an AST intervention design. The results indicate that parents prioritize children's safety in intervention design and prefer the AST intervention to be intuitive and deliver an empowering and inclusive message of being active. The study identifies a name and logo design for an intervention that will be delivered in early 2017. Explorations of a series of activities from previous AST interventions designed with minimal input from target audiences shows low approval of most of the activities previously used.

Keywords: social marketing, active school travel, co-design

Facebook advertising: A channel for delivering social messages

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Abstract

Social media is evolving into a viable platform for delivering social messages to predefined target audiences. An area not studied so far is the advertising channels of social media websites. This paper reports a study that investigated the engagement generated for a warning message on the dangers of drinking during pregnancy delivered via Facebook's advertising channel. The number of comments (819), likes (6125), shares (300) and views (203,754), suggests the engagement was substantial. Text mining the comments identified four topics (Pregnancy Risk, Culture & Drinking, Rebuttal, Contraception) but they were overtly negative. All the same, the two-way communication that Facebook facilitates provides the opportunity to respond to the comments with evidence. The Dynamic Transactional Model of communication explains the interactive engagement between the sender and receivers of a message. Facebook's advertisement channel was efficient in initiating a dialogue with the target audience.

Keywords: Social media, Facebook, Social message, Alcohol during pregnancy

Intrinsic Motivators and Security Compliance: An internal social marketing approach

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Abstract

This paper explores how behavioural infrastructure influences employees' security compliance. The concept of servicescape and internal social marketing was employed to establish a 5-dimension infrastructure for information security. Organisations have found that it is essential to motivate system users to comply with information security measures and policies on a regular basis. The outcome of the research will facilitate the establishment of organisational environments, security programs and motivate people to increase self-regulated IT security compliance from employees.

Keywords: Intrinsic motivation, self-regulation, security compliance, internal social marketing, servicescape

Introduction

The risks to an organization's sensitive information are constantly changing and the loss of sensitive information continues to be a very real concern. Juniper Research predicts data breaches will cost $2.1 trillion globally by 2019, four times the estimated cost of security breaches in 2015 (Juniper Research, 2015). Organisations often implement a wide range of security measures to ensure the security of their information and computer resources. Information security (InfoSec) policies are guidelines and instructions that an employee should be aware and comply with to reduce information risks. A majority of organisational security problems are indirectly caused by employees who violate or neglect the InfoSec policies of their organizations, thus, employee compliance choices are critical (Warkentin, Shropshire and Johnson, 2007). Due to the ever changing nature of IS risks, effectiveness of IS requires ongoing compliance from employees. Identification of organisational and personal factors that motivate self-regulated maintenance of security compliance is essential to any security training and communication programs. This paper aims to explore how a behavioural infrastructure based on internal social marketing can be effective in sustaining adequate security compliance. Internal social marketing is suggested as a potential solution to security compliance concerns.

Background of information security compliance

A main objective of InfoSec is to ensure confidentiality, integrity and availability of respective information and computer services for organisations (Dhillon and Backhouse, 2001). InfoSec is essential to ensuring that organisational information assets are safely guarded. Human and organisational factors play a critical role in the effectiveness of security controls. Earlier research has shown that people's negligence causes many IS problems rather than deliberate attack events (Chang and Ho, 2006). Thus, an organisation's approach to InfoSec should focus on employee behaviour, as the organisation's success or failure depends on the things that its employees do or fail to do (Siponen, Mahmood and Pahnila, 2009).

Traditionally, InfoSec measures are designed to address security risks at four phases: deterrence, prevention, detection, and recovery (Warkentin and Willison, 2009). InfoSec compliance research aims to improve effectiveness of the 'prevention' phase through user compliance. User compliance involves the behaviours of employees, who, for whatever reason may or may not follow an organization's security policies. Security behaviours describe how securely or otherwise users interact with the information resources available to them. Where an individual has a choice about whether to comply or not, this choice can be influenced by the individual's own goals, perceptions, and attitudes towards compliance (Beautement, Sasse and Wonham, 2008). Often InfoSec compliance is considered as enabling tasks (or secondary) or production (or primary) tasks performed by a user. When the security procedure interferes with the primary task, a user may ignore or even interfere with the security measures, since the user is more focused on the task and rewards associated with completion of the primary task (Adams and Sasse, 1999). Security compliance measures focus in two broad preventive approaches. The first approach emphasizes the use of rewards and sanctions. In this approach the use of punitive penalties and/or rewards is employed to achieve the desired behaviours. Perception of consequences of security risks, and penalties for non-compliance and rewards have been found to have a significant impact on InfoSec behaviour (Herath and Rao, 2009). General deterrence theory (GDT) has been used mainly as a theoretical basis for understanding why employees follow (or do not follow) an organisation's InfoSec policies (Hu et al., 2011). Communication of certainty and severity of penalties for rule-breaking behaviour has been considered as effective strategies in preventing employees from misusing the information assets of their organisations. However, the efficacy of this approach has been unclear because studies have

found different impacts of GDT in regulating employees' InfoSec conduct (Cox, 2012). The second preventive approach aims to increase understanding of the reasons behind compliance and non-compliance by studying human behaviour in rule following. This approach assumes that human nature is complex and consequently InfoSec behaviour can be influenced by other factors than just by fear of sanctions or desire for rewards (Boss et al. 2009).

An internal social marketing approach for InfoSec

Successful behaviour change requires that people are not only motivated and capable of initiating a change in their behaviour, but also able to sustain that change over time (i.e. to be self-motivated to undertake the behaviour). Intrinsic motivation (e.g. satisfaction, enjoyment or interest) will motivate and maintain self-regulation. External motivation factors such as punishment or reward are not self-sustaining (e.g. Ryan and Deci, 2000). It is ideal that employees self-regulate their behaviour in accordance with the InfoSec policy in order to protect information assets. Thus, ongoing personal efforts to monitor, evaluate and react to security risks are essential to an effective security program. The challenge becomes: how to create an environment in which people are self-regulating when it comes to InfoSec? Internal social marketing (ISM) extends social marketing principles to the organisation (Previte and Russell-Bennett, 2013). One method of imagining an ISM program is that of the servicescape by which the environment can be designed to ensure that all participants in the system are aligned towards a common outcome. Internal social marketing involves the creation of a behavioural infrastructure that works in the same way as other forms of social marketing. That is, by managing the 'marketing mix' to ensure that outcomes are achieved throughout the system of actions according to the goals of the social marketing program. The implications for management of the service environment have been mapped according to the dimensions in servicescape originally identified by Bitner (1992). Bitner suggested that there were five key dimensions in the servicescape: the environmental dimensions, the holistic environment, moderators, internal responses and outcome behaviours. There were employee and customer components to most of these elements, however, in ISM we are concerned with the employees' perspective and actions that management can undertake to develop the requisite behavioural infrastructure.

The role of ISM is used to create the necessary interactions between participants in the security system that enable co-creation of security compliance to take place (for an example see Brennan, Binney and Hall, 2015). In their theme of research, internal social marketing is used to establish a framework for implementing sustainability within organisations. However, the systemic alignment of activities can be used as an exemplar for InfoSec situations. In order to examine the key factors in designing a secure environment that foster an interactive servicescape, this study examined InfoSec users' perceptions using a case study approach.

Approach and data analysis

This study employs a multi-case study approach to address the research problem. A case study approach is considered appropriate for studying a phenomenon in its natural settings where little or no previous research has been done (Pare 2004). In this research we adopted a multi-case design that includes participants from different organisations in different industries in order to obtain diverse representation of people. Given the typically small sample size of qualitative studies, informative cases are essential in answering research questions and to meet research objectives (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). The interviewed organisations used IT intensively and expected users to comply with InfoSec policies. Interviews were undertaken with employees in various job positions in three organisations (a local bank branch, a university, and an oil distribution firm) during a four-month period. The transcribed interview

data was analysed using a pattern matching and deductive analysis procedure proposed by Yin (2009). Before the interviews, research questions to explore the effect of security environment on compliance had been developed. The interview data was then used to support and elaborate on the identified themes, to develop a more thorough explanation of the participants' experience of security compliance in organizations.

Findings

In the main, most participants expressed little interest in engaging with security activities at work. They felt that the tasks were boring and repetitive and therefore, lacked immediate and personal relevance. *"I am not interested or find challenging for any of security tasks. I just find them obligations that I have to follow. It is just like a norm in the company. I just do it without any willingness or interest."* (Participant 16, Oil marketing executive)

However, the same participant expressed interest in completing security training, and others expressed a willingness to engage if they felt that the act increased their personal security or if the task itself were of personal relevance. *"I don't think we will be willing to spend time with security tasks. But we will be willing to spend time for some training or some visual learning from the security. It will be more interesting and we will be willing to."* (Participant 16, Oil marketing executive).

"Security communication reminder is updated via email: safety security month, lock your computer screen avoiding tailgating. Sometimes I feel bored as the message is kept repeating and the information becomes useless." (Participant 6, Bank teller)

"Information security, compliance, and policies are all rigid and uninteresting. Compliance and policies should be communicated in an innovative, smart and interesting way that excite and provide new knowledge to people. People should voluntarily comply rather imposed demands that one must follow." (Participant 3, Bank teller)

Participants realised the seriousness of InfoSec but were unanimous in their perspective that using fear to motivate people to comply was counterproductive. They suggested that there were better methods of gaining people's attention and ensuring engagement with InfoSec. Participants opted strongly for security programs that balanced work requirements and they also wanted some flexibility in working with IT. Six out of nine participants from the bank and all other participants were not satisfied with highly restricted InfoSec environments that removed most of their need to use and develop computer competence for their work. Strict computer control with little flexibility was perceived as a hindrance for job performance, reducing work productivity. The lack of ability to participate in co-creating a secure environment was demotivating and lowered levels of engagement. *"I don't have much control over InfoSec as the company enforces strict measures. I cannot access anything except work-related systems dictated by the IT department. Sometimes I feel frustrated as I can't access resources that are needed in my job."* (Participant 5, Bank teller)

Similarly, an oil marketing executive complained that the inability to use IT skills caused exasperation and discontent for her in performing her job. *"IT policy limits our access to website related to services, shopping, hotel…etc. Nowadays, it is not much different from stealing your working tools. I cannot finish my work and sometimes have to use computer at home for searching information. That could cause the delay and bad result of work. As a user, I feel angry and discontented"* (Participant 17, Oil marketing executive)

The participants desired opportunities to utilise their skills and expertise in order to improve security compliance. In the absence of some autonomy, the employees would either comply passively or simply proxy security responsibility to the IT department (i.e. it's your job not mine (Brennan, Binney, Hall and Hall, 2015)). Users were more active and responsible for security tasks if they were given more skills training and development initiatives sanctioned by the organisation. *"Matching computer skills will make me willing to comply. Security task could be personalised based on different requirements from different positions in the company." (Participant 17, Oil marketing executive)*

Another bank staff underscored that lack of IT autonomy that may even lead to intentional compromise of the InfoSec system: *"Regardless how restricted the IT security system is, someone still can get around it to access the resources they need. IT security measures should provide some flexibility to the staff in performing their job." (Participant 5, Bank teller)*

Interestingly, only a certain level of opportunities to use security skills was desired. Giving IT users too much autonomy was considered to be overloading and unnecessary, especially when the users had to deal with complex or unfamiliar security tasks. As a participant from the oil distribution organisation stressed, she had no desire to have more responsibilities for taking care of a computer or InfoSec. All that she asked for was access the Internet and to run software that she needed. *"I don't have the ability to manage all IT risks. So regulation is good to help us to manage the outside risks. We will follow as long as we still have free right to access the Internet, or to do what can help to do our job. (Participant 16, Oil marketing executive)*

Discussion and conclusions
The following sections describe the actions required by management to develop a behavioural infrastructure to enhance InfoSec behaviour. Environmental dimension (managing the physical environment): The key elements of the servicescape that can be adapted to improve security behaviour are ambient conditions, space and functional layout and signs, symbols and artefacts. The IT infrastructure needs to manage these elements to ensure that compliance is feasible and limits stress. For example, many large loud and highly coloured (e.g. red) warning signs placed around the office will not be conducive to creating a positive engaged environment. Indeed, fear filled messages may invoke self-protection motivation and disengagement. Artefacts could be both personalised and localised to where and how the problem occurs. For example: screen savers that are interesting and updated regularly, physical helpdesks with people at them on a regular basis, hints for secure hot desking at each desk location, physical policy documents located in public spaces such as tea rooms and staff breakout rooms, provide visibly new and better IT equipment as rewards to employees as part of an incentive scheme to encourage compliance, rapidly removing broken equipment (etc.). Holistic environment (e.g. the 7 Ps): In terms of managing the whole environment, the seven Ps of services will be used as a framework (there are many other frameworks that are suitable). The **product** is secure and reliable information and the ability to do a job; consistently and when you want to (i.e. no downtime). Achieving this goal requires flexibility and autonomy and consideration for the goals of the employee. For example virus scanning should not severely slow down a computer, otherwise the users may skip it to resume their work. The need to communicate and promote the idea of InfoSec is essential to any compliance program. However, the **promotion** of IT needs to be user orientated; designed for different skills sets, roles and communication needs. Importantly, it has to be both personally relevant and interesting in order to be motivating. Just because someone 'should' comply does not mean that they will. Promoting personal responsibility (autonomy and competence) without overt fear messaging will assist in increasing engagement. Compliance comes with costs both for the organisation and individual. Thus there is a **price**

element that applies to InfoSec compliance. Rewards can be used to enhance compliance. However, introjecting rewards can decrease self-determination so these have to be used with caution. Therefore, intrinsically motivating rewards such as training and development, smoothing workflows, providing autonomy and recognising competency are more likely to result in enhanced compliance. Further, decreasing job stress by saving time and effort will also be self-motivating and incentivising. The **place** where people are being asked to respond is also important to InfoSec. For example, in modern busy open plan offices, people may resort to public spaces (e.g. local coffee shops) for privacy. If security measures are not available at the time and the location of need, then risks and mistakes are increased as people attempt to work through the issues on their own. **Processes and procedures** must support InfoSec. For example, streamlined and integrated procedures are more conducive to compliance, as they decrease the cognitive load without being repetitive or boring. User involvement should be decreased where possible to increase salience of personal engagement when necessary. Use humans to do human things, leave virus checkers to run in the background. **People factors** are important to InfoSec: people both make and break the security systems that organisations rely upon to profitably operate. In this sense, understanding the human factors that facilitate and moderate the system enhances IS. For example, Pham et al. (2015) demonstrated that it is only when they find IT staff competent and effective in managing information systems, people will be more engaged in security activities themselves. As the results show, people do not want to be disempowered widgets in a computerised system. They do want to be involved and engaged and seen as participating in creating a secure environment. **Physical evidence** is the final P considered here. This is the supporting evidence that encourages compliance. While it can include the posters mentioned earlier it might also include other items such as high-vis uniforms for the IT people, coffee cups with InfoSec relevant logos and so on. Each piece of evidence serves as a reminder of the requirement for personal involvement and responsibility for InfoSec. Moderators of InfoSec (the things that come between the goal and the action). In InfoSec, moderators are such things as hackers and viruses that embed themselves regardless of people's compliance activities. Further, employees have lives and experiences outside the servicescape that impede or enhance InfoSec compliance. Also, government policy, IT hardware and software availability, as well as the security context will moderate the responses within the servicescape. Employees internal responses are also pertinent to the security servicescape. Cognitive, emotional and physiological responses will limit engagement with InfoSec. For example, people have to believe that their actions will contribute, they have to believe that IT is an issue and that their engagement will result in a better outcome for themselves and others. Behaviour is the outcome of the other dimensions and there are two sub-dimensions identified by Bitner (1992). Firstly, the servicescape must be designed to encourage employees to approach InfoSec; to own the issue and to be committed to personally act when required. Secondly, the servicescape must discourage avoidance (e.g. by being more engaging).

Effective InfoSec relies greatly on whether users exercise safe security practice without strict and expensive monitoring. Users should be regarded as important assets not just internal threats to the protection of organisational information assets. Our use of internal social marketing approach moves away from traditional approaches which are mostly based on the use of formal sanctions and security fear-based communication, by creating a behavioural infrastructure through the deployment of multi-level resources that aim to achieve intrinsic motivation towards compliance.

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The Role for Corporate Social Marketing

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Abstract

Social marketing scholars would generally agree that social marketing is concerned with creating positive behaviour change that benefits both the individual and society. What is frequently questioned, however, is the extent to which for-profit organisations can become involved in social marketing. With some scholars being adamant that any corporate involvement in social marketing is inappropriate. The paper proposes that there are many instances where corporations can play a vital role in enhancing social outcomes, even though they too may also benefit from the activities. This paper argues that corporate social marketing is not only appropriate, but may in fact be more effective than social marketing undertaken by non-profits alone. The paper proposes two typologies that can be used to evaluate the impact of firm behaviour on society and situations where corporate social marketing may be more appropriate. Thus, identifying where firms can play a valuable role in social marketing activities.

Factors Influencing Environmental Apathy – Evidence from the Millennials of Australia

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Abstract

Extant research suggests that a significant percent of population around the globe, especially the millennials, are apathetic to environmental issues. However there is a dearth of research as to their influencing factors. In this study we combine both internal personal traits (narcissism and personal norm) and externally acquired beliefs (knowledge and trust) as antecedents of environmental apathy. Data have been collected from west Australian millennials. SMART-PLS based Structural equation modelling (SEM) is used to analyse the data. The results show that narcissism influences environmental apathy positively, while personal norm and trust on advertising influence apathy negatively. It is also found that apathetic attitude in turn influences the green purchase behaviour negatively. On the other hand, when the direct effects from narcissism, personal norm, environmental knowledge and trust to purchase behaviour are examined, the negative effect of apathy on purchase behaviour becomes nonsignificant. Implications of the findings are discussed.

Producer perspectives on the drivers and barriers of local food consumption

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Abstract

Increasing the prevalence and consumption of locally produced foods has been shown to benefit several stakeholders including consumers, producers, retailers and the government. However, locally produced foods are lacking in the mainstream retail channel – supermarkets – which supply over 70% of food consumed in Australian households. The prevalence and consumption of local foods in supermarkets could be increased through influencing attitudes and behaviours of all stakeholders. Since each stakeholder faces different drivers and barriers, uncovering those for each group could lead to stronger supply and demand; thus inspiring and driving behaviour change on all levels. This pilot study presents initial findings from in-depth interviews with producers of local food from the Adelaide Hills region to identify barriers that prevent them selling their products, in particular through supermarkets.

Keywords: local food, drivers and barriers, supermarkets

Social Marketing – A Way of Understanding and Promoting Anti-consumption Values of Firms: The Case of Patagonia

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Abstract
Social marketing may be used by slow fashion firms as a marketing strategy to increase awareness about social and environmental issues arising from production and consumption. Social marketing discourages consumption that negatively influences wellbeing, demonstrating a link to anti-consumption; the selective rejection, resistance, or reduction of consumption. The purpose of this research is to explore anti-consumption by firms and how anti-consumption is manifested when they use social marketing to communicate anti-consumption values to society. A single case study within the slow fashion industry was utilized, Patagonia, an outdoor clothing firm. Through longevity, high quality and timeless clothing, slow fashion embraces anti-consumption values by rejecting and resisting excess consumption, and by reducing the environmental impact of the clothing industry. Preliminary findings show that Patagonia engages in social marketing through its anti-consumption-values, focusing on reducing over-consumption, and educating and creating awareness in consumers about their consumption habits.

Keywords: Anti-consumption, Social Marketing, Sustainability, Slow-Fashion

Stimulating Social Marketing Consumer Engagement within Social Media: An Empirical Study

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Abstract
This study investigates the factors that influence consumer online engagement for social marketing messages by looking at the role of personality, incentives, and message appeal. This study conducts an online experiment on Facebook to investigate the participants' behavioural engagement in the study's messages. The participants are randomly assigned to four Facebook group, being offered different incentives (i.e. monetary, non-monetary, social recognition, no incentive), and are exposed to two health messages, one framed with an informative appeal and the other with fear. We aim to investigate whether self-reported personality traits (Big Five) influence online engagement under study's different condition. Overall the result shows that participants engage significantly higher in fear appeal regardless of their personality and incentive condition. Further analyses reveal that monetary rewards generate the greatest level of engagement, especially for individuals with high personality scores.

Keywords: Consumer Engagement, Incentives, Personality Traits, Social Media

Impact of Sustainable Food Consumption on Quality of Life

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Abstract

This paper aims to understand the effects of sustainable food consumption on the quality of life. In the past, food security talks of the 'calorisation' of food, aimed at increasing calories per capita. Current production aim to meet both macro and micro nutrient requirements of a society. Food sustainability was conceptualised from a food perspective, where food was required to maintain a stable and lasting social order. Food sustainability has shifted to a livelihood perspective where the entire food system is interlinked. The literature surrounding food consumption links consumption to an individual leading a 'happy', active life. This paper aims to study how sustainable food consumption affects quality of life. The results are aimed at policymakers and marketers at promoting sustainable food consumption and pushing the quality-of-life agenda, understanding the motivators behind sustainable food consumption and communications that will likely elicit a positive response from the market.

Keywords: food security, quality of life, sustainable consumption

The dimensions of religion: Saviour or risky business in mass media social marketing campaigns?

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Abstract

The dimensions of religion (DoR) and mass media social marketing (MMSM) could be regarded as major influencing factors within popular culture. Religious affiliations help to shape attitudes towards dancing, magazines, restaurants, political ideas and tend to influence the way people live, the choices they make, what they eat and with whom they associate. MMSM derives from two distinct movements: marketing and social sciences. Both movements are concerned with how best to influence people's behaviour through controlled communication and specific identified channels. Because both aim to influence public opinion, this paper provides a review of existing literature and provides compelling evidence that it is conceivable that the DoR should be used in MMSM campaigns. It outlines future scenarios, a number of propositions and research issues related to these challenges.

Keywords: Social marketing, mass media social marketing campaigns, dimensions of religion

How do you get younger people to volunteer?

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Abstract

Previous research into understanding the intentions of volunteers has identified both age and motivation as important variables (Francis Jones 2012; Willems et al. 2012). While the number of volunteers is increasing in general, it is not the case in the younger age groups. Without a clear understanding of the motives of volunteers is difficult to develop appropriate marketing strategy to attract younger members. Data (n= 299) from the State Emergency Services (SES) were collected using an online questionnaire and analysed using ANOVA. The findings suggest that volunteers' motives such as Understanding and Value vary significantly between age groups. On a practical level, marketing strategy, to encourage younger people to volunteer for the SES, should focus on emphasising how volunteering can help them obtain skills that will help with their careers.

Key Words: Motivation, Volunteers

Introduction
Volunteering makes a significant social and economic contribution to the wellbeing of society (O'Dwyer, 2012). In Australia, in 2006, volunteers contributed 713 million hours volunteering in their local communities with most volunteers working for sporting industry (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2007). However, trends show that while more people are volunteering, they volunteer for fewer hours and are less likely to stay for a long time with one agency (http://www.volunteeringaustralia.orgApril-2015.pdf). Industry reports, such as Optus "Generation we not me" , have examined youth volunteering habits; the results show that young people are keen to volunteer, but more research is needed to understand the trends and factors that motivate volunteers. The purpose of this paper is to examine the influence of age and motives on the intentions of volunteers in the State Emergency Service SES in order to develop marketing communication plans to attract volunteers.

People volunteer for many reasons, however there is a consensus from previous research that suggests volunteers are motivated by a combination of internal and external factors relating to altruistic and egotistic motives (Bussell & Forbes, 2002; Millette & Gagné, 2008; Shye, 2010; Unger, 1991). While volunteer rates have increased in general by approximately 2.8 million people from 2001 to 2011(Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2001, 2011) it is not increasing at the same rate for younger age groups. For organisations, where the work is often physically demanding like the SES, it is important to be able to recruit and retain a steady cadre of volunteers. Therefore, it is vital to understand the motivations of younger people and how they might differ from older groups, in order to attract these people to volunteer. The research question for this paper is to examine volunteers and the relationship between age and motivation.

Demographics have clearly been shown as important factor influencing volunteer rates. In particular, both academic research (Stukas, Hoye, Nicholson, Brown, & Aisbett, 2014) and Australian Bureau of Statistics (2011) have shown that age affects volunteers' intentions and behaviour.

Along with demographic variables are psychological motivations. There has been extensive research into the motivations of volunteers; exploring their initial motives and what influences their decision to be long-term volunteers (e.g. Clary et al., 1998; Francis 2011; Garner & Garner, 2011) and how their motives may change over time (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). There has been limited research conducted on volunteers motivations and age in the emergency service (Francis & Jones 2012), but several have focused on volunteer firefighting (McLennan and Birch, 2005; Perrott & Blenkarn 2015). In an SES industry study, Francis and Jones (2005) found significant differences in motivations between generations, in particular, Career, Power and Achievement were motivating values for the younger generation. A more general study on youth and volunteering has shown that students were motivated by Value and Understanding followed by Career and Enhancement (McCabe, White and Obst, 2007). Research in the United States has also found that the Value, Understanding, Career and Enhancement were important to college student volunteers (Burns et al., 2008). These results suggest that university students are attempting to achieve particular goals by volunteering, learning new skills for their career development. However, most of the current research that exists focuses around university students rather than a wider young adult audience (Auld, 2004;Francis, 2011; McCabe, et al, 2007).

Given the outcomes of previous motivational research, this current project targeted a well-known volunteer agency to gauge the motives of current volunteers. The research questions for

this study are (1) do the motives of volunteers vary between age groups and (2) does the importance of the motives vary between age groups?

Methods

Measures

To measure volunteer motivations the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) revised by Willems (2012) was used. The main variable of this scale include values, understanding internal social, external social, career, protective and esteem. Some examples of the questions include Internal Social; "Being part of the organisation is a way to make friends" and Esteem; "My commitment makes me feel needed"(Clary et al. 1998; Willems et al. 2012). A range of questions relating to demographics (e.g. age, gender and education) and volunteer activity (e.g. frequency of volunteering and intent-to-quit) were also asked.

The VFI has been widely used and validated (McCabe et al, 2005; Holmes, 2009; Willems et al. 2012; Perrott & Blenkarn, 2015). The scales measure items using a seven point likert scale; motives are measures from 1 not at all applicable, to 7 totally applicable. Principal component factor analysis and varimax rotations were used and Cronbach Alpha were examined to determine the internal reliability of the factors. All the motives had good reliability, the lowest was Value (.761) and the highest was Career (.878).

Data collection process

The questionnaire was pretested with a focus group of eight SES volunteers (five male, age range 19- 56). The pre-test focus group examined the VFI questions. The primary survey was distributed online. The online survey was used for ease of accessibility and to reduce costs (Beins & McCarthy, 2012). The surveys were completed using Survey Monkey. A link to an online questionnaire was distributed by the organisation to their volunteers through the New South Wales SES newsletter.

The respondents in the survey were active volunteers from the State Emergency Services (SES) volunteer organisations in NSW. The average survey participant was male (61.5%), aged 55-64 (22.6%). There were more males in most age groups, except 18-24, which had more females (55.6%). Many of the volunteers had previously volunteered for other organisations (70.4%), and half (52.1%) were only volunteering for one organisation. Half the volunteers worked full-time (33.8%) or were retired (20.1%).

Analysis

The data was analysed using the SPSS 20 program. Data analysis employed two quantitative techniques; ranked order and analysis of variance (ANOVA) to identify whether statistically significant differences existed between age groups and motivations. The motives were then ranked in terms of importance for each age group.

Results

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the difference between age and motivations. There were statistically significant differences between the groups for five of the dependent variables: Understanding ($F_{(6, 302)} = 4.42$ p=.00) Esteem ($F_{(6, 302)} = 4.41$, p=.00), Protective $F_{(6, 311)} = 5.31$, p=.00), Internal ($F_{(6, 302)} = 6.48$, p=.00), Career ($F_{(6, 302)} = 16.25$, p=.00) and Value ($F_{(6, 302)} = 2.64$, p=0.16). The variable External Social was not significantly different across age groups ($F_{(6, 302)} = 1.57$, p=.156).

Table 2 shows the significant differences between the age groups. The comparison demonstrates that many of the motives were significantly different between age groups, with the exception of External Social motive. Of particular notice is the significant difference between motives for the younger age group 18-24 with the older age groups 55-64 and 65+. The Career motive displayed the most significant differences between age groups, compared with all other motives.

Table 2: Post hoc tests showing sign and size of differences in age groups and motivations

		Value	Understanding	Career	Esteem	Internal social	Protective
		$\bar{x}$ diff.	$\bar{x}$ diff.	$\bar{x}$ diff.	$\bar{x}$ diff.	$\bar{x}$ diff.	$\bar{x}$ diff.
18-24	25-34	0.416	0.123	0.840	0.096	-0.182	0.225
	35-44	.880*	.657*	1.282*	.893*	0.469	0.467
	45-54	0.464	.657*	1.655*	1.007*	0.415	0.605
	55-64	.802*	.828*	2.434*	.838*	.941*	1.182*
	65+	0.577	.924*	2.961*	1.154*	1.106*	1.318*
25-34	18-24	-0.416	-0.123	-0.840	-0.096	0.182	-0.225
	35-44	0.465	0.534	0.443	0.797	0.651	0.242
	45-54	0.049	0.534	.815*	.911*	0.597	0.380
	55-64	0.386	.705*	1.594*	0.742	1.123*	.957*
	65+	0.162	.802*	2.121*	1.058*	1.288*	1.093*
35-44	18-24	-0.88*	-.657*	-1.282*	-.893*	-0.469	-0.467
	25-34	-0.465	-0.534	-0.443	-0.797	-0.651	-0.242
	45-54	-0.416	0.000	0.373	0.114	-0.054	0.138
	55-64	-0.079	0.171	1.152*	-0.055	0.471	0.715
	65+	-0.303	0.267	1.679*	0.261	0.636	.852*
45-54	18-24	-0.464	-.657*	-1.656*	-1.007*	-0.415	-0.605
	25-34	-0.049	-0.534	-.816*	-.911*	-0.597	-0.380
	35-44	0.416	0.000	-0.373	-0.114	0.054	-0.138
	55-64	0.337	0.171	.779*	-0.169	0.526	0.577
	65+	0.113	0.267	1.306*	0.147	.691*	0.713
55-64	18-24	-.802*	-.828*	-2.435*	-.838*	-.941*	-1.18192*
	25-34	-0.386	-.705*	-1.595*	-0.742	-1.122*	-.95705*
	35-44	0.079	-0.171	-1.152*	0.055	-0.471	-0.715
	45-54	-0.337	-0.171	-.779*	0.169	-0.526	-0.577
	65+	-0.224	0.096	0.526	0.316	0.165	0.136
65+	18-24	-0.577	-.924*	-2.961*	-1.154*	-1.106*	-1.318*
	25-34	-0.162	-.801*	-2.121*	-1.058*	-1.288*	-1.093*
	35-44	0.303	-0.267	-1.679*	-0.261	-0.636	-.852*
	45-54	-0.113	-0.267	-1.306*	-0.147	-.691*	-0.713
	55-64	0.224	-0.096	-0.526	-0.316	-0.165	-0.136

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The motives were then ranked. Table 3 shows the importance of the different motives for the age groups. While all age groups ranked understanding (learning new skills etc) highly, it is clear that younger volunteers are more interested in developing new skills and knowledge to help their careers than the older volunteers.

Table 3: Ranking of volunteer motives by age groups

Age	Functional Motive	$\overline{x}$	Age	Functional Motive	$\overline{x}$
18-24	Understanding	5.694	**25-34**	Understanding	5.571
	External social	5.500		External social	5.482
	Career	5.411		Esteem	5.286
	Esteem	5.382		Internal social	5.103
	Value	5.052		Value	4.636
	Internal social	4.921		Career	4.571
	Protective	4.074		Protective	3.849
35-44	External social	5.283	**45-54**	External social	5.472
	Understanding	5.037		Understanding	5.037
	Esteem	4.489		Value	4.587
	Internal social	4.452		Internal social	4.506
	Value	4.171		Esteem	4.375
	Career	4.129		Career	3.756
	Protective	3.607		Protective	3.469
55-64	External social	5.059	**65+**	External social	5.036
	Understanding	4.866		Understanding	4.770
	Esteem	4.544		Value	4.474
	Value	4.250		Esteem	4.228
	Internal social	3.980		Internal social	3.815
	Career	2.976		Protective	2.756
	Protective	2.892		Career	2.450

Conclusions and Practical Implications

Previous research has identified age and motivation as important variables in understanding the intentions of volunteers. This paper has focused on exploring the relationship between age and motivational factors in order to profile volunteers for state emergency services. Similar to research by Francis and Jones (2012), Deery et al., (2011) and McCabe (2007) results of this study clearly shown older and younger volunteers have different motivations, but that External Social motives are not different. This suggests that the opinion of reference groups is important to all age groups.

The importance of Career motive decreases with age as volunteers from the 25-34 age group onwards, which is similar to findings from Stukas et al. (2014), Francis and Jones (2012) and Deery et al. (2011). The data from this research shows that Understanding and External Social motive are ranked similarly among all age groups. This suggests that these motives can be used for general recruiting purposes. However, for more specific campaigns, targeting 18-24 year olds, the emphasis could be on professional development with the marketing strategy outlining how the skills and knowledge, acquired as part of the SES training, can enhance their careers. For older volunteers, Value (altruism and caring the community) is a motivating factor and thus, messages to attract volunteers in this age range could emphasise how the SES helps others.

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The influence of food literacy on barriers to healthy eating and diet satisfaction in the home

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Abstract

Obesity is a significant global health issue. One of the primary environments that promote healthy eating or indeed unhealthy eating is the home. Within the home, the dietary gatekeeper; the person primarily responsible for preparing healthy meals for the family has a key role in fostering a non-obesogenic food environment. This research is the first to quantitatively assess the food literacy of the household dietary gatekeeper and its influence on their intention to prepare a healthy diet for the family and subsequent diet satisfaction as a measure of the healthfulness of the family diet. We also examine the role of food literacy in overcoming barriers to healthy eating in the home environment. A model was tested on 756 dietary gatekeepers who completed a baseline and a 3-month follow-up questionnaire. The results highlight the positive impact of the dietary gatekeeper's food literacy in overcoming barriers to healthy eating and achieving diet satisfaction.

Keywords: Food Literacy, Dietary Gatekeeper, Diet Satisfaction, Home Environment

Adding Credibility to Social Marketing Messages: The Power of 'Sharing'

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Abstract

In social marketing, marketers develop advertisements or public service announcements (PSAs) for social media and either send these directly to participants in social networks or utilize initial recipients in an interconnected network for further dissemination. The research investigates whether the credibility of an additional sender interacts with the original source to contribute to the effectiveness of the advertisement. In the context of an anti-binge drinking message directed at youth, a 2x2, between subjects, experimental investigation (n=209) was conducted. Credibility of the sender and sponsoring source were manipulated, and the findings reveal that a personal sender does influence attitudes and intentions toward the anti-binge drinking message. This occurs through a moderating effect with the original sponsoring source enhancing the credibility of the advertisement. The study contributes to our understanding of electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) and 'sharing' behaviour and provides marketers with further evidence for social marketers to encourage sharing particularly when they have a less credible sponsoring source.

Keywords: eWOM, social marketing, social media, source credibility, sender credibility

Conversations and the co-creation of public services

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Abstract
This paper discusses the development of a model for behaviour change first proposed in 2008, which highlighted the critical role of relationships and support networks achieving behavioural change. However, the model did not emphasise sufficiently - or demonstrate visually - the need for the co-creation of services, which has at its heart effective conversations. Midstream social marketing offers a means of integrating upstream and downstream approaches to behaviour change. Upstream social marketing should be used to influence national and local policies to enable organisations, their staff and clients to co-create the appropriate health care services. In particular, frontline staff should be empowered and trained to offer people-centred services.

Keywords: conversations, co-creation, public services, communications

Engaging Stakeholders on Facebook: A Study of Non-Governmental Organizations

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to investigate message strategies that Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) used on Facebook and how these message strategies affect the level of stakeholder's engagement on their Facebook in Hong Kong. Based a content analysis on Facebook, data on 20 NGOs that operating in Hong Kong are collected from 10 Feb 2016 to 10 Mar 2016 to examine their current practices on stakeholder engagement. The study found that NGOs are more likely to adopt two-way asymmetry (TWA) message strategy rather than employ two-way symmetry (TWS) message strategy to build mutual relationship with their stakeholders. Also, it found that organizational messages based on two-way symmetry can generate higher levels of stakeholder engagement. This study provides guidance to NGOs to utilize four models of public relations as message strategies to foster higher level of stakeholder engagement on Facebook.

Introduction

Facebook has become the leading social media tool over the world and it has 1.59 billion monthly active users as of April 2016 (Statista, 2016). Many previous studies have explored the dialogic communication potential of Facebook for public relations practitioners to maintain quality relationships with stakeholders (Bonsón Ponte, Carvajal-Trujillo and Escobar-Rodríguez, 2015; Bortee and Seltzer, 2009; Waters, et al., 2009; Ihm, J. 2015; Warren, Sulaiman and Jaafar, 2014). Barnes and Andonian (2011) states that Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) has become the most active users of social media which is far surpass the for-profit organizations because social media allow NGOs to engage in conversations with stakeholders in relatively low cost and "this is especially important for NGOs as these conversations activate passion and encourage people to act on causes they care about" (Nordström, 2012, p. 2).

However, there is a lack of research attempting to examine what types of message strategies are used by NGOs to communicate with their stakeholders via Facebook in Hong Kong. Only Nordström (2012) and Cho, Schweickart & Haase (2014) have examined NGOs' message strategies used on Facebook by applying the "four models of public relations" initiated by Grunig and Hunt (1984) as a framework. Thus, the current study aims to investigate the types of message strategies NGOs use on Facebook and how these message strategies affect the level of stakeholder's engagement on their Facebook in Hong Kong.

Literature Review

With the Facebook feature, there are three different engagement tools which are offered for publics to engage with organizational messages. There were two models have been proposed to measure stakeholder's engagement level on Facebook. Bonsón & Ratkai (2013) suggested a set of Facebook metrics to measure popularity, commitment and virality for stakeholder engagement. Popularity relates to the number of Like, commitment is measured by Comment and virality is gauged by Share. This model calculates the stakeholder engagement by sum up popularity, commitment and virality of messages among fans (Figure 1). Also, it assumed there are same level of engagement among Like, Share and Comment. However, there are usually different number of Likes, Shares and Comments, even in the same post, which indicates Likes, Shares and Comments require different effort to respond to a post.

Therefore, Cho, Schweickart & Haase's model will be adopted in the current study. They propose that different levels of engagement among stakeholders and organization could be captured by functions in Facebook: Like, Share and Comment so as to embody the each engagement feature's distinctiveness (Cho, Schweickart & Haase, 2014). The Like is normally used on Facebook posts as an expression of pleasure or amusement without any verbal or oral expression, which is the lowest level of engagement; whereas Comment need more effort to react to organizational messages directly, it refers to the highest level of engagement.

Grunig & Hunt (1984)'s "Four Models of Public Relations (FMPR)" are adopted in the current study since it covers both one-way and two-way communication (Figure 2).

Figure 1: Corporate Facebook metrics

Name	Sign	Formula	Measures
Popularity	P1	Number of posts with likes/total	Percentage of the total posts that have been liked
	P2	Total likes/total number of posts	Average number of likes per post
	P3	(P2/number of fans)*1000	Popularity of messages among fans
Commitment	C1	Number of posts with comments/total posts	Percentage of the total posts that have been commented on
	C2	Total comments/total posts	Average number of comments per post
	C3	(C2/number of fans)*1000	Commitment of fans
Virality	V1	Number of posts with shares/total posts	Percentage of the total posts that have been shared
	V2	Total shares/total posts	Average number of shares per post
	V3	(V2/number of fans)*1000	Virality of message among fans
Engagement	E	P3+C3+V3	Stakeholder engagement index

Source from: Bonsón & Ratkai (2013), p. 791.

Figure 2: Grunig & Hunt's FMPR (1984)

Model	Type of Communication	Characteristics
1. Press agentry	One-way communication	Uses persuasion and manipulation to influence audiences to behave as the organization desires
2. Public information	One-way communication	Uses press releases and other one-way communication techniques to distribute organizational information. The public relations is often referred to as the in-house journalist
3. Two-way asymmetry model	Two-way communication (imbalanced)	Uses persuasion and manipulation to influence audiences to behave as the organization desires. Does not use research to find out how stakeholders feel about the organization
4. Two-way symmetry model	Two-way communication	Uses communication to negotiate with the public, resolve conflict and promote mutual understanding and respect between the organization and its stakeholders

Source from: Waddington (2013), p.2.

Hypotheses Development

In previous studies, Waters and Jamal (2011) and Waters and Williams (2011) have applied FMPR to investigate organizational messages on Twitter. Furthermore, Nordström (2012) and Cho, Schweickart & Haase (2014) have employed the models to probe the organizational messages on Facebook. All of these studies reflected that NGOs are more likely to use public information model in organizational messages, which means NGOs are mainly using social media to convey unilateral messages instead of fully utilizing the interactive nature and dialogic function of the social media service (Waters and Jamal, 2011). There is lack of research related to Hong Kong NGOs' situation. The first research question is presented as follows:

RQ1: To what extent do NGOs incorporate the FMPR on Facebook in Hong Kong?

Moreover, in order to examine whether there is an impact on stakeholder engagement between different message strategies among FMPR, the second research question is posited:

RQ2: How do message strategies affect level of stakeholder engagement on these NGOs' Facebook?

The relevant hypotheses are listed as follows:

H1: There is a significant difference in the lowest level of stakeholder engagement (*Likes*) among "four types of organizational message strategies" (Press agentry (PA), Public information(PI), Two-way asymmetry model (TWA) and Two-way symmetry model (TWS)).

H2: There is a significant difference in the moderate level of stakeholder engagement (*Shares*) among "four types of organizational message strategies".

H3: There is a significant difference in the moderate level of stakeholder engagement (*Comments*) among "four types of organizational message strategies".

Research Methodology
Sampling Procedure
A content analysis will be employed to study. Data on the analyzed elements were collected by hand. The study will use the list of "Directory of Non-governmental Organizations" as a sample frame. A convenience sampling will be adopted to select 20 NGOs with an Official Facebook pages for Hong Kong people. In accordance with the National Center for Chartable Statistics (NCCS), these NGOs can be categorized into 3 main types (i.e., environmental and animal, health, and human service). During 10 February to 10 March 2016, there are a total of 449 posts uploaded on Facebook by 20 NGOs in 30 days. All organizational postings will be coded for 1 Month (February 2016). All messages were collected within a week and pasted to an Excel file, whereas the data were analyzed by SPSS.

Coding Procedure
To code the NGOs' message strategies, this study adopted the coding schema introduced by Cho & Schweickart's (2014). It was also developed and modified to explain the practices of FMPR on Facebook. Codes were only assigned to the primary strategy if an organizational

message involves multiple strategies. Moreover, three separate levels of stakeholders'engagement with postings uploaded by the above NGOs - the number of Likes, Shares and Comments on each post were coded. Additionally, the number of Likes of the organization's Facebook page and the number of posts within the data collection period were also coded. All the figures were cross-checked by a third person to maintain accuracy and validity.

Findings and Discussion
This study's sampling included 10 environmental and animal NGOs, 7 human service NGOs, 3 health NGOs. An average of 45,390.15 (SD = 47,393.67) people liked the sampled NGOs' Facebook page within the time period of coding, and the range is between 3,685 and 171,549. The average of posts updated in the coding period is 0.75, with a broad range between 6 and 38.

RQ1 asked to what extent NGOs incorporate the FMPR on Facebook in Hong Kong. To answer this question, frequency counts were checked. TWA was the most widely used model of FMPR (N = 166 or 37%). The vast majority of the messages under this model were mainly used for promoting organizational events, persuading stakeholders to learn how to help or to be involved with the organization, or asking for donation/volunteers. PI was the second predominant model (N = 104 or 23.2%), followed by TWS (N = 91 or 20.2%). The greater part of PI model messages were providing updates and announcements from NGOs. The others of the messages were sharing reports or information from other organizations. Besides, the TWS model messages were mainly used to cultivate dialogue or give recognition and say "thank you" to supporters/donors. Also, the function of hashtags was used in some messages to notify individual stakeholders about the updates on the Facebook page. PA model was rarely used by these NGOs since it seeks to express organizational emotions (N = 88 or 19.6%).

RQ2 asked how organizational message strategies affect level of stakeholder engagement on these NGOs' Facebook. A series of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was carried out to test the hypotheses. The differences between each level of stakeholder engagement among FMPR has found on this study. At first, the ANOVA test analysis indicates that there is no difference in the number of the Like (lowest level of engagement) on a message in the FMPR (F = 2.594, p = 0.052). Also, the result is alike in the moderate level of engagement (Share) on a message among four models ((F = 0.422, p = 0.738).As the p value are larger than 0.05, the null hypothesis are accepted. Therefore, H1 and H2 are not supported.

However, a significant difference is shown in the number of Comments (the highest level of engagement) (F = 4.874, p = 0.003) on organizational messages among four models. Thus, H3 was supported. When compared to either PA (mean = 12.79, SD = 19.166), PI (mean = 9.48, SD = 11.353) or TWA models (mean = 9.11, SD = 12.268), stakeholders of these NGOs were more willing to have higher level of engagement with Facebook messages based upon the TWS model (mean = 16.90, SD = 13.501).

According to the content analysis of NGOs' Facebook posts, the study found that TWA model is the most frequently used model applied by NGOs, followed by PI, TWS and PA. It shows that the majority of NGOs use Facebook to promote the organizational events and ask stakeholders to be involved with the organizations. This result was not parallel with the previous studies, since the most frequently adopted model of the sampling NGOs in several previous studies was the PI model (Cho, Schweickart & Haase, 2014; Waters & Jamal, 2011;

Waters & Williams, 2011). It seems that NGOs in Hong Kong were more willing to engage stakeholders by using Facebook than NGOs in western countries.

In addition, the findings reveal that the average of posts updated in the coding period is 0.75. In other words, most of the posts have not updated by NGOs daily. According to Waters et al. (2011), organizations need to provide frequently update on their social media in order to ensure ongoing dialogue with their stakeholders. Therefore, it seems that a lot of researched NGOs haven't fully utilized Facebook to engage with their stakeholders. This result is parallel with various studies. Many scholars found that a lack of resources was the endured challenges for NGOs to actively utilize social media for relationship building (Cho, Schweickart and Hasse, 2014; Briones et al., 2011; Nordström, 2012; Pavlovic, Lalic, & Djuraskovic, 2014).

Moreover, the study shows that there is no difference in the lowest level of engagement (Like) as well as the moderate level of engagement (Share) among the FMPR. This result was as same as the previous study (Cho, Schweickart and Hasse, 2014). Nevertheless, it reveals that significant difference exist in the highest (Comment) level of engagement among the FMPR. Furthermore, the finding shows that stakeholders of these NGOs were more likely to make comments on TWS messages, in which NGOs were giving recognition to supporters, fostering dialogue, using direct messages to stakeholders with name tags. Despite the TWA model was more frequently used by NGOs, stakeholders were not highly engaging with the messages based on this model. This finding also confirms Cho, Schweickart and Haase's (2014) argument that "stakeholders may not truly perceive two-way asymmetry communication as an organization's genuine effort to build a relationship, but rather deem organizations motive to use social media as a promotional tool" (Cho, Schweickart and Hasse, 2014, p. 19).

Conclusion

To conclude, revisiting the state of social media adoption in stakeholder engagement, the study investigated how NGOs use Facebook. Differ from previous studies, NGOs that operating in Hong Kong is more likely to engage stakeholders by using two-way communication. However, they just frequently adopted the TWA communication model in their message strategies. TWS communication model is still rarely used by these NGOs even the studies highlight the TWS communication is the most conductive model to encourage stakeholders to highly engage with organizational messages. To better engage stakeholders by utilizing the FMPR message strategies on NGOs Facebook, the following practical implications are proposed: First, at the earlier stage of establishing Facebook, it is suggested to use PA and PI to attract the stakeholders to become followers of the NGOs' Facebook pages. Several studies (Bonsón Ponte, Carvajal-Trujillo & Escobar-Rodríguez, 2015; Cho, Schweickart & Haase, 2014; Lovejoy & Saxton, 2012;Warren, Sulaiman & Jaafar, 2014) proposed that information sharing "could be seen a core activity to attract"(Lovejoy & Saxton, 2012, p. 21) social media users. Second, TWA message strategy is recommended to encourage stakeholders to become involved with the organization, such as joining organizational events, becoming donors or volunteers and giving specific feedback. Finally, it is better for NGOs to use TWS message strategy to achieve greater stakeholder engagement. The current study and some past studies (Warren, Sulaiman & Jaafar, 2014; Cho, Schweickart & Haase, 2014; Waters et al., 2011) indicated that utilizing TWS model can contribute to better engage stakeholders.

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Preliminary Findings on Consumer Topophilia in the 21st Century

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Topophilia, or love of place, allows exploration of emotional connections between humans and physical environments. We propose that 'consumer topophilia' (CT) is an expression of love for places through consumption. The research questions guiding our qualitative investigation are: "How do consumers interpret love of place?" and "How and why does a love of place influence consumption?" Our findings suggest that CT is best described as a prototype, a fuzzy construct. Conceptualisations need to reflect what place means to contemporary consumers. While Tuan (1974) argued that topophilia is not the strongest human emotion, our preliminary findings suggest it may be stronger than brand love and have a bearing on consumer behaviour in terms of purchase decisions, experience-seeking, remembering the past (nostalgia), imagining places through consumption as well as self-expression and enhancing self-identity. Finally, consumers' love of place is often influenced by positive social consumption experiences together with other consumers.

Keywords: Sense of Place, Brands, Authenticity, Nostalgia, topophilia

A true measure of equivalence? Brand equity from the financial perspective
<mark>*** Best Paper of Track ***</mark>

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Marketers have discussed brand equity extensively – both from the consumer behaviour and the financial perspective. In the financial instance, determining the price differential that a branded product is able to charge compared to an unbranded equivalent often suffers from not having a means to truly determine equivalence. Luxury wines have the benefit of an established measure of equivalency – the Parker score. This study looks at brand equity of Bordeaux classified growth wines considering château brands, growths and vintages to illustrate brand equity. An initial sample of 393 wines with Parker scores ranging from 72 to 100 is presented. A subset of wines, with perfect100-point Parker scores, is also reviewed focusing on the famous vintage of 2009. The results indicate that brand equity in the luxury wine market exists. An analysis of luxury wines supports the financial perspective on brand equity, especially when there is a viable means of determining equivalence.

Keywords: Financial brand equity, luxury wine, Robert Parker

Marketing's contribution to strategic decision-making: manufacturers in an emerging versus mature market

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Abstract
Despite much scholarly interest in studying business strategy in emerging markets, little research to date has focussed on the strategic role played by marketing. This paper addresses this deficiency. It examines the extent to which Western world strategic marketing practices are being employed among manufacturing firms operating in the emerging markets of India, and benchmarks them against their counterparts in the mature markets of the United States. Data were collected via questionnaire. A total of 71 and 84 usable responses were received from firms employing more than 100 staff in each country respectively. Results indicate that the basic strategic marketing practices typically advocated in the mainstream academic literature are being quite widely adopted by manufacturers in both countries. However, some notable differences suggest that western world approaches might not always be appropriate in emerging markets.

Keywords: strategic decision-making, manufacturers, North America, India

Introduction

Marketing is integral to effective business level strategic decision-making (Walker et. al., 2015). It helps firms to determine which markets should be targeted, and how best to build superior customer value and competitive advantage over the longer-term (Hooley, Piercy and Nicoulaud, 2012). Indeed, the term 'strategic marketing' has long become synonymous with a step-by-step planning process (Brooksbank et. al., 2015).

Interest in strategic marketing peaked in the early-mid 1980s when there was an explosion of literature on the subject (Romano and Ratnatunga, 1995). Since then numerous 'success' studies (mostly Western world) have illuminated an understanding of marketing's contribution to business performance as a strategic discipline. This body of work includes research that examines different types and sizes of firms operating in different markets and from differing research perspectives or 'genres'. Of the 'research genres' employed, arguably the most readily measureable from a scholar's perspective is the 'strategic marketing practices' genre (Brooksbank, Garland and Taylor, 2008). Here, the focus is on assessing organisational decision-making as it relates to various practices within each step of the strategic marketing planning process. Accordingly, a comprehensive literature review revealed six of the most commonly reported and most effective strategic marketing practices (SMPs#1-6) to be: adopting a formal strategic marketing planning approach; the use of marketing research; the setting of sales objectives with longer-term time horizons; the setting of more offensive objectives; a strategic priority to target selected market target(s); a strategic priority to compete by offering superior value-to-the-customer (Brooksbank et. al., 2015).

For some years now the topic of emerging markets (especially in the BRIC economies) has also attracted much scholarly attention since, based on current growth trajectories, they are predicted to comprehensively transform the balance of economic power worldwide by mid-century (Dobbs et. al., 2012). In particular, due to their unique, strategically-relevant situational characteristics, much of this attention is among researchers in the field of strategic management (Bang, Joshi, and Singh, 2016). Yet surprisingly, to date, none have looked at the strategic role played by marketing, despite some scholars having long advocated a need to better understand its relevance to emerging markets (Steenkamp, 2005; Sheth, 2011). Thus, set within the context of the 'strategic marketing practices' research genre, the purpose of this study is to investigate marketing's contribution to strategic decision-making in manufacturing firms operating in the emerging market of India - benchmarked against those of their counterparts in the ultra-mature market of the United States. Specifically, it aims to: (i) Compare and contrast the extent to which the six selected Western world SMPs are being employed among manufacturers in India and the United States respectively, (ii) Identify any differences in strategic approach to those being applied in the Western world that might be more relevant in emerging markets.

Research Context

In India, the last two decades have seen an increasingly open and deregulated economy which has forced a significant shift in the culture of Indian businesses, transforming them into becoming more competitive and westernised than ever before (MacAskill, 2011; Aggarwal, 2009). Indeed, the acquisition of a commercial imperative has provided the impetus for the development of a booming domestic economy with a GDP growth forecast to be second only to China's in the period 2012-17 (Chen et al., 2012). Moreover, it has led to India's emergence as a global economic power with a domestic manufacturing sector ranked 9th in the world (Spencer and Schellenberg, 2010). Meanwhile, the United States has long been recognised as

a global powerhouse of manufacturing output. Although recently overtaken by China, it is poised to retain the top world ranking by 2020 (Mattews, 2016).

Regarding India's strategic environment, the most commonly cited strategically-relevant differentiating characteristics of emerging markets vis-a-vis the more established markets of the Western world are fivefold. The first concerns the prevailing economic conditions (Khanna and Palepu, 2010), and in the case of India, a period of sustained growth far exceeding that of the United States (i.e. 7% versus 1% annual growth) has now been apparent for some years. The second is a relatively low level of product-category market penetration (Sunge and Civi, 2008) compared with the peak or near-peak levels typically found in more developed economies like the United States (Kotler and Keller, 2007). A third relates to the sheer size of the emerging economy's domestic market (Bang, Joshi, and Singh, 2016): a characteristic which, based on population figures separates the two countries by about one billion potential customers. A fourth relates to substantial differences in the prevalence of unbranded competition in emerging markets when compared with their Western world counterparts (Sheth, 2011). Lastly, in emerging markets there is a generally underdeveloped and inadequate 'marketing infrastructure' such as established distribution channels or availability of marketing services agencies; totally unlike that which is typically encountered in a mature economy like the United States (Burgess and Steenkamp, 2006).

Methodology

The findings reported here are based on separate web-hosted questionnaire surveys designed to assess the usage of basic strategic marketing practices. To ensure the questionnaire would be meaningful to target recipients it was piloted with senior marketing executives: four from India-based, and two with United States-based firms. In summer 2013, an invitation to participate was emailed to lists of India- and United States'-based manufacturers with more than 100 employees, randomly selected from commercial databases. The target recipient was 'The Managing Director' and a free summary of findings was offered as an incentive. After six reminder letters, subsequent response profiles (undeliverable returns and those from non-manufacturers) indicated the effective mail out was to 1000 and 1010 manufacturers, respectively, yielding responses rates of 7.1 and 8.3 per cent respectively.

Low response rates necessitated a check for non-response bias. However, when email responses to three selected questions from the questionnaire (regarding the importance attached to conducting a comprehensive strategic situation analysis) were obtained from 29 Indian and 27 United States' non-responding companies and compared to answers given within each study sample, no significant differences emerged. The SMPs were subsequently evaluated using cross-tabulation and Chi-square tests within SPSS: a procedure for testing the independence of two variables and determining whether any significant relationship exists between expected and observed frequencies within defined data categories (Amini et al. 2012).

Sample Characteristics

Respondent companies from India and USA reported that they were similarly split between those manufacturing consumer goods (58% and 68% respectively) and industrial goods (42% and 32% respectively). However, a notable difference exists between the samples with regard to company size and scale of operations. India is dwarfed by its United States counterpart in terms of the average company's number of employees (4,450 compared with 5,511 respectively), and annual sales (27m USD compared with 230m USD respectively). Nonetheless, the average Indian firm reported that the proportion of its entire workforce

working in a "marketing role" to be double that of its counterpart in the United States (22% and 11% respectively). However, roughly equal proportions of respondents in both samples reported local ownership (78% and 70% respectively). Similar proportions of respondents also classified their firm as being either fully independent or (if part of a group) at least autonomous in terms of its strategic decision-making responsibilities (94 % and 90% respectively).

Findings and Discussion

To examine the use of a formal strategic marketing planning approach (SMP#1) respondents were asked whether their marketing planning was annual or longer-term, limited to annual budgeting, or restricted to little or no formal planning at all. As shown in Table 1, whereas considerably less than half (43%) of Indian firms reported that they undertake annual and longer-term marketing planning, more than two thirds (68%) of United States firms do the same, representing a significant difference (at the 5% level) in the overall pattern of response obtained. Thus, as might be expected in light of differences in the 'marketing heritage' of the two economies, among the United States' manufacturers there is apparently a greater appreciation of the importance of formal marketing planning.

Regarding market research-based strategic decision-making (SMP#2), respondents were asked about two types: (i) self-generated, and (ii) commissioned. Here, as shown in Table 1, a significant difference in the profiles of response in both cases exists (at the 1% level) with the United States' manufacturers more likely to use both types. Moreover, it is notable that in absolute terms, an overwhelming majority (92%) of United States' manufacturers claimed that they carry out their own market research at least 'sometimes' with almost a further three-quarters (71%) also reporting that they commission it with the same degree of regularity. Such proportions contrast sharply with their Indian counterparts since less than half (48%) generate their own market research, and less than a quarter (22%) commission it to the same degree. Perhaps this combination of findings is partially explained by the high growth of the Indian economy over recent years - potentially rendering a degree of complacency about the need to devote resources to market research. Equally, the greater usage of self-generated research across both samples might well be mirroring previous research findings suggesting that marketers working in manufacturing firms often believe that their markets are so specialised that their information requirements are beyond the scope of market research agencies (Brooksbank and Taylor, 2007). More likely in the case of India, however, it is simply a reflection of a paucity of such agencies altogether.

Respondents were requested to indicate the time horizons against which their firm geared its sales objectives in their main market: long, medium or short (SMP#3). Table 1 reveals a significant difference (at the 1% level) between the two samples in this regard albeit that, perhaps somewhat surprisingly, the direction of results favours Indian manufacturers being more likely to adopt a longer-term perspective. Although it is notable that most manufacturers in both the countries (96% and 60% respectively) choose at least a medium term horizon; a characteristic which is normally associated with a classical "strategic" planning perspective, it is conceivable that shortening sales-horizons in the United States might be symptomatic of a range of environment-related factors leading to a more cautious outlook among their marketing strategists. For example, compared with India, for the most part their more mature domestic markets are likely to present an intensely competitive 'zero-sum game' scenario. Similarly, in light of the economic uncertainties of the post-global financial crisis, perhaps to some extent United States' manufacturers are also responding to the widely publicised 'short-termism' of the Wall Street stock market. Interestingly, such explanations would certainly be borne out by the survey findings with regard to another aspect of objective-setting; that which concerns the

nature of the marketing objectives pursued in the respondent companies' main market (SMP#4). Here, Table 1 shows a significant difference (at the 1% level) between the samples but this time in favour of the United States' manufacturers being those more likely to pursue the offensive growth objectives that align with prevailing Western world conventional wisdom. Indeed, whereas the overwhelming majority of United States' firms (86%) indicated that their strategic marketing objectives represented an ambitious stance, barely a third (35%) of their Indian counterparts answered the same; indicating instead a stance designed to maintain their firms' market share – content to ride the wave of generic growth within their markets.

Table 1. Manufacturers' Adoption of Strategic Marketing

Practices		India (n=71)		USA (n=84)		Chi-Square	Level of significance
		f	%	f	%		
Extent of formal planning (SMP#1)	Annual/longer term market planning	31	43	57	68	9.18	5%
	Annual budgeting only/little or no market planning	40	57	27	32		
Use of self-generated market research (SMP#2)	Often/sometimes	35	48	77	92	34.46	1%
	Seldom/never	36	52	7	8		
Use of commissioned market research (SMP#2)	Often/sometimes	16	22	60	71	36.81	1%
	Seldom/never	55	78	24	29		
Sales objectives and time horizons (SMP#3)	Long/medium term	68	96	50	60	27.82	1%
	Short term/do not set	4	4	34	40		
Nature of strategic marketing objectives (SMP#4)	Aggressive/steady growth	25	35	72	86	41.91	1%
	Maintenance/defence of current position	46	65	12	14		
Market Targeting (SMP#5)	Segment & target one or more segments/customers	56	79	74	88	2.42	N/S
	Go for the whole market	15	21	10	12		
Basis of competitive approach (SMP#6)	Superior product/service quality at same or higher price than comp.	56	79	81	96	11.55	5%
	Other	15	21	3	4		

For the purposes of examining the extent to which firms adopt a target marketing approach (SMP#5), survey participants were asked if, in their main market, they pursued a 'whole market' undifferentiated approach or instead sought to serve one or more specific segment(s) or large customer(s). As shown in Table 1, and in accordance with most expert prescriptions and previous empirical findings, the results indicate that a relatively large proportion of manufacturers in both India and the United States (79% and 82% respectively) adopt a targeted approach, with no significant differences emerging between the two samples. It would therefore seem reasonable to infer that in India, despite a marketing environment characterised by few branded goods and the availability of large untapped markets, manufacturers are motivated by the merits of target marketing. No doubt large-base effects effectively enhance the underlying logic of its appropriateness.

Regarding the adoption of a marketing strategy centred on providing products of high value-to-the-customer (SMP#6), respondents were asked to report how their firm's offerings in their main market compared with those of their major competitors. As Table 1 reveals, in this respect a significant difference emerged between the decision-making of firms in the two countries (at the 1% level) indicating that United States' manufacturers are more likely to seek to compete on this basis than are their Indian counterparts. Once again however, in absolute terms, it seems that the vast majority of firms in both countries understand the wisdom of this approach since a substantial majority (79%) of the Indian manufacturers and almost all (96%) of the United States' manufacturers adopt this strategy. Clearly, the marketing message of customer-centricity has not been lost on Marketers in either country, albeit that it is apparently a little more ingrained within the North American business culture, as might have been expected.

Conclusions

Findings reported are somewhat speculative due to several research limitations. First, low survey response rates render questionable the extent to which the study samples can be considered representative of the populations under scrutiny, potentially introducing non-response bias. Second, in a similar vein, it is conceivable that only motivated 'marketing savvy' respondents and/or those that wanted to send "signals of professionalism" might have been keen to complete the questionnaire. Third, despite attempts to pilot the survey instrument for its comprehension amongst respondents, at least some variability in their interpretation of its wording and terminology cannot be ruled out. Nonetheless, the investigation presented here at least provides a starting point for understanding the adoption levels of strategic marketing within a uniquely interesting interdisciplinary and cross-cultural context.

With respect to the study objectives, the evidence indicates that, in absolute terms, four of the six practices (SMP# 2, 3, 5 and 6) have been widely adopted by about half or more of all firms in both samples, albeit by significantly larger proportions of United States' firms - as might have been expected; but with the notable exception of commissioned market research (part of SMP#2) which was only used by a fifth of the Indian manufacturers. Overall, this suggests that the widespread dissemination of the normative strategic marketing model has seen its messages get through to most business strategists, and particularly those in the United States where SMP# 1 and 4 were also widely embraced.

Regarding the differences in the profiles of response between the two samples, a few notable findings suggest that Western world approaches might not always be appropriate in emerging markets. First, despite understanding the merits research-based decision-making, it seems likely that in an emerging market a lack of available marketing service companies imposes limits on the business strategists' outsourcing options. Second, in contrast to their counterparts operating in established and mature markets, it seems the sheer size (large-base effects) and growth characteristics of emerging markets might facilitate an ability for strategists to plan over longer time periods; enjoy the benefit of target marketing without incurring any of the costs normally associated with branding, and; to ride the wave of generic sales growth in their markets. Certainly, these dynamics provide fertile ground for future research.

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Comparative and lexical analysis of wine tourism websites in five different regions

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Abstract
The increase in the popularity of wine across the world is reflected in the rise of wine tourism as an important niche service. Wine tour firms in this market are active users of websites in their marketing communications. We set out to investigate how wine tour companies in five different regions are using their websites to communicate persuasive and meaningful uniqueness to customer in their quest to clearly position their product offering. Text data is collected from 250 'About Us' sections of websites that promote wine tourism. Lexical analysis using DICTION software shows differences by region while hierarchical clustering analysis provides support for distinctive positioning across winescapes and a link to the mean scores provided by visitors on TripAdvisor. Implications are discussed, limitations are noted and possible areas for further research are indicated.

Keywords: Lexical analysis, comparative analysis, Wine Tourism, Websites,

The Role of the Customer Value Proposition: The Transition from Delivering a Promise of Value to Co-Creating a Proposal of Value

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Abstract

Although customer value propositions are regarded by many scholars and managers as critical to developing and implementing marketing strategy, there is less agreement about what is understood by the concept and how to gain benefits from its application. Here, we address this deficiency, explaining in particular how the transition from a value-in-exchange perspective to a contemporary value-in-use perspective has implications for the customer value proposition. This change in focus highlights a shift in considering the value proposition as a uni-directional promise of value, to a reciprocal value co-creation proposal. Using this revised perspective, a new definition and a conceptual framework are presented, which identify the components and process of value proposition development. Significantly, this framework highlights the joint responsibility of customer and supplier for value co-creation during resource integration. Some important areas of research are identified to advance this important topic within strategic marketing.

Keywords: customer value proposition; value-in-use; value co-creation; marketing strategy

Brand and design effects
on new product evaluation at the concept stage

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Abstract
Brand equity provides a high contribution to new product evaluation in consumption situations. The present study aims at measuring the brand contribution to the evaluation of a design concept at an early stage of the new product development process. The experimental design crosses four car concepts assessed on functional and hedonic dimensions, emotions and overall liking, and the brand of a generalist car maker. Results show that at this stage the direct effect of the brand hypothesized by the anchoring effect is moderated by typicality and weak compared to the design effect. In fact, the overall brand effect is mainly mediated by emotions. Furthermore brand equity and design are working through different intermediate evaluations, functional for the brand and hedonic for the design. Finally results also emphasize that emotion is a key mediating variable between functional and hedonic evaluations and overall liking.

Keywords: Design, Brand equity, Emotion.

Introduction

Involving customers in the new product development (NPD) has a positive impact on new product success (Gruner and Homburg, 2000). At early stages of NPD, when the product is not available and behavioural measures are not possible, a mock-up of the concept can be evaluated by a representative sample of the customers' target in a Concept Test (Ulrich and Eppinger, 2004). Early assessment of the concept benefits is even more important for complex products like cars, because late modifications of the concept would postpone the car launching and engender huge costs for the companies. Emotions are important components of the consumer response (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982). They are defined as mental state of readiness that arise from cognitive appraisals of events or thoughts that are relevant to one's well-being; emotions are accompanied by physiological processes, are expressed physically and may result in specific actions (Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer, 1999). Two factors among others contribute to the elicitation of emotions: the product appearance itself (Desmet and al., 2000) and the brand as emotions activate a categorical knowledge related to affect-laden experiences associated with a brand (Ruth, 2001).

One of the most important factors for the success of a new product is the contribution of the brand equity, defined as the mean of providing a differential response to marketing mix variables (Keller, 1993). However, the transfer of brand equity to the new product is not systematic and is related to both brand characteristics and congruity between concept and brand. Specifically the brand transfers its equity when its breadth is narrow and the brand-concept incongruity is moderate or when the breadth is broad and incongruity is large (Sheinin and Schmitt, 1994). It is thus important to evaluate the contribution of the brand to the new product evaluation.

The second factor is the design process which is directed to create an emotional reaction (Kreutzbauer and Malter, 2005). Several studies underline the strong correlation between product design and commercial success (Yamamoto and Lambert, 1994) and product design has become an even more decisive buy-argument in competitive business environments like automobile where cars are often similar regarding their technical definition, quality and price, (Demirbilek and Sener, 2003). Extensive research has been dedicated to the analysis of the relationships between product design and: product attractiveness (Noble and Kumar, 2010), product elicited emotions (Desmet et al., 2000), brand consideration (Bloch, 1995) and brand perception (Page and Herr, 2002).

In this context, the purpose of the paper is to analyze how the brand may impact the early evaluations of the product's benefits, elicited emotions and overall liking for several product designs. The results will show the larger contribution of emotions compared to the brand's contribution to the overall appreciation of the concepts' design.

Conceptual Framework

To study the effect of a stimulus presenting a new product description on customer response, we use the theoretical framework of advertising effect (Holbrook and Batra, 1987). Adapted to the NPD context, this framework explains overall evaluation toward a stimulus (like-dislike) by the interaction of two components (brand and concept) and the mediating role of three evaluations (functional, hedonic and emotional).

Through brand affect, brand has a direct and indirect effect on overall product evaluation. The evaluation process starts with an anchoring stage which is an affective and categorization

process. It uses information from the memory to create a first response which serves as an adaptation level. Expectancy-disconfirmation model uses congruency between the stimulus and the activated schema to evaluate the contribution of an additional cognitive effort. The second step of the evaluation is a subsequent adjustment of the anchor. This process is a cognitive evaluation of the characteristics of the concept which moves the adaptation level to the final evaluation level (Pham, Cohen, Pracejus and Hughes, 2001). The use of second step depends on cognitive capacity and motivation to process the information (Petty and Cacioppo, 1984).

During the anchoring phase, prominent semiotics cues increase accessibility to specific information which will determine the category schema used. One of the most prominent cue is the brand and research has shown that brand plays a major role during the anchoring process. The brand effect is direct and large if low involvement reduces the adjustment process (Maheswaran, Mackie and Chaiken, 1992). The effect of brand affect on evaluation is moderated by congruity between the brand and the concept (typicality): for a brand with a large breadth, the higher the typicality the lower the brand equity transfer (Sheinin and Schmitt, 1994; Odou, 2005). However, at early stages of the NPD process, no precise information is available on functional characteristics of the concept and the car design presented by roughs is a salient cue for these missing data (Bloch, 1995) and it can thus challenge the importance of the brand in the overall evaluation of a stimulus.

Functional and hedonic evaluation influence overall product evaluation through direct and indirect evaluations (Kempf and Smith, 1998). In the direct way, the product overall evaluation results from the evaluation of two types of benefits, the functional ones referring to the instrumental and practical characteristics of the product and the hedonic ones referring to the aesthetic, sensory and symbolic characteristics (Mahlke and Thüring, 2007). Consumers focus more on the functional benefits than on the hedonic benefits of a product until their minimum expectations of fulfilling utilitarian goals are met (Chitturi and al., 2007). In addition to this direct evaluation, functional and hedonic evaluations also influence overall product evaluation by an indirect route through emotions (Mahlke andThüring, 2007). Appraisal theorists in psychology support the central role of appraisals in the formation of emotions: emotions result from the comparison of an actual state with a desired state (Lazarus, 1991). More precisely, products elicit positive emotional responses when they exceed expectations on relevant benefits (Oliver, 1997).

Figure 1: Conceptual framework
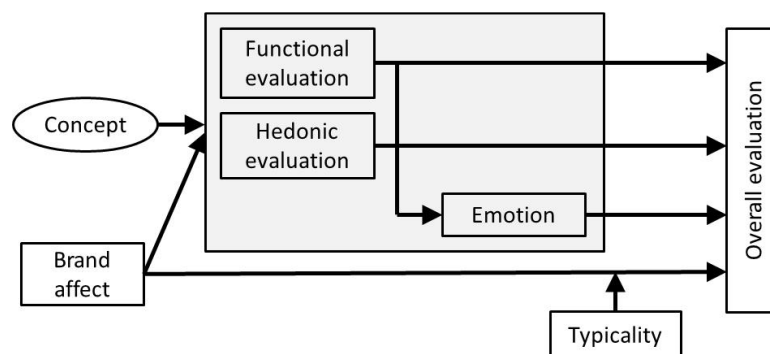
The conceptual framework is proposed in Figure 1 and the following hypotheses are tested: at early stages of the NPD process, in the context of a brand with a broad breath, (H1) Brand affect has a positive direct effect on overall evaluation; (H2) Functional, hedonic and emotion mediate concept effect (H2a) and brand effect (H2b) on overall stimulus evaluation; (H3) The concept typicality of the brand moderates the effect of the brand affect on overall evaluation, the higher the typicality the lower the brand equity transfer.

Methodology and Results

A mixed experimental design is used (Brand, 2 x Concepts, 4) to measure the differential effect of the presence/absence of the brand for several concepts with decreasing typicality: each respondent evaluates four concepts (intra-subject) with or without brand identification (between subjects).

Stimuli have been selected for their great perceived differences in terms of functional and hedonic benefits (pre-test, n=30) among nine vehicles from the sport utility vehicle segment (SUV). A4 format drawings identified by letters (FA, KT, RM, TU) are presented as shown on Fig.2 in a monadic sequential way. Drawings of the side view of the vehicle allow to conceal car company logo and standardize the presentation of the cars in terms of colors and equipment (such as hubcaps) so that the perceived differences would only come from car shapes. In the branded context, the logo and brand signature of a generalist European car maker are presented in the top left part of each picture. Typicality relative to the brand is measured for each car concept in a pre-test (n=70) as the mean of the two items proposed by Odou (2005). An Anova indicated that typicality levels are different among the concepts (F=67.6, p<.01, Bonferroni correction) with the following order for the means FA>KT>TU>RM.

Figure 2: Car concepts

One hundred thirty seven individuals were recruited in public places by gender (60% male) and by three age groups for unbranded context (n=47) and branded context (47 participants with a positive brand image and 43 with a negative brand image). Initial screening questions are based on car ownership and knowledge of the manipulated brand. Due to the test conditions which require short interviews, the number of items per concept has to be kept at the minimum. Two scales are measured by one item on an Osgood scale with 10 points: Brand affect (This brand is awful-perfect) and Overall stimulus evaluation for each concept (I really dislike-I really like). For the functional benefits, the hedonic benefits and the emotions a pre-tests (n=30)

help selecting the most discriminant items. Participants were asked to rate their perception of the concepts on 5-points semantic differential scales. Hedonic evaluation is made of nine items (alpha = 0.90). Functional evaluation is made of three items (alpha = 0.72). Emotional scale is a subset of the PrEmo, which is dedicated to the measurement of product appearance elicited emotions and has been validated with cars applications (Desmet, 2005). Five positive emotions and five negative emotions (reverse coding) have been assessed on a Likert 5-points scale and an unidimensional emotion score is computed. To ensure neutrality of the concept perception a final screening question at the end of the interview, enabled to disregard interview if the model and brand were recognized in a concept design.

Results

Anova results are presented in Table 1. A first model (model 1) supports the hypothesis (H1) that the brand affect influences the overall evaluation as well as the car concept. The brand and concept effect on mediating variables is supported only for functional and emotion but not for the hedonic dimension (H2 partially supported). Compared to car concept, brand affect has only a weak effect on the variables. The interaction between concept and brand affect is not significant and only age is significant as a control variable.

Table 1: ANOVA results

| | | Model 1 | | | | Model 2 | |
Dependent variable		Functional	Hedonic	Emotion	Overall	Emotion	Overall
	R^2	0.402	0.571	0.472	0.478	0.579	0.731
	F	60.67	120.06	80.72	81.54	149.57	369.07
Independent var.	p	<.01	<.01	<.01	<.01	<.01	<.01
		F	F	F	F	F	F
Concept	F	103.83 [a]	238.19 [a]	153.68 [a]	155.25 [a]		
Brand	F	31.05 [a]	n.s.	13.6 [a]	21.12 [a]	5.19 [b]	
Age	F	7.71 [a]	n.s.	3.69 [b]	n.s	4.04 [a]	
Functional	F					17.84 [a]	n.s.
Hedonic	F					220.89 [a]	24.58 [a]
Emotion	F						440.92 [a]
Typicality * Brand	F						5.85 [b]

a. sign <.01, b sign <.05, c sign <.10

In a second group of Anova (model 2) brand and concepts are replaced by mediating variables (functional, hedonic, emotion). Subjective variables greatly increases the percentage of variance explained for emotion and overall evaluation (R^2 from .58 to .73). Emotion is explained mainly by hedonic evaluation (η^2=.171) and much less by functional evaluation (η^2=.014) with a direct but small effect of the brand (η^2=.004). Emotion plays a major role in the explanation of overall evaluation variance (η^2=.218) with an additional effect of hedonic evaluation (η^2=.012). Direct effect of functional evaluation on overall evaluation is not significant. The hypothesis (H3) is supported as the direct effect of brand affect is significant but small (η^2=.003) and moderated by concept typicality: there is no direct effect of the brand when typicality is low.

Discussion, Limitations and Future Research

Four conclusions can be drawn from this study. First at an early stage of the NPD process, the brand does only play a minor role in the evaluation of the design. Surprisingly, the brand does not impact the overall evaluation by a contribution to the hedonic evaluation but by the functional evaluation. Without detailed information about product characteristics, brand name is used as a substitute and the brand equity transfer is done much more through the quality dimension than the image dimension. Second, the design of a car has a large effect on the concept overall evaluation through its influence on the hedonic appraisal which is the main determinant of the overall evaluation. This effect is coherent with former research which has shown that design plays a major role in the buying decision for a car (Kreutzbauer and Malter, 2005). Third, the results confirm that emotion is a main determinant of the overall evaluation of the car and should be systematically taken into account in the evaluation process of a new product at every stage of its development. The results confirm the Component of User Experience (CUE) model proposed by Mahlke and Thüring (2007) which assumes that emotion plays a mediating role for functional and hedonic evaluations. Furthermore, at early stages of the product development, emotion is mainly driven by hedonic evaluation. Fourth, the results only weakly support the two steps evaluation model which gave a main role to the brand to activate categorization in the first anchoring phase of an evaluation process. Even in case of a light involvement, without any physical contact with the product, the schema activated by the brand cue is not the main determinant of the adaptation level and design has a stronger effect at an early stage of the NPD. This result is coherent with former research that establishes the effect of design in facilitating categorization and in structuring beliefs on product and brands (Bloch, 1995).

Several limitations exist related to the choice of the stimuli: the brand is a generalist car maker with a medium awareness on the French market and the brand impact at the concept evaluation stage could be higher with a higher awareness. Besides, both functional and hedonic mediation of the brand impact on overall assessment could have significant effects for specialist car makers who are recognized for their technical superiority and attractive designs. Interaction effects could also arise from the choice of the product segment: at the moment, Sport Utility Vehicle are requested not only for their functional characteristics (off-road performances for instance) but also their fashionable appearance. Interactions between hedonic appraisal, functional appraisal and emotional responses could be different in sedan cars.

We underlined that product functional characteristics may be difficult to apprehend on pictures. Hedonic appraisal could also be biased by size perception effect of the car. As representative mock-ups of the concept are not available at the early stages of the new product development, some evaluate the relevance of virtual prototypes, digital mock-ups and immersive technologies to improve consumer testing (Bangcuyo and al., 2015). Future research should explore the connections between product design dimensions assessment and product presentation. Finally, measures of emotions can also be challenged as measures are not yet stabilized (Meiselman, 2015).

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From Matching to Creating Market Change: A Dynamic Marketing Capabilities View

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Organizational researchers are seeking to answer how organizations attain and sustain competitive advantage in changing environments. We propose the dynamic marketing capabilities (DMCs) view can respond to this question. From the DMCs view, to achieve competitive advantage, organizations can employ two distinct but complementary strategies: matching to the environment and creating market turbulence. We developed a framework to study the relationship between two distinct DMCs of proactive market orientation and value innovation), and organizational outcomes and how this relationship may be mediated by operational marketing capabilities and induced market turbulence. A sample of 270 usable responses was obtained from senior managers in Australia. After ensuring the constructs' reliability and validity, the hypotheses were tested utilizing structural equation modeling (SEM) and Monet Carlo simulation. The multi-mediation tests confirmed that operational marketing capabilities and induced market turbulence mediate the effect of DMCs on organizational outcomes.

Private Label Countervailing Power and Its Antecedents

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Abstract

Private Label (PL) owners attempt to reduce the powerful market positions of Manufacturer Brands (MB) in the FMCG context. This paper investigates the concept of private label countervailing power (PLCP) and its antecedents, using data obtained from on-site intercept surveys conducted in New Zealand. Using a two-level hierarchical generalised linear model (HGLM) we test the significance of nine variables identified as micro (individual) and meso (category) level antecedents to PLCP. We find consistency across models, across both household goods and beverages, and across three supermarkets, adding to the robustness of the results. We hypothesise and find effects at the micro and meso levels, as well as one significant cross level interaction effect. Direction is offered to PL owners who are advised to build perceptions of quality into their PL brands, foster consumer PL proneness, create consumer perception that MBs are indulgence goods and reinforce consumer doubts about MB authenticity.

Keywords: Private Label Countervailing Power, PLCP, Manufacturer Brands, HGLM,

Introduction

In the ongoing battle to win the hearts and minds of consumers, Private Labels (PL) and Manufacturer Brands (MB) engage in open warfare using the symbolic identity of their brands as weaponry and the supermarket floor as the battlefield. Evidence suggests that PLs would not be successful in their combat if they did not take on MBs in the sphere of brand meanings and symbols, e.g. in the building of brand image, personality, cultural meanings and relationships (Hoch, 1996; Hoch & Banerji, 1993; Kadirov, 2015). In engaging in these operations, PL owners take part in countervailing acts, directed at undermining the favourable market position of MBs through questioning the meaningfulness and relevance of MB differentiation (Carpenter, Glazer, & Nakamoto, 1994; Kumar & Steenkamp, 2007), and the sowing of anti-brand culture that centres on deemphasising symbolic advantages of MBs and encouraging "smart" shopping and consumer thriftiness (Kumar & Steenkamp, 2007). This paper investigates the concept of private label countervailing power (PLCP) and its antecedents, as PL owners attempt to reduce the powerful market positions of MBs in the FMCG context.

Conceptual Background

Private Label Countervailing Power

Although retailer trademarks are generally perceived as cheap substitutes to established MBs, the evidence shows that modern PL marketing has gone beyond the "cheap and nasty" approach and PL marketers now focus more on competing against MBs on quality and authenticity (Hoch, 1996; Hoch and Banerji, 1993; Kadirov, 2015; Kumar and Steenkamp, 2007). Hoch (1996) argues that PLs are also a brand, however, one must keep in mind that they do not compete as just another brand. Differing from straight MB competitors, PLs dominate stores and benefit from presence in most product categories. Moreover, PLs tend to have storewide uninhibited presence and available shelf space, while PL owners jockey for a power position that gives them an edge over MB marketers (Hoch, 1996). Using available resources and skills, retailers and distributors use PLs as a tool that guarantees favourable outcomes. Hence, it can be said that the PL versus MB struggle is a power struggle.

There has been a growing interest among researchers in studying consumer willingness to pay a price premium for MBs over PLs (Connor and Peterson, 1992; Sethuraman and Cole, 1997, 1999; Skuras and Vakrou, 2002; Steenkamp, Van Heerde, and Geyskens, 2010). However, there is sparse research on what drives PLs ability to create consumer unwillingness to pay such a premium. We define PL countervailing power (PLCP) as the consumer-based power and ability of PLs to counteract and/or offset brand manufacturer strategies directed at both differentiating MBs and fostering consumer proclivity to pay price premium.

Antecedents of PLCP

The literature identifies a number of antecedents to PLCP including the following;

PL Quality; PLs' competitive position is significantly improved if PLs are able to deliver consistent quality (Hoch and Banerji, 1993). Empirical research suggests that consumers in general do not see the PL-MB quality gap to be significantly large (Olson, 2012; Steenkamp et al., 2010). PL proneness; Consumer proneness towards PLs is influenced by positive attitude toward PLs (Richardson, Jain, & Dick, 1996); Brand Authenticity; Consumer perception that MB brands use obtrusive marketing techniques, commercial motives and consumer manipulation reduces their perceptions of MB authenticity (Beverland, 2005; Holt, 2004). Brand indulgence; the consumer perception that national brands are indulgence products, non-essential items of desire unlike PLs which lack the stigma of indulgence attached to MB products (Berry, 1994; Kemp, 1998; Kivetz and Simonson). PL/MB production; Consumer

perception that PLs are manufactured by the same producer as MBs (Steenkamp, van Heerde, Geyskens, 2009); PL Production Difficulty; Consumer perception that it is difficult to make good quality products in this category (Aaker and Keller, 1990); Category Involvement; the salience of the product category to the consumer, (Zaichowsky, 1985); and Price-Quality Perception; the degree to which price is perceived to be an indicator of quality within this category (Kumar & Steenkamp, 2007); Brand Loyalty; the degree to which consumers remain loyal to the brand (Ailawadi, Pauwels, Steenkamp, 2008).

In line with the extant literature we hypothesise the following relationships between these antecedents and PLCP;

H1: At the micro (individual) level, consumer perceptions of PL Quality, PL proneness, and MB indulgence are positively related to PLCP, while consumer perceptions of MB Authenticity is negatively related to PLCP.

H2: At the meso (category) level, the measures of the difficulty of quality production within the category and the same manufacturer producing PL/MB are positively related to PLCP, while category level price-quality perceptions are negatively related to PLCP, after controlling for the micro level variables (PL quality, PL proneness, MB indulgence, and MB authenticity).

H3: As the difficulty of quality production increases at the meso level, the effect on PLCP of PL quality increases at the micro level.

H4: As the category-related perception that both PL and MB are produced by the same manufacturer increases at the meso level, the effect on PLCP of PL quality increases at the micro level.

Method

Table 1 reports the constructs, their operationalization, sources, and reliability indices. The dependent variable is operationalised as a binary shift from consumer willingness to pay a price premium, toward consumer unwillingness to pay such a premium including consumer willingness to pay less for a manufacturer brand over a private label.

Table 1: Constructs and their operationalisation

Construct	Operationalisation	Source and Cronbach
PL Consumer-based Countervailing Power (PLCP)	In this category, I'm willing to pay: 0 = more for a brand over a private label 1 = nothing or less for a brand over a private label	Own development
PL Quality (PLQ)	In the category X, shops' own labels are of: Inferior Quality.....................Superior Quality	Adapted from Erdem, Swait, and Valenzuela, 2006
PL Proneness (PLP)	Generally I'm someone who likes buying shops' own labels.	Kadirov, 2015

Brand Authenticity (MBA)	In the category X, most of the manufacturer brands are: Phony...Real; Imitation...Genuine; Inauthentic...Authentic	Kadirov, 2015 0.9029
Brand Indulgence (MBI)	In the category X, manufacturer brands are: Necessity...Luxury; Essential Product...Non-essential Product; Non-indulgence product...Indulgence Product; Basic Need Product...Object of Desire	Own development 0.8646
PL/MB Production (PL/MBProd.)	In the category X, shop's own labels are produced by brand manufacturers.	Steenkamp, van Heerde, Geyskens (2009)
Production Difficulty (PD)	In the category X, making good quality products is difficult.	Aaker and Keller (1990)
Category Involvement (CI)	The category X is very important to me. The category X interests me a lot.	Zaichkowsky (1985) 0.8034
Price-Quality Perception (PQP)	In the category X, the higher the price of a product, the higher the quality; In the category X, the old saying "you get what you pay for" is generally true; In the category X, the price of a product is a good indicator of its quality; In the category X, you always have to pay a bit more for the best.	Lichtenstein, Ridgway, and Netemeyer (1993) 0.8578
Brand loyalty (BL)	Once I choose a brand, I don't like to switch; I prefer the brand I always buy instead of trying another one that I'm not sure about; I see myself as a brand loyal person; If my preferred brand is not in the supermarket, I can easily choose another brand (r)	Ailawadi, Pauwels, Steenkamp (2008) 0.6291

The data for this study comes from on-site intercept surveys on private labels and manufacturer brands conducted in New Zealand. The survey comprises twenty different FMCG product categories including food, beverage, and household care subgroups. The data-set has 1074 usable observations. The number of observations per product category averages 60.

The two-level hierarchical generalised linear model (HGLM) is used to statistically analyse the data structure (Raudenbush and Bryk, 2002). In the model, i = 1, .., njk individual observations (level-1) are nested within j =1, .., jk product categories (level-2). The dependent variable is non-metric (binary outcome), hence we use a binomial sampling model (Bernoulli distribution) and a logit identity link. We add PL Quality, PL proneness, Brand Authenticity, Brand Indulgence and the control variables (gender, income, brand loyalty, three supermarket dummies) into the the level-1 model. The level-2 model captures the influence of the following category-level factors: dummies for beverages and household-care products, production difficulty, PL production by MB, category involvement, and category price-quality link.

We centre the level-1 metric variables within the categories and apply grand mean centering to the level-2 variables (Raudenbush and Bryk, 2002). The constructs of interest are specified as random effects, while control variables are constrained to be constant across categories. We estimate the model via three estimation methods: restricted penalized qauzi-likelihood (PQL), adaptive Gauss-Hermite (AGH) quadrature, the higher-order Laplace approach.

Results

The unconstrained (null) model results show that there exists significant variability in PLCP at the category level (level-2), thus providing statistical justification for running HLM analyses and confirming the necessity of the HGLM setup ($\chi 2(19) = 52.55$, $p < .001$).

Table 1 presents the results. The three estimation methods return closely comparable results. The intercept in the population-average model represent the expected log-odds of high PLCP for a person with category mean values on the predictors. This corresponds to the probability of $1/(1 + \exp\{1.759\}) = .146$ (14.6%). This number is 14.3% for AGH and 14.4% for Laplace. The estimated probability of high PLCP is 12.88% in the unit-specific model (not reported here). These numbers closely correspond to the total PL share in New Zealand estimated to be in the range of 13-13.5% (Nielsen, 2014) and testify to the validity and robustness of our model.

Table 1: Estimation of fixed effects (population-average model with robust standard errors)

HGLM ESTIMATION METHODS	Restricted PQL		AGH Quadrature		HO Laplace	
	Coef.	*t-ratio*	*Coef.*	*t-ratio*	*Coef.*	*t-ratio*
CATEGORY LEVEL (2) VARIABLES						
Level 2 Intercept, γ_{00}	-1.759	-6.260***	-1.783	-6.059***	-1.779	-5.991***
Household Goods Dummy, γ_{01}	0.310	0.795	0.301	0.714	0.302	0.713
Beverages Dummy, γ_{02}	0.473	1.482	0.409	1.220	0.394	1.178
Production Difficulty, γ_{03} (PD)	0.574	1.973*	0.556	1.835*	0.557	1.833*
PL/MB Production, γ_{04} (PL/MBProd)	0.596	2.121**	0.572	1.955*	0.550	1.873*
Category Involvement, (CI) γ_{05}	0.207	0.585	0.217	0.567	0.215	0.560
Price-Quality Perception, (PQP) γ_{06}	-0.867	-4.674***	-0.894	-4.544***	-0.902	-4.559***
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL (1) VARIABLES						
PL quality (PLQ)	0.120	4.931***	0.123	4.864***	0.121	4.796***
PL Proneness (PLP)	0.380	8.379***	0.386	8.019***	0.386	7.954***
Brand Authenticity (MBA)	-0.195	-4.065***	-0.198	-3.995***	-0.201	-4.054***
Brand Indulgence (MBI)	0.064	2.225**	0.067	2.221**	0.068	2.220**

CROSS-LEVEL INTERACTIONS						
PL Quality(PLQ)*Production Difficulty (PD)	-0.127	-1.866*	-0.131	-1.879*	-0.130	-1.874*
PL Quality (PLQ)*PL/MB Production (PL/MBP)	-0.094	-0.886	-0.098	-0.865	-0.093	-0.814
CONTROL VARIABLES						
Gender	0.123	0.712	0.134	0.745	0.131	0.725
Income Dummy	0.218	1.506	0.235	1.561	0.231	1.521
Brand Loyalty	-0.161	-2.334**	-0.166	-2.329**	-0.166	-2.303**
Supermarket Pak'nSave dummy	-0.017	-0.078	-0.019	-0.083	-0.015	-0.066
Supermarket Countdown dummy	0.350	1.413	0.352	1.370	0.354	1.364
Supermarket New World dummy	0.198	0.870	0.212	0.891	0.214	0.893

The level-1 intercepts in the table represent the expected difference in the log-odds of high PLCP between two consumers within the same category who differ by one unit on the micro-level variable. Findings are consistent across all three models, across both household goods and beverages, and across the supermarket dummy variables, adding to the robustness to the reported results. Supporting H1, PLQ, PLP, and MBI are all significant and positive, while MBA is negatively related to PLCP.

The level-2 intercepts represent the expected difference in the log-odds of high PLCP of consumers having the same micro-level means but being within categories which differ by one unit on the meso-level variable. Of the meso-level variables and in partial support of H2, we find as expected that PD, PL/MBProd are both positively related, while PQP is negatively related to PLCP. Two cross-level interactions were apparent, however, contrary to expectation the first shows a negative moderating relationship (H3), suggesting that in product categories in which it is difficult to achieve high quality production, the effect on PLCP of PL quality becomes weaker. The cross-level moderating effect of PL/MBProd is not significant (H4).

Discussion

These findings give significant direction to marketers of private labels. PL owners are advised to build perceptions of quality into their PL brands and foster PL proneness. At the same time, they must work to create consumer perception that MBs are indulgence goods while PLs are necessity; and also try to reinforce consumer doubts about MB authenticity. Although PLCP on average is stronger in product categories with high production difficulty and a stronger belief that PLs and MBs are sourced from the same manufacturer, the evidence shows caution is in order. In the former case, it might become increasingly difficult to convert PL quality into PL power.

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The role of social influence and brand identity in building consumer - brand relationships in an emerging market

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Abstract

This study compliments prior research, which integrated relationship marketing and social identity perspectives of brand loyalty, as well as incorporates the concept of social influence (i.e. the influence of significant or referent others). Data collection was conducted using a survey with a sample of 400 fashion-clothing consumers, who gave reponses to the constructs' measurement scales in relation to a clothing brand they bought in the last six months, in an emerging market context of Vietnam. The findings suggest marketers in emerging markets like Vietnam need to incorporate brand relationship-building in their marketing strategies. The significant role of social influence on brand identification and brand loyalty found in this study help marketers to understand the importance of planning marketing activities targeting at referent others and trace the chains of effects of those strategies.

Keywords: Social influence, brand identity, brand relationship, brand loyalty, emerging markets

Measuring the impact of line and brand leveraging strategies using shareholder-oriented value metrics: the case of Automobile industry

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Abstract

Shareholder value–based financial metrics can provide insights into the relative effects of branding strategies including horizontal brand extension and vertical line extension. For vertical line extensions, this study examines additional specifications including vertical-up and vertical-down formats; for horizontal brand extensions, this study includes moderators such as attribute fit and image fit. This framework adopts a multidisciplinary approach, integrating the marketing-finance interface by augmenting the Fama-French-Carhart model with the conditional volatility GARCH, and further applies Dynamic Vector Autoregressive (DVAR) models to data from the automobile industry. Findings reveal that horizontal extensions with attribute-fit is a conservative strategy with steady risk and return, but those with image fit are risky and offer effective promise as a cash boosting strategy. Vertical-up differentiation is a challenging strategy with high risk and high return, and vertical-down is a relatively safe strategy.

Keywords: Brand Leveraging Strategy, Marketing-Finance Interface, Shareholder-oriented value metrics

Applying branding theory to political marketing: a pilot study

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Abstract

The application of marketing concepts to politics has been accelerating. However, the use of brand evaluation methodologies in political marketing is still relatively underdeveloped. This paper draws on recent developments in brand image measurement, based on associative network memory theory, to pilot the application of modern branding theory to politics. The context used is the measurement of candidate attribute associations in a CNN/ORC poll taken during the 2016 USA presidential primaries (n=920). The application of branding theory reveals that candidates' overall level of attribute association is closely associated with subsequent primary campaign success, while the analysis of the presumptive nominees' political image maps give insights into why Clinton has advanced ahead of Trump in recent presidential polls.

Keywords: Political marketing, political brands, brand evaluation methodologies

Introduction

Political marketing is a relatively new field; however, the body of literature discussing the dependence of politics on traditional marketing techniques is growing (Baines, Harris, & Lewis, 2002; Lees-Marshment, 2003; Lees-Marshment, 2001; Lock & Harris, 1996). This has led to some criticism by political science practitioners for introducing a 'consumer-like' force, observed in business management and the marketplace, into politics (Lees-Marshment, 2003). There is some subsequent concern that political parties, politicians, and political issues ought not to be seen as commodities to be marketed to the voting public with the sole aim of winning elections. This refusal to acknowledge the possibilities of political marketing has stifled the development of political marketing theories, concepts and tools in some quarters, while in other areas political consultants and their clients forge ahead with the development and application of more sophisticated marketing techniques.

One area in which consumer-focused activities and theories of marketing have been successfully 'adopted' to political marketing is marketing intelligence. Marketing intelligence has encouraged a more responsive government, whose "political products and services [are] designed to meet citizen demands rather than elite political rhetoric" (Lees-Marshment, 2003, p. 2). In meeting this demand another focal marketing concept, branding, has been applied to the political context, as it has been observed that the way citizens make voting decisions imitates how they make commercial brand choices (Reeves, de Chernatony, & Carrigan, 2006). Branding in politics refers to the product developed, from policies to party leader, and how this offering is communicated with the "market" or voting public (Smith & French, 2009). For example, marketing intelligence, to a degree, allows political parties to identify key political issues and public opinion on the issue, such as gun policy, and then to develop their policy product and brand around it, as with American conservatives who are typically pro-gun and can be appealed to by policies and politicians that express similar views.

Furthermore, the application of branding to political marketing allows for branding-based performance analysis of politicians and parties, both in regards to voter loyalty as well as to how voters learn about and evaluate politicians and their political (Smith & French, 2009). However, at present, the techniques used to identify political issues and to determine political performance are relatively uncomplicated. They offer few feedback loops except overall voting intention and the count of votes from elections. Recent advances in brand image measurement provide new tools that could be applied to this problem, yielding brand image maps that describe the strengths and weaknesses of politicians and parties in detail.

Brand image analysis can include attribute elicitation, measures of brand image and brand awareness, and various other approaches. Romaniuk (2013) has pioneered an emphasis on measuring brand knowledge, and her methodology has recently been extended to another cognate field, science communication, with considerable success. Specifically, Wright, Teagle, and Feetham (2014) developed the application of brand knowledge measures to visual concept boards to enable a quantitative evaluation of public reactions in the politically controversial area of Climate Engineering. The application of brand image methodologies to politics may similarly enable political parties to better measure and understand the importance of the issues of the day, and to better communicate with their constituencies. Such improvements in understanding and communication have the potential to improve voter voice and thus strengthen the overall democratic process.

This paper presents the first stage of research intended to determine whether the brand evaluation methodologies of Wright, Feetham and Teagle (2014) can be applied to a political context, specifically the 2016 Democratic and Republican presidential primaries in the USA.

Methodology

The data analysed in this study were obtained online from a poll published by CNN and ORC International. This was one of series of polls commissioned by the news media to track progress in the US presidential primaries. This particular poll was undertaken using telephone interviews conducted between February 24-27, and released on Tuesday the 1st of March 2016. The sample achieved was 920 adult Americans who were either registered voters (n=910) or planned to register to vote (n=10). CNN and ORC International identified a sampling error of plus or minus 3%.

The poll investigated participants' opinion and evaluation of political candidates for the presidential primaries for both the Democratic and Republican parties. These included Hillary Clinton and Bernie Sanders for the Democratic party, and Donald Trump, John Kasich, Ted Cruz, Marco Rubio and Ben Carson from the Republican Party. Participants were asked to evaluate these politicians' abilities on a variety of issues. The question wording used was a single forced choice for each attribute, as follows: "Thinking about all the major candidates still running for the presidency, regardless of whom you support, which one do you think would do the best job handling ..." The attributes tested were the economy, terrorism, healthcare, immigration, race relations, foreign policy, and gun policy. Presentation of attributes and politicans was randomized to reduce the likelihood of order effects.

The analysis of this data closely follows the concept evaluation methodologies deployed by Wright, Teagle, and Feetham (2014), adapted from associative network memory theory approach to brand evaluation developed by Romaniuk (2013). That is, the total attribute counts are considered as a measure of overall candidate evaluation that is not subject to desirability bias, while individual scores are compared against the benchmarks expected from overall concept/candidate popularity and each attribute's overall frequency (although the forced choice response suppressed variation in attribute frequency for the present study). This yields a distribution of actual and expected attribute counts that can be used to produce a table and of attribute skews. These skews provide a brand image map for each politician indicating their strengths and weaknesses after controlling for their overall level of support.

The purpose of the present analysis is exploratory. That is, it seeks to provide a proof of concept of the application of Wright, Teagle and Feetham's (2014) method to political marketing, and to discuss the face validity of the results that are obtained. The interpretation of this information relies on the assumption that the attribute counts represent the ease of recall of relevant memory networks. Politicians that have a greater overall attribute counts are likely to come to mind in a positive fashion more readily and thus garner greater support. Brand image skews on particular attributes will indicate the concepts to which each politician has unusually strong or unusually weak affinity in the minds of respondents. These skews therefore provide guidance on the emphasis each campaign should give to particular attributes.

Results and Discussion

The data were first converted from the percentages reported by CNN/ORC to count data, by multiplying each percentage by the sample size. Table 1 presents the results ranked by total the attribute associations for each politician.

Table 1 | Observed association counts for US Democratic and Republican presidential candidate nominee						
	Clinton	**Trump**	**Sanders**	**Cruz**	**Rubio**	**Carson**	**Kasich**
Terrorism	276	304	101	92	55	28	37
The economy	230	350	156	46	46	28	37
Foreign policy	340	193	110	101	74	37	37
Gun policy	239	258	166	110	46	28	18
Immigration	230	285	147	64	101	28	28
Race relations	267	147	202	55	101	83	28
Health care	276	184	193	55	46	92	18
Count of associations	1858	1720	1076	524	469	322	202

From associative network memory theory, it can be expected that the higher a candidate's count of positive associations the more easily they will come to mind and the more public support they will receive. This interpretation is supported by subsequent events. By end of the state-by-state primary selections, the leading candidates in Table 1 (Clinton and Trump) were the presumptive nominees of their parties. Further, the ranking of the other candidates (Sanders, Cruz, Rubio and Carson, Kasich) almost exactly reflected the order in which they suspended their campaigns. Kasich is the outlier here, having continued to campaign for some time despite little support.

Another measure of the face validity and utility of this result is to compare it to delegate counts achieved by each candidate. These must be considered by party due to the differing numbers of delegates selected by the Republican and Democrat parties. Consistent with the rankings in Table 1, for the Democratic party, Clinton (2220 delegate excluding super delegates) outperformed Sanders (1831 delegates excluding super delegates) and as noted became the presumptive nominee. For the Republican party, Trump with 1542 delegates became the presumptive nominee, while the ranking of the other Republican candidates closely reflects their final delegate counts with Cruz at 559, Rubio at 165, Carson at 7, and Kasich at 161. In this case, Carson is the outlier.

At the time of writing Clinton, with the highest overall association count, is polling higher than Trump for the general election. Specifically, Clinton is polling at +6.1 points over Trump from an average of seven polls collected between the 16th and the 28th of June 2016 (realclearpolitics.com, downloaded 30 June 2016). Therefore, it can be argued that total

association counts in Table 1 predict subsequent primary voter support as well as subsequent general election polls.

Political image maps

A chi-square test is used check whether there were significant differences attribute allocations by candidate. As expected, the results have $p < 0.01$ showing that attribute associations vary between political nominees. Table 2 shows the difference in counts between expected values and actual values on which the chi-square calculation is based. This can be used to interpret the skews from expected results that reveal the brand image of the individual political nominees. The variation in skews shows that the politicians involved have distinct brands images.

	Clinton	Trump	Sanders	Cruz	Rubio	Carson	Kasich
Terrorism	4	52	-56	15	-13	-19	7
The economy	-36	103	2	-29	-21	-19	8
Foreign policy	74	-53	-44	26	6	-9	8
Gun policy	-27	11	11	35	-21	-19	-11
Immigration	-34	41	-5	-10	35	-18	-1
Race relations	3	-97	50	-19	35	37	-1
Health care	15	-58	42	-18	-20	47	-10

| Difference between observed and theoretically expected association counts for US Democratic and Republican presidential candidate nominee

Analysis of these deviations allows political candidates to identify the issues that they under or over perform on. This can guide the candidate on areas to improve as well as the strong points that can be played upon to increase voter support. For example, looking specifically at Donald Trump, there are positive skews on the issues of the economy, immigration and terrorism; however, Trump is underperforming on race relations and foreign policy. Clinton is over performing in regards to foreign policy but is less strong in other areas. Figure 1 presents the attribute skews as graphical political image maps for the two presumptive nominees. Maps for all primary candidates in the poll are given in the Appendix and will be discussed at the conference presentation.

Figure 1 | Political Image Maps for the Presumptive Nominees
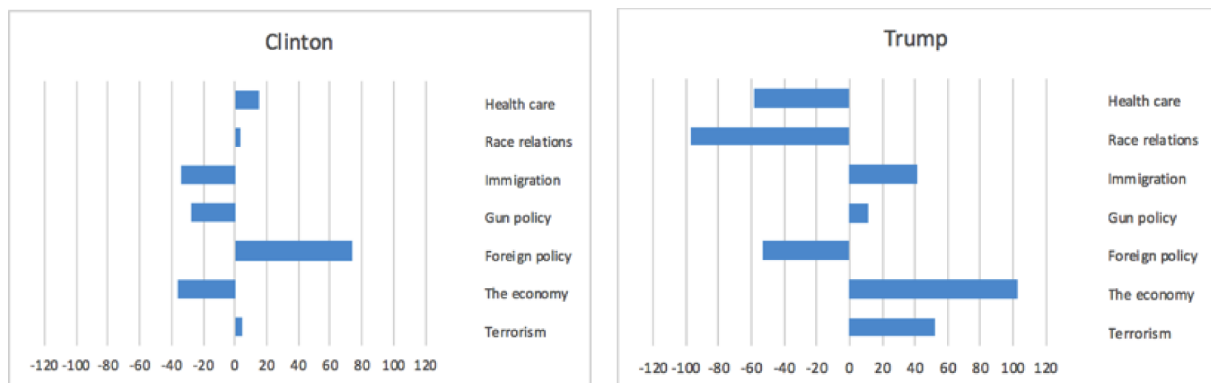
These results have significant practical implications for the nominees as they move into the presidential election race. For example, Clinton's first major speech against Trump after she became the presumptive nominee focused exclusively on foreign policy, where she holds a major advantage over Trump. In contrast Trump has continued to campaign extensively on terrorism and immigration (where he does hold an advantage) but also on race issues where he is at a major disadvantage (for example, his criticism of the presumed bias of a Mexican judge presiding over a lawsuit against Trump University). Trump has not concentrated his campaigning in the area where his advantage is greatest, namely the economy.

Conclusion

This study has successfully applied the method of Wright, Teagle and Feetham (2014) to brand evaluation in the political context. It found that the Democratic and Republican politicians running for their respective party's presidential candidacy have distinct, non-substitutable brand images in regards to political or policy issues. Furthermore, the evidence suggests that association counts for policy issues are associated with subsequent voter support for candidates in both the Democratic and Republican presidential primaries elections, and in polls of candidate support for the upcoming general election.

These findings have practical implications for politics and politicians. For example, they could have assisted the decision by politicians to continue running or drop out during the presidential primaries. They also identify areas of strength that politicians can focus on when addressing voters, and areas of weakness on which they can seek improvement.

The research is restricted to a pilot study that provides proof of concept. There are many avenues now open for future research. The generalizability of the results is the first consideration, and findings should be tested over numerous political contexts; including the investigation of both politicians and political parties from different countries. This could include comparison with alternative multi-attribute models of political branding. Another line of research will be to determine whether events linked to specific attributes skews (e.g. Clinton's foreign policy speech, Trump's criticism of the Mexican heritage of a judge hearing a commercial case involving Trump University, or an external event such as a terrorism attack) can be used to predict changes in overall support for the relevant candidate. A further line of research will be to test the stability of the attribute associations and to determine how quickly and under what circumstances they change. In other words, what interventions cause voters to change their views about politicians and political parties?

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Appendix | Political Image Maps for the Primary Candidates

Clinton

Issue	Value
Health care	
Race relations	
Immigration	
Gun policy	
Foreign policy	
The economy	
Terrorism	

Trump

Issue	Value
Health care	
Race relations	
Immigration	
Gun policy	
Foreign policy	
The economy	
Terrorism	

Sanders

Issue	Value
Health care	
Race relations	
Immigration	
Gun policy	
Foreign policy	
The economy	
Terrorism	

Cruz

Issue	Value
Health care	
Race relations	
Immigration	
Gun policy	
Foreign policy	
The economy	
Terrorism	

Rubio

Issue	Value
Health care	
Race relations	
Immigration	
Gun policy	
Foreign policy	
The economy	
Terrorism	

Carson

Issue	Value
Health care	
Race relations	
Immigration	
Gun policy	
Foreign policy	
The economy	
Terrorism	

Kasich

Issue	Value
Health care	
Race relations	
Immigration	
Gun policy	
Foreign policy	
The economy	
Terrorism	

Get some respect, buy organic foods! When everyday consumer choices serve as costly signaling

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Status considerations have recently been linked to pro-social behaviors. This research shows, counterintuitively, that everyday pro-social consumer behaviors such as favoring organic foods can serve as a costly signal. Key ideas from the costly signaling theory and continuum model of consumer impression formation are synthetized into a novel conceptual framework. Study 1 showed across three food products that the image of consumers favoring their organic versions was marked by higher degree of altruism and sophistication – cues of a costly signal. Study 2 replicated these findings with another sample and wider range of products and demonstrated that observing consumers' personal values influence the image formed of organic food favorers. Study 3 established that similar image effects emerge also through a less conscious mental process and in relation to the way organic food favorers are socially treated. This research raises many theoretical and managerial implications.

Keywords: Organic food, consumer image, costly signaling, status, pro-sociality

"My favourite beers to brew, Piña-Colada and Blonde-Voyage": Meet the Scottish Micro-craft Brewers

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Abstract
The aim of this working paper is to investigate the branding strategies of the micro-craft breweries in Scotland who have less than five employees. Key contributions of this qualitative research has been the ability to interview the brew masters or their brand. The contribution to marketing academics and industry practitioners is exploring the unique branding strategies and practices originating from this artisan industry. Micro-craft breweries in the Scotland have created employment and export opportunities while fulfilling innovative brand experiences for beer lovers who are seeking a quality, differentiated product while supporting local businesses that have grown one pint at a time.

Key words: Scotland; Micro-craft breweries; Brand Promotion

Introduction/Background

The craft beer industry emerged from the USA in the early 1980's and today has become popular in the UK, Europe, Australia and rapidly expanding to China. The key defining attributes of a craft brewery include: small production (for example in the USA craft beer annual production is less than 6 million barrels of beer per year) independent; traditional (flavor derives from traditional or innovative brewing ingredients and their fermentation). See the appendix for a full listing of the industry's attributes and characteristics. The chart below shows the eye-opening reality that American craft beer industry is exploding.

USA Craft Brewers Stats	2013	2014
Volume of the USA beer market	7.8%	11%
Share of the total USA Beer market	14.3%	19.3%
Retail dollar value from Craft breweries	$ 14.3 billion	$ 19.6 billion

(Brewers Association, 2016)

In January 2015 The Brewers' Association of Scotland was established with Scotland's leading craft brewers with the aim to give a voice to a sector that has expanded exponentially in recent years. This newly formed association established quality standards for the artisan beer sector and provided a joined-up focus on market development, promotion and innovation. The goal of this association is to have an effective industry body to help the craft brewers to achieve their business aspirations (Huband, 2015). The benefits of such a body are clear: more choice, greater levels of consumer awareness and understanding, high quality, higher growth, all underpinned by targeting support from local governmental agencies.

Sales for Craft beer currently account for 2.5% of all beers sales in the UK, and 20% of UK consumers surveyed say they drink craft beer. One hundred and seventy new craft breweries opened in the UK in the last 18 months, taking the total number of breweries in the UK to 1,300 – more per capita than any other country (Scottish Enterprise, 2016). Most importantly against the back drop of a largely flat UK market for beer consumption, craft beer is growing at 23% annually (Scottish Enterprise, 2016). There are currently over 100 craft breweries operating across Scotland, with numbers increasing on a monthly basis, servicing both a growing market in the UK and overseas. The UK premium bottled ale market, for example, is worth an estimated £490 million – up 10.5% year on year, with estimates that this will grow to over £1bn by 2020 (Carmichael, 2016).

Craft beers appeal to customers who are seeking a taste revolution where the product features enhances their economic benefit, resulting in more satisfaction (Kleban and Nickerson, 2012). This economic benefit results in much lower price elasticity and allows the craft breweries to charge higher prices capturing higher margins. The breweries are differentiated by geographical location and capitalise on the perceived economic value consumers acquire and the very experience of drinking craft beer. A well connected craft brewery can create a localised beer that a large brewery would find difficult to compete with. This leads to the crucial strategy whereby craft breweries compete by offering either a highly diversified specialist beer or a locally connected product (Watne and Hakala, 2013). The craft breweries have demonstrated that one of their key critical success factors is to connect with the local community (Holden and Kingham, 2010) and offer either a highly diversified specialised beer in taste or alcohol content.

There is abundant literature about the growth of the craft beer industry, particularly in America but very little research conducted about their actual branding promotions. It is important for academics and industry practitioners to research micro-craft breweries since there are known for their competitiveness, entrepreneurship and growth strategies. For Scotland the industry provides employment, a boost to tourism and is a co-partner to the country's whiskey trade.

Promoting brands falls into three categories:
1. Interactional marketing – face-to-face activities between the seller and buyer
2. Transactional marketing–known as the traditional approach, mass communication, impersonal, focus on the product
3. E-marketing – use of the internet or interactive technologies with known customers

The extant literature has stressed that SME's perform little transactional activities instead favouring transactional activities due to their limited capital, production capacity and inability to target mass markets (Centeno and Hart, 2012; Brodie et al., 2008). Coviello et al., (2000) suggest that SME's use a variety of promotional strategies at different times with certain groups of customers stressing their uniqueness. Achieving sales goals remains important and to be successful the SME brand does more than just sales activities including: close and personal communications in the form of face-to-face branding activities such as trade shows; personal selling; WOM; sponsorship of special events or creating their own unique promotional strategies (Centeno et al, 2013). The literature addresses e-marketing as an electronic dialogue with customers (Coviello, 2001) which opens communication with customers and suppliers. SME's web sites usually have two components, a basic element providing information and a web 2.0 function of interaction (Kessler, 2007). In addition SME's have quickly adapted digital functions of ecommerce, promotions, customers sharing experiences, educational videos and chat rooms.

Methodology
A qualitative approach was appropriate since it is well suited for exploratory research and has been recommended for use in unknown areas, such as SME brands (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991; Creswell, 1998. Qualitative research explores the evolving and dynamic context of marketing activities within SME's (Carson and Cromie, 1990). In-depth interviews were conducted at eight Scottish microbreweries with 12 respondents (8 brew masters and four brewery brand managers). The interviews were held at the breweries lasting approximately seventy-five minutes and were conducted over a period of four months, March-June, 2016. There were also many opportunities to observe the brew masters' branding techniques and lively chats with customers "providing a closer access to reality" (Gummesson, 2007, p 130).

Data collection, analysis and interpretation of the data was completed solely by the authors of this paper. A set of structured questions to elicit the brew masters' responses describing their branding strategies were the cornerstone of the research. The interviews were transcribed verbatim and analyzed using the qualitative software package N-Vivo 11. The main benefits of structured interviews is that researchers can move far beyond 'snapshots' of 'what' or 'how many' to probing questions relating to 'how' and 'why' type of questions and thus to explore links between phenomena in real life settings (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Findings and Discussion
The brew masters and brand managers provided a variety of responses, unsurprisingly most of the branding strategies focused on these key antecedents: quality of product;

uniqueness; being local; promoting themselves (as brew masters); and foremost promoting the craft beer industry in a collaborative manner.

"We learn from each other . . . the idea is for someone to make a great beer, then someone improve upon the experience . . .it's perpetual tinkering to make the beer better and grow the industry one craft beer brewery at a time" (Black Wolf Brewery Brand Manager)

"Are craft breweries competing? . . .not really, it's sort of a knock-down effect . . . once a craft brewery gets established in a pub, that's a win! . . . then another craft brewery will follow . . . we open up the market for each other" (Tryst Brew master)

All of the breweries had their own websites, which provided personal stories and antidotes about their start-up challenges. The websites offered on-line sales of product and merchandise. The majority had Facebook pages and encouraged fans to share their experiences and 'ask the brew master' questions. Promoting special events, either at the brewery or within the local community were also prevalent on the websites. Announcing the launch of a new beer was also a key website strategy

The next common response focused on the products' quality.

"Our customers expect quality . . . tested and proven quality every time . . . not sometimes (Loch Ness Brew Master)

"Quality and consistency . . . only good sometimes doesn't cut it . . . customers expect proven quality (Fallen Brew Master)

"The whole reason customers are turning their backs on mass-marketed rubbish is that they want choice. The more choice, the better (Brewdog Brew Master)

As the literature has stated today's beer connoisseur is seeking a new experience, fresh taste where quality is expected and guaranteed.

The uniqueness of the product was very evident in the craft beers names, flavours, brand design and packaging. These factors were the strongest attributes that identified and differentiated the breweries and their brands. The most interesting findings include:

"My favourite beers to brew, Piña-Colada and Blonde-Voyage . . . unfortunately I couldn't get the banana flavor right with the Piña-Colada (Campervan Brew master)

"This summer (2016) we've teamed up with a local ice-cream parlour and created 'honey beer flavoured' ice cream . . . different yes . . . there's a limited production and it won't last long . . . pray for a warm summer! (Beehive Brae Brew Master; Guthrie, 2016)

"We have created a great way customers can meet our brewing team . . . come to Drygate and create your own beer using our expertise . . . and create your own personalised beer label http://drygate.com/brewed-fearlessly/studio-kit/

The literature for SME's has provided a clear directive that the owner/operator is the brand and must exemplify the brand elements that differentiates them from competitors. This can be substantiated with the following quotes:

I am the company. . . I am the brand and that's what people want to see . . . and that's what they get (Campervan Brew master,)

"I don't rely on dodgy sales people to sell my business . . I sell my beer so I can see the look on the buyers faces when they taste my beers" (Fallen Brewmaster)

Due to the microbreweries lack of scale, limited capital and employees unique strategies to innovative strategies must be created to distribute their beers. Campervan Brewery, where the brewmaster is the only employee, has converted a 1973 VW camper van into his 'travelling brewery' exhibited the most innovative distribution strategy.

"I can be anywhere and brew 50 litters in the van. Customers love the retro-ness . . . (laughing) and when I get my two kids involved they wear t-shirts saying 'hoppy helpers' . . . at Camper Van we firmly believe there is a journey inside all of us* (* Brew master stating his brewery's tag line)

"Ever wanted to take home craft beer? We have created 'growlers', a one litter jug . . . refillable, so they're environmentally friendly . . . you can savour your favourite, freshly brewed *craft beer at home"* (Brewdog Brew Master)

"We have recently re-fitted a small tanker truck with our beer whereby our customers can book the truck for any festive occasion . . . meaning, the beer comes to you in endless supply" (Brewdog Brand Manager)

The above findings exemplify the creativity of microbreweries ability to extend their distribution channels while building their brand equity.

Recommendations and Conclusions

This study has examined the branding strategies that Scottish micro-craft breweries have actioned to provide their customers with unique and highly satisfying beers. It is recommended that micro-breweries or similar sized micro-businesses (cafes, bakeries, wineries) continue to use unique branding promotions discussed in this paper that build brand equity around the values, ethos and particularly the passion of the business owner. A unique product that incorporates local heritage, local ingredients targeted to the local customer's tastes is also imperative. In addition incorporating a unique brand experience that will further fortify the businesses' brand and build sustained customer loyalty.

A significant finding from this research was the collaboration between all of the Scottish micro-craft breweries. This camaraderie was seen with the formation of member associations, activities where breweries sell and promote other brewers' products and foremost they built on each other's successes. Collaboration has resulted in more choice, more experience and demonstrated the owners' passion and conviction. This has resulted a flourishing industry with loyal fans and brought substantial economic growth to a currently sluggish Scottish economy. The Scottish craft beer industry is applauded for their success as they continue to surpass the demands of their dedicated followers' hearts and taste buds one pint at a time.

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Appendix: Characteristics of Craft Breweries (Brewers Association, 2016)

https://www.brewersassociation.org/statistics/craft-brewer-defined/

Craft brewers are small brewers

- The hallmark of craft beer and craft brewers is innovation. Craft brewers interpret historic styles with unique twists and develop new styles that have no precedent.
- Craft beer is generally made with traditional ingredients like malted barley; interesting and sometimes non-traditional ingredients are often added for distinctiveness.
- Craft brewers tend to be very involved in their communities through philanthropy, product donations, volunteerism and sponsorship of events.
- Craft brewers have distinctive, individualistic approaches to connecting with their customers.
- Craft brewers maintain integrity by what they brew and their general independence, free from a substantial interest by a non-craft brewer.

Great Expectations: The effect of prize properties on the value of an Academy Award

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Abstract
Awards are well-recognized for their ability to signal quality and aid in decisionmaking processes. This research postulates that certain design properties influence how economic value is further derived. The Academy Awards are studied herein as an example of both a two-stage tournament and a Tullock lottery. It is hypothesized that the market will set expectations at the nomination stage, and then evaluates the film studios' performance based on award winners. Using an event study methodology, the effect of the announcement of how well a film studio performed on Oscars night is tested. Results of a cross-sectional regression analysis show that film studios must exceed market expectations in order to derive any value from winning; which is demonstrated by a convex relationship between relative performance and abnormal returns. It would benefit any prize-seeker to recognize the conditions under which awards can produce or destroy financial value.

Keywords: awards, prize design, performance, market information, film

Online Brand Communities: The Key to making them Succeed

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Abstract
In an internationally competitive market a company's brand is its most valuable asset; increasing and retaining loyal customers is key to long-term success. Forging binding relationships between consumers and their brand is therefore of critical importance to organisations. Online Brand Communities (OBCs) effectively facilitate such relationships and provide companies with reliable marketing intelligence to gain competitive advantage. Furthermore, it is this brand focus that differentiates OBCs from generic online communities. This study investigates both individual and community level attributes that influence members' participative behaviour and sense of belonging (SOB) in OBCs, as these factors are considered critical for retaining members and sustaining the community. We used a mixed methods approach, and incorporated several theoretical concepts into one structural model. Findings from this new research have extended existing theory related to online consumer behaviour, providing valuable implications for marketers with regard to understanding interactive user behaviour specifically in an OBC environment.

Keywords: Online brand communities; sense of belonging; participative behaviour; information seekers; socialisers.

Introduction

From a business and marketing perspective, a major consequence of the internet's popularity and convenience is the effect it has had on consumer behaviour (Brodie, Ilic, Juric & Hollebeek, 2013; Shang, Chen, & Liao, 2006). Today consumers have access to an international market and wider range of goods and services than ever before. They also have greater power with regard to purchasing decisions, due to the global plethora of brand and product information available to them (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). Consumers are also experiencing a new opportunity as more organisations recognise the benefits of using the internet to develop mutual affiliations, rather than a more traditional top-down approach (McWilliam, 2000). Brands are no longer considered a firm-owned commodity; rather their value is based on an ongoing alliance between customers and brand owners (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004; Skålén, Pace and Cova, 2015). Furthermore, other scholars acknowledge online brand communities (OBCs) as effective facilitators of these relationships (Koh & Kim, 2004; Madupu & Cooley, 2010).

Online brand communities (OBCs) are online forums dedicated to a specific brand, created by either the brand owner or a group of brand admirers, to enable the exchange of information and social interaction between members of the community (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001; Koh & Kim, 2004; Kozinets, 2002). OBCs provide consumers with a platform to share their knowledge and opinions about branded products. They offer members a place to socialise with likeminded individuals, and allow them to play a more proactive role in their relationship with the company (Skålén et al, 2015). For brand owners, OBCs provide valuable insights into what their consumers are saying about their products and the brand in general. They also act as an intermediary for cultivating long-term relationships with consumers by encouraging brand value co-creation (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). To date, research has highlighted two key factors as critical to the ongoing success of online communities. These are a) having active members who participate regularly (participative behaviour) and b) having members who have developed a sense of belonging (SOB) to the community (Liaw, 2011; Koh & Kim, 2004; Lu et al., 2011). This is based on the reasoning that a thriving community with a substantial number of active participants is more likely to generate interesting and informational discourse, which will attract new members and retain existing ones (Madupu & Cooley, 2010; Preece, 2001). In addition, a sustainable community relies on members who identify with each other and the community as a whole. This sense of belonging (SOB) strengthens members' attachment to the brand and increases their brand loyalty behaviours (Andersen, 2005; Casaló, Flavián, & Guinalíu, 2010).

OBCs differ from the majority of generic online groups or forums in that they are built on a structured set of social relationships and a collaborative attitude between members and the community as a whole (Blanchard & Markus, 2004; Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001; Ridings, Gefen, & Arinze, 2002). Not only are individual OBC members committed to a specific brand, they also possess what is referred to as a sense of virtual community, signifying a perception of similarity with the group, common goals and values (Blanchard & Markus, 2008; McMillan & Chavis, 1986). In OBCs the community in its entirety has an accrued level of social capital (Chi, Chan, Seow, & Tam, 2009; Wasko & Faraj, 2000), meaning that the culture is built on mutual trust between members who share the same language and vision and exhibit reciprocal behaviours (Field, 2003; Liao & Chou, 2011). OBCs also possess characteristics referred to as markers of a genuine community, demonstrated by a fierce brand loyalty amongst members, along with a collective distrust of other brands. Members indulge in a shared history of the brand and have a sense of duty to uphold the moral compass of the community (Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001).

The brand loyalty traits of OBCs and the substance of the connections between members not only differentiate them from online communities in general, but also highlight their significance to organisations and marketing practitioners who aim to develop brand value co-creative relationships with their consumers. Algesheimer, Dholakia, and Herrmann (2005), advocate that facilitation of OBCs is critical for brands to succeed in today's cluttered, competitive marketing environment. Brands need to stand out amongst the many alternatives available. They need to be at the top of consumers' evoked set of products (Huang, 1999). Building a solid relationship between the customer and the brand through the provision and support of OBCs and increasing brand loyalty behaviours therefore provides companies with the opportunity to develop a competitive edge (Algesheimer et al, 2005; Lhotakova, 2012).

Corporate websites that supply product or brand information are not enough to motivate customers to return or develop relationships with other consumers, whereas a community built around a brand encourages continued interaction (participative behaviour) and builds long-lasting bonds between community members and the brand community (sense of belonging) (Cova & Pace, 2006; Mathwick, Wiertz & De Ruyter, 2008). The collaborative nature of OBCs and the knowledgeability of their members provides an ideal environment for converting information seekers into more active participants (socialisers), thereby ensuring the continued success of the community (Li, 2011; Casaló et al., 2007; McAlexander et al., 2002). Successful OBCs not only provide customers and organisations with invaluable information regarding consumer usage of the brand, they also inspire brand loyalty behaviours which contribute to the long-term success of the brand (Chung, Lee, & Heath, 2013). Therefore, the aim of this paper is to report findings of the following research questions:

Research Question 1: What are the individual-level factors that influence participative behaviour and sense of belonging to online brand communities?
Research Question 2: What are the community-level factors that influence participative behaviour and sense of belonging to an online brand community?
Research Question 3: Does the strength of the influences on participative behaviour and sense of belonging to online brand communities differ depending on whether the member visits the community to gather information or to socialise?

In examining these research questions, a number of hypotheses were proposed and included: H1: Perceived ease of use has a positive effect on participative behaviour in online brand communities. H2: Perceived ease of use has a positive effect on perceived enjoyment in online brand communities. H3: Perceived enjoyment has a positive effect on participative behaviour in an online brand community. H4: Perceived enjoyment has a positive effect on sense of belonging in an online brand community. H5: Network ties are positively related to participative behaviour in an online brand community. H6: Network ties are positively related to a sense of belonging in an online brand community. H7: Perceived anonymity has a negative effect on participative behaviour in an online brand community. H8: Perceived anonymity has a negative effect on sense of belonging in an online brand community. H9: Perceived anonymity has a negative effect on network ties in an online brand community. H10: Social capital has a positive influence on participative behaviour in online brand communities.

Methodology
A mixed methods approach was adopted for this study in order to gather both exploratory and statistical data to address the research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The research was undertaken in two stages. Stage one involved a netnography study, followed by a series of focus groups (3). The emphasis of this paper was on the second stage of the study

involving a quantitative online survey of OBC members. The questionnaire was developed using Qualtrics (Qualtrics Labs, 2014). Existing scales were adopted and modified where needed to suit the current study, and the instrument was posted on a number of successful OBC forums. Data from the surveys were analysed using SPSS (version 22) and AMOS (version 22). The questionnaire included the following ten constructs: participative behaviour, sense of belonging, perceived ease of use, perceived enjoyment, network ties, anonymity, shared language, shared vision, social trust, and reciprocity, along with six demographic variables. Nine constructs employed in the questionnaire consisted of multiple items, each was measured using Likert scales from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree", so respondents could signify the intensity of their attitude toward the statement. The remaining construct, participative behaviour, was measured according to time spent per week (Dholakia, Bagozzi & Pearo, 2004; Zhou, 2011) and posts contributed per month to the community (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Shang et al., 2006). All the scales were adapted from the existing literature and contextualised to OBCs via the first stage of the research with the netnography and focus groups (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Results

The sample for this study consisted of 659 participants from several OBCs, 90% of the sample was male, with an age range between 18 to 65 years plus, but the majority (75%) were between 26 and 45 years of age. A little over 44% were university graduates and 20% were postgraduates. The majority of the sample was employed full-time (65%), and more than 60% was married or in a de facto relationship. Household income was fairly evenly spread between $35,000 and $95,000 per annum (73%), and the predominant countries of origin were the Americas (47%) and Europe (36%). Initially, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on the 32 questionnaire items with maximum likelihood as the extraction technique and an oblique rotation, (Promax) as the factors were likely to be correlated (Gaskin, 2012). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .899 ("meritorious" according to Kaiser, 1974). Further confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed using AMOS (version 22), and utilising the pattern matrix model builder (Gaskin, 2012). This resulted in a seven-factor measurement model, including the latent variables of perceived enjoyment, perceived ease of use, network ties, perceived anonymity and sense of belonging, with social capital as a second-order latent construct representing shared language, shared vision, social trust and reciprocity. The structural model was created using AMOS (version 22) with the inclusion of perceived enjoyment (PE), perceived ease of use (PEU), network ties (NT) and perceived anonymity (PA) as independent latent variables; social capital (SCAP) as a second-order latent variable; and sense of belonging (SOB) and participative behaviour (PB) as dependent observed variables. SEM was conducted on all the paths relating to the hypothesis. The model fit statistics indicated an acceptable fit with the data (χ^2 = 2.475 df = 418; p =.000. CFI = .939, GFI = .907, TLI = 9.32, RMSEA = .047, PCLOSE = .883). Alternative specifications of the model were also tested to ensure this model had the best fit to the data.

Hypothesised Relationships

Based on the structural model and contrary to expectations, perceived ease of use was found to have no significant influence on participative behaviour (β = .02, p=.72), therefore H1 was rejected. Perceived ease was found to have a significantly strong influence on perceived enjoyment (β = .53, p=.000), supporting H2. Perceived enjoyment and network ties both had a significant positive influence on participative behaviour (β = .15, p=.04) (β = .36, p=.000), supporting H3 and H5. Perceived enjoyment and network ties also had a significant positive relationship on sense of belonging (β = .32, p=.000), (β = .22, p=.000) thus supporting H4 and

H6. Perceived anonymity was found to have a negative significant influence on participative behaviour (β = -.25, p=.000) and sense of belonging (β = -.25, p=.000), and a strong negative impact on network ties (β = -.57, p=.000), therefore supporting H7, H8 and H9. Unexpectedly, social capital had no significant influence on participative behaviour (β = .01, p=.884) and consequently H10 was rejected. However social capital had a moderately significant influence on sense of belonging (β = .40, p=.000) and a weak but significant influence on network ties (β = .15, p=.000).

Included in this study was an item to examine whether members were visiting OBCs predominantly for information or for socialising. Participants were asked to respond to the statement: "I only access this site to get information" with one of five options on a Likert scale of 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree. This item was included because the literature review highlighted a finding suggesting online community research is dependent on the type of community or the brand category under investigation (Dholakia et al., 2004; Shang et al., 2006; Sicilia & Palazon, 2008). This assumption was based on the reasoning that factors influencing participative behaviour and sense of belonging (SOB) differ depending on whether members are predominantly information seekers or socialisers. To test this theory, two additional models were specified, the first using data from the subgroup of information seekers followed by the socialisers' subgroup. The results indicated both the socialiser and information-seeker models were good fits with the data. For the information seekers sample the model fit statistics were (χ^2 = 1,896 df = 418; p = .000. CFI = .942, GFI = .901, TLI = 9.35, RMSEA = .044, PCLOSE = .980). In the socialisers sample, the model fit statistics also indicated an acceptable fit with the data (χ^2 = 1,555 df = 418; p = .000. CFI = .913, GFI = .791, TLI = 9.03, RMSEA = .061, PCLOSE = .025). The results of a comparative analysis between these models indicate differences in the strength of the relationships between constructs, depending on whether the participant is an information seeker or socialiser.

Discussion

In summary, the structural model developed in this study demonstrates the significant individual and community-level influences on critical success factors in online brand communities. It provides empirical evidence that members' perceived ease of use has a significant impact on how enjoyable they find being involved in OBCs. Subsequently, perceived enjoyment has a significant influence on their participative behaviour and sense of belonging to the community. There is also evidence to suggest members who have built network ties in OBCs are more likely to participate in the community through the time they spend logged on and the posts or threads they contribute. Their level of belonging to the community increases as they make more friends. One explanation for the lack of a significant relationship between perceived ease of use and increased participative behaviour in this study may be attributable to the demographic profile of the respondents, or improvements in internet speeds and OBC website design. For example, the majority of members in the OBCs featured in this study were relatively mature and well educated; suggesting their level of internet expertise was unlikely to inhibit their internet use. One of the most significant findings from this research is the strong effect of social capital on OBC members' sense of belonging to the community and the network ties they forge with individual members. This suggests the attributes of social capital, such as shared language, vision, trust and reciprocity, are highly important for building stronger relationships with the brand community and other members. Social capital therefore provides social support, integration and cohesion for OBC members. The insignificant relationship between social capital and participative behaviour may relate to the profile of the users who participated in the study. The majority of participants were information seekers therefore the level of social capital was not so relevant with regard to how

often they would participate, it influences their sense of belonging to the community rather than the amount of time spent or posts they contribute. Members' perceived anonymity also plays an important role with regard to levels of participation and belonging, but from a different perspective. For example, when members are less anonymous they are more likely to participate and develop an identity with the community. However, less anonymity does not imply they are known by their true identity, only that they are recognisable by their alias and their contributions to the community by their pseudonyms. Anonymity also has a negative effect on network ties, once again related to members' inclination to share information and socialise more when they are perceived to be less anonymous. The impact of purpose for involvement on these results is significant as information seekers (members who visit sites predominantly to gather information) and socialisers (those who actively participate in the community) are influenced by different variables and therefore may require different strategy development. Findings from this study indicate that facilitating OBCs effectively is crucial to their ongoing success. Armed with this understanding, administrators are in a better position to develop strategies that are more effective in engaging and retaining their members.

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The impact of internal branding on SME brand identity

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Abstract

This study proposes a holistic model for internal brand management that foresees employee brand orientation as an important antecedent for behavioral branding and business performance of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). The study highlights the pivotal role of employees in effective brand management and thus concentrates on examining the internal aspects of branding, often ignored in the earlier academic literature and by the SME managers. Examining the employee perspective offers information for managers to measure and distinguish useful internal brand management practices. This study further helps firms to ponder how they should approach brand identity development from both management and employee perspectives.

Keywords: Internal branding, employee branding, brand identity, business performance, SMEs

Introduction

The benefits of strong brands are evident. Brands may develop to a powerful tool also for SMEs, and thus generate positive effects on performance (Agostini et al., 2015). This opens new paths for the research of brand management. This study sheds light on the role of internal branding on brand identity framework. Traditionally branding focuses on the external support of the brand. However, internal branding requires equal amount of enthusiasm (Tosti & Stotz, 2001) and consequently academic interest on internal branding is growing (e.g. Baumgarth & Smith, 2010; Boukis et al., 2014; Punjaisri et al., 2009; Saleem & Iglesias, 2016).

Successful internal branding requires commitment by leadership and paying attention on the strategic and cultural aspects of the organization (Tosti & Stotz, 2001). Internal branding affects gradually on employee behavior. It measures the motivation of employees toward brand-supportive behavior. Internal brand equity becomes stronger when employee behavior aligns with brand identity and the brand is communicated enthusiastically to internal and external stakeholders (Baumgarth & Smith, 2010). All employees should treat the brand in an integrated fashion to maintain brand consistency (de Chernatony & Cottam, 2006). Louro and Cunha (2001) see that brand identity requires internal strategic orientation, different to externally perceived viewpoint of brand image.

The role of internal branding in the context of SME branding has received negligible attention in the brand marketing literature, the majority of the discussion focusing on large multinational corporations. Consequently, this study adds to the scarce literature of SME branding by introducing a holistic model of the internal branding process. The role of employees in internal brand building is substantial. Messages employees receive influence employee perceptions, and have an effect on the employee brand image. Effective employee branding is postulated to strengthen SME brand building efforts, and ultimately enhance business performance. We focus on larger SMEs since firm characteristics of the smallest firms hardly fit to the context. Firms with at least ten employees assumedly have enough resources for an organized marketing and brand development. Consequently, this study is proposed to increase understanding on how brand identity with internal branding drive SME business performance.

Brand management in SMEs

In general, branding plays a limited role among SMEs. SME brand management literature portrays only few SME brand management models. Consequently, researchers must rely on models built within large businesses. Owner-managers rarely pay attention to regular branding models and theories. The role of brand management varies considerably between firms, as one firm may disregard the entire issue and the other is totally geared towards it (Krake, 2005). A common claim, "every organization needs to develop strong brands as an essential part of their business strategy" (Kay, 2006, p. 742) does not apply to SMEs. Owner-managers often see branding as irrelevant. This attitude reflects in their behaviors as the brand is valued secondary to short-term sales figures and regular daily operations (Krake, 2005). Lack of know-how in brand management and uncertainty about its benefits to business performance may explain the limited effort of SMEs towards branding (Hirvonen & Laukkanen, 2014). SMEs experience trials and errors in their branding and rely on experimentation and intuition rather than formal step-by-step strategizing (e.g. Centeno, et al., 2013). However, SMEs do show interest in branding, especially under suitable business conditions and when resources are available. SMEs arguably have a justified reason to include the brand in strategic planning (Wong & Merrilees, 2005), yet the question, how firms can effectively implement such a strategy and employ the same branding practices as large firms requires an answer (Berthon et al., 2008).

Conceptual model

We suggest a model that includes three stages. The first focuses on leadership views on SME brand orientated culture, followed by behavioral branding in terms of brand identity and employee brand-supporting behavior. These stages are viewed as an important part of brand management practices. The final stage holds business performance, including both subjective performance and objective performance.

Stage 1. Management perspective: Brand orientation and Brand identity

According to Brïdson & Evans (2004), brand-orientation contains two different foundations. First, philosophical/cultural foundation concentrated brand-orientation from the viewpoint of organizational values and beliefs, whereas the behavioral foundation focuses on the implemented behaviors and activities. Diverse orientation conceptualizations may require deeper understanding of business orientations based on the cultural and behavioral foundations. Urde et al. (2013) propose three main aspects of brand orientation culture, behavior and performance. Brand-orientation is seen as a multidimensional construct that covers the values, beliefs, behaviors and practices in regards to brands (Hankinson, 2012).

Brand orientation points to a specific type of strategic orientation. A positive approach towards brands is a precondition to construct brands (Urde, 1999). Schein (1992) developed a multidimensional model of an organizational culture. This creates an environment for brand values to mature and be put into practice (de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001). Baumgarth & Smith (2010) further developed Schein's model of organization culture. The model identifies three separate cultural dimensions, "values", "norms" and "artefacts", complemented by dimension of "behaviors". Models commonly conceptualize brand orientation as a single construct, leaving the internal "structure" of the brand orientation construct unnoticed (Baumgarth, 2010).

Brand orientation emphasizes brand related strategic goals, brings life to the brand and stimulates brand building (Urde, 1999). Brand orientation causes internal brand commitment, based on how knowledgeable employees are about the brand (Baumgarth & Schmidt, 2010). Employees' brand knowledge is based on internal and external communication in regards to brand values, brand identity, and the other core elements of a brand (Biedenbach & Manszhynski, 2016). Brand orientation is considered a shared employee characteristic (Baumgarth & Smith, 2010). Customer interactions connect employees to brand orientation. Employees narrow the gap between the anticipated brand values rooted in brand identity, and the external audience (de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001; de Chernatony & Cottam, 2006; Urde, 1999).

Brand identity relates to strategic brand management or behavioral brand orientation (e.g. Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2002; Kapferer, 2008; Urde, 1999), focuses on concrete behaviors and activities. Its multi-dimensional structure covers organisation's values, beliefs and performance towards brands (Brïdson & Evans 2004). de Chernatony (1999) sees that brand identity with its dimensions produce strong brands. Brand identity is one of the key elements and foundation of brand building (Aaker & Joachminsthaler 2002). Brand identity directs branding activities consistently over time (Spence & Hamzaoui Essousi, 2010), and interrelates with organizational culture. The culture, in turn, assists employees to interpret brand identity (de Chernatony, 1999). The branding literature emphasizes brand identity from the internal perspective of a firm (e.g. Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2002; Kapferer, 2008). According to Baumgarth and Schmidt (2010), brand identity integrates with internal branding. Brand identity

is the central theme in the internal branding framework (Saleem & Iglesias, 2016). Thus, brand identity guides employee behavior and aligns employees with the identity.

Stage 2. Employee perspective: Brand supporting behavior

Earlier literature presents a few studies on brand-supporting employee behavior (e.g. Boukis et al. 2014; King & Grace, 2012; Punjaisri, et al., 2009). The role of employees in internal brand building is significant (e.g. Henkel et al., 2007). Committed employees produce favorable brand citizenship behavior (Baumgarth & Schmidt, 2010). Effective internal branding produces brand ambassadors that promote the organization externally. Thus, internal branding is a key determinant of the employee behaviour. Employees are also capable of responding to customer's brand expectations. Consequently, internal branding results in committed employees (Asha & Jyothi, 2013). This study acknowledges the importance of an employee perspective for internal branding, being an integral part of internal brand management. Well-implemented internal branding reinforces employee commitment. Benefits are noticeable as committed employees create bonds with customers that further transmit, for example, repeat purchases, premium prices and positive word-of-mouth for brand owners. Effective internal branding also guides direction and reinforces culture. With a clear strategic goal a brand is more convincing. Employees support the brand when they know what they can do to flourish it and learn to determine what is good for the brand (LePla, 2013). Employees should have the same message that a firm conveys to the marketplace (Mitchell, 2002). Internal coherence is therefore a critical factor in communicating the brand identity to external stakeholders. The role of employees is critical in executing such aspiration.

Stage 3. Business performance

Standardized business performance measures are rare; therefore, the theory includes variety of metrics (de Chernatony et al., 2004). Business performance in this study assumes both subjective and objective measures. Subjective measures are judgmental assessments of internal or external respondents. Such measures balance the complex measurement of performance. Therefore, subjective measurement is needed to capture performance more accurately (González-Benito & González-Benito, 2005). Subjective performance measures of the study are brand performance and market performance. Marketing literature contains several brand performance measures, but standardized universal measures are absent. However, Wong and Merrilees (2008) provide a convenient brand performance measure that is later used, for example, by Hirvonen et al. (2013) and Hirvonen and Laukkanen (2014). Importantly, firms' brand performance level enhances significantly when employees live up to a unique brand promise throughout customer interfaces (Henkel et al., 2007). However, the effects of a brand performance on financial performance measure the total performance only partially. Therefore, with market performance, the construct of business performance is measured more in depth. Wong and Merrilees (2005) note that branding plays a vital role in SME market performance. According to Baumgarth (2010), market performance includes marketing activities, such as raising awareness, gaining new customers, achieving customer loyalty, or a desired market share. Following Laukkanen et al. (2013), market performance can be measured in terms of firm's success in acquiring, maintaining and satisfying customers in relation to its competitors.

Objective measures refer to financial indicators obtained directly from respondents' income statement or from external databases. Above all, a major challenge is gaining reliable information (González-Benito and González-Benito, 2005), since financial information of small firms is not widely available in public databases. Firms build brands in order to enhance their financial performance (Mizik, 2014). Financial performance measures include common measures such as growth and various profit indicators, such as return measures related to assets

or investment or owner's equity. Other considerable measures are market value, assets, equity, cash flow, sales and market value (Capon et al., 1990). Financial performance, commonly measured by means of turnover and profit, is based on functions such as sales, finance, production and human resources (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Model of internal brand management in SMEs
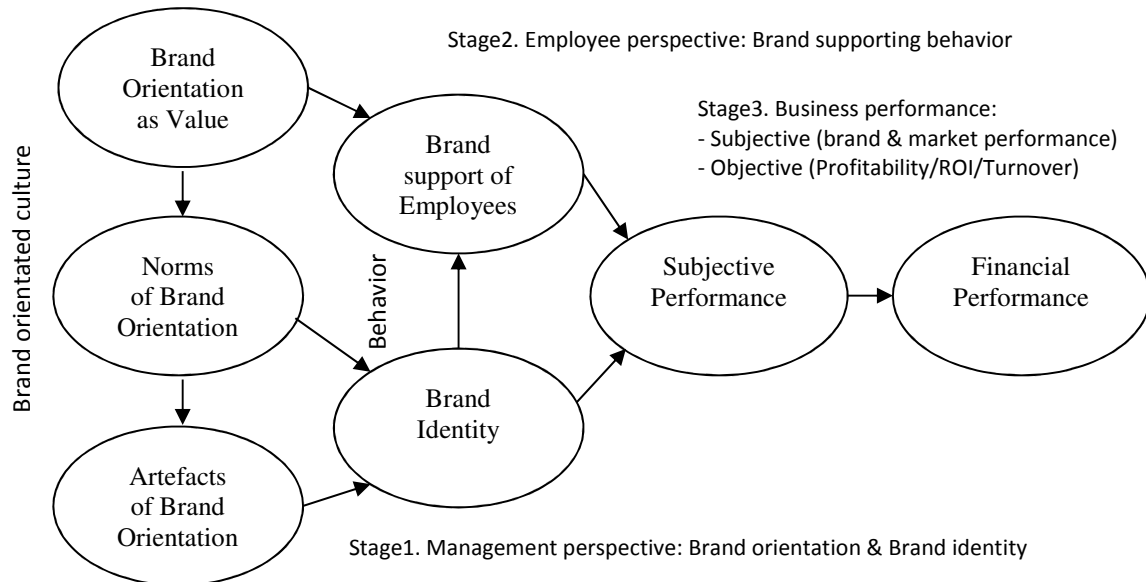
Discussion and implications

SMEs can greatly benefit from the strategic brand management. SMEs operate under different conditions compared to their larger counterparts, and their ability to implement branding strategy and practices requires additional studies and practical branding models to support the progress. Although brand orientation can be conceptualized as a single construct, we suggest that the concept should be divided to various components. The paper proposes a conceptual model of the relationship between the three component of brand orientation, as well as brand identity, employee brand support and two components of business performance in the SME context. Brand-orientation as values and beliefs of an organization is a critical antecedent for behavioral branding. Implementation of cultural and behavioral foundations is expected to translate to enhanced business performance. Especially, the link between internal branding and financial performance is not widely tested. Business performance may include both subjective and objective data and, thus adds more depth to the measurement. The model is originally initiated by Schein (1992). We augment the model by adding employee perspective upon the described dimensions. We structure the model with both behavioral management perspective and the employee perspective. In addition, brand identity and internal branding are multifaceted constructs; therefore, dividing constructs into smaller components may provide more detailed information of the constructs and their relationships. Internal branding should cover the entire organization; therefore, expanding the research beyond leadership views to employees, with employees categorized into different clusters, would provide deeper insights of brand building. Properly implemented internal branding is an essential tool for managers to ensure that employees understand and conduct brand-supportive behavior. Especially in smaller firms employees work in closer contact with owner-managers; therefore, internal branding may help managers to detect how well employees internalize brand-orientated attitudes and behaviors. Thus, the model provides more complete view of the internal brand management practices. With regard to future prospects, the internal role of brand management especially requires further investigation, as the enthusiasm for the brand within firms is a significant factor. In

addition, the measurement of business performance requires empirical testing with subjective and objective measurements. Earlier literature has used objective financial performance data scarcely. Subjective performance should be accompanied with objective data to increase reliability of the measurement. The lack of objective performance measures, particularly in SME context, hinders the interpretation of the internal branding on financial performance. Overall, new scales are required to measure multifaceted SME sector. Thus, the investigation of the effects of internal branding on financial performance requires further investigation. Future studies could also investigate moderation effects such as the level of internationalization, growth orientation, or environmental turbulence. Finally, expanding the research to various industries and geographic areas enables cross-cultural comparisons to further support the generalization of the results.

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Brand experience and consumer willingness to pay a price premium: Examining mediated pathways

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Abstract
Research into consumer brand experience is growing, creating opportunities to progress the domain. In this paper, we address the issue of whether consumer brand experience affects consumer willingness to pay a price premium, which is an indicator of potential brand value / equity. We address this issue by way of explicating two mediated pathways; the first via brand credibility (a relational mechanism) and, the second via brand evaluations (a brandmeaning-creating mechanism). We develop a conceptual model that we estimate using data collected from 405 Australian new car buyers. Our model is supported, offering support for a partially mediated effect of brand experience to the hypothesized outcome. These results have theoretical and managerial implications that we outline in the paper.

Keywords: Brand experience, willingness to pay a price premium, mediation

Laying the Foundations for Market-Driving Strategies: Developing an Index for Market-Shaping Orientation

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to delineate the domain of market-shaping strategies and provide an operational definition of its elements, develop a composite index of market shaping, and assess its effect on firm level performance. Our research process consisted of four steps: (1) Specification of the elements of market-shaping orientation; (2) Specification of indicators for the identified elements; (3) Reliability and validity assessments; and (4) Validating the market-shaping orientation index. As a result of the research process we identified six elements of market shaping orientation (exchange, use, channels, network, representations, and norms) that were later developed into 25 measured indicators. The overall model was operationalised as a formative first-order, formative second-order model, where first-order elements are formatively measured latent constructs that form a more abstract general (second-order) latent construct – market-shaping orientation.

Keywords: Market-shaping, market-driving, index, formative measurement

Consumers' perceptions and attitudes toward global and local brands and their effects on brand alliances

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Abstract

Nowadays multinational companies focus their efforts on global brands and eliminate local brands from their brand portfolios. This may be a loss of opportunities because of the local values, traditions, lifestyles, attitudes and behaviors that local brands project among consumers in the local market. In this context, brand alliances between global and local brands can represent an opportunity to fusion globalness and localness. Insights into why consumers differ in their perceptions and attitudes toward global and local brands are limited. This study explores consumers' perceptions and attitudes toward global and local brands in terms of brand knowledge, brand experience, brand origin, and brand imagery, and their effects on consumers' perceptions and attitudes toward brand alliances between global and local brands.

Keywords: Brand alliance, global brand, local brand, consumer´s perceptions and attitudes

Introduction

Global brands are increasing their value and influence within economic, social, cultural, and psychological areas. In line with this growing importance, many multinational corporations (MNCs) are allocating more attention and resources to fewer brands with global potential (Townsend, Yeniyurt, & Talay, 2009; Wang, Wei, & Yu, 2008). As competition globalizes, MNCs' success depends on their ability to position and manage brands across many countries in which they operate (Usunier & Lee, 2005). This focus on global brands has had an adverse impact on local brands because MNCs have sold or eliminated many local brands.

Some business sectors such as the automotive and high-tech are well-known for their strong global brands. However, other sectors are still characterized by their local brands. For example, Grupo Bimbo, the leader baking company in Mexico, has strong local positioning, brand equity, and iconic brands, and is extending the presence of its iconic local brands to the United States and Canada markets. Furthermore, local companies can take advantage of local brand strengths. Strong local brands, such as Watties, Lion, and Steinlager in New Zealand, often have a high level of awareness and positive image in their home countries because consumers have developed close relationships with these brands over decades as a result of strong and long-term investments in marketing programs. It might be questioned whether the sale or elimination of these local brands represents a lost opportunity for MNCs (Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004). In this context, brand alliances between global and local brands may signify a new area of opportunity because these alliances may represent a fusion of global success and local links. Therefore, it is relevant to develop further understanding of brand alliances between global and local brands and explore how they can influence consumers' attitudes.

Mexico's economic position is sound, its geographic position, as well as its free trade and economic partnership agreements offer preferential access to 44 markets and more than a billion consumers (Corta Fernandez, Goldstein, Arriola, Martin, & Hansen, 2014). Despite the openness toward MNCs and possible alliances, Mexican consumers perceive some risks from foreign market dominance through merger and acquisitions or brand alliances in some business sectors. For example, Grupo Modelo and its iconic brand Corona acquired by Anheuser-Busch, and Turín by Mars. Hence, a wide variation in attitudes toward globalization exists among consumers. Consequently, although Mexicans are opened to experience global brands, are also concerned about the displacement and increased number of acquisition or elimination of local brands. To understand better this dynamic, it is relevant to analyze the global brands meaning to Mexican consumers, examine local brands from their point of view, and study the consumers' perceptions and attitudes toward brand alliances between global and local brands.

Literature Review

In the literature, both academics and brand managers have highlighted positive associations of global brands such as perceived brand quality and brand prestige (Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey, 2007; Steenkamp, Batra, & Alden, 2003), and negative associations such as environmental or social irresponsibility, and market dominance. In contrast, local brands have their own strengths, such as perceptions of uniqueness, originality, and pride of representing the home country or culture. In some markets, local brands have a strong brand equity, higher consumer awareness, and are perceived as more trustworthy, healthy, traditional, and valuable than global brands (Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004). Also, local brands may be preferred when consumers associate these brands to people in their own community, traditions, customs and events (Zhang & Khare, 2009). However, many MNCs have eliminated local brands from their brand portfolios or sold them to national companies because these brands

create cost complexities such as different packaging formats and advertising campaigns among countries.

Previous literature mainly assesses global and local brands independently or comparatively. Some studies compare global versus local brand equity but primarily in the context of specific product categories or consumer segments (Roy & Chau, 2011). However, little attention is paid to the potentials of brand alliances between global and local brands because these concepts are perceived as mutually exclusive. Although some studies have focused on brand alliances between two global or two local brands addressing the attitudes towards these types of alliances (Bluemelhuber, Carter, & Lambe, 2007), the level of congruity/fit between the original brands (Hao, Hu, Bruning, & Liu, 2013; Lanseng & Olsen, 2012; Li & He, 2013), and the effects of brand alliances on the original brands (Helmig, Huber, & Leeflang, 2008; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005), further examination of brand alliances between global and local brands is required. Brand alliances are the best setting to explore the relevance of global and local brands contributions. Thus, in this context, brand alliances are worth of study.

A brand alliance allows companies to augment and strengthen the current set of associations such as quality, innovation, prestige, and friendliness, providing them with an effective way of differentiating and positioning their brands and securing competitive advantage in the marketplace (McCarthy & Norris, 1999). However, there is little analysis of the strength, uniqueness, and types of associations conveyed by each brand to a brand alliance. This study explores consumers' perceptions toward global and local brands in terms of brand knowledge, experience, origin, and imagery, and their effects on consumers' perceptions and attitudes toward alliances between global and local brands.

Methodology

As the first part of a larger research, this study adopted a qualitative methodology. The researcher invited Mexican consumers to participate in the study through an email. The researcher conducted in-depth online interviews with ten consumers via Skype using a semi-structured interview guide. A non-probabilistic sample of consumers from Mexico City with knowledge and experience with global and local brands was selected. The sample included five male and five female, middle to upper-class consumers, from 20 to 60 years old, with bachelor and master degrees. The in-depth interviews lasted between 45 minutes and 1 hour. The interviews were performed in Spanish, audio recorded, and later transcribed. The researcher analyzed the interviews in Spanish in NVivo using thematic analysis.

For this study, two dimensions of brand knowledge will be referred: brand awareness, in terms of brand recall and recognition, and brand image, in terms of a network of brand associations in consumer memory (Keller, 2013). Brand experience considers consumers' exposure to advertising campaigns, information search, interactions with sellers, purchase decision-making, and product usage (Oakenfull & McCarthy, 2010). Brand origin can be understood as the country associated with a brand or the perceived location of the headquarters of the brand's owner, regardless of where it is manufactured (Samiee, Shimp, & Sharma, 2005). Lastly, brand imagery involves images, symbols and textual appeals strongly related to the cultural relations a brand establishes with its actual or potential consumers.

Results and Discussion

This study identified that global brands have a strong presence and acceptance in Mexico whereas local brands have deep roots in the Mexican culture. This section presents the

consumers' perceptions and attitudes toward global and local brands, categorized in brand knowledge, consumers' experience with global and local brands, the relevance of brand origin, and the imagery around these brands. Additionally, consumers' perceptions and attitudes toward brand alliances between global and local brands are analyzed.

Global brands from Mexican consumers' perspective

According to Özsomer & Simonin (2008), global brands have worldwide awareness, availability, acceptance, and demand. Mexican consumers also believe global brands are available in all the continents (PTR, F, 30-34), are designed, manufactured and distributed around the world (PVR, M, 60-64), and have global recognition and accessibility (RVR, M, 30-34). Furthermore, it is expected that a global brand operates in different countries with the same name, logo, and design; it has identical products and services across all the markets, and pricing, retailing, and advertising campaigns are very similar (SAR, F, 30-34).

Brand knowledge about global brands.

The majority of the respondents have a high level of awareness of global brands across many product categories and a positive brand image linked to strong, favorable, and distinctive attributes and benefits. Mexican consumers associate these brands with high quality, experience, diversity of options, reliability, and prestige (COA, F, 25-29). For example, in the automotive industry, Mexican consumers consider the aerodynamic design, ergonomic interior design, innovative materials, and energy efficiency are intrinsic features of global brands (PVR, M, 60-64). However, some global brands with negative images among some Mexicans consumers are discarded if local alternatives are offered. These global brands are perceived as symbols of market dominance and have negative associations such as monopoly, climate change or social irresponsibility.

Brand experience with global brands.

Mexican consumers have an increasing experience with global brands through the consumption of related products and services. These consumers are frequently exposed to ads of global brands broadcasted on local and international media, during the transmission of overseas sports or concert events. However, young consumers' interaction with global brands is moving from these traditional media options to digital media alternatives such as social media and websites. When companies sponsor events, Mexican consumers have the opportunity to know more about the brands or consume the brands during the cultural or sports event (PTR, F, 30-34). The attendance to these events gives consumers the opportunity to interact face to face with the brand, use social media and mobile applications during the events, and share their experience with others.

Brand origin of global brands.

Among Mexican consumers, a brand name in a foreign language can generate a perception of higher quality and prestige than local counterparts with brand names in Spanish, the local language. These consumers make their decisions based on the perception of the brand foreignness than the actual information about the company headquarters, location of manufacturing facilities, or country of origin of ingredients or components. Indeed, the brand origin is a major factor related to global brands for some product categories such as food, medicines, electronics, and software because some countries are associated with original design, quality, or innovation. During the purchase decision, Mexican consumers analyze if the design is made in Europe, the United States or Japan (PTR, F, 30-34). In contrast, other countries are strongly related to low quality and safety of products, negative environmental impact, and poor worker conditions, such as China or some Latin American countries (SAR, F, 30-34). As a result, associations with a foreign language or a perceived overseas origin

strongly influence Mexican consumers when they buy, consume and recommend brands. For example, American meat producers are perceived as superior in quality because they include the USDA's certificate of quality (PVR, M, 60-64). Similarly, New Zealand lamb is highly appreciated among Mexican consumers.

Brand imagery around global brands.

Global brands create an imagined global personality that consumers want to share with like-minded people (Holt, Quelch, & Taylor, 2004). Mexican consumers who prefer global brands are strongly focused on how the consumption of these brands affect their personality positively and as a result how others perceive them. These consumers follow global trends and are concerned about environmental or social issues such as climate change, fair trade, or consumption of organic products.

A person who consumes global brands is someone interested in healthy products, consumption of natural products that are good for both the well-being of consumers as to the protection of the environment (YCS, F, 25-29).

The consumption of global brands is perceived as a pass to belonging to particular social groups, or the opportunity to signal involvement in an aspirational global community. For example, the middle class in Mexico is interested in satisfying aspirations, demonstrating economic success, and belonging to a social group (COA, F, 25-29). Nonetheless, Mexican consumers who mostly buy foreign brands can be perceived as malinchistas or unpatriotic from the nationalist consumers' point of view (YCS, F, 25-29).

Local brands from Mexican consumers' point of view

In many markets, global brands compete with strong local counterparts. Local brands are developed for customized and specific needs and desires (Özsomer 2012). Similarly, Mexican consumers believe local brands are designed, manufactured and distributed nationally (COA, F, 25-29; YCS, F, 25-29), only available in the domestic market (RVR, M, 30-34), and not internationalized (CGG, M, 40-44). Some consumers highlight the local ownership of the brand or company as a key characteristic of local brands. A local or national brand is made in Mexico, and all the parts or ingredients of the product are 100% of Mexico, or at least the brand or the company that owns the brand is Mexican (PTR, F, 30-34).

Brand knowledge about local brands.

Although local brands are described as only available in a country or region (Dimofte et al., 2008), these brands are mainly linked to the domestic market and symbolize the local culture or country (Özsomer, 2012). Mexicans attitude toward local brands is driven by the attachment to the locality because they feel that through the consumption of these brands they can contribute to the country, protect employment, and feel proud of a successful local company. For example, buying La Morena may be a part of patriotism, a notion of collaborating with the community and Mexico (CGG, M, 40-44). These attitudes toward local brands are reinforced by sentiments of nationalism deeply rooted among elders and a segment of educated young consumers who support national companies, brands and a strong national identity and culture. Some MNCs have acquired iconic local brands with declining market share or sales but with a great potential for growth. In the case of chocolate, Nestlé bought Abuelita and the Mexican consumers felt that the product flavor changed and the ingredients were not as natural as before (PTR, F, 30-34).

Brand experience with local brands.

Consumers want to feel part of something physical, tangible and local, placing more value on local communities, friends, and family. In this sense, local brands reflect and help define the character of the local market. As a result, some of these brands are perceived as local icons to the extent that they are associated with symbols of the local culture, heritage, and country (Dimofte, Johansson, & Ronkainen, 2008). However, the most significant competitive advantage for local brands is trust because it provides a unique relationship with consumers that takes years or decades to develop, so some Mexican consumers prefer brands with strong local connections. For example, in Coatepec, there are producers and coffee roasters, with different levels of quality and price preferred over coffee brands from the supermarket which are perceived as non-organic, filled-up with additional flavors, and with no information on the country of origin (PVR, M, 60-64).

Brand origin of local brands.

Among Mexican consumers, there is a growing interest in the brand origin of products and services in terms of the country of design, country of ingredients, and country of production. The level of education is a key factor because the more educated consumers are, the more they review and compare the origin of the products, independently of age, sex, or income. These consumers are more aware and concerned about nutritional information, artificial colors and flavors, preservatives, and expiration date. For food, beverages, and medicines, consumers search where the raw materials come from (PTR, F, 30-34). Part of these consumers believe that food products coming from the United States are unhealthy, genetically modified, loaded with preservatives and not nutritious at all.

Brand imagery around local brands.

Local cultures have a powerful influence on consumers. Consequently, there is a persistent desire of some segments of consumers to maintain the local culture and to reject global influences. Indeed, many people prefer the consumption of local brands because they are easily associated with local values, traditions, lifestyles, attitudes, and behaviors. In Mexico, there are local movements involving a consumers' retrenchment to their locality, with an increased value placed on local stores, produce sold at farmers' markets, and community events and activities engaging the population. Mexican consumers who prefer to consume local brands are strongly focused on how the consumption of these brands increase their attachment and as a result how others perceive them. Also, people consuming local brands are nationalist, regionalists, and patriotic (RVR, M, 30-34).

Mexican consumers´ perceptions and attitudes toward brand alliances

Some Mexican consumers consider a brand alliance between global and local brands can offer positive associations such as quality, reliability, and accessibility. This type of brand alliance may allow companies to expand and strengthen the current set of brand associations, supplying an effective way of differentiating and positioning their brands, and assuring a competitive advantage in the market.

An alliance between a global brand and a local brand would give me greater trust, greater credibility, for me it would be synonymous of quality… For me it would be attractive because in a product at the same time a global brand and a local brand can be coexisting (PTR, F, 30-34).

Some consumers perceive potential synergies between global and local brands with different contributions of associations from each brand to the alliance. These alliances are

perceived as attractive because they offer strong, positive, and distinctive attributes and benefits, fulfilling consumer's functional and emotional needs. Global brand's innovation and technology may complement the design and unique flavor of the local brand (RVR, M, 30-34).

This is relevant for consumers looking to reduce the internal dissonance generated during the evaluation of alternatives between global and local brands in a purchase process. This characteristic is unique of the brand alliances between global and local brands and is an excellent business opportunity for both, MNCs looking for access to new geographical markets and local companies seeking a higher level of awareness and sales. Similarly, negative effects might happen if consumers consider the global brand is just taking advantage of the local brand to appeal consumers in the local market, and later acquire and disappear the local brand once the global brand is well known among consumers.

Conclusions, Limitations, and Further Research

This study identified that while global brands have a strong presence and acceptance in Mexico local brands have deep roots in the Mexican culture. The interviewed consumers have favorable perceptions toward global brands with positive associations such as availability, design, high quality, experience, diversity of options, reliability and prestige. Global brands are trusted for product categories such as food, medicines, and technology. Similarly, Mexican consumers' attitudes toward local brands depend on the attachment to the locality to boost the economy, reinforced by sentiments of nationalism deeply rooted among elders and a segment of educated young consumers enthusiastic to support companies and brands with strong local connections. Indeed, brand origin is a critical factor, some consumers prefer local brands because they are easily associated with local values, traditions, lifestyles, attitudes, and behaviors.

Mexican consumers perceive positive opportunities for brand alliances between global and local brands when there is a good fit between both brands and the companies generate synergies. These alliances are attractive because they may offer a fusion of strong, positive and unique attributes and benefits, fulfilling consumer's functional and emotional needs. However, negative effects might happen if consumers consider the global brand is just taking advantage of the local brand.

This study has some limitations. It centers on middle to upper-class consumers because they have more access and experience with both global and local brands in the Mexican context. Additionally, the interviews were conducted with consumers located in Mexico City because it is the most representative market in Mexico. Future research will follow up with a quantitative study to assess the extent to which these findings can be generalized. The insights from both these online interviews and literature review will be essential for designing a more viable and well-founded quantitative study. In addition, these insights will assist in the selection of literal words and expressions for questionnaire wording.

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High-Performance Work Practice: Creating FLEs-customer Affective Climate and its Effect on Employees' Outcomes

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Abstract

This study examines the relationships between High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) and frontline employees (FLEs) performance. It is hypothesized that FLEscustomer affective climate is a mediator and that the relationship is moderated by employment status. HPWPs under investigation are training, performance appraisal, reward and compensation, and employee voice which are expected to have employee benefits such as preventing early burnout and maximize FLEs' job satisfaction. Data was collected from 303 FLEs in Australian SMEs. The findings indicate the existence of moderated mediation for FLEs' emotional engagement, burnout, and job satisfaction.

Keywords: High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs), FLEs-customer affective climate, emotion engagement, burnout, job satisfaction

Does Australian Rail Have a Brand Personality?
ARO's, Anthropomorphic Agents and Biological Metaphors

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Abstract

Developing a positive brand personality provides organisations with a strategic competitive advantage, which may enhance brand trust, brand loyalty and increase market share. Making a brand come 'alive' can be achieved by personifying a brand with intentional behaviours. One way to achieve this is by using human and animal personality traits as anthropomorphic agents. This paper briefly reviews literature on the benefit of emotive brands, and the basis and use of anthropomorphic agents in creating a brand personality. Primary research of conducting semi structured interviews with senior managers from four major Australian Rail Organisations (ARO's) is described. Findings of existing ARO brand personality and the interviewees articulation of perceived anthropomorphic agents (biological metaphors) to describe ARO's rebranding odyssey are presented. The results identify ARO's do not have a strong, unique brand personality. Recommendations are that ARO's make their brand come 'alive' and consider incorporating anthropomorphic agents into their rebranding strategies.

Keywords: Anthropomorphic Agents, Biological Metaphors, Brand Personality, Rebranding, Australian Rail

Introduction

A brand definition for a holistic branding approach is: "the promise of the bundles of attributes that someone buys and that provides satisfaction ... The attributes that make up a brand may be real or illusory, rational or emotional, tangible or invisible" (Ambler 1992) cited in (Ambler and Styles 1997). Researchers are therefore increasingly asserting that a brands true value lies in combining functionality with emotive meanings that create unique associations (Kornberger 2010) and even state that creating a perception of personality and values is as important as extolling the inherent product characteristics (Veloutsou 2008).

The 'invisible', 'emotional' and 'personality' aspects of brand development have therefore been the subject of increasing academic enquiry and are the focus of this paper. This paper identifies findings from the rebranding strategies of four ARO's and discusses whether they have a strong or 'emotive' brand personality. Of compelling interest is how consumers 'invisible' and 'emotional' view of brand personality may be influenced by anthropomorphic agents incorporated into brands, and how ARO senior managers organically express their rebranding odyssey through biological metaphors (anthropomorphic agents), although these are noticeably absent from ARO brands.

Literature Review

The context underpinning brand anthropomorphism is that "perceiving humanlike characteristics in either real or imagined nonhuman agents is the essence of anthropomorphism" (Epley, Waytz et al. 2008). Human societies have a universal, centuries old predilection to anthropomorphise symbols and 'special' objects into palpable entities, imbuing them with intentional agency and human characteristics far exceeding any functional utility of the object (Mithen and Boyer 1996, Fournier 1998).

Within this strange 'hardwired' behaviour lies the fundamental secret of why brands work so well. Humans strange predilection to anthropormorphise objects extends into the brand scape by people identifying with brand objects so deeply that they readily transfer the human qualities of emotion, thought and volition. In fact, although a brand has no sentient existence (it does not think and feel), the portrayed brand behaviours and symbols are interpreted by consumers as personality traits. Consumers observing brand characters in advertising assign the brand with a 'brand personality', where 'brand personality' is defined as "the set of human characteristics associated with a brand" (Aaker 1997). Brands thus offer a quintessential vehicle for symbols of identity (Levy 1959).

Researchers state that that humans readily perceive brands as human characters (Levy 1985, Plummer 1985), may readily identify brands as celebrity or historical figures (Rook 1985), and are therefore amenable, and perhaps even predisposed to view inanimate brand objects as having specific humanlike personality traits (Aaker 1997). According to Bennett and Hill (2012) scholars no longer question that brands are often associated with human personalities. In fact some people may perceive brands as if they were actual human beings (Guido and Peluso 2015).

The notion that consumers are willing to accept that brands represent an important relationship dyad is supported by the fact that consumers accept advertisers efforts to personalise brands, as well as consumers own propensity to imbue brands with personalities (Fournier 1998). Additionally, research into brand personality has found that consumers form

extraordinary brand relationship variety directly comparable to the relationships that people experience with one another (Fournier 1998).

The human penchant to anthropomorphise brands and willingness to create brand relationships provides a potent emotive cauldron for marketers to brew a unique, magnetic 'brand personality' (BP). The creation of a brand personality is achieved by 'personifying' a brand with 'intentional behaviours', so that it essentially becomes 'alive'. From the brands observed 'behaviour's', consumers may deduce the 'inner character' of the brand's personality (Aaker and Fournier 1995).

Interestingly, in addition to aligning human personality traits to brands, academic research asserts, and copious practical application demonstrates, that brand personification can also be created through using animals as anthropomorphic agents. Attesting to the efficacy of animal based anthropomorphism is the fact that marketing is replete with images of brand animals. For example, Lacoste's use of a crocodile motif, Coca-Cola's polar bears and Japan's tourism adoption of 'Hello Kitty' as their tourism ambassador to China and Hong Kong (Brown 2010). Brand personality can be readily associated with certain animal traits, for example Red Bull's use of a (red) bull to create a brand identity that conveys speed, power, and recklessness, (Brasel and Gips 2011).

Developing brands dripping with strong symbolic meaning and flavoured by a unique brand personality provides many strategic organisational advantages. Firstly, developing a positive brand personality may provide organisations with a sustainable competitive advantage (Aaker, 1997). Additionally, consumer choices involve implicit or explicit assessments of the embedded symbolic character of commercial objects. Those objects that a consumer perceives to have inherent symbolism that is consistent with the consumer's own assessment of their actual or desired self-identity, are more likely to be purchased. Brands effectively imbued with BP increase both brand trust and brand affect (Sung and Kim 2012) and demonstrate a measurable increase in both consumers' loyalty and brand market share (Malär, Nyffenegger et al. 2012).

Given the stated advantages of BP, it is not surprising that Freling, Crosno et al. (2011) state "in essence, managers are increasingly turning to brand personality as a practical and requisite marketing tool" (p.404). This paper therefore discusses whether the ARO's investigated have created a brand personality that has become 'alive' through being personified with 'intentional behaviours'. In particular, it considers whether rail has used either human or animal anthropomorphic agents to convey a strong, unique Brand Personality.

Research Methodology
The findings in this report are a subset of a larger investigation into Australian Rail rebranding. The rebranding of four AROs that have engaged in rebranding strategies and processes are being investigated through a multiple case study methodology (Yin 1994). A summary profile of these organisations is presented in Table 1 hereunder.

Semi-structured in-depth interviews was the primary data collection method to gain direct insight into stakeholders' perspectives who were responsible for or affected by the rebranding process (Saldaña 2012). To provide triangulation and corroborate and verify events corporate

documents, media reports and some organisational archival records were also examined (Yin, 1994).

Table 1: Overview – AROs selected for case study

	Ownership	Rail Services	Place Hierarchy	Rebranding Date	Participant No.
V/Line	Government	Passenger	Regional	Aug 1983 - Ongoing	1-2
Aurizon	Privatised	Freight	State, Regional and National	December 2012	4-6
Sydney Trains	Government	Passenger	Regional – Suburban	July 1 2013	7-8
Metro Trains Melbourne	Privatised (Joint Venture)	Passenger	Suburban	November 2009	9-11

Fifteen participants were interviewed over the course of fourteen interviews. Eleven participants (number 1 – 11 in table 2 above) were mid-to-senior managers in the branding, marketing and human resource departments of the AROs investigated. An additional four participants were senior representatives of government transport departments with direct influence over, and responsibility for these AROs, as well as a senior manager in Australia's peak rail industry organisation (interviewees are numbered 12 to 15, although not identified in table 2 above). Interviews averaged 60.6 minutes yielding a total of 849 minutes (just over 14 hours) of recorded audio data.

The recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim, producing 149,462 words. Transcripts and accompanying audio files were imported into NVivo 10. This Computer Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis (CAQDA) software was chosen as NVivo enables a researcher to "manage, access and analyze data and to keep a perspective on all of the data, without losing its richness or the closeness to data that is critical for qualitative research" (Bazeley and Richards 2000).

Nvivo 10 was therefore used to code and theme the data, with data analysis comprised of five stages; (1) compiling, (2) disassembling, (3) reassembling, (4) interpreting and (5) concluding as recommended by (Yin 2010, 2011). The disassembling stage yielded 163 codes or (sub) themes, which were further analysed to identify coherent emerging patterns. The reassembly phase included categorising the identified subthemes into nineteen overarching themes. Some a priori codes identified during the literature review aligned with the subthemes, (Waring & Wainwright 2008), whilst others formed new themes that percolated from this research (interpretation stage). The findings and conclusions discussed in this paper are subthemes identified within one of the a priori codes/overarching themes, namely 'Corporate Rebranding Framework – Analysis'.

Findings

No Unique, Clearly Defined ARO Brand Personality

Analysis from interviews, corporate documents and media reports identified that ARO's did not embed a clearly defined and unique brand personality during rebranding. Rather, ARO's included a very broad expression of their potential personality contained within their vision statements. These include: Sydney Trains - "The customer is at the centre of everything we do" (Corporation, 2013, p.10); Aurizon – "moving a nation" (Aurizon, 2016, p.12); MTM – "a proud railway for everyone, everyday" (Melbourne, 2014, p.2). More specifically, no ARO explicitly, or implicitly integrated either human or animal anthropomorphic agents in the creation of a Brand Personality.

However, during interviews, many ARO managers extemporaneously used both human and animal comparative expressions as anthropomorphic agents to relate their organisations rebranding odyssey, their perceived former, actual or desired brand personality, or all of these elements. In this paper, these comparative expressions are referred to as 'biological metaphors'.

Interviewee excerpts discussing these biological metaphors are represented below:

V/Line 'Biological Metaphors'

Prior to Rebranding: When people were asked to think about an animal…, quite often what came back was elephant, turtle. Not very flattering. So big, slow, dependable, but potentially not very open to change. Following Rebranding: So we wanted to move away from that to being slightly more agile and flexible, responsive…an octopus is still quite agile and they're actually quite intelligent animals. We…didn't want to be elephant or turtle…Yeah I think we're closer to being an octopus, definitely (P5).

Aurizon 'Biological Metaphors'

Prior to Rebranding: Elephant QR as an elephant, big, slow, long memory, stomp on anything that got in the way - got under its feet but would be scared of a mouse (Ben). As QR I reckon it would have been a donkey or something like that. Something that would go forward but then when it didn't feel like it, it just stopped (Caroline) Following Rebranding: An owl. An owl it's got history, it's got wisdom, it's got an element of courage, it sleeps in a safe environment yet it actually can still get out and hunt and be very active (Ben). Whereas now I think it's more a - it's aspiring to be more like a cheetah, something like that. So it's quite different (P6).

Sydney Trains 'Biological Metaphors'

Prior to Rebranding: RailCorp….I'd say it was probably a bit dead on its feet like… some kind of clapped out old animal anyway…Certainly, maybe RailCorp was a donkey. Following Rebranding: Maybe now we're a pony and eventually we become a thoroughbred racehorse. But we're not there yet (P8).

MTM 'Biological Metaphors':

Following Rebranding: *It's a lion* (P 10).

Summary of anthropomorphic agents describing ARO brand personality

Table 2 below provides a summary of brand personality attributes before and after rebranding where expressed by senior ARO managers as anthropomorphic agents in terms of brand as an animal, brand with human like characteristics, and brand as a person.

Table 2: Summary of anthropomorphic agents describing ARO brand personality

ARO	Brand as Animal		han Personality Traits		Brand as Person	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
V/Line	Elephant / Turtle	Octopus	Big, slow, dependable, but not open to change	Contemporary, dependable, welcoming, country values	Old man in his tracky dacks	Thirties, professional without the tie: modern, progressive, contemporary, open, flexible
Aurizon	Elephant/ Donkey	Owl / Cheetah	Bureaucratic, fat and lazy	Quietly confident, ambitious, conservative but determined	Bill Hunter (Actor)	Hugh Jackman (Actor)
Sydney Trains	Donkey	Pony / Thoroughbred Racehorse	Corrupt, polluted	Bright, friendly, modern, dynamic, helpful		
MTM		Lion			friendly, proactive, forward thinking, consistent, confident, responsible	

Discussion and Implications

Despite the fact that senior managers in ARO's readily associate their brands with human or animal 'biological metaphors' (anthropomorphic agents), ARO brand personalities are vague and none of them have a powerful, unique brand personality. In fact, a senior manager asserted that ARO's have no brand personality at all:

You think of a brand like Thomas the Tank Engine. People mentally have a focus of what that brand does, how it goes out there. I don't think anybody - no rail line in Australia has that type of personality (p12).

The fact that ARO brand personalities are so vague and tenuous indicates that ARO's have primarily been focused on the operational functionality of their rail service, and have failed to identify or project any emotive element of using their transportation services. The need for organisations to ensure their brand has an emotive component supporting the functional aspect of their operations is nicely encapsulated by Berry (2000) "brands that connect emotionally are authentic summations of a company with a soul" (p.134).

Despite ARO's paucity of branding imagination, some senior managers at ARO's hvivid picture of their rebranding odyssey that they clearly related through the use of anthropomorphic agents, or biological metaphors. Essentially;

V/Line states it has transitioned from a turtle to an octopus. The turtle depicts a slow, outdated brand image and the octopus a more contemporary and progressive image offering multifaceted consumer services. Aurizon is transforming from an elephant to a cheetah. As an elephant it was slow and ponderous, encumbered by antiquated policies and procedures. The cheetah is sleek and streamlined, quick to react to market forces and pounce on opportunities to maximise profitability. Sydney Trains states they were a donkey, are now a pony and are striving to become a thoroughbred embedded with world class best practices. MTM simply state that they are a lion.

It is the contention of this paper therefore that given the copious strategic organisational advantages of developing a unique brand personality (Aaker 1997, Sung and Kim 2012), ARO's should develop a strong, unique brand personality that emotively appeals to stakeholders. Further, ARO's may consider creating and bringing a brand personality to 'life' by 'personifying' a brand with 'intentional behaviours'(Aaker and Fournier 1995), which may include brand evocation of anthropomorphic agents. ARO's may in fact find that their own senior managers provide a fecund pool of visionary ideas from which to start their brand personification genesis. Further research in this area may be aided by the use of the Zaltman Metaphor Elicitation Technique, a research tool that assists to elicit metaphors, constructs and mental models.

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Approaches to brand positioning in the New Zealand Sauvignon Blanc wine market: Uncovering design-based narratives

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Abstract

This paper reports on an exploration of positioning strategies used by New Zealand Sauvignon Blanc marketers. The purpose of the paper is to enrich previous work that identified three design-based brand positioning 'postures', which we termed Solution, Signature and Soul. We further investigate these positioning strategies by considering whether and how wine marketers articulate those positions based on technological and socio-cultural meanings. We do so by applying narrative analysis to a purposive sample of NZ Sauvignon Blanc wine bottle labels. We interpret labels as texts, applying narrative analysis to confirm or disconfirm our interpretation of positioning postures, and to enrich our view of them. Our contribution is that in the wine market, the three postures may reflect the different brand strategies of three key players, namely retail brand marketers (Solution), 'commercial' brand marketers (Signature) and artisan brand marketers (Soul).

Key words: design postures, narrative analysis

Track: Innovation and new product and service development 2

Introduction

"New Zealand's true potential as a producer of fine wine burst upon the world in the mid-1980s…The best Sauvignon Blancs were the most memorable…The verdict was unanimous: New Zealand had jumped into the first division of the world's white wine producers" (Hugh Johnson's Wine Companion, 2009).

The context for this study is New Zealand (NZ) Sauvignon Blanc wine, given its ongoing status as an innovative NZ product category. In general, FMCG brand managers seeking greater market share must make their brand central to the category and meaningfully differentiate their brand; i.e. maintain relevance vis-à-vis market dynamics, and maintain consistency (Beverland, Wilner, & Micheli, 2015). Furthermore, in highly competitive supermarket categories, the spectrum of strategic brand approaches has widened as retailers engage in coopetition, and thereby fielding a wide variety of house brands in ever more complex category brand architectures (Laamanen & Skålén, 2014; Laforet & Saunders, 2007). Brand competition is therefore situated, complex and consequential, forming the motivation and background to the study, which investigates brand differentiation strategies in a fiercely competitive retail environment. We view brand competition through the lens of design, where 'design' is sense-making, or a set of frameworks by which people make sense of the world (Krippendorff, 1989; Verganti, 2008).

While brand competition is discussed as a gestalt of a multitude of factors, including brand image, brand attributes, product quality, brand loyalty and brand equity (e.g. Aaker, 2009; Keller, 2003; Lee, Lee & Wu, 2011), there is limited insight into the gestalt of brand strategy and competitive positioning at point of purchase, where commodification through decreased differentiation, competitive clutter and market concentration presents increasing challenges to brand managers (Carpenter & Nakamoto, 1989, 1994). The purpose of this paper is to add to knowledge about the gestalt of brand competition in the context of Sauvignon Blanc. Building on past work based on Verganti's (2008; 2011) design-driven innovation, we identify three strategic brand positioning 'postures' based on technological and socio-cultural meanings (Brookes, Little, Cassab, & Geiger, 2011; Brookes, Little, Smith, & Starr, forthcoming). This exploratory paper takes the first steps in enriching the postures, which we term Solution, Signature and Soul. We purposively sampled wine brands from each posture at point of purchase, and applied narrative analysis to uncover the meaning-producing processes of wine brand marketers. We use an abductive approach, comparing and contrasting brands we interpret as characteristic of these three postures, and applying narrative analysis techniques to deepen our understanding of the nature and characteristics of each posture. The implications of our exploratory, and avenues for further study, will then be discussed.

Literature Review

Two literature streams inform this study; namely strategic branding and design. In the strategic branding literature, brands are conceptualised both from a consumer-centric and producer-centric perspective. From the consumer-centric perspective, brands are conceptualised as constructs in the mind of the beholder (e.g. Ambler & Styles, 1996; Levy, 2003). At the producer-centric level, brands are a representation of the firm's promise to consumers and stakeholders (Aaker, 1996; Ambler & Styles, 1996), and to their intended defining and shaping of consumer tastes (Carpenter & Nakanoto, 1994). Brands are thus co-created in a complex interplay of producer-generated texts and consumer-generated interpretations. We term this interplay, 'the narrated brand' (Smith & Buchanan-Oliver, 2011). The narrated brand is a commercial entity creating value for stakeholders in the value network (Kothandaraman & Wilson, 2011) based on differential advantage and market 3 economics

(Doyle, 2001). Effective brand management therefore has a positive financial effect to the short and long term future of the organisation.

Building on the strategic branding literature, we also propose that a 'design' lens offers an entrée into deeper understanding of brand management practice. Design theory views design as "… the meanings that people give to products and the messages and product languages that one can devise to convey that meaning" (Verganti, 2008, p. 440). In effect, brand managers create and articulate meaning, interpreted by the market in anticipated and unanticipated ways. Market meanings are likewise interpreted and re-lensed by brand managers. Thus, design in the Krippendorfian sense of a set of frameworks people apply for the purposes of sense-making, offers a way forward in making sense of the interpretations and reinterpretations of consumers and brand managers (Krippendorf, 1989). Furthermore, the notion of design captures both technological and socio-cultural dimensions of co-created meanings, generated "… through continuous interactions among firms, designers, users, and several stakeholders, both inside and outside a corporation" (Verganti, 2013, p. 89).

'Design' also captures the notions of aesthetics and user-centred design (Junginger, 2007). Hence the notion of design captures both the practice of producers as they craft their specific brand strategies, of retailers as they craft their category management strategies, and of the sense-making activities of consumers as they respond to these brand and retail cues. 'Design' therefore offers new ways to consider and reconsider markets, in the sense of both brand and product aesthetics (e.g. Beverland, 2005; de Mozota, 2003). Currently, the design literature offers a dichotomous view, focusing either on market-led or market-leading innovation (Verganti, 2008, 2011). Market-led innovation focuses on user-centred design, whereby the organisation focuses on 'usability' or user utility relating to artefacts or experiences (e.g. Rosenthal & Capper, 2006). Market-leading innovation focuses on design-led innovation: "a firm's vision about possible breakthrough meanings and product languages that could emerge in the future" (Verganti, 2008, p.438). In this paper we offer a gestalt, synthesising both market-led and market-leading approaches to brand positioning through design narratives. Drawing on the work of Verganti (2008) and previous work (Brookes et al., 2011), we juxtapose technological innovation and socio-cultural interpretations of meaning to derive three brand positioning 'postures' as shown in Figure 1.

The x-axis indicates increasing level of socio-cultural meaning innovation, while the y-axis indicates increasing levels of technological innovation. In the incremental improvement-adaptive quadrant, market-led innovation results in user-centred design. However, in the right hand quadrants, new cultural meanings deliver design-driven innovation, which may or may not be technologically driven. Thus, in general, the Solution posture reflects current socio-cultural understandings, and reinforcement of the status quo. The Signature posture builds on current understandings, and offers incremental innovation and/or differentiation options to current technological achievements. Finally, the Soul brand posture generates new socio-cultural meanings and new functions in a category. While space precludes detailed discussion, two important points must be made. Firstly, while each posture is depicted as slightly overlapping, each is not discrete; rather, the postures operate on a continuum. Secondly, while the Solution and Signature postures are relatively straight forward, the Soul posture is not. Extant literature provides some insight into the nature of the Soul category, in the idea of 'authenticity' (Beverland, 2005, 2006; Newman & Dhar, 2014). In a study of luxury wine, clearly of relevance to this study, authenticity was found to have six attributes: heritage and pedigree, stylistic consistency, quality commitments, relationship to place, method of production, and downplaying of commercial considerations (Beverland, 2006). Also relevant

to wine is the idea of terroir, or geographic location of a winery, tying in to the idea of contagion, or the conferring of special qualities from history or a physical or geographic connection to a consumer brand (Newman & Dhar, 2014). Overall, the postures reflect and create brand positioning strategies, articulated in signalling mechanisms such as the wine label.

Figure 1: Three brand positioning postures: Solution, Signature & Soul (Brookes et al. 2011, which in turn is based on Verganti, 2008)
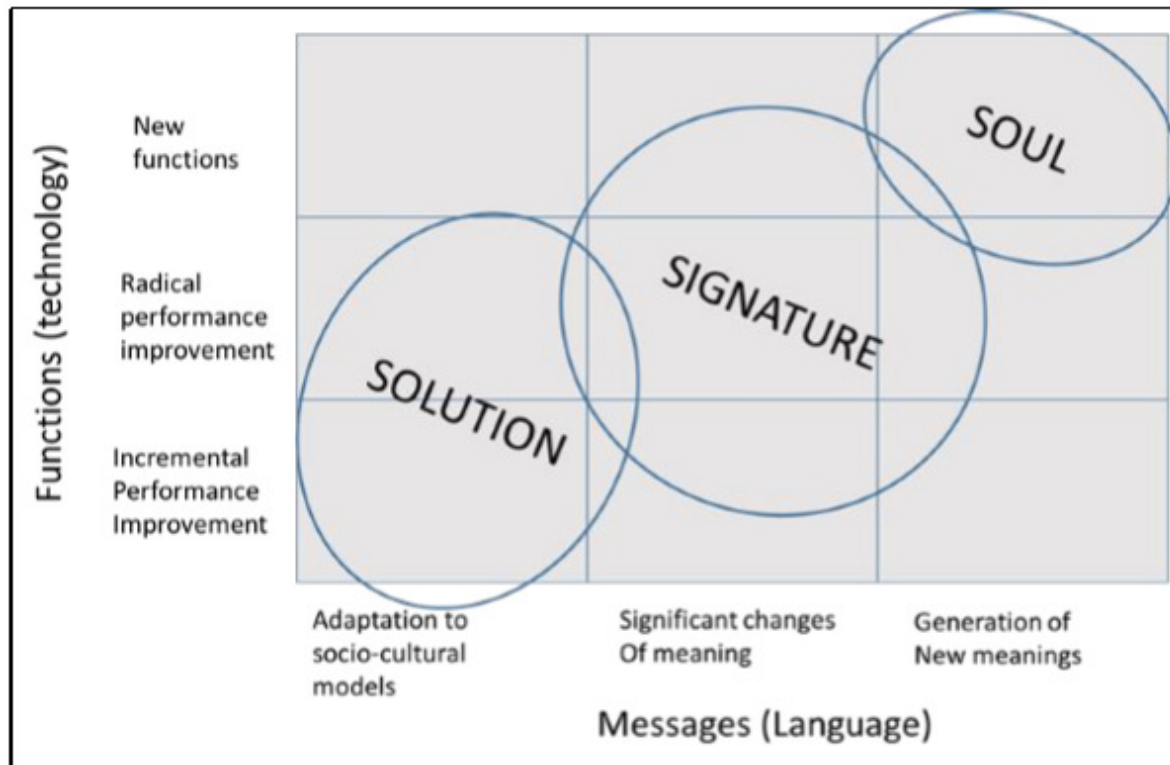
Methodology

In order to investigate competitive brand postures, we sought a supermarket product category that offered distinctive brands along two spectra (price: quality and industrial: heritage) in order to respond to both technological and socio-cultural attributes of meaning. NZ Sauvignon Blanc answered this requirement, being an important component of the supermarket wine category, and offering a wide variety of brands including store and producer (i.e. 'industrial' and artisan) brands. New Zealand has an 8% share of total global wine production by volume; of which 68% of the value is comprised of Sauvignon Blanc exports (NZ Winegrowers, 2013). While technically a fast-moving consumer good, wine is also considered to be a relatively high involvement consumer purchase, requiring complex information processing, and entailing high perceived social risk (Hollebeek & Brodie, 2009). The high price/quality variance enabled analysis of a wide range at various price points, including the potential to find Soul brands; i.e. those with an artisanal or design heritage providing a window on authenticity (Beverland, 2005; Brown, Kozinets, & Sherry Jr, 2003).

The purpose of this exploratory study was to further our understanding of the three brand postures. For this purpose, the authors agreed on a set of brands complying with each of the three postures, Solution, Signature and Soul, available in NZ supermarkets in 2015. We used photographic images of 20 front and back wine bottle labels as text:

Table 1: Summary of brands analysed – Solution, Signature, Soul

Solution	Signature	Soul
Three Stones; Five Flax; Riverstone, Whitecliff, Pete's Shed	Brancott Estate; Jules Taylor; Wither Hills, Matua Valley; Saint Clair; Kim Crawford; Cloudy Bay; Te Toko; Mount Ara; Hay Maker	Babich Organic; Church Road McDonald; Claudia's Vineyard; Mudhouse Single Vineyard; Brancott Terroir
Total 5 brands	Total 10 brands	Total 5 brands

We applied narrative analysis to the textual (i.e. written) elements of these labels. We assume consumers use stories to understand the world around them (Escalas, 2004), and narratives are often used by marketers to chronicle and thereby position brands within the marketplace (Johnson, Thomson & Jeffrey, 2015). Narrative analysis frames consumption narratives as familiar literary elements such as plot (the action), characters (the players), structural patterns (the organisation) and the language (the verbal expression) (Stern, Thompson & Arnould, 1998). We were alert for evidence of predicament, conflict, struggle, a protagonist or character, and a sequence with implied causality (Ollerenshaw & Creswell, 2002). Conducting a narrative analysis of product labels was conducted most recently in relation to an organic product labelling. Adam's (2015) analysis and treatment of the labels on Horizon Organics Dairy products as rhetorical artefacts highlights the complexities of food label marketing. Just as Stern et al. (1998) argue that focusing on narrative patterns contributes to a deeper understanding of consumer behaviour, we argue that a focus on narrative patterns on product labels provides insight into the ways marketers and/or brand/product owners attempt to engage with consumers. In effect, we agree it is "a way of telling about one's relationship to others and the reasons behind them" (Stern et al., 1998, p. 198).

Design Narratives An analysis of the Solution labels revealed a predominance of retail own brands and an emphasis on expected product experience narratives. We found the essence of the Solution posture was consumer-centric and value-driven, emphasising key category (i.e. NZ Sauvignon Blanc) attributes; for example: "Zesty and fresh kiwifruit and passionfruit flavours are complemented by a delicious crisp" (Riverstone); and " …fruit driven, full flavoured, easy drinking wines. This wine exudes tropical fruit flavours and floral aromas" (Whitecliff). Winemaking techniques are referred to in generic rather than technical or specialised format, for example: " …a range of vibrant wines, made using modern winemaking techniques" (Five Flax); "Traditional winemaking techniques using milk products have been used to clarify this wine" (Riverstone). When Solution wines move beyond the wine experience and how the wine is made, a familiar context or story is sometimes employed, e.g.: "They say a shed is to a bloke what a handbag is to a woman. Well, you'll find all kinds of interesting things in Pete's Shed. Bits collected from here and there, tinkered with, improved. Things to marvel at by themselves. Things you can put to use. Things so special you want to share it with friends. Just like things in Pete's Shed, our wines are a unique collection of interesting parcels of wine we have sourced from New Zealand and across the globe" (Pete's Shed). The shed narrative above is not an authentic (i.e. specific) narrative per se, but is rather an appeal to wider cultural narratives within New Zealand society about the importance of a 'shed', and what such a cultural artefact might

contain. We conclude that Solution brand postures are not on the whole narratively rich, and instead privilege generic experiential and instructional advice for those consumers who may not see themselves as experienced and knowledgeable wine drinkers. Moreover, there is generally no sense of agency employed. Solution brands are 'good enough'; i.e. fit for function, risk free, reliable and affordable; eschewing the idiosyncratic and the technical, and instead focusing on reducing consumer risk. In the Signature category, we found that narratives shifted in some cases to include, along with descriptions of product attributes, stories about the brand in relation to the place of production; for example: "Mount Ara is the local name for the vantage point above our vineyard. From here, there are sweeping views across our single estate, down the Wairau valley and ultimately to the Richmond ranges" (Mt Ara); "The Cloudy Bay vineyards are located in the Marlborough region at the northern end of New Zealand's South Island" (Cloudy Bay). Some wine brands extend the narrative of place to the notion of that place being special/exceptional, which is in turn reflected in the wine; for example: "Nurtured by nature and sustainably crafted in New Zealand's best grape growing region, Hay Maker Sauvignon Blanc is a true expression of all the region has to offer" (Hay Maker). In addition, in some cases, agency is emphasised. For example, Brancott Estate includes the signature of their Chief Winemaker. Church Road and Wither Hills both use the pronoun "our", and St Clair Family and Jules Taylor make specific use of an individual or family name. A second device is appropriation of mythological narrative; for example: "Maori legend tells the story of the fearless explorer Kupe, who was blown into a sheltering bay during a driving storm. That bay, now known as Cloudy Bay, was named Te Koko-oKupe. It's from this wild land that Te Koko was born". (Te Koko) We conclude that a Signature posture is brand-centric, quality-driven and strives to create and reflect the essence of the category and Marlborough region, evocative of the best attributes the category and region have to offer, and promising a high quality consumption experience. Our Soul posture examples are overtly focused on human actors (winery owners, vineyard owners and winemakers) and their relationship with the terroir. Our attention is drawn to longevity and heritage (in New World rather than old World timeframes), and to the fine detail of production that delivers subtle differentiating characteristics in the wine. Terroir is sometimes mentioned explicitly, and described in some detail. More challenging technical attributes are claimed relating to flavour e.g. minerality, and herbaceousness, and finish; for example: "…an intriguing combination of location, soil, climate and a vigneron's touch that provides unique personality to a wine. The Brancott Estate Terroir Series showcases winemaking expertise in creating wines of distinction and character from the Awatere Valley" (Brancott Estate). Likewise, Babich Organic emphasises the historical as well as innovative nature of the company and wine: "Family owned and operated Babich Wines was founded by Croatian immigrant Josip Babich and today is considered one of New Zealand's leading wineries. The Babich family vineyards in Fernhill, Hawke's Bay were the first in New Zealand to achieve sustainable registration. With our ongoing commitment to protect the environment through only sustainable practices in all our vineyards, it was a logical progression to move to the next step and investigate the benefits of an organic approach to viticulture" (Babich Organic). Agency is usually more pronounced and specific, signified by reference to a family, ancestral hero, and/or expert winemaker. Descriptions of expected product performance are usually

sophisticated and assume a high degree of product literacy on the part of consumers; for example, Mud House lists under the sub-heading of "Winemaker's notes" that the wine will deliver the following: "Aromas of passionfruit, tomato leaf and grapefruit pith fill the senses. The palate offers superb fruit weight, balanced acidity and long succulent minerality. A wine of remarkable intensity" (Mud House). Overall, the Soul posture examples respond to a number of attributes of authenticity; namely heritage and pedigree, stylistic consistency, quality commitments, relationship to place, method of production, and downplaying of commercial considerations (Beverland, 2006). Nevertheless, all brands in this category were available from major retail outlets, and therefore they might all also be considered as commercial in nature and intent.

Implications While we accept that some element of circularity is intrinsic in our analysis (i.e. we sought and found evidence for the three a priori postures), we find support for distinctive differences between groups of brands complying with the Verganti (2008) derived positioning framework, and enrichment of the literature-based descriptions. We found that the retail wine brand gestalt covers the spectrum of commonplace to craft, functional to artisanal, the profane to sacred (Belk, Wallendorf & Sherry, 1989), and user-centred to design-focused. This exploratory study is a continuum of a long-term analysis of design-led innovation that studies a continuum. Our main contribution of this smaller study is that a Vergantian-style model can be applied to a specific category of NZ wine. More specifically, we have shown here that each design posture is characterised by certain narrative characteristics. A fruitful field of study in the future could be to determine whether or not customer involvement/ engagement can also be reflected across these three postures as some sort of continuum. In order to conduct this kind of larger study, our next task is to carry out a systematic contentanalysis of the several hundred wine labels we have gathered from supermarkets in Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom.

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The effect of Adopters Segment on Adoption of Really New Products (RNPs) versus Incrementally New Products (INPs)

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Abstract

This paper would like to investigate the effect of consumer characteristics on the adoption of really new products (RNPs) versus incrementally new products (INPs). This is a conceptual study that combines the perceived of newness theory of new product in the market with construal-level theory to predict the adoption timing and product features preferences. The really new products (RNPs) define as the highest segment of innovative product that also being referred as a 'frontier' product. The marketing for the RNPs is challenging as most of the consumer would prefer to buy incrementally new products (INPs) due to the feasibility factors. The segmentation of the consumer would aid the marketers to revise their marketing strategy for really new products (RNPs).

Keywords: adopters segment, really new products (RNPs), incrementally new products (INPs), purchase intention, construal-level theory

Introduction

Every year most of the demonstrated technology products in the Consumer Electronics Show (CES) were a failure in the real market. CES is the world's biggest exhibition for electronic products and it is being held in Las Vegas since 1970. For example, the Nokia Lumia 900 has won the "Best in Show" award at CES 2012 but the market share for Windows Phone (the operating software for Nokia Lumia 900) was only 4% against Apple's iOS and Google's Android. Due to the lack of application ecosystem by Windows Phone, users were not interested to buy the products because most of them were not familiar with the Windows operating system (Chakravorti, 2016). Reportedly more than 90% of innovative products cannot survive in the market (Fisher, 2014).

Innovative products can be define in two versions which are really new products (RNPs) and incrementally new products (INPs), but the frontier of innovative products usually called as RNPs because it's very new to the market. According to past study, company's failure in marketing of RNPs would suffer poor sales and may not continue its production (Hoeffler, 2003; Alexander, Lynch & Wang, 2008). Many innovative companies have faced difficulties in estimating market demand for RNPs. Most of RNPs' failure in the market was because higher consumer uncertainties in the RNPs as compared to INPs (Hoeffler, 2003). Recently few scholars have started to pay attention on studying the modification of marketing strategy of RNPs versus INPs by suggesting that the marketing efforts for RNPs should be tailored for 'higher risk, higher return' (Alexander et al., 2008). In other words, the RNPs could be the most profitable product for the company but also incurred higher cost for failure. If the customers fail to understand the attributes of the RNPs, the product would not be successful in the market. Thus, the marketing effort for RNPs must be carefully designed to create awareness, attracting more customers and generate higher sales.

According to Alexander et al. (2008), customers still purchase INPs even initially they have purchase intention on RNPs. The contradict finding was based on temporal construal that explained consumer would have higher desirability on RNPs if they expect to buy the products in distant future than near future. The higher desirability in RNPs was due to the higher abstract of thinking about the product that may be attractive in the consumer mind. This make the customer has more imagination and get excited about the new product and forego the practicality of usage in the new product because they have high-level considerations for new product. The temporal construal theory explained the timing of buying where shorter times given would make the consumer to buy the products based on feasibility factors or the familiarity features of the product. Theoretically, the consumer would not buy the RNPs if they have to make the purchase in a shorter time due to low-level considerations (Alexander et al., 2008; Trope & Liberman, 2003).

The adoption of innovative product could be accelerated with social interactions among consumer (Van den Bulte & Stremersch, 2004). In order to predict the success of innovative products, the identification of consumer is important prior to the diffusion process (Midgley & Dowling, 1978; Midgley & Dowling, 1993). Bass (1969) has proposed that innovators did not depend on social influences when making purchase decision on innovative products but they depend on media influences. Bass (1969) also predicted that innovators were the earliest adopters as compared to the imitators (the majority of the adopters). However, Bass (1969) diffusion theory did not include the social influences and demographic factors among consumer.

Therefore, Midgley and Dowling (1993) have proposed the contingency model in identifying the adopters before diffusion actually happened. They argued that even 'noninnovative' adopters will adopt earlier than innovator because they receive the product information from social interaction. They also argued that most diffusion studies were done

after the diffusion of the products has completely diffused and not every innovation will be successful in the market. Segmenting the adopters in diffusion process is important in determining the success of new products in the market. Therefore, this study would like to address the RNPs versus INPs adoption study made by Alexander et al. (2008) that has not include the social influence and personal characteristics among consumers when they made the decision to buy the innovative products.

In order to investigate the consumer purchase intention, Alexander et al. (2008) have focused on temporal construal by construal-level theory (CLT) that explained the consumer positive desires on purchasing RNPs at distant future but purchase INPs if given shorter decision time. In addition, the study would like to focus on the product features that could influence the purchase decision that is based on novelty concept in CLT (Trope and Liberman, 2010).

It is imperative to measure the adoption of the products based on the purchase behaviour and not solely on purchase intention. This is because the study will adopt temporal construal theory that explained the different timing of purchase intention and the actual purchase behaviour (Trope & Liberman, 2003; Alexander et al., 2008). According to past researches, there were not many literatures made on product adoption based on product features, therefore we hope that this research will contribute in that area (Hoeffler, 2003; Gordon, 2009).

Research Objectives and Research Questions

The research objective for the study is to investigate the effect of the adopters segment on the perceived newness of the product features (RNPs versus INPs) and eventually how it will influence their purchase intention and adoption.

Therefore, this study would attempt to answer research questions below:

1. To profile consumers into the adopters segment of "innovative communicator", "less involved" and "status maintainers"
2. To investigate adopters segment effect on the perceived newness of the product features
3. To determine the perceived newness effect on the purchase intention
4. To predict the relationship of purchase intention with the adoption (first purchase)

Figure 1: Research Framework
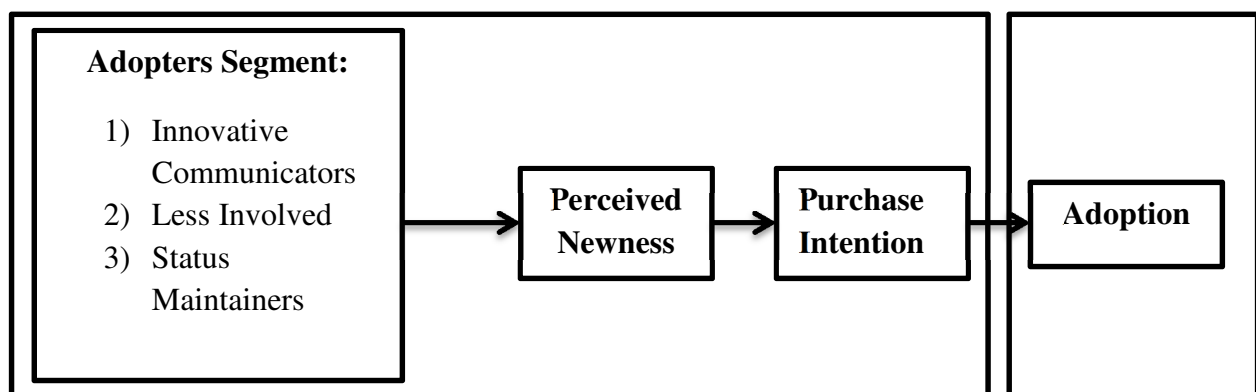
Based on the Midgley and Dowling (1993) study, the 'innovative communicators' were the most innovative and the earliest adopters. However, we would like to propose differently than Midgley and Dowling (1993) theory because new generation of the consumers in this digital age are more tech savvy and they always made purchase decision based on what they had research online about the product and do not necessarily depend on social influence when making purchase decision for innovative products. The 'less involved' adopters would make extensive research on the product when they perceive that the product is totally new. This mean

that when the company market the product as the totally new or totally innovative, the 'less involved' would made more attempt to study on the products and therefore they might have higher perceived of newness as compared to other adopters., Therefore, the first hypothesis is:

H1: The 'less involved' would have higher level of perceived newness of the really new products (RNPs)

In Alexander et al. (2008) study, the higher perceived newness of product would increase the purchase intention among consumer because they have higher desirability to buy the product when they were not planning to buy the product in near future. This is referring to the temporal construal by the construal-level theory (CLT), consumer would have higher desirability on buying the innovative products because of the higher level of abstract thinking on using the product (Trope & Liberman, 2003). Thus, the second hypothesis is:

H2: The higher level of perceived newness would have higher level of purchase intentions of really new products (RNPs)

Referring to Alexander et al. (2008) study, the consumers that were initially having positive intention on purchasing the really new products (RNPs) would not buy the product in the second stage of study (i.e. the first purchase). Instead, they would buy the incrementally new products (INPs) because they can see themselves using the product and they can relate to their usage from previous products. Since this study would like to predict the 'less involved' adopters would actually buy the RNPs as compared to the other adopters, therefore this study would like to propose the third hypothesis as below.

H3: The higher level of purchase intention would have higher adoption of really new products (RNPs)

Operationalization of Constructs

The Adopters Segment by Midgley and Dowling (1978; 1993)

The adopters segment entails the level of product information (i.e. mass media and opinion of others) and the level of social influences among consumers when they would like to buy the innovative products.

- 'Innovative communicators': The earliest adopters that are less price sensitive and will communicate actively about the innovative product to others. They will update the level of knowledge about innovative product time to time. This consumer segment also the most confident buyer as compared the other two adopters. According to the theory, this is the group of consumer that will accelerate the diffusion.

- 'Less involved': This is the consumer that would be the most active and will search extensively about very new products in the market. They are the least influenced in social circle and may not update their knowledge about the technology product time to time. They would buy the product based on the information from the media solely.

- 'Status maintainers': They are the most reliant on peers' opinion before buying the products. They are the least confident buyers because they need others' approval and opinion before making purchase. They are also the group that has highest purchase power due to higher income group.

Perceived of newness (Hoeffler, 2003; Trope & Liberman, 2010)

The perceived of newness is the rating system by Hoeffler (2003) that was implemented in Alexander et al. (2008) study. However, this study would like to focus on the product features instead of product categories. The technology product features is the same with the novelty concept by Construal-Level Theory (CLT). The novelty concept explains the product features as 'alignable' condition (superficial features) versus 'nonalignable' condition (in-depth features). It will be the guideline when differentiating the really new products (RNPs) features versus incrementally new products (INPs) features in this study. According to the theory, consumer would have higher abstract thinking when comparing products by 'nonalignable' condition of the products. The specification of the product features are usually advertised by the marketers. Kindly refer to the Table 1 below for the examples:

Table 1: Smartphone's product features based on novelty concept of Construal-Level Theory (CLT)

'Alignable' condition	'Nonalignable' condition
16 megapixel camera	16 megapixel f/1.8 dual lens
HD video recording	1080p video recording with 30 frame per second (fps)
GPS	GPS with gyroscope

Purchase intention (Trope & Liberman, 2003; Alexander et al., 2008)

The level of purchase intention of the study would be measured by the temporal construal concept of Construal-Level Theory (CLT) by Trope and Liberman (2003). The purchase intention is measured by the abstract of thinking (desirability and feasibility factor) and the timing of decision (near future and distant future). For example, a person would have higher desire in buying the innovative product if they think they would buy the product in distant future. In contrast, if they have to make a quick decision to buy the product, they would think the feasibility features of the product.

Adoption (Gordon, 2009)

The study would focus on the first purchase (adoption) of smartphone whether it's flagship or mid-range device. The flagship device is actually the highest segment of cellular technology that resembles the concept of 'frontier' product by Gordon (2009). The really new products (RNPs) in this study refer to the smartphone flagships. Therefore, this study would focus on the adoption of the flagship versus mid-range device of smartphones.

Theoretical Contribution

To the limited knowledge of the author, there are not many studies on innovative behaviour among consumer that use Midgley and Dowling (1993) contingency theory although there are quite a number of studies that were motivated by Midgley and Dowling (1993) contingency models. For example, Dawes, Lee, and Dowling (1998) study on innovative buying behaviour among organization has been inspired by Midgley and Dowling (1993) theory on consumer innovativeness. The other two studies about new product adoption behaviour among consumer that were motivated by Midgley and Dowling (1993) contingency theory are Im, Bayus and Mason (2003) and Wang, Dou and Zhou (2008). However to the limit knowledge of the author, there were no studies that explain consumer characteristics that are based on adopters segment on the psychological newness of product adoption study (Midgley and Dowling, 1993: Hoeffler, 2003; Alexander et al., 2008). The author hopes that this study would make a theoretical contribution by relating these two constructs in intentional behaviour diffusion study.

Managerial Implication

Managers need to be more careful in strategizing the marketing for really new products (RNPs) due to higher consumer uncertainties of the product attributes than incrementally new products (INPs). The consumer needs to learn more about RNPs and if they were informed better on the product's attributes, the sales of RNPs would have a higher profit margin than INPs. High-technology companies usually promote their most innovative product yearly to compete in the competitive market and the cost of Research & Development (R&D) is not cheap. Alexander et al. (2008) have suggested that marketers should avoid marketing the product as a 'revolutionary' or 'all-new' kind of products. Therefore, marketers need to present the RNPs as a better version than previous product or as the incremental features than the previous products. It has been proven that innovative product usually be cannibalized by the established product line in a company (Landis, 2013). This study applies construal-level theory (CLT) and identification of adopters segment (social influence) in this study, and the author hope that the marketers could benefit on how to strategize their marketing better for RNPs in ensuring the product success in the market.

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Product line length: Identifying underlying factors driving market share success.

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Abstract
Recent literature focused on the long term performance of marketing has again suggested that product line breadth has a significant effect on brand performance. However, many academics will question whether simply increasing the number of products in a brand's range is responsible for this success. When both perspectives are considered, an insight emerges that this success maybe driven by underlying factors. The objective of this study is to identify, operationalise, and measure the effect of a three potential underlying factors. Through using a panel vector autoregression model on a consumer scanner data set, the results show that when these factors are omitted from a model, it will lead to the effect of product line breadth being overestimated and when included, the effects are insignificant. These findings, and their market share implications, provide academics and practitioners with a better understanding of the role product line breadth has on market performance.

The continuum of conspicuous luxury wine consumption: Towards a consumer typology

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to further explore consumer's perceptions and motivations behind the consumption of luxury wine using the model offered by Wolf, Morrish, and Fountain (2016). Wine consumers were asked to participate in semi-structured interviews that focused on habits, perceptions, and motivation in luxury wine consumption. The data gathered from these interviews was analysed for themes using a phenomenological lens. We found that conspicuous luxury wine consumption moves along a continuum whereby at one extreme, the lack of knowledge, lower involvement levels and strong aspirations to belong to a desired group propels the consumer to be conspicuous in their consumption of what they perceive to be luxury wine. The consumption is situational and highly contextual for the most part, until it reaches a threshold, after which the conspicuousness and non-conspicuousness of consumption becomes almost irrelevant. We refer to consumers exhibiting this behaviour as mimic, metamorphose and maestro.

Keywords: luxury wine, wine consumption, consumer motivation, luxury consumer typology, luxury wine consumer

Introduction

While there is substantial research on luxury consumption, that in the main includes consumer typologies, consumer perceptions of luxury brands, and status signalling; these studies are limited to luxury branded goods. The wine category is unique in comparison to other product categories and luxury wine consumption is perceived differently from other luxury goods. A recent paper by Wolf, Morrish, and Fountain (2016) proposed a framework for understanding consumer perceptions and motivators for consuming luxury wine based on a number of antecedents including; individual characteristics and personal attributes, knowledge and expertise, involvement, reference groups, and culture. The model argues that these variables influence luxury wine consumption and are congruent to one's self-identity. We use elements of this framework in an empirical investigation on the conspicuous consumption of luxury wine.

Theoretical background

Luxury conceptualized

An appropriate way to commence any study on luxury goods is to ascertain what is exactly meant by the term luxury. In the marketing literature there is a paucity of definitions and even more so in relation to luxury wine (Berthon, Pitt, Parent, & Berthon, 2009; Wolf et al., 2016). Emergent themes in the data analysis places the consumer's perception of luxury wine into several recognized conceptualizations of luxury. Kapferer's (1997) scale of luxury which identifies three levels of luxury: the upper-range brand, the luxury brand, and the griffe, introduces the concept of price and tiers in luxury. Both the upper-range brand, and the luxury brand may be perceived as luxury based on a high price, but only the griffe is truly exclusive to a select few. Kapferer, Klippert, and Leproux (2014) and Dubois and Duquesne (1993) agree that the luxury in any good is a high enough price to remain exclusive to a select few. Goods with a high price tend to be viewed by the consumer as better quality with an authenticity that might not necessarily be evident in less expensive goods, tying both quality and authenticity into the concept of luxury (Beverland, 2005; Preece, 2015). Atwal and Williams (2009) recognize price is inextricably tied to luxury but suggest the experience of consuming a luxury product is the primary value of the luxury. While region of origin is evident in concepts of luxury in general, it is especially so in relation to luxury wine, whereby the stronger the regional tie and the longer the history of wine growing in the region, the more the wine produced in that region is perceived to be luxury (Sharp & Smith, 1990; Moulard, Babin, & Griffin, 2015).

The emergent themes of luxury conceptualizations seem to support Wolf et al.'s (2016) framework of consumer perceptions and motivation of luxury wine consumption built upon Berthon et al.'s (2009) luxury conceptualization. Luxury is a spectrum along which consumers can move based on their subjective and objective knowledge and as their motivators for consumption change (Berthon et al., 2009). Luxury goods defined by this typology have the elements of: status, high price, cutting edge, heritage, exclusivity, and impermanence; and depending on where in the spectrum the product fits, the importance of these elements varies (Wolf et al., 2016). This conceptualization sets the groundwork for a consumer typology which takes into account the knowledge and experience of the consumer creating four consumer types: novice, enthusiast, it-girl, and connoisseur (Wolf et al., 2016).

Knowledge and involvement in wine consumers

For the purposes of this paper involvement is defined as the motivational state of mind of a person with regard to an object or activity, which itself reveals the level of interest in the object or activity (Mittal & Lee, 1989). Involvement is a motivating variable which accounts for particular consumer behaviour. Depending on the level of involvement, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) argue that individual consumers will approach the same purchase decision with differing outcomes. Be that as it may, Lockshin and Corsi (2012) argue that there remains relatively little understanding of consumer involvement when it comes to purchasing luxury wine. While this is no new revelation, studies have shown that there are differences between low and high involvement consumers (Lockshin & Corsi, 2012) and understanding how this involvement influences luxury wine consumption has implications for theory and practice.

Although how involvement affects luxury wine consumption has yet to be fully investigated, Brunner and Siegrist (2011) report a direct correlation between knowledge and wine consumption. Objective knowledge is stored factual knowledge which in turn influences consumer search strategies but is not necessarily an indicator of purchase behaviour (Oh & Abraham, 2016). Subjective knowledge is the perception of what, and how, people know information. Converse to objective knowledge, subjective knowledge is a predictor of purchase behaviour, stemming from the fact it gives a consumer greater self-confidence (Oh & Abraham, 2016). Brunner and Siegrist (2011) found expertise, or objective knowledge, to be the strongest determinant for wine consumption although they caution this does not allow for causality. This seems to suggest that, at least in terms of wine consumption, objective knowledge can be a predictor of purchase behaviour. If, however, the consumption of luxury wine is used as a means of the consumer signalling or identifying with a reference group, subjective knowledge may in fact hold more significance.

Methodology

Six wine consumers identified throughout Canterbury, New Zealand, with diverse backgrounds in terms of wine consumption, objective wine knowledge, cultural heritage, and income levels were recruited through purposive sampling (Patton, 1990). Our participants offer a disparate group of individuals representing a range of consumer types and cultural regions. There were 4 female and 2 male participants originating from six countries in Asia, Australasia, and Europe. All participants possess graduate level education and identified current career paths as academic, but there is diversity in levels of job title and position, and annual income. Each participant acknowledged varying degrees of wine involvement and objective knowledge.

Informed consent was obtained from each participant. Phenomenological research methods including in-depth, semi-structured interviews were used. A phenomenology approach was deemed the most appropriate as it is the "study of how people describe things and experience them through their senses" (Patton, 1990, p.69). As the aim of this paper is to further explore the consumer's perceptions and motivations behind the consumption of luxury wine, the shared experience (e.g. luxury wine consumption) was focused on in the interviews in order to develop a composite description of the experience, reducing individual experiences to a universal essence. While a phenomenological approach has not been used in the context of luxury wine consumption, there is precedent for the use of a phenomenological approach in the marketing literature (e.g. Thompson, 1996; Mick & Demoss, 1990; Thompson & Hirschman, 1995; Woodruffe-Burton, Eccles, & Elliott, 2002).

Findings and discussion

The present study is, to the best of our knowledge, the first to explore the consumer's perceptions and motivators of luxury wine consumption. In general the participants identified elements of existing luxury conceptualizations, such as: price, region of origin, consumption experience, and authenticity.

Participants who acknowledged high level of objective wine knowledge also exhibited high level of subjective knowledge. However, this equality of objective and subjective knowledge was only seen in those participants with a high level of each. There did not appear to be an association between low subjective knowledge levels and low objective knowledge levels. Some participants with low objective knowledge had medium to high subjective knowledge and the levels of subjective and objective knowledge seemed to vary in importance in the lower levels. There was a link between subjective wine knowledge and the effect of price on the perception of a wine as luxury. The participants with a high level of subjective knowledge were more likely to perceive lower priced wines ($20-$60NZD) as luxury wines. This is not to say that these participants would not perceive a higher priced wine as luxury but rather that they would be more inclined to rate other criteria such as winemaker, vintage, and region of origin higher in their determination of a luxury wine. Participants with a lower level of subjective knowledge were more reliant on price as an indication of luxury and would only consider those wines priced $150USD and above as luxury wines. It appears in luxury wine consumption, a higher level of subjective knowledge is more predictive of increased consumption. This seems to disagree with the Brunner and Siegrist (2011) finding that a high level of objective knowledge is a determinant of wine consumption.

The level of involvement in luxury wine seemed to be linked to the participant's level of subjective knowledge. Those participants with medium to high levels of subjective knowledge were more likely to purchase luxury wine, whether for personal consumption or gifts, on a semi-regular basis. They were also more concerned with the rituals associated with consuming luxury wine, such as appreciating the wine's aroma, colouring, and trying to ascertain the flavours listed in the tasting notes. Although it appears those participants more involved with luxury wine have a higher subjective knowledge of luxury wine, it is not clear if there is causality between these two variables.

Participants with lower levels of objective knowledge were more concerned with how others in their reference groups perceived them when they consumed luxury wine. Those with low levels of subjective knowledge were most concerned that others would perceive them as pretentious because they did not have a high level of objective knowledge. For example, they were concerned others would perceive them as pretentious for consuming luxury wine, and were more likely to consume luxury wine in order to fit the norms of their reference groups, even at the expense of their own personal taste.

Participants with a high level of objective knowledge do recognise that their peers with lower levels of objective knowledge would most likely view them as pretentious or intimidating but this was not a concern for them. Nevertheless, they would be less likely to enjoy luxury wine with their peers who had low levels of objective knowledge, as their peers would be unable to fully appreciate the wine and could be stressed by the situation. However, if the functionality of the luxury wine consumption was to impress peers through gift-giving, or in professional situations, all participants were more inclined to consume luxury wine regardless of the reference group member's knowledge and involvement with luxury wine.

From the findings it appears that an individuals' desire for conspicuous consumption is felt most when the status in the aspirational group is tenuous and when the subjective knowledge is limited. Consumers with lower levels of knowledge and involvement are more likely to mimic those they perceive as having high levels of knowledge, both objective and subjective, in a conspicuous manner. The conspicuousness of consumption varies on the situation, where the association with the reference group is in doubt or when the need to impress others within the group is appropriate to reinforce the consumer's place within the reference group. As an individual's level of knowledge increases, the need for conspicuous consumption of luxury wine is decreased. Our study demonstrates that involvement and knowledge does influence conspicuous luxury wine consumption, although this seems contingent on the context when the wine is consumed. We present Figure 1 that shows how consumers can move along a spectrum of conspicuous consumption, with those consumers with less knowledge on the conspicuous end, and higher level knowledge consumers on the non-conspicuous end. Those consumers with higher level knowledge tend to move along the spectrum as the functionality of the luxury wine consumption changes, but consumers with lower level knowledge mimic these maestros. As the mimic gains more knowledge they enter a metamorphose stage and the conspicuousness of the consumption changes. At a threshold of knowledge and involvement, the consumer enters the maestro identity and the conspicuous of the luxury wine consumption changes as need and situation dictate.

Figure 1
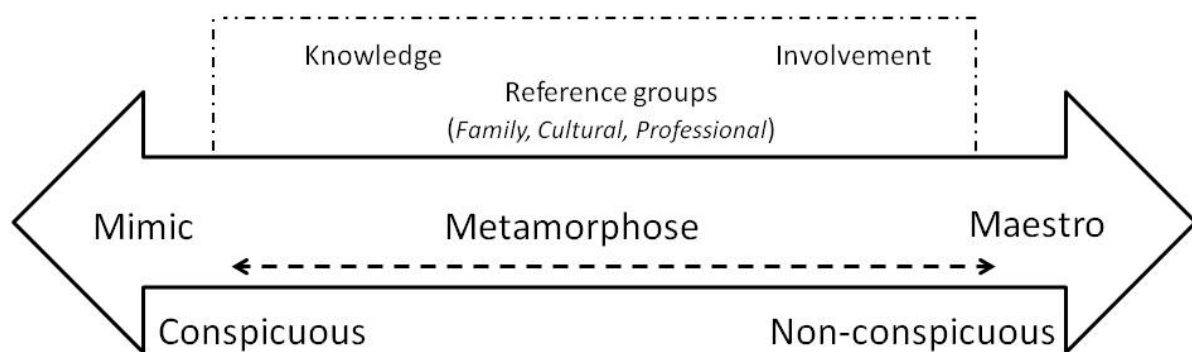
Conclusion

In this paper, we explored how the conspicuousness of luxury wine consumption is influenced by the motivations, knowledge and the consumer's propensity to conform and aspiration to belong to reference groups. The attitude toward reference groups are also dictated by the consumer's familial exposure to wine culture, cultural background and professional affiliation.

We found that conspicuous luxury wine consumption moves along a continuum whereby at one extreme, the lack of knowledge, lower involvement levels and strong aspirations to belong to a desired group propels the consumer to be conspicuous in their consumption of what they perceive to be luxury wine. We call these consumers the mimic as they try to emulate what the trendsetters drink and display this behaviour publicly. As the mimic gains familiarity

and confidence in their knowledge and involvement, they essentially morph into a state of self-assurance and move along the continuum. Much like a caterpillar that undergoes metamorphosis, we refer to this consumer as the metamorphose. When the metamorphose emerges to be fully confident and self-assured in their knowledge, involvement and status within a reference group, these consumers become a master of luxury wine consumption. We refer to them as the maestro – the one that the mimic holds as role model and aspire to become. It is at this stage that the continuum appears to break. The maestro can happily consume wine away from the public and would likely drink and enjoy luxury wine in private or in the company of other maestros who share the same level of knowledge and involvement.

While the study has the usual limitations in terms of its scope and scale, it offers a starting point for further investigation into luxury wine consumption. For example, looking into specific reference groups and comparative studies based on ethnic groupings will enhance our understanding on how luxury wine perceptions and motivations are influenced by cultural and regional nuances. For example, how do American luxury wine consumers differ from Chinese, French, Italian or Russian consumers?

These findings have a number of implications for theory and practice. Theoretically, the model offers an illustration of how conspicuous consumption can be understood without necessarily boxing the consumer into a specific category. For wine producers, the model is useful especially in segmenting the luxury market. The reference group nuances will be a good guide in developing promotional campaigns and other strategic marketing decisions.

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Track 16: Tourism and Marketing

Winescape Conceptualisation Using a 'Back-to-Basics' Free-form Approach to Tourism Destination Image (TDI) Perception of Wine Tourists

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Abstract

This study conceptualizes the perception of a tourism destination's image (TDI), in the process integrating servicescape, place-based and destination perception theories. The nature of the wine tourism product and experience require that a research approach be developed that differs from the generic approaches used in mainstream TDI studies. A 'back-to-basics' free-form approach was used to integrate tourism destination image (TDI) perception, services marketing, servicescape and place-based marketing theories. The winescape construct is identified within a framework of eight dimensions for a well-known Australian region. The most important winescape dimension is the natural beauty/geographical setting. The first-time and repeat visitor dynamic impacts upon visitors' perception of the region's winescape. For first-time and repeat visitors there are differences in their perception of some of the region's winescape dimensions. Increasing distance from the destination region is important in the perception of the winescape dimensions and thus the tourism destination image.

Keywords: Tourism destination image, TDI, winescape, wine tourists, wine region

Turning Residents into Destination Brand Ambassador: Using Dimensions of Place Attachment to Predict Destination Branding Building Behaviours

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Abstract

Residents of a tourism destination have great potential to help the place by participating in tourism development and destination branding voluntarily. Looking at the various roles of residents, such as stakeholders, consumers, and even ambassadors, this study investigates how residents' attachment to the place may affect their relevant behaviours that may assist in the tourism development and destination branding at multiple levels. This paper carries out an empirical field survey based quantitative study. From a structural equation modelling analysis on 358 valid questionnaires collected from the city of Sydney, the results show significant impact of dimensions of place attachment on destination brand-building behaviours. This analysis provides insights into residents' psychology and behaviour by illustrating the differences in these dimensions of place attachment on all four types of behaviours.

Keywords: place attachment; destination branding; brand-building behaviour; Sydney; structural equation modelling

Identifying Emerging Features of Macau Budget Hotels

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Abstract

Travellers' preference on hotels varies on personality, lifestyle, time, purchasing situations and scenarios, and travellers' emotional states. Previous research has identified a list of hotel features which obtain consumers' attention on evaluating hotels. However, the findings are limited in their implications due to their specification on contexts. Following a new trend in tourism and hospitality research using Emerging Pattern Mining (EPM) technique to study changes and trends in travellers' attention, this paper explores online data from consumers' reviews on Macau budget hotels on TripAdvisor and identifies emerging hotel features in positive reviews, negative reviews, and in general. It is found that the top hotel features identified in these reviews on Macau budget hotels are significantly different from previous studies, and there is a systematic difference in hotel features retrieved from positive and negative reviews. Managerial implications are further discussed.

Keywords: emerging pattern mining; hotel preference; Macau budget hotel; user generated content; online review

Tasting home in a liminal space: motivations behind choosing a destination wedding

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Abstract

Over the past two decades there has been a growing interest amongst scholars in examining destination weddings and the wedding tourism industry. One main research area revolves around the motivations for choosing a destination wedding. These motivations range from an affordable and cost effective alternative, to allowing couples to escape from unnecessary/ unwanted family and cultural obligations. Motivations may also include seeking out a more intimate, romantic and classy celebration. This paper challenges current assumptions of motivations for choosing this wedding alternative, by examining a destination wedding in Turkey, taken by an Iranian diasporic family. This paper illustrates how searching for certain aspects of an 'ideal home' may 'force' a group of people to choose a destination wedding, because they are not able to celebrate their wedding in their homeland.

Keywords: Destination wedding, home making, Iranian, Diaspora, migrants

Sun, Sand, Spa and Surgery: A study of medical tourism in Thailand Uraiporn

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Abstract

Despite the increasing demand and supply of medical tourism, unclear definitions still exist. It remains difficult to specifically identify tourists who travel overseas to participate in medical treatment. Specific definitions are needed to determine whether medical tourists are significantly different from the general tourists who travel overseas. This paper aims to identify tourists who travel overseas and participate in medical- and health-related activities. The paper compares these tourists with general, non-medical tourists. Data were collected from 1,200 tourists in Thailand who originated from France, Australia and Korea. The results show that medical tourists are homogenous in terms of activities engaged in during their trip even when compared to general tourists. They tend to do a lot more activities despite undergoing medical and health treatment. These findings are important to marketers who design desirable and attractive tourism products, activities, programs and packages that match the needs and wants of medical tourists.

Key words: segmentation, medical tourism, tourism activities, tourism marketing

Online Flow Experience in Making Online Hotel Reservation: The Roles of Web Attractiveness, Enjoyment, and Trust

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Abstract

Flow is an optimal state of experience that has been examined intensively in online environments. In such environments, it has been found in tourism context to be positively related to consumer exploratory behavior, positive attitude toward the websites, revisit and intention to make reservation. Although the study of flow has recently received significant attention, limited research is published about what factors controllable by hotels influence flow condition formation. Based on flow theory, this study examines the antecedents and consequences of consumer online flow experience in hotel service context. A self-administered online survey involving 354 individuals was used for data collection. Results show that online flow experience is affected by web attractiveness and enjoyment and influences initial trust to the hotel and intention to make reservation on the hotel website. Based on the study's findings, the article concludes with a presentation of managerial and research implications.

Keywords: online flow, trust, enjoyment, hotel reservation, web attractiveness

Introduction

The hospitality industry is one of the fastest growing and most competitive sectors using website to communicate their services to their target audiences (Ip et al. 2011). Over the last decade, the Internet has growth into being one of the most important channels for hotel room purchase (Thakran and Verma 2013). Previous studies have noted that the Internet technology has changed the way the hospitality industry players manage their business (Runfola et al 2013; Wang et al. 2015) as the Internet has enabled consumers to communicate directly with the hotels around the world (Amaro and Duarte 2015). More travelers use Internet for travel-related information search and arrangement (Liu and Zhang 2014). Lee et al. (2013) noted that 69% of travelers booked their accommodation online The total amount of online tourism product purchase in 2012 is increased by 27.8% comparing with the one in 2011 (iResearch 2012). Hotels which have traditionally been relying on their intermediaries to promote and sell their products start to dedicate more time and effort to website development and management (Law et al 2010; Liu and Zhang 2014) as it can function as powerful communication and distribution channels (Ponte et al. 2015). Despite the wide recognition of the strategic role of the Internet for hotel reservation, many customers indicate that they are unsatisfied with their online experience (Luo et al. 2012). The hotel portals are criticized as being fallen behind when it comes to creating a pleasant online environment for customers (Hassan 2013). The inability to create positive online experience is believed as one of the reasons why more customers prefer making reservation through (Morosan and Jeong 2008). This calls for more empirical findings to better understand the importance of website quality and consumers' state of flow when browsing the website have been lacking (Hsu et al. 2012).

The online experience customers obtain when accessing websites or is important for hotel reservation services (Bilgihan and Bujisic 2015). One of the most significant differences in online hotel reservation is that customers are introduced to the hotel services and most likely to develop their expectation about level of service quality they anticipate to receive from the hotel from the information provided on the website. Online reservation is made by customers usually based on the online appearance and website attractiveness; including room pictures, virtual tours, product and facility information, customer reviews (Bilgihan and Bujisic 2015; Hong et al. 2004) as those elements help customers to reduced their perceived risk of intangible products prior to purchase (Bilgihan and Bujisic 2015). The website elements are the visualization of the hotel promises to customers, consequently, how customers expect the quality of their stay at the hotels depends significantly on the online experience the customers have when they access the website (Hong et al 2004). In making online purchase; including for hotel services; consumers may seek utilitarian or hedonic benefits that may appear in hotel website atmospheric cues. Those cues may create a flow experience in customers' iner state (Bridges and Florsheim 2008) Therefore, in order to be able to compete with online travel agents (Morosan and Jeong 2008), hotels need to offer enjoyable online experience in their official website when customers are still at the information search stage so their trust is developed and intention to make reservation through the hotels' website is established (Bilgihan et al. 2015)

In recent years, although flow has been studied in various contexts, little attention has been given to its role in the tourism and hospitality domain (Ali 2016) therefore this study offers significant contribution for the hotel marketers in terms of how they should manage their website design. This present research seeks to tackle perceived weakness within marketing

theories by answering these following research questions; whether (1) web attractiveness affects consumer enjoyment and online flow experience, (2) consumer enjoyment affects online flow experience and trust, (3) online flow experience affects trust and intention to make reservation, and (4) trust affects intention to make reservation.

Literature Review

Flow theory was first introduced by Csikszentmihalyi (1975) to explain the cognitive state in which consumers are so intensively involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter. When in flow situation, consumers tend to be absorbed in their activity and lose their self-consciousness (Csikszentmihalyi and LeFevre 1989). One of the activities that enables them to be in such a state is web surfing (Hsu et al. 2012). In recent years, although flow has been studied in various contexts, little attention has been given to its role in the tourism and hospitality domain (Ali 2016) as most people use travel websites for information seeking, ticket purchasing, and hotel reservation (Kim and Li 2009).

The hotel website presents different environments as consumers have to interact with a technical interface in a virtual space instead of having physical interaction with hotel personnel. As for the hotels, websites provide a mechanism to repository all information needed by potential customers, assist them in making inquiries and reservation, and facilitate them to sense the online experience while browsing the website. Therefore, it is important for hotels to think about the attractiveness of their website. Prior studies suggest that when consumers perceive that the hotel website is attractive, they feel aroused, excited, and pleased by their online experience (Floh and Madlberger 2013) and as a result, they tend to be entirely involved in browsing the website. Meanwhile, they tend to feel angry, displeased, or anxious when their go through negative online experience and it leads consumers to stop their activity in the website. In line with these discussions, the following hypothesis

H1: Web attractiveness have positive impact on consumer enjoyment
H2: Web attractiveness have positive impact on flow experience

In making decision about online purchase, consumers tend to be motivated mostly be intrinsic interests (Huang and Cappel 2005; Ayeh, Au, and Law 2016) such as enjoyment. When consumers are prompted by enjoyment in online interface in hotel website, it is more likely that they are more willing to persist in relevant behaviors (Wu and Liu 2007; Bilgihan et al. 2014). Enjoyment can be defined as the degree to which performing an activity (such as browsing websites) is considered as providing feelings of joy and pleasure in its own right, apart from the consequences of performing that activity (Bilgihan et al. 2015). Consumers prefer using hotel websites over online travel agent websites for searching detailed information about particular hotels because browsing the official hotel websites offers better quality information, service, and privacy (Liu and Zhang 2014) that leads to greater pleasure or enjoyment (Bilgihan and Bujisic 2015) and trust (Ponte et al. 2015; Ogonowski et al. 2014). In line with these discussions, the following hypothesis:

H4: Consumer enjoyment have positive impact on flow experience
H5: Consumer enjoyment have positive impact on trust

Online purchase; including online hotel reservation; involve great uncertainty and risk for consumers. For that reason, hotel consumers need to develop trust to alleviate risks and support their reservation. Since consumers visit hotel websites not only to seek information but also to enjoy the pictures or videos, consumers engaged in the browsing activity in the website can be considered as being in a flow condition. Previous studies argue that when hotel websites are

able to generate a state of flow, consumer initial trust toward the hotel is most likely to develop as well as intention to make a reservation through the website (Ponte et al. 2015; Rose et al. 2012). In line with these discussions, the following hypothesis:

H6: Flow experience have positive impact on trust
H7: Flow experience have positive impact on intention to make reservation

Trust relates to consumers' feelings of vulnerability which are intensified by the remote nature of their relationships with their online counterparts (Rose et al. 2012). In hospitality context, consumers build their trust in the hotel website based on their online experience (Ponte et al. 2015) since the website functions as the proxy of the retailer's store (Bart et al. 2005). Prior studies have confirmed the causal relationship between trust and online purchase intention (Chiu et al. 2010; Ponte et al. 2015). Since online purchase involves risk, consumers tend to make a purchase at the online site that they think as trustworthy in order to reduce the risk. Therefore, the greater the consumer trust to the hotel websites, the greater the likeliness that they will make a reservation at the websites. In line with these discussions, the following hypothesis:

H8: Trust have positive impact on intention to make a reservation

Methodology

The data in self-report questionnaire were collected using a systematic intercept approach involving travelers having vacation in Bali. Bali was chosen for convenience reason. As Bali is considered as one of the most popular tourism destination in Asia Pacific, it is fairly easy to recruit real travelers who are familiar with online reservation as respondents. Every third person was intercepted and the respondents were approached by the surveyors over three weekends at different times of the day and at different locations to minimize bias selection. Respondents were asked for 10-15 minutes of their time to complete the questionnaire. Respondents who agreed to the survey were asked to imagine that they were planning a getaway and that they were deciding on the choice of a hotel in Bali then asked to spend a few minutes examined the web pages of the hotel. Following that, respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire consisting a number of scales including web attractiveness (14 items adapted from Gao and Bai, 2014), online flow experience (10 items adapted from Gao and Bai, 2014), enjoyment (4 items adapted from Reinecke et al. 2014), trust (5 items adapted from Sparks and Browning 2011), and intention to make reservation (5 items adapted from Wang et al. 2015). All items were measured with a 5-point Likert scale with 1 representing "strongly disagree" and 5 representing "strongly agree". A total of 354 usable surveys from 367 responses were obtained.

Results & Discussion

The respondents consist of 52.26% males and 47.74% females. Most respondents (48%) were in the range 20 to 29 years. 57.9% respondents has a Bachelor degree or its equivalent. 75.4% respondents had at least one experience making reservation through hotel websites in the last 12 months. Moreover, 61.86% respondents spend time for vacation at least twice a year.

Before the structural model was estimated, a 5-construct measurement model was developed using AMOS 20. To validate the measurement quality used for this study, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and reliability of the scales were tested. Following Hair et al. (1998), convergent validity was confirmed as the results for item reliability,

composite reliability, and average variance extracted exceeded the threshold of 0.6 (Chin et al 1997; Lopez et al. 2004) and the AVE scores for each construct exceeded the acceptable threshold of 0.5 (Hair et al. 1998). Following Chiu and Wang (2008), discriminant validity was confirmed as the square roots of the variance extracted were greater than the correlations among the constructs.

The following overall model fit indices are $\chi 2$=217.886 (420, N=354; p=.00), GFI= .937, CFI=.977, RMSEA=.065, and IFI=.96; confirming that the structural model is appropriate as all indices exceeded their cut-off criteria. Regarding a p-value, it is significant at the 0.001 level in all hypotheses.

It is accepted that web attractiveness positively influences consumer enjoyment (H1), online flow experience (H2), and trust (H3). As suggested by Floh and Madlberger (2013), when consumers perceive that the hotel website is attractive, they tend to enjoy their online experience, be entirely involved in browsing the website, and trust the hotel. Consumer enjoyment is found to have positive impact on online flow experience (H4) and consumer trust (H5). Consumers who enjoy their online experience while browsing the hotel website are most likely to lose their self-consciousness or be in a flow condition (Gao and Bai 2014). Enjoyment in online activity such as browsing the hotel website also leads consumers to trust the hotel (Ponte et al. 2015; Ogonowski et al. 2014). In addition, it is also confirmed that online flow experience positively affects trust (H6). Consumers who are engaged in an online information search activity browsing hotel websites with total concentration tend to develop trust toward the hotel (Ali 2016). Furthermore, trust positively influences intention to make hotel reservation (H8). When consumers have developed trust toward a hotel, it is most likely that they will make a reservation at the hotel (Ponte et al. 2015). Meanwhile, the suggested influence of online flow experience on intention to make reservation is also supported (H7). Some prior studies suggest that most consumers develop stronger intentions to make hotel reservation through hotel websites than third-party websites as hotel websites are considered as more user-friendly (Liu and Zhang 2014). From this point of view, initial trust will lead to intention to make the hotel reservation.

Conclusion

Results of the study verify the relationships among web attractiveness, enjoyment, online flow experience, trust, and intention to make reservation. Findings of this study indicate that online flow experience generated from web attractiveness and enjoyment tends to influence consumer trust and intention to make hotel reservation through the hotel website. This study contributes to the marketing literature to the extent that it expands flow theory in tourism and hospitality context as suggested by Ali (2016). As this study highlights empirical findings that validate that attractive hotel websites that generate flow experience, hotel managers need to develop to create attractive websites in order to generate enjoyment and flow which may result in initial trust and intention to make reservation. Hotel managers should also allocate more resources to develop websites into multifunctional platforms to satisfy consumer needs for information. It is important as hotel websites are found to be the most often cited source among all online channels for consumers searching and making room reservation (Hawk Partners 2012).

Although this paper provides insights with regards to how online flow experience affecting consumer trust and purchase intention in tourism and hospitality context, there are some limitations which have to be addressed in future research. First, this study include only one emotional components in the proposed model; which is enjoyment; while there are many

emotional components that may occur and affect trust and intention. Future studies may include some other emotional aspects such as excitement or anxiety in order to generate deeper understanding about the impact of online flow experience. Another limitation is that this study did not investigate whether the proposed model also applies in online travel agency (OTA) websites. There might be a significant difference between hotel websites and OTA websites which mostly have less pictures or interactive features in terms of how consumers enjoy and deeply involve in their online experience. Therefore, future research could be directed to investigate the difference between hotel and OTA websites in terms of consumers' trust and intention.

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Engaging tourists with museums in the destination Lisbon

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to analyze the relationships among the concepts of serious leisure and museum prestige on engagement with museums, pleasant emotions, memory, and word-of-mouth among Lisbon tourists. Findings reveal that reflective motivations are one important driver of engagement. Be engaged with museums lead to create positive emotions and memories, which, in turn, contribute to the willingness to communicate and recommend the Lisbon museums to others.

Keywords: engagement, serious leisure, prestige, museum, tourists

Introduction

The contribution of museums' cultural property to the gross domestic product has become very important to several societies and marketing strategies and is of huge importance to several countries in order to attract potential customers to museums. Therefore, many museums worldwide have started to create different tangible benefits as well as different communication strategies to create new bonds (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011) in order to achieve a product differentiation that leads to sustainable customer loyalty and satisfaction. In this vein, the concept of consumer engagement has brought huge attention and must be understood as a state of involvement and commitment to a specific market offer (Abdul-Ghani, Hyde, & Marshall, 2011).

Several studies have highlighted that higher levels of engagement brought superior rewards for cultural consumers (e.g., Edmonds et al., 2006). So, in order to achieve a more enjoyable, enriching and informative experience, visitors can enhance their knowledge of the museum by gathering information from various sources like family and friends, visitor information, mass media and websites (Falk & Dierking, 1992; Falk & Storksdieck, 2005; Sheng & Chen, 2012). Following this line of thoughts, the aim of the current study is to analyze the relationships among the concepts of serious leisure and museum prestige on engagement with museums, pleasant emotions, memory, and word-of-mouth among Lisbon tourists. All constructs will be defined below.

Motivation to engagement

Cultural motivations are widely employed to engage tourists with historical sites, museums or art galleries (e.g., Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; McKercher, 2002). The current study analyzes the effect of serious leisure in its two intrinsic components: reflective and recreational motivations. Extrinsic motivation is also analyzed through museum prestige. Serious leisure has been studied to mean "the systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer activity that is sufficiently substantial and interesting for a participant to find a career there in the acquisition and expression of its special skills and knowledge" (Stebbins, 1992, p. 3). This concept has been used to examine a variety of leisure activities. However, it has rarely been considered in tourism context (Black, 2005; Prentice, 2001; Brodie et al., 2011; Falk & Dierking, 1992; Falk & Storksdieck, 2005; Sheng & Chen, 2012). Gould et al. (2008) develop the Serious Leisure Inventory and Measure (SLIM) as an assessment tool employing 18 sub-dimensions and 54 operational points (Barbieri & Sotomayor, 2013). The multiple motivation benefits of serious leisure can help to predict engagement (Barbieri & Sotomayor, 2013; Taheri et al., 2014). Thus, we propose (see figure 1):

H1: Serious leisure is positively related to tourists' engagement with museums.
H1a: Reflective motivation is positively related to tourists' engagement with museums
H1b: Recreational motivation is positively related to tourists' engagement with museums

Prestige is an extrinsic motivation associated with a specific attribute of a brand or good/service, or even the overall quality and performance of the product (e.g., Erdem et al., 2006). Prestige can also be regarded as a signal of social status, wealth, or power and strongly linked to an individual's self-concept and social image (Alden et al., 1999).

According to Hagtvedt and Patrick (2008), art has a favorable influence on brand image and product evaluation through the luxury perception of product design, or packaging, or advertising. The effect of art in enhancing perceived prestige has been investigated on both inexpensive and low involvement products (Hagtvedt & Patrick, 2008) and luxury high

involvement products (Xie et al., 2015). Indeed, art is associated with prestige and can fulfill consumers' emotional and self-reward needs for perceived hedonic value (Xie et al., 2015). Museums are spaces where art is displayed and preserved. Museums may be regarded with admiration, respect, and prestige. Prestigious museums, well-known in the country where they belong and abroad are more willing to exert positive emotions, pleasure, and excitement in tourists and visitors. Thus:

H2: Museum prestige is positively related to tourists' engagement with museums.

Outcomes of engagement

Engagement indicates a significant potential relationship between motivations and visitors' level of commitment and interaction with museum offerings. Engaged tourists will be more willing to say positive things about a museum and recommend it to others (Yu & Littrell, 2003; Hollebeek, 2010). Yet, emotions could result from an engaged experience.

Emotions are mental states that emerge from the experience lived in events or from a consumer's own thoughts (e.g., Bagozzi et al., 1999; Jang & Namkung, 2009). When tourists visit museums, the experience and the mechanisms employed by the museums' managers to attract visitors could generate higher levels of engagement and this, in turn, leads to positive emotions (like pleasant arousal which comprises pleasure and arousal) and favorable memories. Memories, meaning remembering a particular event (Gilmore and Pine, 2002) is likely to act as a way to communicate and recommend the museum experience to others (Dolcos & Cabeza, 2002). Therefore, pleasant arousal and memories are expected to mediate between and engagement and word-of-mouth., where pleasant arousal generate positive memories (Loureiro, 2014). Therefore:

H3: Tourists' engagement with museums is positively related to pleasant arousal.
H4: Tourists' engagement with museums is positively related to memory.
H5: Pleasant arousal is related to memory.
H6: Pleasant arousal is positively related to word-of-mouth communication.
H7: memory is positively related to word-of-mouth communication
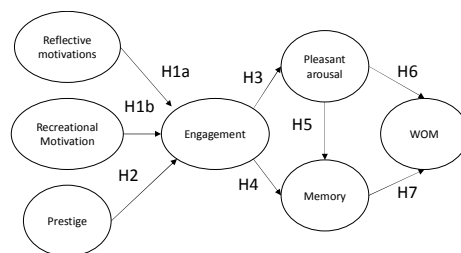
Figure 1. Proposed model

Methodology

Data collection

A structured questionnaire were developed including multiple-item scales constructs of serious leisure (adapted from Gould et al., 2008; Taheri et al., 2014); prestige (adapted from Xie et al., 2015); pleasant arousal and memory (adapted from Loureiro, 2014); word-of-mouth (adapted from Loureiro and Kastenholz, 2011) and engagement (Taheri et al., 2014), as well as socio-demographic variables. Due to the potential violation of face validity, the authors followed the panel rating approach for each questionnaire item as either 'very representative', 'moderately representative', or 'not at all representative' of the respective constructs. The results showed the majority of items were rated as 'very representative' (87%) and the rest being rated as 'moderately representative'. Therefore, all items were retained in the questionnaire.

Participants were asked to indicate their levels of agreement with each item on a seven-point Likert scale (1-completely disagree, 5-completely agree). Through convenience sampling, data was collected in several museums in Lisbon: Museum of coaches, Electricity Museum, Costume Museum, Navy Museum, Museum of Ancient Art, Gulbenkian Museum and Orient Museum. The authors chose these venues for two reasons: (i) all are popular visitor attractions in Lisbon (and even considered emblematic in Portugal); (ii) all have been considerable improvements, some have new facilities in recent times.

Questionnaires were distributed over 3 months where museum visitors (in local) were approached. A total of 500 people were surveyed, but 37 questionnaires were excluded from the sample because of incomplete responses. Thus, a sample of 461 respondents remained for the final analysis, which constitutes a 92% usable response rate. The original questionnaire was written in English (because most items were originally in English), then translated to Portuguese, Spanish and French and translated back to English (with the help of native linguists). Back translation was used to ensure that the items in Portuguese and English communicated the same information.

Sample profile

Table 1 presents the profiles of the respondents. In Table 1, Portuguese means visitors from Lisbon and other places from Portugal. Foreigners mean visitors from different countries, mainly from Spain, French, Germany, and UK. Most participants are retired and visiting museums with friends or with an organized tour.

Table 1. Sample profile

Gender: Female: 49.4%	Nationality: Portuguese: 67%	
Male: 50.6%	Foreigners: 33%	
Age: 16-18 years: 17.5%	36-45years: 8.9%	
18-25 years: 30.5%	46-55 years: 7.6%	
26- 35years: 19.3%	55- 65 years: 11.0%	
	Over 65 years: 5.0%	

Results
Measurement results

A PLS model should be analyzed and interpreted in two stages. First, the measurement model or the adequacy of the measures is assessed by evaluating the reliability of the individual measures, the convergent validity and the discriminant validity of the constructs. Then, the structural model is evaluated. In order to evaluate the adequacy of the measures at the first-order construct level, item reliability is assessed by examining the loadings of the measures on their corresponding construct. Item loadings of scales measuring reflective constructs should be 0.7 or more, which indicates that over 50% of the variance in the observed variable is explained by the construct (Hair et al., 2014). In this study, the item loading of each item exceeds the value of 0.7 (see Table 2). All Cronbach's alpha values are above 0.7, and all composite reliability values in Table 2 are above 0.8. Therefore, all constructs are reliable. The measures demonstrate convergent validity as the average variance of manifest variables extracted by constructs (average variance extracted [AVE]) is above 0.5.

Regarding Engagement, we have the parameter estimates of indicator weights, the significance of weight (t-value) and multicollinearity of indicators. Weight measures the contribution of each formative indicator to the variance of the latent variable (Taheri et al., 2014). A significance level of at least 0.05 suggests that an indicator is relevant to the construction of the formative index (Engagement), and thus demonstrates a sufficient level of validity. They are formative because each dimension of Engagement is distinct in nature but together represent the general concept of Engagement, The degree of multicollinearity among the formative indicators should be assessed by variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF indicates how much an indicator's variance is explained by the other indicators of the same construct. The commonly acceptable threshold for VIF is below 3.33 (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). Table 2 shows VIF values are < 3.33, and so the results did not seem to pose a multicollinearity problem. Considering discriminant validity, the square root of AVE should be greater than the correlation between the construct and other constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2014). Data shows that this criterion has been met.

Table 2. Measurement results.

Latent variables and items	LV Mean	Item loading range (Reflective measure)	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability	AVE
Prestige-Extrinsic motivation	3.7	(0.762-0.870)	0.847	0.895	0.681
Serious Leisure- Reflective motivation	2.8	(0.760-0.801)	0.748	0.840	0.568
Serious Leisure- Recreational motivation	3.4	(0.760-0.801)	0.830	0.886	0.661
Pleasant arousal	3.7	(0.800-0.876)	0.852	0.910	0.772
Memory	3.5	(0.800-0.876)	0.858	0.904	0.701
Word-of-mouth	3.7	(0.902-0.913)	0.891	0.932	0.820
Formative Construct: Engagement	Mean	Weight	t-value	VIF	
Using (interactive) panels	2.4	0.217***	9.714	1,727	
Using guided tour	2.8	0.137**	3.815	1,161	
Using videos and audios	2.6	0.216***	10.101	1,740	
Using social interaction space	2.8	0.220***	9.531	1,573	
Using my own guide book and literature	2.6	0.196***	7.443	1,334	
Seeking help from staff	2.7	0.176***	6.660	1,384	
Playing with materials such as toys, jigsaw puzzle, and quizzes	2.2	0.181***	6.093	1,521	
Using the on-site online facilities	2.5	0.204***	8.332	1.470	

Note: **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001

Structural results

In this study, a non-parametric approach, known as Bootstrap (500 re-sampling), was used to estimate the precision of the PLS estimates and support the hypotheses (Hair et al., 2014). All path coefficients are found to be significant at the 0.001 and 0.01 levels, except hypothesis H2 (see Table 3). H1 is partially supported.

Table 3. Structural results.

Path	Standardized coefficient direct Effect	t-value	Standardized coefficient total effect	t-value	Test results
Reflective -> Engagement	0.427	3.526	0.427	3.526	H1a; supported
Recreational -> Engagement	0.042	0.303	0.042	0.305	H1b: not supported
Prestige -> Engagement	-0.036	0.291	-0.036	0.301	H2: not supported
Engagement -> Pleasant arousal	0.210	1.903	0.210	2.039	H3: supported
Engagement -> Memory	0.217	2.681	0.315	3.441	H4: supported
Pleasant arousal -> Memory	0.467	4.850	0.467	4.977	H5: supported
Pleasant arousal -> wom	0.159	2.135	0.482	5.222	H6: supported
Memory -> wom	0.692	9.916	0.692	9.580	H7:supported
R^2 Engagement = 0.198	Q^2 Engagement = 0.41		R^2 Memory = 0.308		Q^2 Memory= 0.24
R^2 Pleasant arousal = 0.044	Q^2 Pleasant arousal = 0.13		R^2 Word-of-mouth = 0.617		Q^2 Word-of-mouth = 0.51

GoF = 0.72

As models yielding significant bootstrap statistics can still be invalid in a predictive sense, measures of predictive validity (such as R2 and Q2) for focal endogenous constructs should be employed. All values of Q2 (chi-squared of the Stone–Geisser criterion) are positive, so the relations in the model have predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2014). The model also demonstrated a good value of GoF.

Conclusions and implications

The authors found that Serious Leisure has a strong positive influence on Engagement when considering the dimension of reflective motivations. Museum prestige does not act as a motivational driver to engagement among visitors of Lisbon museums.The findings for a significantly positive link between the reflective motivations and not for recreational motivations is aligned with several previous researches (e.g., Black, 2005; Prentice, 2001; Brodie et al., 2011; Sheng & Chen, 2012) but not with the study of Taheri et al. (2014). Those who visit the Lisbon museum seem to be more motivated by the "self and identity project' rather than recreational motivation, that is, individuals are searching for self-expression, self-actualization, self-image and interact with others who are interested in the same things and not necessarily for fun and a refreshing experience. Yet, the study made by Taheri et al. (2014) pointed out the opposite, revealing that the main interest of museum visitors is the fun and recreation. Thus, the reason behind could be the context of the museums, its nature and even the destination where they are located. Depending on the destination and the nature of the museum, they can captivate different types of visitors.

Comparing the extrinsic motivation (perception of museum prestige) with intrinsic motivation, the latter shows to be more significant on engagement than the former. This seems that visitors are looking for the content and context of the Lisbon museums and are informed about it and properly select what they really wish to visit.

Emotions and memory emerge as mediators between engagement and word-of-mouth, Like in the study of Loureiro (2014), where emotions and memory creation are outcomes of rural experiences, here both act as a result of engagement with museums. Although other studies are needed to consolidate the findings, the current study stresses the role of emotions on creating memories and enhancing the willingness to recommend the museum to others.

Managerial implications

Characteristics of serious leisure enhanced engagement, commitment, and loyalty, suggesting that museums facilities should be prepared with equipment and devices that allow visitors do activities interacting with others, get more knowledge about the expositions and display such information and expertise. This interaction amongst consumers could yield benefits to museum managers. Levels of engagement with a place may contribute to visitors' cognitive enjoyment, create favorable memories and word-of-mouth. Consequently, museum managers can enhance engagement to foster increasing levels of visitor loyalty.

Limitations and future research

Although a review of the literature highlighted potential cues that tourists use in evaluating the engagement with, and consequently their loyalty towards the place, only Serious Leisure emerged with significant results for tourists visiting Lisbon museums. This represents a limitation of this study but also opens avenues for future research. Secondly, the use of PLS has some limitations. Further study may require a combination of several methodological approaches, for instance: in-depth interviews with visitors and managers. Finally, it would be interesting to do a comparison study between two or more different East Asian and Occidental countries by applying the conceptual framework developed in this study: cross-cultural studies. Those studies may have implications for managing attractions across cultures and extend the generalizability of the model.

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Revisiting D-Day and Holt's Model. Engineering the Visitation Experience.

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Abstract

This paper examines experience engineering at various points of interest adjacent to the beaches of the D-Day Landing Area in Normandy, France. Using Holt's 1995 typology of symbolic consumption as an interpretive frame a number of significant places, towns, museums, cemeteries, gun batteries, beaches and plinths were examined. Interactions with the public at these sites including the introspection of five academics formed the data. Visitation experiences were considered in relation to the range of consumption metaphors afforded by Holt's model. The results are consistent with Holt's explanation of symbolic consumption. These rich and nuanced examples of experiential consumption are typified by the four consumption metaphors of Holt's model; namely, Experience, Integration, Play and Classification. The findings allude to the multiple ways in which consumers experience thanatourism. The findings also highlight the various techniques used by custodians of the D-Day area as they engineer experiences for visitor consumption.

Key words: D-Day, Experiential, Normandy, Remembrance, Thanatourism.

Introduction

There's a graveyard in northern France where all the dead boys from D-Day are buried. The white crosses reach from one horizon to the other. I remember looking it over and thinking it was a forest of graves. But the rows were like this, dizzying, diagonal, perfectly straight, so after all it wasn't a forest but an orchard of graves. Nothing to do with nature, unless you count human nature
(Kingsolver, 1992).

One of the most poignant of contemporary consumer experiences is that of heritage tourism. Mirroring the past exertions of religious pilgrims travelling to places of great significance we see similar contemporary opportunities for self-definition and transcendent meaning (Celsi, Leigh and Rose, 1993). A related form of tourism has its title is derived from the Greek word Thanatos, meaning the personification of death – Thanatourism. Similarly, it has been referred to in the literature as Grief tourism and Dark tourism.

One such place personifying thanatourism is the American Cemetery at Colleville-sur-Mer, otherwise known in military parlance as Omaha Beach. The cemetery is situated on the high ground directly above where the American soldiers came ashore. When five qualitative researchers visited the site in 2011 it was a warm and sunny day in July. The portion of the annual one million visitors to the cemetery (American Battle Monuments Commission, N.D.) were dutifully navigating the manicured gardens and orchard of graves with appropriate gravitas. Such tranquillity belies the carnage wreaked by both sides here on the 6th June, 1944. The exact figure is contested however historians agree that roughly 2,500 US soldiers lost their lives establishing a foothold on the nearby beach. Nowadays children run and play of the beach while adults stand quietly and stare out to sea. It is a place replete with memories, and with key points of interest experience-engineered by managers with an eye for marketing (Willson and McIntosh, 2007; Willson, 2012; MacCarthy and Fanning, 2015; MacCarthy and Willson, 2015). The place and the day is now punctuated in the history books as, Omaha Beach, D-Day.

There are 25 permanent cemeteries and 27 significant memorials managed by the American Battle Monuments Commission (ABMC) worldwide. The American Cemetery in Normandy is the most popular of them all, receiving over 1 million visitors per year. The cemetery comprises 172 acres of land ceded to the US in perpetuity by the French who jointly participate in management and maintenance decisions. More recently, the ABMC invested $30M USD building a Visitors Centre to better manage the large numbers of modern-day pilgrims (American Battle Monuments Commission, N.D.). The Visitors Centre is arguably a suitable metaphor for the experience engineering of the wider Normandy Landing Area. This area comprises 26 museums, six gun batteries, five beaches and a multitude of significant sites (Quellien, 2011). Supporting this mass visitation to Normandy are the guides, cafes, souvenir shops, accommodation and a substantial transportation network. At these sites, to a varying degree, consumers are shepherded in a pre-determined coordination of architecture and staff intervention. Ultimately this is designed to impart a meaningful experience to (hopefully) all people. After all, the majority of experience-engineers in the Normandy area owe their profit margins and livelihood to consumer perceptions of what they have to offer.

Given the importance of consumer perceptions of what otherwise would be a collection of meaningful places and crumbling ruins it is unsurprising the temptation by custodians to animate, anthropomorphise and 'value-add' to the experience. This includes examples such as museums and cemeteries built near significant sites. The erection of flags, signage, monuments

and plinths. The fencing of significant locations along with the maintenance and repair of structures. The focus on key people associated with the site. The inclusion of visitor amenities, audio-visual animation and the inevitable souvenir shops. All this effort costs time and money, and where money is concerned a return-on-investment is expected. If consumer perceptions and experiences are tied to such cost and effort, it behoves all managers to consider the gamut of what and how consumer consume these symbols.

One such collection of ideas related to symbolic consumption can be viewed in Douglas Holt's seminal work published in the Journal of Consumer Research; A Typology of Consumption Practices (1995). After two years of sitting in the bleachers (cheap seats) of Wrigley Field stadium watching fans consuming games of baseball Holt derived an organised grid of concepts related to symbolic consumption. The consumption metaphors as he called them, were organized into a two-by-two matrix according to whether actions are an end in themselves (autotelic) or instrumental in achieving something else, in other words, a means to an end. On the Y axis the dichotomy is according to whether the consuming action is between a person and a consumption object or whether the activity is a mediating facilitator between two or more people. The four metaphors organised into this matrix are Experience, Integration, Play and Classification.

Purpose

	Terminal	Means to an end
Actions	Experience	Integration
Interactions	Play	Classification

Structure (label on left side)

Fig 1. Holt's Typology of Consumption. Adapted from Holt, 1995.

By considering the array of consumer behaviour in the Normandy Landing Area through the interpretive lens of Holt's model we can greater appreciate the rich and nuanced mindset of visitors to the area. Allied to this is the benefit to custodians of better understanding what comprises positive consumer experiences and why. By using Holt's model to interpret observations of consumer activity custodians are arguably in a better position to facilitate positive experiences and ultimately achieve organisational goals.

Method.

Given the nature of consumer experiences in the Normandy Landing Area is emotion laden qualitative techniques founded in an interpretivistic paradigm were used. Similarly, the interprestivistic frame of reference, namely Holt's model is also qualitative by nature. Data collection followed methods typified by Lincoln and Guba (1985) involving five academics traversing the coastal section of the Caen region in Normandy, France. The panel of researchers interacted and participated with other visitors, gleaning information about perspectives in action – what actually occurred, and perspectives of action – what the respondents said about what occurred (Gould, Walker, Lansing, and Lidz, 1974; Hill, 1990). At each site the academics mimicked the pilgrimage of predominantly elderly tourists while also informally discussing when the situation and language permitted. Two of the researchers recorded when appropriate using still cameras, providing the memory cues and critical examples for later publication.

The combined techniques of participant observation, informal interviews, photo elicitation, and introspection and were used to derive a complementary data set. The data collected included the combined photographs and interview notes/discussions of the three-day data collection phase. In a two-part iterative process this was used in later autodriving discussions. More specifically informal interviews were conducted at six museums, three gun batteries, two landing beaches, the Pegasus Bridge/site at Ranville, the Gondrée Cafe à Bénouville (first French dwelling to be liberated), and a number of cemeteries – including small towns, Caen, Bayeaux and the American Cemetery at Colleville-sur-Mer. In addition, three student groups were subsequently exposed to these photographs during qualitative research training and their interpretive ideas have also been considered for these conclusions.

Given the first author is a former commissioned Australian Army officer discussions between the author and visitors with prior military experience could be considered a form of concurrent and 'interactive' introspection. With only one of the five data collectors having prior military experience this also mirrors the spirit of triangulation (by commitment) as outlined in Celsi, Leigh and Rose's (1993) expose on high-risk leisure pursuits. Presumably the differing degree of military experience among the data collectors reduces the potential for bias, although it must be said that this aspect was more serendipitous than organised.

The data-collection phase involved Australian investigators travelling from East to West with the geographic boundaries being Merville to Grandcamp and as deep as the town of Bayeux. This area covers 80% of the sites, towns, and landing beaches known by their Allied landing code-words of 'Sword', 'Juno', 'Gold' and 'Omaha'. The time constraint of three days resulted in the area to the West of Gandcamp including the landing beach of 'Utah' and the towns of Saint-Côme-du-Mont, La Madeleine, Saint-Mère-Église and Quinéville being omitted.

The a priori hypothesis for this investigation was that Holt's Model would be applicable in all its facets. Also that Holt's Model would in some way related to a spiritual tourism paradigm (Durkheim, 1912; Willson, 2012). Both a priori hypotheses were confirmed by the findings.

Findings.

Consuming Normandy as Experience.

One poignant example of experience engineering is the American Cemetery at Colleville sur Mer. The cemetery is discretely fenced from the car park and surrounds by walls and hedges. On entering, visitors are ushered to a mandatory security check similar to that experienced at an international airport. From there visitors to the cemetery are shepherded through a museum experience. This includes a small theatrette showing three short vignettes on an endless loop: 'On Their Shoulders', 'Letters', and 'OK, Let's Go'. Beyond the theatrette is an area containing photographs, artefacts, interactive displays and narrative texts. There is much symbolism in the content. A reflective, endless pool is just outside with flags of the Allies and deliberate views across the water to the horizon where the ships approached. By the time visitors exit the Centre and into the cemetery they have arguably been suitably primed, and now ready to experience the graveyard in context.

Another more obvious example of the hedonistic nature of experience is one of the bunkers at the family-owned Merville Battery museum. The bunker is fitted with the sound effects of a simulated aircraft strike. The whine of diving aircraft and machine guns rattling play while visitors stand reading interpretive signage of a visit to the site by General Erwin Rommel allied aircraft strafed his party on the 6th March, 1944 (Batterie de Merville, N.D.). Visitors enjoy the sensual experience of both sound and vision recreating the reputed courage of Rommel as he allegedly stood defiant during the attack while the rest of his party scurried for cover. At every place of significance consumer emotions were being manipulated in order to elicit a specific experience. Meanwhile visitors were expending time, effort and money to experience it.

Consuming Normandy as Integration.

Holt defines consuming as Integration as consumers seeking a more authentic or richer experience, more value for money and includes the opportunity for self-definition. Three examples of this are mentioned in his 1995 treatise; integrating by assimilating, integrating by producing and integrating by personalising. All three examples were on display in Normandy.

At various locations visitors sporting medals, badges, jacket patches or simply more formal attire than would be considered the norm was in evidence. At Omaha Beach two bikers, both about 50 years old and obviously too young to have been involved with the 1944 landing were standing near their bikes on the sea wall. They wore biker vests personalised with a number of military patches. This implied their affinity with the US military. The two men stood for a moment at attention with their right hand on their chests while looking out to sea. The right hand with open palm on the chest is the international convention for a military salute when out of uniform. Other tourists stood nearby and watched the spectacle. In doing this the two visitors appeared to be assimilating or drawing the experience metaphorically closer. They were producing or engineering their own experience while at the same time personalising their attire for the moment. This, Holt argues is in order to achieve a richer experience, or to facilitate self-definition.

Consuming Normandy as Play.

Consuming as Play refers to using the consumption situation to facilitate interactions between people. Just as Holt witnessed attendance at a baseball match was a perfect excuse to socialise so too is the Normandy D-Day area and its points of interest a perfect opportunity for friends and strangers to interact. As seen in Figure 2. visitors use the interpretive map of the

Landing Area to facilitate social interaction. The two visiting bikers mentioned above were communing (a more specialised form of Play) while standing next to each other and performing an expression of ritualised homage. Everywhere people were socialising in groups, facilitated by sharing the same experience. From obvious examples such as sharing a meal at a D-Day-themed cafe to standing together during the daily flag lowering ceremony at the American Cemetery. From chatting to strangers while exploring a gun emplacement to participating in the various remembrance ceremonies conducted on a regular basis.

Fig 2. Socialising while discussing an interpretive map of the Landing Area.

Consuming Normandy as Classification.

In the town of Arromanches the British Union Jack is on display and more visible than any other national flag (including French). So too are British accents heard more so than any other non-French visitor. Arromanches was the town dubbed 'Port Winston', after the then UK Prime Minister, Winston Churchill. Here the British 30th Corp established the beachhead known as Sword Beach. To do this a mobile port facility was constructed whereby permitting the Allies to avoid using the more heavily guarded established ports. Hardly surprising then that British visitors might find this area of the Normandy beaches more significant than any other. By the same token Omaha Beach further west appeared to attract more American visitors. This is an example of Classification as defined by Holt. Here, consumption delineation is evidenced by visitors choosing to visit one area more than another.

Discussion.

It would appear that Holt's Model (1995) is a reasonable paradigm for examining the visitation behaviour of the Normandy D-Day sites. This being the case one can use the model to not only consider the variety of motives as to why pilgrims and visitors visit this area but also understand how they are consuming the area. This has micro-marketing significance for the custodians of the Normandy D-Day experience; be they profit oriented such as family owned museums or not-for-profit such as the ABMC stewardship of the American Cemetery. By using knowledge of Holt's Model custodians can more effectively engineer a sacred and memorable experience

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Evaluating tourism event contribution to the hosting destination brand: an associative network-based approach

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Abstract

Events have become a core element of the tourism destination system, attracting visitors during the off-peak season and developing a unique selling proposition to stand apart from competitors. Events are also recognised as potential image-enhancers for destinations seeking to reposition their brand in the market. However, the evaluation of this image-change effect remains problematic due to the lack of tools and measures of intangible effects generated by tourism events. This study proposes a mix-method approach to evaluate the non-economic impact of tourism events based on event attendees' knowledge structures. By applying associative network analysis and comparison to the context of tourism destinations, this method captures the most important attributes of both event and hosting destination images and contributes to the strategic management of the event portfolio. An empirical application of the proposed method is also provided and discussed.

Keywords: Events, Destination branding, Image congruency, Associative networks

Where to Visit, What to Drink? A Cross-National Perspective on Wine Estate Brand Personalities

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Abstract
This paper explores brand personality dimensions of the most recommended wine estates to visit in some of the world's major wine producing countries and regions. It uses the text analysis software Diction to identify the extent to which each estate's website communicates brand personality dimensions: excitement, competence, ruggedness, sincerity and sophistication; and then agglomerates the scores of individual estates within a region to overall scores for the country or wine region in which they are located. Major findings are that southern hemisphere producers, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa communicate all five brand personality dimensions to a greater extent than the northern hemisphere regions of Bordeaux and Napa. While brand personality communication levels differ, all seem to emphasize similar brand personalities as their international counterparts. Excitement is the main dimension communicated, and then sincerity. Ruggedness and competence are communicated to a lesser extent and sophistication is hardly communicated at all.

Keywords: Wine tourism, brand personality, wine estates

Where to Visit, What to Drink

Among the myriad interesting characteristics of vitis vinifera, the vine species that yields over 99 percent of the world's wines today, is that it generally doesn't thrive in ugly geography. In the soft splendor of Marlborough; the ruggedness of Barossa; the refined elegance of Napa; the majesty of South Africa's Stellenbosch mountains; the grandeur that is Bordeaux: vitis vinifera flourishes in these beautiful landscapes. It is therefore not surprising that a visit to these places and the wine estates in them is high on the wish lists of tourists to New Zealand, Australia, California, South Africa and France. Such decisions! Where should they visit? What should they drink? Some, perhaps wine neophytes, come merely to enjoy the scenery and appreciate the countryside, and this experience is enhanced by the opportunity to sample a glass of the local produce. Wine enthusiasts delight in being able to tick another estate off a mental bucket list, learn a bit more, and perhaps take a six-pack home with them. Connoisseurs look forward not only to seeing where the product they love comes from, and to tastings perhaps from the barrel, but also to the opportunity to engage with a well-known wine maker and to discuss and share opinions and observations.

Wine tourism is big business: not only for many of the wine estates themselves, but also for regional and national economies, creating as it does the potential for economic growth and job creation above and beyond the production and sale of wine. An important question, scantly addressed in the wine tourism literature, is just how differently the wine estates in the regions referred to above portray themselves, aside from the obvious geographic differences? What are the brand personalities, not only of the individual estates within these regions, but of the regions themselves? Are they very different, or do they in fact say similar things about themselves? These are the issues we explore in this paper.

Brand Personality

The term "personality" has two meanings in the psychology literature (Hogan, 1991). The intrinsic perspective holds that an individual's internal processes and propensities explain why they act in a particular way, so that personality must be inferred. Simply, in this sense personality is, 'what I say about myself'. The extrinsic perspective focuses on how a person is viewed by others, and so it is public and verifiable, and has to do with the esteem, respect, and status accorded by others. Simply, in this sense personality is, 'what others say and think about me.'

Perhaps not surprisingly, marketing practitioners and scholars have long seen the similarities between the personality of a person, and that of a brand. A brand's personality can also be viewed from two perspectives: first, "what the brand says about itself", and second, "what consumers say and think about the brand." Just as psychologists have created various tools to gauge or gain some indication of human personality, marketing scholars have also developed scales to measure brand personality, the best known of which is Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale (BPS). Aaker identified 42 personality trait norms that she suggested should serve as an aid for comparing brand personalities across different categories. She takes the second, or extrinsic, perspective on brand personality identified above, namely, that brand personality is, 'what others say and think about me (the brand).' The BPS consists of five dimensions or traits, namely:

Sincerity (down-to-earth, honest, genuine, cheerful)
Excitement (daring, spirited, imaginative, up-to-date)
Competence (reliable, intelligent, successful)

Sophistication (upper-class, charming)
Ruggedness (tough, outdoorsy)

Typical applications of the BPS include comparisons of brand personalities within an offering category utilizing questionnaires in which respondents indicate the extent to which the brands being compared possess the dimensions above. This gives an indication of how the brands are similar or different, depending on their personalities. The scale has been used to study brands across a wide range of offering categories, including travel destinations (Blain, Levy & Ritchie, 2005), business schools (Caruana et al., 2009), and sponsorships (Madrigal, 2000).

The BPS dimensions have also been adapted to explore brand personality through research techniques other than surveys. Using the definitions of the dimensions as starting points, Pitt et al. (2007) constructed dictionaries representative of the dimensions, by identifying as many synonyms and terms for the dimensions as possible through extensive lexicographic research. These dictionaries can then be used as reference bases for computerized content analysis software to study large bodies of text. In their original work, these authors used the dictionaries to explore the brand personalities of ten African nations through the text on their tourism websites. By means of correspondence analysis of data produced by WordStat content analysis software, they found that as tourism destinations, South Africa, for example, was characterized by "competence", Morocco by "sophistication", Botswana by "sincerity", and Kenya by "ruggedness". The dictionaries were made freely available to all researchers after publication of the paper, and have been used in subsequent research to a greater or lesser extent in a number of publications (e.g., Opoku, Pitt & Abratt, 2007; Opoku et al., 2007; Prayag, 2007; Papania, et al., 2008; Haarhoff & Kleyn, 2012; Ting, Kuo & Li, 2012; De Moya & Jain, 2013). It will be obvious that this type of research, rather than attempting to establish what customers think of a brand's personality, strives to gain intrinsic insight into what a brand thinks, or especially, says, of itself.

In what follows, we describe a study of wine estate websites in five different countries and regions designed to explore which dimensions of brand personality wine estates exhibit online, and also to determine whether wine estates in different countries portray different dimensions of brand personality. The study uses text content from wine estate websites, and content analyzes it using the text analysis software Diction (www.dictionsoftware.com) in conjunction with the Pitt et al. (2007) brand personality dictionaries.

The Study

We chose five wine tourist destination countries/regions for the study to, first, get a mix of old- and new world wine producers (France [old]; South Africa [new/old]; Australia, New Zealand, USA [new]), and in the case of three nations looked at the entire country (Australia, New Zealand and South Africa), and at the best-known regions in two countries (Bordeaux for France, Napa for USA). We selected 10 winery websites in each country/region using a Google search beginning, "Ten best wineries to visit in (country/region)", and selected the wineries from the first URL to point us to those. The wineries whose websites were selected for analysis as well as the link used to identify those wineries are shown in table 1. In the cases of Bordeaux and Napa, only 8 and 9 wineries were analyzed respectively, either because the websites were not in English, or because an age verification requirement denied access to our automatic website scraping software. The entire textual content of these websites was scraped and then converted to text files for subsequent analysis. As could be expected some of these files were

very large indeed, and many contained more than a million words of text, which means that any meaningful manual content analysis would be extremely difficult and time consuming. The website that contained the greatest number of words was that of the Napa producer, Castello di Amarosa, at more than 2.5 million words.

Two things should be borne in mind about the data, and the estates studied. First, the estates selected were based on the opinions of a blog or website, and we don't know much about the criteria used to select them, and nor might these be consistent across countries or regions. In all likelihood they are merely the opinion of a blogger or travel writer. However, when one bears in mind that they will be the first ten wineries seen when a potential tourist does a search, they are undoubtedly from an influential source. Second, these estates might be good places to visit, they might not necessarily be the producers of the best wines. For example, none of the Bordeaux first growth estates appear on the Bordeaux list, simply because they don't encourage visits or tours. A visit to the websites included in this study will show that in addition to their wines and tastings, many of these estates offer extensive tours, cellar door sales, spas, excellent restaurants and accommodation for overnight stays.

Table 1: Countries/Regions, Source of Best Wineries to Visit, and Estates by Country/Region

Australia	Bordeaux	Napa	New Zealand	South Africa
http://thenewdaily.com.au/life/2015/02/19/10-best-destination-wineries-australia/	https://www.winerist.com/blog/entry/15-best-chateaux-to-visit-in-bordeaux	http://www.napavalley.com/2015/05/26/best-winery-tours-in-napa-valley/	http://gearpatrol.com/2015/04/22/10-best-new-zealand-wineries/	http://www.cellartours.com/blog/cellar-tours/our-top-ten-south-africa-wine-estates
Estates	**Estates**	**Estates**	**Estates**	**Estates**
Highbank	Phelan Segur	Twenty Rows	Osawa	De Morgenzon
Longview	Lynch-Bages	Saintsbury	Trinity Hill	De Trafford
Skillogalee	La Lagune	William Hill	Rippon	Hamilton Russell
Borrodell	Pichon Baron	Schramsberg	Burn Cottage	Jordan
Keith Tulloch	Pichon Lalande	O'Brien	Greywacke	Ken Forrester
Port Phillip	Pape Clement	Stoney Hill	Foxes Island	Meerlust
Crittenden	Smith Haut Lafitte	Castello di Amarosa	Herzog	Neil Ellis
Lancemore	Domaine de Chevalier	Mumm Napa	Neudorf	Rustenburg
Cape Lodge		V. Sattui	Bell Hill	Rust en Vrede
Mona			Palliser	Vergelegen

The text analysis software Diction (www.dictionsoftware.com) was used to analyze the data. Diction is especially useful for determining the tone of a verbal message. It searches a passage for five general features as well as thirty-five sub-features (none of which are used or discussed here), and also allows the user to incorporate their own dictionaries into the analysis. Because brand personality was the focus of this study, we used Diction to analyze the text from the websites with the five brand personality dictionaries (competence, excitement, ruggedness, sincerity and sophistication) from the Pitt et al. (2007) dictionary source as the basis for computation. A major benefit of the Diction approach is that the user does not have to spend an inordinate amount of time "cleaning" text files by removing any html programing language

captured, extraneous and commonly occurring words, such as "wine", "estate", "visit" and so forth, as well as common articles and pronouns. Diction simply ignores words that are not in the dictionaries being used (in this case, the five dictionaries concerning brand personality). Another important advantage of Diction is that it can handle a large number of files simultaneously. In this study, for example, all the files for websites in a particular country/region were analyzed in a single round of processing. The results are shown in table 2, and illustrated graphically for purposes of comparison in figure 1. The scores are Z-scores of the extent to which the combined websites for each country/region portrayed the five different dimensions of brand personality.

Table 2: Brand Personality Dimensions by Country/Region

	Australia	Bordeaux	Napa	New Zealand	South Africa
Competence	25.09	11.26	16.71	24.21	27.58
Excitement	55.14	41.97	39.54	50.58	48.50
Ruggedness	21.00	9.30	12.79	16.40	19.87
Sincerity	44.85	20.67	30.04	41.57	44.09
Sophistication	2.44	2.48	1.37	2.41	1.60
Sum	*148.52*	*85.68*	*100.45*	*135.16*	*141.65*

Figure 1
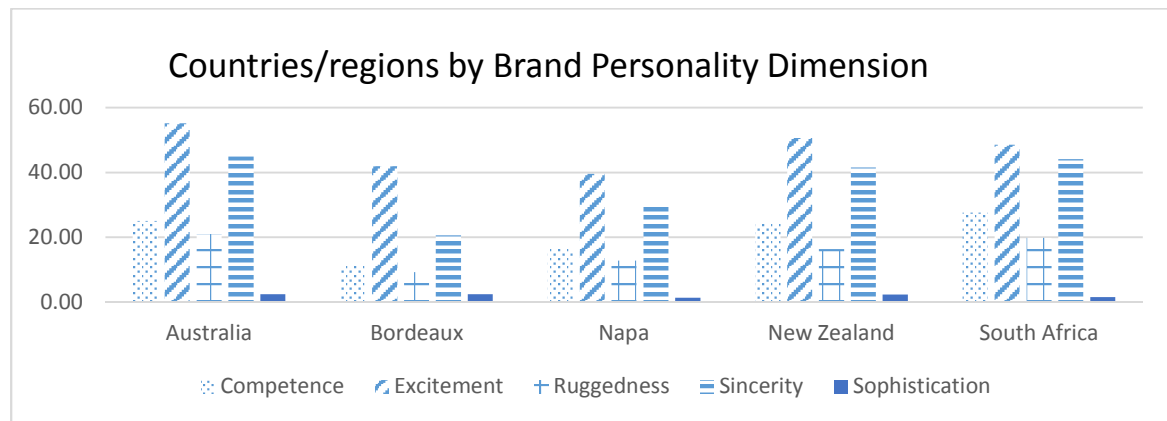
While it might seem to make little conceptual sense to sum the scores on the five dimensions for the websites of each country/region, these sums do give us an indication of the extent to which the websites in the countries/regions emphasized dimensions of brand personality. As will be seen from both table 2 and figure 1, the southern hemisphere countries (Australia, South Africa and New Zealand in that order) used more words from the brand personality dictionaries than did the two northern hemisphere regions (Napa and Bordeaux in that order). Indeed, Australia scores higher on all the brand personality dimensions than any of

the other countries/regions. Excitement is the dimension of brand personality emphasized most of all across all countries and regions, and this is particularly true for Australia and New Zealand. This would mean that most of, or many of the websites in the sample are emphasizing that the winery would be a "daring, spirited, imaginative, up-to-date" place to visit. The next most emphasized dimension of brand personality, particularly by the Australian and South African winery websites, is that of sincerity, which has to do with these establishments noting that they are "domestic, honest, genuine, and cheerful". By far the least accentuated of the brand personality dimensions is that of sophistication, which has to do with "glamor, presentation, charm, and romance." This is somewhat surprising given that for many consumers wine is a sophisticated product.

Another observation, further confirmed by the profiles of the five different brand personality dimensions shown in figure 1 is that the overall brand personality profiles of the five countries is remarkably similar. While the regions of Napa and Bordeaux do portray less of all the five brand dimensions than do Australia, South Africa and New Zealand, the brand personality profiles of all five countries or regions have the same proportionate shapes in the bar graphs. All speak most of excitement, followed by sincerity, then confidence and ruggedness, and least of sophistication in that order.

Discussion

This study is limited in that the wine regions of the world chosen for analysis were somewhat arbitrary (what about other European nations, or South America?), and that the wineries within the nations/regions were also selected merely by the simplicity and convenience afforded by a quick Google search. Nevertheless, the analysis conducted here does give us an indication of how some of the most popular tourist destination wineries within five of the world's prominent wine producing countries and regions portray their brand personalities through their websites. Obviously this is an aggregation of the wineries within a region, and doesn't give us any indication of the brand personality of a single website with in a region, which might be very different from the aggregation. There may indeed be an estate in New Zealand, for example, that emphasizes sophistication and ruggedness over sincerity and excitement, or a Napa winery that accentuates competence. It is obviously possible and quite easy for us to break our sample down and identify brand personality down to the level of the individual winery website, but that was beyond the scope of this paper. In this instance our focus was on the description of a tool and an approach that can be used to deduce a winery's brand personality by content analyzing its website by means of Diction and then agglomerating a number of websites to be representative of a country or region.

An important observation from the data is that there appears to be little differentiation between the five countries/regions with regard to brand personality. Wine estates in all these countries/regions emphasize mainly excitement and sincerity as brand personality dimensions on their websites. If one conceptualizes a typical two-dimensional positioning map that juxtaposed countries/regions against brand personality dimensions, then the five countries/regions would be clustered close together and most adjacent to excitement and sincerity, further away from ruggedness and competence, and furthest of all from sophistication. While these nations/regions obviously compete against each other as suppliers on the international stage, the question of whether they compete against each other as tourist destinations is moot. Tourists may visit Napa or Bordeaux with wine as their main priority, but they might visit Australia to see great natural sites as well, or New Zealand for its scenic splendor, and South Africa for its game parks, with wine as an added bonus. It might therefore

be said that the while the extent of differentiation between the countries/regions is low in terms of positioning, this might not be critical. From a marketing strategy perspective, competition between the wine estates within a country or region would be more critical. Our further exploration of the data will shed light on this. If a number, or all of the estates within a country or a region were communicating similar brand personalities through their websites, a strategic red flag might be raised. If everyone is saying the same thing about themselves then there is little differentiation, and potential customers, consumers and visitors might be tempted to conclude that it didn't really matter which estate was visited as they might all be very similar.

Our intention in this paper has been to illustrate how brand personality and its dimensions can be applied to wine tourism, and how a content analysis of the text taken from a wine estate's website can be used to derive a snapshot of that brand personality as communicated. We have also illustrated the use of powerful content analysis software, Diction, to determine the extent to which this text specifically communicates these dimensions of brand personality and in broader terms gives a feel for the tone of text.

At a general level, the approach illustrated here provides a way for those who manage wine tourism at the national, regional and estate levels to gauge whether the personality of their brand is being communicated online as they intend it to be. A wine estate marketer might wish to be conveying a personality of sophistication and competence, and then be informed by a study of this nature that the brand is instead being communicated as exciting and sincere. Furthermore, regular use of the technique will permit wine marketing decision makers to track their own brand's personality as well those of competitors over time, so that changes in communicated competitor brand personality can be identified. Furthermore, the information gleaned from this type of research can be utilized both in brand personality decisions at a strategic level, and in website design decisions at a tactical level.

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Applying corpus linguistics to study tourism experiences

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Abstract:

Despite an agreement on the complexity of tourism experiences, there is a dearth of methodologies for studying it. This paper consists of two case studies to review an analytical methodology to better exploit tourists' contribution in the process of knowledge production. It applies Corpus Linguistics to extract meanings hidden in datasets, from an emic view, as a way forward to build and test theories. Two case studies employ Web 2.0 as a platform whereby the research participants' interaction is facilitated. It not only provides researchers with the ability to compare different datasets and contexts, but also to take advantages of both qualitative datasets and quantitative analyses, and consequently generalisability of findings.

Keywords: Corpus Linguistics, Web 2.0, Methodology, Tourism Experience, New Zealand, SAS

1. Introduction

Scholars widely acknowledge the complexity of understanding the tourism experience. Yet there is a dearth of research examining and critiquing methodologies that might help illuminate this complex phenomenon (Lindberg, Hansen, & Eide, 2014; Ritchie & Hudson, 2009). In order to overcome limitations inherent to methodologies applied researchers need to go beyond disciplinary boundaries (O'Dell, 2007). Corpus Linguistics helps analyse texts to explore and understand meanings hidden in textual datasets (Pollach, 2011). Online texts written by tourists, as a result of a development in Web 2.0, have gained attention. These online texts influence tourists' experiences (Bosangit, Hibbert, & McCabe, 2015; Xiang, Wang, O'Leary, & Fesenmaier, 2015). Despite its importance, and the fact that they are easily accessible, they have rarely been employed as data sources. Current research applies two simple case studies to show applicability of Corpus Linguistics and Web 2.0 in the study of the tourism experience.

2. Literature Review

There are limitations in existing methodologies in exploring the phenomenological essence of experiences (Small, 1999). Ritchie and Hudson (2009) rank the methodological issues for the experience research as the least considered among the other issues. They also found its application as having the highest average difficulty among all other topics of experience research including, "the essence of the experience," "behavior," "kinds of tourism experience," "managerial concerns," and the "evolutionary focus of experience research" (Ritchie & Hudson, 2009, p. 111). There are shortcomings in methodologies applied to study tourism experience; a lack of innovation (Pearce & Packer, 2013; Ritchie & Hudson, 2009), a and limitations that exist in positivistic research approaches (Ryan, 2000). Applying innovative approaches is more critical (Wilson & Hollinshead, 2015), given the fact that tourism experience is a complex, subjective and intersubjective phenomenon (O'Dell, 2007; Pearce & Packer, 2013; Walle, 1997). Very few studies review methodologies applied in tourism research (Ritchie & Hudson, 2009). Qualitative methodologies have limitations in generalisability as well as the long process of data collection (Small, 1999; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). From the other side, quantitative methodologies, such as questionnaire, comprise limitations in understanding experiences (Ryan, 2000).

Recently, the application of Web 2.0 datasets in tourism research has increased (Bosangit et al., 2015; Cong, Wu, Morrison, Shu, & Wang, 2014; Xiang et al., 2015). Among the researches, few have applied Corpus Linguistics, thought with a main focus on sentiment analysis of texts (Dickinger & Mazanec, 2015; Titov & McDonald, 2008). Corpus Linguistics that is a branch of linguistics has been numerously applied in other fields that shows its high potential (McEnery & Gabrielatos, 2006; Pollach, 2011). It employs computer software to analyse datasets both qualitatively and quantitatively to interpret and explain patterns (Pollach, 2011). Corpus Linguistics consists of several techniques to conduct text mining, such as: word frequency, keyword-in-context (KWIC), comparison of corpora, collocations and concordance (Pollach, 2011). Corpus Linguistics is generally conducted in two ways, semantic and sentiment analyses. Topic Modelling which is based on word frequency as a way of semantic analysis, is widely used in different fields.

3. Case Studies

To explore and test a theory in an empirical way, we introduce two case studies. Our case studies review two ways of conducting topic modelling analyses: Automatically-Discovered Text Topics and User-defined Text Topics. All data is collected from travelblog.org, a weblog which includes tourists' self-reports on their experiences. This blog provides tourists with a

space to freely document their own experiences. Tourists don't get paid, and there is no editing or any other changes afterwards made by any other person. Frequently used text mining tools are: SAS, Leximancer, R (tm package), NVivo and ATLAS.ti, any of which can be used, depending on researchers' decisions and analyses. We employ the SAS text-miner add-on to the SAS Enterprise Miner Workstation 12.3 software by SAS Corporation to analyse datasets. The data has gone through four different steps of analyses (Figure 6): (1) Text Import Node; (2) Text Parsing Node; (3) Text Filter Node; and (4) Text Topic Node. In the first step the data is imported and verified by the software. In the second step, Text Parsing, the data is parsed into a document including grammatical classifications by labelling words as nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.. In the third stage, Text Filter, researchers decide which words should be dropped off or kept by dropping terms with low information weight at the grammar role or term weight stages; it helps reduce the number of terms in the text analysis. Finally, at the Text Topic stage, researchers either define their own topics; or otherwise the software will automatically discover the topics. While case study (1) as an exploratory research to build theory shows how the software discovers text topics; researchers define their own topics in case study (2) in order to test a theory.

Figure 6.Topic modelling analysis (SAS Enterprise Miner Workstation 12.3)

Case study (1): Automatically-Discovered Text Topics

Case study (1) shows how the software automatically discovers text topics in exploratory research. It answers the question of "How do tourists' experiences differ as they travel through New Zealand?" without any prior assumptions. The dataset includes 935 documents written by tourists who have recently visited several destinations in New Zealand, such as Queenstown known as 'adventure capital of the world', Dunedin, Christchurch and Franz Josef, all nature- and activity-based destinations. The topic modelling analysis consists of allocating weights to different terms. The process starts with term frequency or log-term frequency and then, as a default is modified by the application of an Entropy-based weight calculation. Entropy relates to the degree of ordering of terms within and between documents in dataset. Then a score is calculated for each document based on the term weights and their frequency. Topics are also defined by assigning highly correlated terms. SAS text miner calculates 'Document Cutoff' and 'Term Cutoff' to identify if each document belongs to a specific topic (Table 5). The software associates a document to a topic when a topic weight of a document is bigger than the Document Cutoff of a topic. Each document might be associated with no topic, a single topic or more than one topic. Here, we have set the property of the Text Parsing node, the 'Stem terms' to 'Yes'. Consequently, different terms with the same root are considered as equivalent. There might be a need to go back and forth several times between Text Filter and Text Topic. When the Text Topic node is run, the software produces several topics, but, depending on the data, some meaningless words and signs, like 'lol', '&', 'and', 'the', etc., or human names (when we don't want them) might appear. In such cases, researchers may change the property setting of the Text Filter to filter such words. This would help produce more meaningful outputs.

Case Study (1): Findings and Discussion

Table 5 shows the outputs. Topic ID '1' shows how a tourist 'jumps' down the 'Nevis' 'bungy' jumping, one of the most well-known activities in 'Queenstown.' Topic ID '2' relates to tourists' experience in a famous natural place called 'Milford' located close to 'Queenstown' which is accessible by 'boat' across a 'lake' and surrounded by 'mountain' scenery. Topic ID '3' reveals the tourists' 'ice' hiking experience wearing 'crampons' on the 'Franz Josef' 'Glacier.' Topic ID '4' refers to lone tourists, ('my'), ('I'), and the way they experience their time in a 'bus' or at 'night' in a 'hostel'. Topic ID '5' shows how tourists experience the 'city' of 'Christchurch' mentioning the 'building', 'cathedral' and the 'earthquake' that has happened there recently. 'Dunedin' located in 'Otago' region is a city with beautiful 'beaches' and natural wild life, home to the yellow-eyed 'penguins' and worlds' biggest flying bird, the 'Albatross', which has been assigned the Topic ID '6'. Topic ID '7' reveals the 'skiing' experience in 'Queenstown', alone, ('my') or with friends ('she'). Another tourist experience is to have 'dinner' with friends ('she'), and 'horse' 'cantering' experiences on a 'farm' as shown by Topic ID '8'. Topic ID '9' relate to the experience a tourist ('my') might have in a 'hut' on a 'mt' (mountain) during a hike on 'tracks' and on a 'ridge' of the mountain. Topic ID '10' explains the experiences on 'sandy' 'beaches', or swimming in a 'pool', and being close to 'water' and 'boat'.

Table 5. The case study (1): Automatically discovered Text Topics

Topic ID	Document Cutoff	Term Cutoff	Topics	Number of Terms	# Docs
1	0.965	0.057	+jump,bungy,+jump,queenstown,nevis	830.0	130
2	0.833	0.05	queenstown,milford,+lake,+boat,+mountain	876	150
3	0.753	0.048	+glacier,ice,franz josef,glacier,+crampon	764.0	129
4	0.814	0.048	i,my,+bus,+hostel,+night	800	138
5	0.722	0.048	christchurch,+city,+earthquake,+building,+cathedral	901	129
6	0.681	0.046	dunedin,+penguin,+beach,otago,+albatross	800	126
7	0.736	0.045	queenstown,+ski,my,+ski,she	1294	103
8	0.675	0.044	+horse,she,+canter,+farm,+dinner	1181.0	76
9	0.633	0.043	+hut,+ridge,mt,+track,my	944.0	112
10	0.468	0.035	+beach,+sand,+pool,+water,+boat	1095.0	81

Automatically discovered Text Topics provide researchers with a general idea, and primary cues for further research and theory-building. The output clearly distinguishes among the experiences in different places of Queenstown, Dunedin, Christchurch and Franz Josef. Then researchers recognize how each experience is different from the others by looking at different themes and contexts. Here, the only control researchers have over automatically discovered topics is firstly, to limit the maximum number of text topics discovered and secondly, to restrict or relax the constraint of topic correlation. Conversely, in some cases researchers prefer to go beyond automatically discovered topics and distinguish the documents based on their own defined topics to test a theory. Case study (2) explores user-defined text topics.

Case study (2): User-defined Text Topics

The second case study provides an example of how researchers define their own topics in order to test a theory and find relationships among several parameters. The three steps of Text Import, Text Parsing and Text Filter are the same as in case study (1). The assumption is that

researchers need to investigate the data and test a theory based on several user-defined topics. Topics should be defined in the Text topic stage. To ensure reliability, two different datasets have been used. The first one is the same as the data used in case study (1); 935 documents on tourists' experiences in New Zealand. The second dataset includes 238 documents written by tourists who have travelled to Iran, a very different country with historical culture as its main attraction. The question is "how do tourists' emotional experiences differ in New Zealand from those in Iran regarding the factors of 'social interaction', 'physical activity', and 'cultural elements'".

In the tourism literature, there are several factors identifying tourism experiences: involvement, hedonism, happiness, pleasure, relaxation, stimulation, refreshment, social interaction, spontaneity, meaningfulness, knowledge, challenge, sense of separation, timelessness, adventure, personal relevance, novelty, escaping pressure and intellectual cultivation (Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2012). Here, for example, we are interested in finding relationships among 'emotion' as a dependent variable and the three factors of 'physical activity', 'social interaction' and 'cultural elements' as predictor variables. Terms related to each topic need to be associated with the related topic by researchers. However, there are dictionaries available that can be employed for relating the terms to related topics, they are usually limited to several topics; mostly positive or negative emotions. Here due to this limitation, researchers start their own coding. The process starts with assigning a weight for each term, as well as different terms to each specific topic; currently both assignations are somewhat arbitrary and need further guidelines to be established for future research. In the absence of pre-defined terms and meanings, researchers decide their own coding scheme; however, it is important that they are transparent regarding what they are coding and why. This relates to reliability and validity of the methodology. We suggest several plausible algorithms for generating term weights: firstly, using scale factor item weights (e.g. standardized factor regression item loadings) if terms are drawn from published scales; and secondly, researchers could rank terms in order of their perceived importance to the topic, where the most important term has the highest rank, and use a scaled version of those ranks as user-defined weights. Terms associated with each topic are as follows: (1) emotion (positive/negative) includes emotional terms, such as: 'nice,' 'amazing,' 'interesting,' 'cool,' 'love,' 'enjoyment,' 'surprise,' 'perfect,' 'fun,' etc. (2) physical activity consists of terms related to activities and physical movement, such as: 'walking,' 'hiking,' 'skydiving,' 'horse riding,' 'biking,' 'playing,' 'track,' 'kayak,' 'swimming,' etc. (3) social interaction relates to other people, family, etc.: 'people,' 'friend,' 'guide,' 'he,' 'she,' 'ceremony,' 'family,' 'club,' 'social,' 'meet,' 'tour,' etc. And finally, (4) cultural elements relate to 'history', 'culture', 'life style', 'museum', etc.

Based on the defined topics and assigned terms, the software calculates different weights for each document to quantitatively score or measure the relationship between the documents and each topic. The next step is to find the relationships between the user-defined topics using these topics scores at the document level. Here, the relationships among the topics have been tested using regression model with step-wise selection of prediction variables. In terms of data triangulation, the findings from New Zealand has been compared with those of Iran, a very different country and ancient cultural heritage, but less activity-based attractions compared to New Zealand as a scenic place.

Case Study (2): Findings and Discussion

The results (Table 6) show differences among tourists' emotional experiences in two countries in terms of social interactions, physical activity and cultural elements. Social

interaction is the first factor leading to emotions for both countries; 0.56 for New Zealand and 0.57 for Iran. Tourists to New Zealand receive more emotion from physical activity (0.56) compared to Iran (0.19). In contrast, cultural elements are more important for tourists to Iran (0.32) compared to New Zealand (0.11). Three parameters altogether explain most of the variables of emotion of these tourists for New Zealand and Iran.

Table 6.Case study (2): Stepwise regression output

Data Source	Model Index	Stepwise effect added	Adj-R^2	R^2	t-statistics	P-value	Standardized effect size-added estimate (β)
New Zealand (n=935)	1	Social Interaction	0.4872	0.4877	17.22	<.0001	0.5639
	2	Physical Activity	0.6067	0.6075	17.18	<.0001	0.5621
	3	Cultural Elements	0.6110	0.6123	3.37	0.0008	0.1102
Iran (n=238)	1	Social Interaction	0.5304	0.5323	8.73	<.0001	0.5661
	2	Cultural Elements	0.5809	0.5845	5.24	<.0001	0.3233
	3	Physical Activity	0.5936	0.5987	2.89	0.0043	0.1870

Figure 7 compares the role of different factors of 'social interaction', 'physical activity' and 'cultural elements' in producing emotion in tourism experience. Furthermore, a comparison between the outputs confirms the validity of the results. While nature, design and theme are settings for experiences (Nyaupane, Morais, & Graefe, 2004; Pizam et al., 2004; Trauer, 2006), and are important features in attracting tourists (Wu, Xie, & Tsai, 2015), interactive elements, such as involvement in activities and social environment give meanings to experiences (Preston-Whyte, 2002; Wu et al., 2015), and lead to higher levels of positive emotions (Farber & Hall, 2007). In other words, experience starts by sensualisation and feeling, as initial affective reaction and going beyond that perceptual level includes meanings inherent in involvement in social interactions and activities.
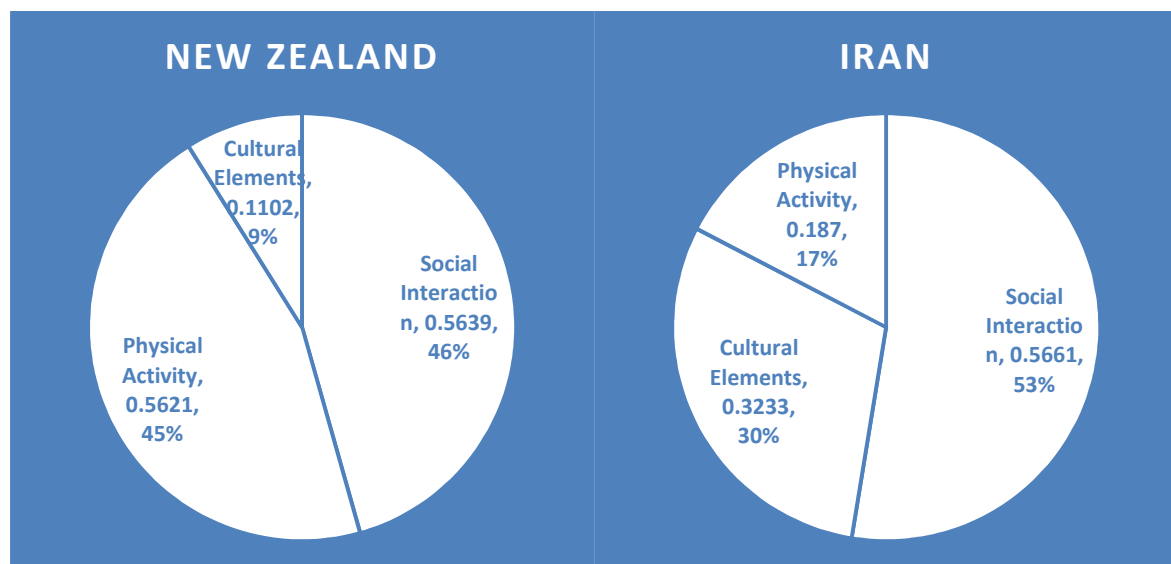
Figure 7.Stepwise regression output

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Flirting with destinations: A new perspective on the process of place bonding

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Abstract
The main goal of the current paper, as an on-going study is to explain the process of place bonding. A place bond is formed as a result of developing emotional ties between people and a place. To date, the literature focuses only on the measurement of the components of such people-place relationships rather than explaining why and how these emotional bonds are formed. The existing model on place bonding (see Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler, 2006) includes components of emotional bonding with a place: familiarity, belonging, identity, dependence and rootedness. However the model fails to account for the role of experience and emotions in the formation of these components. In turn, this has led to the search for new approaches and tools that will help to understand this process comprehensively. Hence, this paper suggests a new perspective on place bonding which incorporates three contexts: tourists, migrants and refugees.

Keywords: place bonding, process, experiences, emotions

Introduction

The literature on people-place relationships is evolving. Different disciplines have focused on people-place relationships such as environmental psychology, sociology, community psychology, human geography, cultural anthropology, gerontology, demography, urban studies, leisure sciences and tourism, ecology, forestry, architecture and planning, and economics (Lewicka, 2011). To date, the studies on people-place relationship have predominantly focused on measuring the components of such relationships. These components include place attachment, sense of place, place identity, place dependence and rootedness. Little is known about the process through which people form emotional bonds with places(see Lewicka, 2011; Manzo, 2005). Despite that bonding to places is associated with positive outcomes.

Exploring the process of place bonding is important and valuable because it assists practitioners in customer experience management and policy-makers in place management to design environments and provide effective services, enhance tourism satisfaction and perceptions of service quality (Hwang, Lee, & Chen, 2005), and change attitudes toward a place(Kyle, Absher, & Graefe, 2003). Place bonding is also associated with personal outcomes such as: improved perceived quality of life (Theodori, 2001), well-being and happiness. Furthermore, bonding with a tourist destination results in a "sense of security, confidence, trust, attractiveness, cheerfulness and identification in the tourist" (Tsai, 2012, p. 1). Knowledge on how place bonding is initiated and consolidated could be used to help new residents to adjust more successfully to unfamiliar places and also help those people who are forced to leave a loved place and go through a (necessary) disengagement process while they try to form bonds with a new place. In addition, understanding the process of place bonding may help avoid the undesirable psychological consequences of forced relocations that were reported by Fried in 1966. However the existing model of place bonding (see Hammitt et al., 2006) fails to explain how and when emotional bonds are formed. Their argument relies too heavily on quantitative analysis and measuring the components of place bonding rather than taking account of the role of experience through the process of bonding.

This paper aims to investigate the process of place bonding through the lens of experience. In doing so, place experience needs to be captured. Therefore this paper proposes to study the process of place bonding comprehensively through three different contexts: tourists, migrants and refugees and to explore the commonalities and differences among these three groups of place makers. These three groups have been chosen as they come to New Zealand with different motivations hence they experience the place differently. This paper also discusses an appropriate methodology in order to capture experience through the process of place bonding.

Review of the literature

This section provides a brief review of the literature on people-place relationships and then it criticises the existing model of place bonding.

People-place relationships

The existing body of literature on people-place relationships has mostly focused on the formation of bonds which are related to childhood place and home environment rather than the diversity of places (Scannell, 2013).There are only a few studies that suggest that people build emotional relationships not only to their home but with different places (Lewicka, 2011). Furthermore, we still do not know much about how and why bonds between an individual and a place are created.

This process deserves more attention now because of increasing trends in globalization and mobility. The increases in mobility and globalization since the 1970's and early 1980's and resulted in producing excessive architectural and commercial uniformity among places in the modern world. In addition, places started losing their cultural uniqueness and specialty(Casey, 1996). Non-places are defined as anthropological spaces that do not hold enough significance to be regarded as places. However, the growing number of non-places leads to the growing importance of places . Rather, people long for unique places and places with greater differences and significance are more appreciated.

Emotional relationships with a place make it significant. Hence, spending time in new or unfamiliar places mostly offers different experiences and emotions, which may lead to bonding to that place. However, there are some contradicting ideas about the role of length of residency in the literature: some studies on people-place relationships show that such relationships are generated through long-term interaction between individuals and places(Altman & Low, 1992). In contrast, there are studies which show that emotional bonding to a place is not necessarily associated with duration of stay in that place (Stedman, 2003). There are also some studies indicating that individuals may develop emotional bonding to places they have never visited before (Droseltis & Vignoles, 2010) or locations that are unknown or being visited for the first time (Cheng & Kuo, 2015) or even to virtual or imaginary places (Lewicka, 2011). Hence, it can be extrapolated that the intensity of emotions and experiences act much more strongly than duration of residence on people-place relationships. Lewicka (2013)asserts that " the theory of place attachment, particularly now, in the era of increased mobility, should be able to identify mechanisms through which people become attached even to those places that are unrelated to their family history, long-term residence , or even culturally alien" (p.51). Exploring the process of place bonding contributes to identifying those mechanisms that Lewicka has suggested.

Prior studies on people-place relationships have proposed similar concepts/dimensions (Pretty, Chipuer, & Bramston, 2003): that some of them are conceptually different from others and some are conceptually similar to other concepts, but they have used different descriptors . All the concepts refer to the positive affective bond between an individual and a particular place(Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001). Part of this ambiguity is because of the authors' different disciplinary origins. These concepts can be named as follows : Place rootedness (Tuan, 1974), sense of place (Farnum, Hall, & Kruger, 2005), place dependence (Stokols, Shumaker, & Martinez, 1983) place identity (Proshansky, Fabian, & Kaminoff, 1983), place attachment (Williams & Vaske, 2003),and place bonding (Hammitt, Kyle, & Oh, 2009). Among them place bonding emphasizes the process of developing emotional bonds.

Place bonding
 A Place bonding taxonomy was proposed by Hammitt, Backlund, and Bixler (2004b). Hammitt et al.'s (2004, 2006) taxonomy includes many dimensions of emotional bonding with a place: familiarity, belonging, identity, dependence and rootedness. According to this model, emotional bonds are developed between visitors and recreational places. This taxonomy proposes a gradually increasing intensity of emotional bonding and character of the bonding relationship. , "the emotional bond between an individual and a particular place may vary in intensity from an immediate sense of familiarity to a long lasting and deeply rooted attachment" (Hammitt, Cole, & Monz, 2015, p. 166) . In addition, " place bonding also contains an element of character or specificity, whereby the functionality, necessity, and dependence on a recreation place may vary from a less focused mode to a very focused, specialized emotional

dependence on a particular place" (Hammitt et al., 2015, p. 166). The taxonomy is illustrated as follows: (See Fig 1)
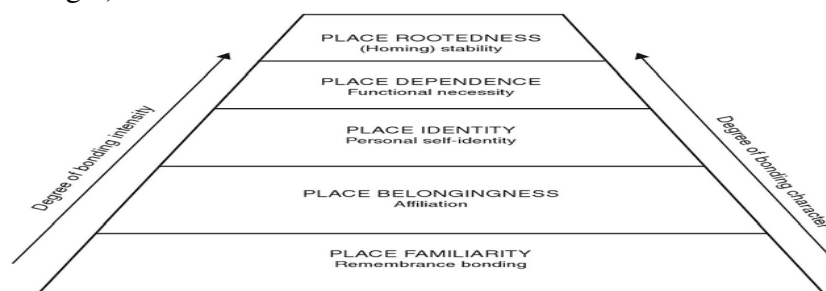
Figure 8: A taxonomy of destinations of emotional bonding with recreation places

Conceptualizing the components

This section briefly conceptualizes the components of place bonding.

Familiarity

Familiarity is a broad concept and has been studied in different disciplines and contexts. Luhmann believes that familiarity is a subjective way to reduce uncertainty. For Luhmann (2000),familiarity is an understanding formed by previous experiences, interactions and learning. Familiarity in the place-bonding model involves "the pleasant memories, achievement memories, cognitions, and environmental images that result from acquaintances and remembrances associated with recreation places" (Hammitt et al., 2006, p. 20). Place familiarity can happen when people are in unpleasant places too, but for bonding to place, positive place familiarity is required(Hammitt et al., 2006). Some literature addressing the concept of familiarity recognises the importance of experience through which the subjectivity of familiarity can be understood. In addition, acquaintance and remembrance are the 'practices' and feelings of security and stability as affective outcomes.

Place belonging

The need to belong is a fundamental human need. Belongingness is a necessary factor for human survival and well-being. Place belongingness is more about social bonding in comparison to familiarity and place belonging is a feeling of connectedness and being a member in an environment. Hammitt et al. (2006) state that, "Feelings of place belongingness involve aspects of place connectivity and affiliation that may develop into a communal bond with the environment and/or other people through place-people interactions" (p.22). In comparison to familiarity, belonging is more intense as in this stage social connection is required. Belonging's practices are more active in comparison to familiarity's practices. For example, the role of rituals in the creation of belonging is suggested in the literature.

Place identity

Place identity refers to attributes of a place which help in the formation of one's self-identity (Proshansky et al., 1983) . Place-identity is a very deep connection with a place that affect one's sense of self. Place-identity is formed through affective and cognitive processes. Memories, ideas, feelings, values , attitudes, preferences, meanings, behaviors and experiences associated with a place form place-identity. In other words, place-identity is formed through experiences of day-to day life within a place. Feeling secure and comfortable and self-esteem are the results of place-identity. The literature addressing place-identity stresses strong emotional relationships and connections that differentiates place-identity from belonging and familiarity. However, it can be extrapolated that formation of place-identity is impossible without familiarity and belongingness.

Place dependence

Place dependence is related to the quality of a place including availability of social and physical resources and how a place can satisfy the goal–oriented behaviours of the residents by those resources and how it is compared with other alternative places (Hammitt et al., 2006). Place dependence is more concerned with functional aspects rather than affective elements. According to literature, frequent access to a place increases the place dependency. In comparison to other components of place bonding, place dependence stresses on the functional aspects of a place, while familiarity, belonging and identity highlight the affective aspects and emotional bonds with a place. However, place dependence may encompass the elements of those three components.

Place rootedness

Place rootedness is a strong bond to a place. Rootedness encompasses the elements of other components such as familiarity, belonging and place dependence. These elements are necessities in the formation of place rootedness. In the place bonding model, Hammitt, Backlund, and Bixler (2004a) define rootedness as a "situation where the recreationists is so emotionally bonded to a specific place that they long for no other place to recreate" (p. 2).The accumulated experience of other components would lead to the formation of place rootedness. Hence place rootedness is about both the functional and emotional bonds to a place. Rootedness is formed through habituation and everyday life within a place. The outcomes of rootedness are well-being, satisfaction and less desire to seek changes or move.

Summary of critiques

The literature addressing the concept of place bonding recognises the importance of experience however the above model has not identified that. Besides, the model separated the components from each other, but there is some confusion in the components' definitions and the main defining differentiators. For example, feeling secure was used to describe familiarity, belonging and place identity; enhanced well-being and satisfaction/contentment are both used for describing belonging and rootedness. The model made an attempt to show that each level is stronger than the preceding one, but this is not applicable for place-dependence. The main weakness with this model is that the authors have not fully explained why and how these components of bonding are formed. The process of bonding is an affective phenomenon that requires explanations rather than measurement. In the place-bonding model, the components such as familiarity, belonging, identity and rootedness are subjective components and require a method that helps to understand the nature of the components and how they are formed. On the other hand, the items used to measure the components are very similar. Moreover, the items used for measuring place-identity are similar to the items for measuring rootedness. Although the literature highlights that researching place-identity and place-rootedness is difficult unless they are threatened, the place-bonding model measured them by items of a scale. Hammitt et al. (2006)'s model would have been more persuasive if the model included the role of experience in the formation of the components. Hence, investigating the process of place-bonding requires a method that helps to understand the nature of process comprehensively by incorporating the role of experience.

Research Methodology

This study adopts a multi-method qualitative research approach consisting of phenomenological interviews, critical incidents, Zaltman Elicitation Technique and social media. Phenomenological interviews were conducted to gain a deeper insight into individuals' background and their being. Critical incidents assist the researcher to know about the events that were highlights and which acted as attached points or thinking points for the participants about the place. ZMET is a technique to elicit the hidden meaning by asking the participants to bring eight to twelve images/ pictures to the interview. Another reason is that ZMET is supposed to be the best method for this research, primarily because it uses photographs and images to compensate for participants' language difficulties because for most participants, English might be their second language. Due to the less tangible nature of place bonding that this research aims to investigate, photographs and pictures assist individuals "to express their feelings, thoughts and intentions not only in words but also through visual images"(Zaltman & Higie, 1993, p. 1). A friendly request is also sent to the participants through Facebook or Instagram to better investigate their feelings towards the place by the posts and pictures they have uploaded. For data analysis we used thematic analysis approach in order to identify, analyse, and report patterns within collected data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Preliminary findings

The pilot study has been conducted with five migrants in New Zealand and the preliminary findings are as followings:

Strategies

These 5 interviews indicate that the participants apply some techniques to make themselves familiar with the place: observation, trial and error, being physically active in order to explore the place and gain embodied knowledge. In addition, some of the participants mentioned that in order to explore the place they started to do the same activities that they were doing in their home country. In this sense, they turn a space into a place by practicing familiar habits.

Transitions

In the process of place bonding, there are some transitions from unpleasant to pleasant:

"*2 years ago when I came here everything was unpleasant for me and after a while step-by-step some small things became pleasant for me…for example the city does not have loads of shops and shopping malls and I really hated that.. I liked to have lots of options for shopping... but now I am considering it as a positive point … because you have a higher satisfaction from what you buy …" (Respondent 1, 30 age, Iran)*

 "*I see how I saw the things at the begging* [now I realize how I thought about the things here at the beginning] *and how they have changed. When I first came I thought it is a country that's behind and of course visitors come from Canada like my family they come , they still think like that because for example they have dryers and we dry outside ,you know, the things like that, but now I have a new appreciation for everything".(Respondent2, 55age,Canada)*

Environmental features

Physical, social and cultural aspects of the place play an important role in this process:

"I thought it would be a terrible experience for me, but in fact I have never been homesick I am deeply grateful to New Zealand... I found people very pleasant and friendly and you know you don't have to leave your house or car locked" (Respondent 3, 85 age, South Africa)

"New Zealand has a very egalitarian culture which values independence and accepts varied cultural beliefs. I feel belonging because there are some expatriate communities which are very welcoming and most of the New Zealand citizens have travelled to Indian sub-continent" (Respondent 5, 34, India).

Detachment from home

Through the process of bonding to the new place, participants show detachment from their previous home, friends, culture and thoughts:

"When I was living in Iran , we had lots of parties and at the beginning when I came here when I saw my friends' pictures , I felt so sad that why I was not with them .. but now when I see their pictures, I say thanks God that I am not there .. I am totally detached from Iran and I am attached to here." (Respondent 1, 30 age, Iran)

Conclusion

This paper has argued that the existing model of place bonding fails to explain the role of experience in formation of the components of such relationship. It also emphasizes that the scientific methods are ill-equipped to develop an understanding of subjective experience in the formation of place bonding. Hence it suggests a combination of methods to incorporate verbal and non-verbal data. Taken together, the preliminary findings emphasize the role of experience in developing the emotional bonds between people and a place.

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Hedonic Binging and its impact on Indulgent Travel Consumption

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Abstract

This pilot study sets out to investigate hedonic binging and its impact on tourists' desire and subsequent intention to engage in indulgent consumption. Hedonism refers to positive and negative emotions that anticipate pleasure and avoid pain respectively. Binging refers to characteristics of an individual that are compulsive and impulsive. Pen-and-paper and online surveys were administered to a useable sample of 78 tourists who engaged in indulgent consumption. Findings from path analysis with structural equation modelling suggested that compulsive propensity impacted on desire, which in turn, impacted on intention to engage in indulgent consumption. Theoretically, this study is the first to conceptualise hedonic binging and introduce it to an empirical framework that explains the desire and behavioural intention of tourists who engage in indulgent consumption. Operationally, it provides researchers and practitioners with a simple measure of hedonic binging. Managerially, it gives practitioners insight into how they can address travel indulgent clients.

Keywords: Hedonism, binging, desire, behavioural intention

Introduction

Tourists often desire a vacation where they escape from their daily routine (Caruana and Crane 2011) to pursue a unique (Bigne et al. 2009), pleasurable and fantasy-like (Park and Reisinger 2009) experience by indulging in luxuries (Park and Reisinger 2009). These tourists choose to splurge on premium luxury experiences (Yuksel and Yuksel 2007) while on vacation. Such experiences are often pleasure-driven and may be attributed to tourists' propensity to act compulsively and impulsively (Cavaliere, Cohen and Higham 2011). In fact, the number of tourists who engage in luxury travel is rising, resulting in a 48% increase in luxury tourism over the last five years (Karantzavelou 2015). The emerging and viable segment of tourists who engage in emotionally-driven behaviour that is compulsive and impulsive is a phenomenon in contemporary tourism. This form of behaviour, which is derived from the notions of hedonism and binging, is referred to as hedonic binging in this pilot study.

Hedonism and binging are two constructs that are explored in psychology, marketing and tourism literature. Hedonism refers to emotions that are positive (Chaudhuri 1998; Scarpi 2012) and negative (Chaudhuri 1998; Yuksel and Yuksel 2007) in anticipating pleasure (Chapman, Chapman and Raulin 1976) and avoiding pain (Sober and Wilson 1998) in life. Binging refers to characteristics of an individual that are compulsive (Christenson et al. 1995; Ridgway et al. 2008) and impulsive (Brencic and Shoham 2003). Despite acknowledgement in tourism literature for the phenomenon of compulsive indulgent consumption (e.g. Park and Reisinger 2009), and that it is on the rise (Karantzavelou 2015), three key gaps exist in the literature. First, while separate areas of research are devoted to hedonism and binging, hedonic binging as a singular construct is not explored in marketing and tourism literature. Second, and as a consequence to the first gap, there is no conceptualisation and operationalisation of hedonic binging in marketing and tourism literature. Finally, a framework that explores hedonic binging for its impact on desire and subsequent behavioural intention has not been explored. Therefore, three research objectives are identified as follows: (1) Clarify the literature on hedonism and binging and in doing so, introduce hedonic binging as a singular construct in tourism literature; (2) Develop an initial scale that taps into the propensity for hedonic binging in the context of indulgent consumption while on vacation; and (3) Introduce the initial scale to an empirical framework that explains tourists' desire and subsequent intention toward indulgent consumption while on vacation.

Literature Review and Conceptual Framework
Positive Anticipated Emotions and Desire

Hedonism theory is often cited to account for the positive emotion in hedonism (e.g. Chapman, Chapman and Raulin 1976). Hirschman and Holbrook's (1982, 135) seminal study defined hedonism as "fun, amusement, fantasy arousal, sensory stimulation, and enjoyment." In fact, Chaudhuri's (1998, 161) study of perceived risk observed that positive emotion incites "joy, pleasure and delight" which relieves consumers' perception of purchasing risk. Lee et al. (2014) concurred that at an oriental medicine festival, visitors' positive anticipated emotion affects their desire and subsequent intention to attend. Collectively, these studies highlight the relationship between positive emotion and desire. Consequently:

H1: Positive anticipated emotions will positively relate to desire

Negative Anticipated Emotion and Desire

Fear of Missing Out (FoMO) may be used to explain the negative emotion in hedonism. Przybylski et al. (2013, 1841) examined engagement with social media and observed that fear of missing out on online experiences drives consumers' "desire to stay continually connected." The authors identified negative emotions in FoMO such as boredom and loneliness and concluded that FoMO increases consumers' desire for social media engagement. Likewise, Hubbard et al. (2008) emphasised that consumers' negative emotion is a significant predictor of their future behaviour when they investigated the role of emotion in determining customer satisfaction and behavioural intention. All these studies accentuate the relationship between negative emotion and desire. Consequently:

H2: Negative anticipated emotions will positively relate to desire

Compulsive Propensity and Desire

Obsessive-compulsive theory (O'Guinn and Faber 1989) is commonly introduced to describe compulsive propensity in binging. This compulsive aspect of binging is explored in marketing and tourism literature (e.g. Ridgway et al. 2008). Brencic and Shoham (2003, 128) defined compulsive propensity as "chronic, repetitive" that "becomes a primary response to negative events or feelings." The authors concluded that consumers with a propensity to make unplanned purchases are more likely to engage in compulsive consumption behaviour. Together, these studies concur that a relationship between compulsive propensity and desire exists. Consequently:

H3: Compulsive buying behaviour will positively relate to desire

Figure 1: Conceptual Model and Hypothesis
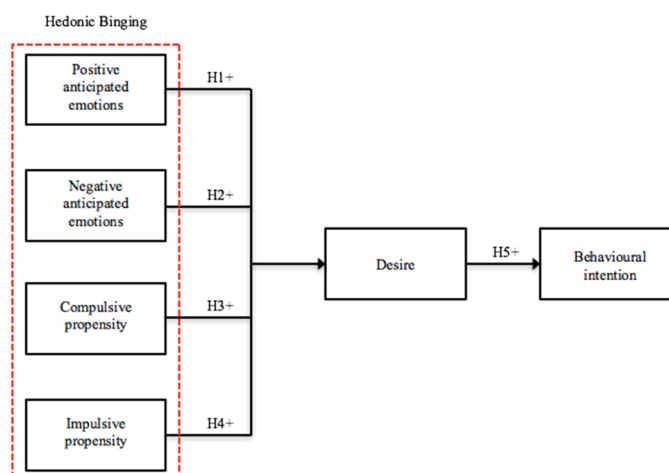
Impulsive Propensity and Desire

Akratic impulse buying (Wood 1998) theory may be adopted to clarify impulse propensity in binging. Brencic and Shoham (2003, 129) conceptualised impulsive propensity as when a consumer "experiences an irresistible urge to buy." The authors concluded that consumers who are inclined to impulsive purchases are also inclined to demonstrate compulsive behaviour. Likewise, Chen and Lin (2013, 427) noted the "unplanned" and/or "spur-of-the-moment" nature of travellers' impulse propensity at airports. The authors suggested that travellers are triggered to shop impulsively at airports due to time pressures and their desire for pleasurable shopping. These studies corroborate the relationship between impulsive propensity and desire. Consequently:

H4: Impulsive buying behaviour will positively relate to desire

Desire and Behavioural Intention

Scholars have underscored the important role that desire plays on behavioural intention. Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy (2003, 276) conceptualised desire as the "motivational impetus of the volitional decision making process." The authors highlighted desire as a crucial antecedent of behavioural intention. Further, Bagozzi, Dholakia and Pearo (2004) studied consumer participation in online virtual communities and found that desire has a significant relationship with revisit intention and participation behavior for the virtual community. Lee et al. (2014) also noted that desire is a critical factor in explaining tourist decision-making when they investigated visitors' behavioural intention at an oriental medicine festival in South Korea. Similarly, Boo et al. (2012) highlighted that desire is a significant factor when addressing tourists' information processing. In fact, the authors noted that desire improves intention predictability in the model of goal directed behaviour (MGB). Collectively, these studies support the premise that desire is an antecedent to behavioural intention. Consequently:

H5: Desire will positively relate to behavioural intention

Methodology

The survey instrument utilised existing scale items which were chosen for their relevance to the tourism context and their acceptable reliability scores ($\alpha \geq 0.70$) (Hair et al. 2010). The scale items for positive and negative anticipated emotions and desire were adapted from Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy (2003). Both the compulsive and impulsive propensity scale items were adapted from Ridgway et al. (2008). Finally, scale items for behavioural intention were adapted from Quintal, Thomas and Phau (2015). The study used a seven-point Likert type scale, ranging from one "Totally Disagree" and seven "Totally Agree" for all scale items.

The sampling frame comprised adults from Perth, Western Australia who were above 18 years old and inclined to engage in indulgent consumption while on vacation. They were targeted using a pen-and-paper survey with convenience sampling as well as an online survey with snowballing via Facebook. In total, 137 responses were collected and 42 were omitted as these respondents were not inclined toward hedonic binging while on vacation and did not fit

the sampling frame. In order to qualify for the sampling frame, respondents needed to achieve a score of five and above for at least two of five screening statements in the survey. The five statements began with 'The last time I was on vacation, I indulged excessively by:' (1) 'staying at a five-star luxury hotel;' (2) 'sampling fine food and drink at an award-winning outlet;' (3) 'experiencing health and wellness treatments at a luxury spa,; (4) 'exploring exotic sights and attractions with premier tour operators;' and (5) 'taking expensive punts at a leading casino.' From the 95 responses that remained, 17 were deleted due to major missing data. One other response had more than three quarters of its data completed and was replaced with imputed means scores. In total, there were 78 usable responses (82 percent completion rate).

Results and Data Analysis

In order to obtain a sample profile of respondents, the data was analysed using descriptive analysis with SPSS 22. There was a higher percentage of females over males (70.1 percent). Most respondents (39.5 percent) were in the 20-29 years age group. The skew toward younger women was anticipated as it was easier to target respondents who had the same gender and age group as the researcher (Miyazaki and Taylor 2008). Majority of the respondents (48.1 percent) was married and lived in mortgaged homes (33.8 percent). The largest group comprised professionals (41.6 percent) who worked full time (61.0 percent), earning between A$45,000-A$89,999 (42.9 percent).

Exploratory factor analysis with SPSS 22 examined the initial 25 hedonic binging scale items that represented positive emotion, negative emotion, compulsive propensity and impulse propensity. As seen in Table 1, the final four-factor solution identified 20 items that explained 74 percent of the variance with a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value (KMO) of 0.84 and a Bartlett's test sphericity of 1068.31, suggesting that underlying dimensions existed and factor analysis was justified (Hair et al. 2010). Reliabilities for the four factors were acceptable (0.84-0.94).

Table 1: Exploratory Factor Analysis

	1	2	3	4

Factor 1: Negative emotion

If I do not succeed in indulging myself during my vacation, I FEEL:

	1	2	3	4
Worried	0.91			
Ashamed	0.90			
Guilty	0.89			
Uncomfortable	0.85			
Depressed	0.85			
Angry	0.84			
Frustrated	0.66			
Sad	0.65			

Factor 2: Positive emotion

If I succeed in indulging myself during my vacation, I FEEL:

	1	2	3	4
Happy		0.82		
Glad		0.80		
Delighted		0.79		
Satisfied		0.76		
Happy		0.82		

Factor 3: Impulsive propensity

When I am on vacation:

	1	2	3	4
I indulge in consumption that I did not plan at the start of my trip			0.81	
I indulge myself without any further thought			0.80	
I am a bit reckless about what I consume			0.73	
I consider myself an impulsive tourist when it comes to luxury			0.73	

Factor 4: Compulsive propensity

When I am on vacation:				
I treat myself to the finest things almost every day	0.81			
I am obsessed with trying the most luxurious experiences on offer	0.81			
Much of my vacation centres around indulging myself with the best offerings that are available	0.80			
Total variance extracted	29.98	14.89	14.57	14.37
Eigen values	7.44	3.23	1.99	1.37
Cronbach alpha	0.94	0.84	0.84	0.87
KMO	0.84			
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	1068.31			

Path analysis with SPSS 22 was used to analyse the data (Hair et al. 2010). As seen in Table 2, the relationship between compulsive propensity and desire produced a significant effect on desire, supporting H3. Further, desire produced a significant effect on behavioural intention, supporting H5. The remaining three hypotheses were not supported.

Table 2: Path Analysis

Hypothesis	Standardised Beta β	p-value	Supported/ Not supported
H1+: Positive emotion → Desire	-0.17	ns	Not supported
H2+: Negative emotion → Desire	0.12	ns	Not supported
H3+: Compulsive propensity → Desire	0.76	0.001	Supported
H4+: Impulsive → Desire	0.10	ns	Not supported
H5+: Desire → Behavioural intention	0.90	0.001	Supported

*Note: * p≤0.05, ** p≤0.01, *** p≤0.001*

Discussion, Limitations and Future Directions

Clearly, a compulsive desire to engage excessively while on vacation is paramount in driving the intention of travel indulgent tourists. Since the desire to act impulsively is not significant, it would appear that hedonic binging while on vacation is planned and goal-driven. Consequently, tourism practitioners should be proactive and innovative in crafting their luxurious offerings and communicating these offerings to appeal to this market segment.

Theoretically, this pilot study contributes to the literature by conceptualising hedonic binging and introducing it to an empirical framework that explains the desire and behavioural intention of tourists who engage in indulgent consumption while on vacation. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this study is the first to achieve this aim. Operationally, it provides researchers and practitioners with a simple measure of hedonic binging. Managerially, it gives practitioners insight into how they can address travel indulgent clients.

Key limitations lie in the small sample size of 78 usable responses, limiting generalisability of the findings. Moreover, the sample only targeted residents of Perth, Western Australia. However, this is only an initial pilot study. Future studies will incorporate larger sample sizes and broaden the sampling frame nationally, so that both the scale and framework are applicable to the Australian travel indulgent tourist. Further, only hedonic binging's effects on desire and behavioural intention are considered. Other critical factors that impact on these dependent variables need to be explored further. Since hedonic binging while on vacation appears to be planned and goal-driven, the next phase of the research will explore hedonic binging's role in the model of goal directed behaviour (MGB) model across several travel indulgent contexts.

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Destination Image Formation in an Astronomical Tourism Heterogeneous Market

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Abstract

In recent years, astronomical tourism has emerged as a distinctive form of niche/special interest tourism with an emphasis on the importance of sky observation activities. As astronomical tourism is still in its early stages of development, there is little understanding of the attributes that astronomical tourists would consider when choosing a destination. In particular, there is a dearth of research regarding astronomical tourists' feelings and behaviours towards an astronomical tourism destination. This conceptual paper explores the destination image formation process in a heterogeneous astronomical tourism market. This conceptualisation can be implemented to develop strategies for astronomical tourism destination marketers to investigate destination image for various segments of this market. Therefore, the findings would allow destination marketers to understand how attributes of the places may attract astronomical tourists. This understanding would also help marketers to develop strategies for product differentiation and quality experiences.

Keywords: Astronomical tourism, Destination image, Destination attributes

Introduction

Extant research supports the importance of nature-based tourism development. Nature-based tourism has widely become a specialised and diversified tool to develop rural tourism destinations (Balmford et al., 2009). For example, nature-based tourists visit natural areas with unique physical characteristics, like 3S tourism (the sun, sand, and sea) (Fredman and Tyrväinen, 2010). According to statistics, 26 percent of the travelling population have participated in different forms of specialised activities including hiking, backpacking, bird watching, educational programs, snorkelling and sky observing, with a total value of the $89 billion (Fredman and Tyrväinen, 2010; Lamoureux et al., 2009). In recent years astronomical tourism has emerged as a distinctive form of nature-based tourism. In astro-tourism, visitors are interested in observing and enjoying celestial phenomena (Cater, 2009; Weaver, 2011). These destinations features a unique characteristic of the destination (Cater, 2009; Eagle, 2014; Weaver, 2011).

Astronomical tourism, termed astro-tourism for short, refers to a niche or special interest tourism market as a sub-segment of nature-based tourism. Niche tourism refers to the tourism offering specific products that meet a certain need of a particular market segment. In the case of astro-tourism, astronomical phenomena are the natural resources that play vital roles as the primary tourism attractions. These special attractions distinguish astronomical tourism from other types of nature-based tourism products (Collison and Poe, 2013). Previous literature discusses that astro-tourism activities can be categorised based on two criteria: (1) time of the sky observation (during the day, night and twilight) (2) sky observation with or without an instrument (aided eye or naked eye) (Weaver, 2011).

Various kinds of astronomical tourism products have been actively developed and can be provided in different locations. 'Skygazing,' 'stargazing,' 'northern lights,' 'comets,' 'interesting cloud formations' and 'vivid sunsets' are examples of activities in astronomical tours. Some existing research on astronomical tourism has focussed on a small number of areas like astro-tourists' motivations or their general profiles. However the physical characteristics of a destination and how image formation proceeds in various dimensions of the image have not been considered (Cater, 2009; Collison and Poe, 2013). Therefore, with increasing astronomical tourism market, further research is required on the destination image formation process among astronomical tourists.

Previous literature also argues that various market segments display different behaviours and market heterogeneity has a significant role in the relationships among variables such as destination image and overall satisfaction (Castro et al., 2007). However, there has been a lack of research on psychological tourism elements and destination image formation, when tourists become specialised in a particular activity or in choosing a specific destination (Bricker and Kerstetter, 2000). Therefore, it is important to study the heterogeneous astronomical tourist market and conceptualise multi-dimensions of destination image based on a recreation specialisation perspective.

Literature Review

Recreation Specialisation

Recreation specialisation as a research concept was coined and expanded in two studies by Bryan (1979, 1977). The first study focused on anglers, whereas the second expanded to other recreation activities including hiking, skiing, canoeing, and hunting. The primary goal of Bryan's studies was to provide the conceptual framework to help managers in better understanding the diversity in a given recreation activity amongst its participants.

In tourism studies, various market segmentations have been applied to identify different typologies of the nature-based tourism market (Kim and Brown, 2012; Scott and Thigpen, 2003). Numerous studies on market segmentation classified the typologies of tourists based on their demographic variables, socio-economic variables, behavioural patterns, psychographic and geographic characteristics (Kim and Brown, 2012; Park et al., 2002). Although these typologies give insight into market segmentation, they did not account for previous experience, skills and knowledge of the tourists, which are necessary for identifying different levels of expertise in an astro-tourism market. Scott et al. (2005) argue that recreation specialisation typology helps in understanding a big picture, which includes past experience and skills as well as involvement. The typology used in this study reflects the astronomical tourists casual-expert continuum. This segmentation is necessary since the classification of the astronomical tour activities are based on their level of skill and knowledge compared to other general nature-based tours (Eagle, 2014).

Destination Image

Destination image (DI) has its roots in marketing, social and environmental psychology, tourism, geography and sociology from the early 1970s. Gunn (1972) and Hunt (1975) have introduced the concept of the image into the tourism studies in the early 1970s. Since then, destination image studies in tourism literature have been one of the most "prevalent" (Pike, 2002, p.541) topics in this arena. Later, based on the meta-analysis of the literature by Stepchenkova and Mills (2010), numerous studies investigated the DI concept from various viewpoints, including conceptualisation of the DI construct (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Gallarza et al., 2002), assessment and measurement of DI (Chon, 1990; Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Gallarza et al., 2002; Pike, 2002; Tasci et al., 2007), formation and change of image (Chon, 1990; Gallarza et al., 2002; Tasci and Gartner, 2007), influence of distance on DI (Gallarza et al., 2002), role of residents in DI studies (Gallarza et al., 2002), image management policies (Gallarza et al., 2002; Tasci et al., 2007) and relationship of DI and traveller satisfaction (Chon, 1990).

Understanding tourism destination image has been a persistent issue among tourism marketing and management studies over the last 40 years due to its complicated nature (Mariné Roig, 2013). In postmodern societies, this complexity has been mentioned alongside the argument that visuality is a powerful medium of cognition and representation; because people's behavior is derived from their image rather than an objective reality (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). Therefore, understanding the process of the destination image formation and how other factors influence image formation is crucial for destination marketers to identify their target market and promote an image based on the needs of a particular segment.

Following the previous discussion, integrating models of destination image and building a holistic model is useful to understand the destination image formation process in a relatively new market such as astronomical tourism. An appreciation of this process helps in the understanding of the quality of physical experience reflected in the tourists' destination image concerning its cognitive image from functional and psychological aspects, as well as its affective, conative and overall image. Moreover, destination image affect tourists' decision-making and the destination marketing of a specific astronomical destination. This is due to the fac that in the astronomical observation context the attributes of an appropriate destination have been distinguished based on several criteria including the 'cloudiness of skies, high elevation, freedom from the haze and humidity, and vast empty spaces with little or no light pollution' (Keller, 2010). Since identifying an appropriate astronomical place is a difficult task,

studies in destination image can make a contribution to improve and sustain astronomical destinations (Collison and Poe, 2013).

The conceptual paper integrates the cognitive, affective, conative and overall dimensions of destination image to achieve a comprehensive conceptualisation of destination image formation process in an astronomical tourism context. Here, the cognitive component of destination image refers to "the sum of beliefs and attitudes of [a destination] leading to some internally accepted picture of its attributes" (Gartner, 1993, p. 193). The affective component of the destination image refers to "the motives one has for destination selection" (Gartner, 1993, p. 196). The overall image refers to the positive, negative, or overall evaluation of a product, brand or tourism destination (Beerli and Martín, 2004). And, the conative image is analogous to the behavior (Gartner, 1993).

In summary, understanding the relationships between constructs like recreation specialisation and destination image dimensions (cognitive, affective, conative, and overall image) is beneficial in improving marketing communication messages, and creating different images while offering distinct products and unique experiences for each segment.

Conceptual Propositions

Since tourist destination image formation in an astronomical tourism setting is complex, one theory is necessarily insufficient to examine how destination image formation occurs in the various tourists' segments. In this sense, recreation specialisation theory focuses on low to high tourist involvement in special interest tourism (Bryan, 2000). Previous studies have indicated the role of tourist specialisation in the differences between each segment of past experience, involvement, and self-development (Graefe, 1981; Kuentzel and Heberlein, 1997; Kuentzel and McDonald, 1992). However, few studies have considered the role of tourist specialisation segmentation as an independent variable influencing tourist destination image components. Therefore, research on these relationships will make a major theoretical contribution in understanding complex relationships between heterogeneous astronomical market and destination image components. Accordingly, research preposition 1 to 4 are proposed as:

P1: *Astro-tourism specialisation segmentation will significantly affect the cognitive destination image*

P2: *Astro-tourism specialisation segmentation will significantly affect the affective destination image*

P3: *Astro-tourism specialisation segmentation will significantly affect the conative destination image*

P4: *Astro-tourism specialisation segmentation will significantly affect the overall destination image*

The literature shows affective dimension of the destination image arises from the cognitive dimension (Anand et al., 1988; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martín, 2004; Beerli and Martín, 2004; Holbrook, 1978; Li et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2007; Russell and Hogan, 1980; Stern and Krakover, 1993). Accordingly, research proposition 5 is proposed as:

P5: *The cognitive destination image will significantly affect the affective destination image*

Some researchers claim that the affective component of destination image should be separated from cognitive image in their influence on the conative image to achieve a better understanding on how people assess a place (Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Cai et al., 2004; Li et al., 2010; Russell and Hogan, 1980). Yet other researchers discuss a relationship between destination image and tourists behaviour, and action towards the destination (conative destination image) based on their both cognition and affect (Beerli and Martín, 2004; Beerli and Martín, 2004; Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2009; Bigné et al., 2001; Konecnik and Gartner, 2007; Stepchenkova and Mills, 2010). However, according to Agapito et al. (2013), there is a lack of empirical support to reveal the influence of both cognitive and affective image on the conative image of a destination. Therefore, research propositions 6 and 7 are formulated as:

P6: The cognitive destination image will significantly affect the conative destination image

P7: The affective destination image will significantly affect the conative destination image

Tourism literature suggests that overall destination image is influenced by the cognitive and affective image of a destination. Although, few studies investigated both cognitive and affective components of destination image in understanding the overall image of a destination (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Hosany et al., 2007; Mackay and Fesenmaier, 2000; Stern and Krakover, 1993; Uysal et al., 2000), the majority of image studies only focused on the cognitive image of a destination without considering the possible unique contribution of affective and conative evaluation of a destination on the overall destination image. Consequently, propositions 8, 9, and 10 are established as:

P8: The cognitive destination image will significantly affect the overall destination image

P9: The affective destination image will significantly affect the overall destination image

P10: The conative destination image will significantly affect the overall destination image

To summarise, the theoretical contributions of this study are to (1) conceptualise multiple destination image dimensions in the context of astronomical tourism by integrating previous models of destination image and (2) examine how recreation specialisation affects cognitive, affective, conative and overall destination image. In terms of practical implications, marketers can apply the strategies in this study to identify who the different segments of astronomical tourists are, what they are looking to experience and how they form a destination image.

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Collaborative Destination Marketing: Visitors' Perceptions and Profitability of the Pay-What-You-Want (PWYW) Pricing Method

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Abstract
PWYW as a pricing mechanism has gained some momentum in the marketing literature with very few applications in tourism. This study examines visitors' perceptions of PWYW based on self-assembled tourism packages for a destination and compares the profitability of using such an approach with that of a traditional pricing method. From a sample of 714 visitors to Längenfeld, Austria, the results indicated that visitors primarily assembled four packages out of 20 options offered. These packages had different minimum, maximum and fair prices that these visitors were willing to pay. Visitors who chose a 'Healthy Lifestyle Package' was willing to pay higher prices, for both minimum and maximum prices, compared to the other three packages. PWYW leads to higher profitability for suppliers compared to traditional list prices. Implications for collaborative destination marketing are offered.

In the "I" of the Beholder: Improving Health Communication by Using the First Person Perspective

Frédéric Basso, London School of Economics and Political Science
Benjamin Voyer, London School of Economics and Political Science
Olivia Petit, Imagineering Institute
Kevin Le Goff, Cognitive Psychology Laboratory, Fédération de Recherche, France
Olivier Oullier, Cognitive Psychology Laboratory, Fédération de Recherche, France

The present research draws from studies on food psychology and embodied cognition to investigate the effect of the attribute of the message (pleasure vs. health) and the visual perspective (first vs. third-person perspective) on persuasion using behavioral and neuroimaging (fMRI) experiments.

Endorsement of a Social Marketing Campaign: The Importance of Expertise and Recognition

Shima Behnoosh, Auckland University of Technology,
Michael Naylor, Auckland University of Technology
Geoff Dickson, Auckland University of Technology

The match-up hypothesis suggests that a fit between endorser and context can lead to more favourable campaign results. This study examines endorsers of varying recognition and expertise in a social marketing campaign for promoting sport and physical activity. Results indicate that a celebrity athlete endorser provided the best campaign fit.

Micro-Foundations of Social Service Engagement with 'Hard To Reach' Populations

Graeme Nicholas, Institute of Environmental Science and Research Ltd
Tua Taueetia-Su'a, Victoria University of Wellington

We report a case study examining client-service engagement at an agency serving Pacific people with mental health conditions. We present findings in terms of co-creation of service. We use a model of service-value co-creation to interpret findings, and propose eight micro-foundations that are generally necessary for effective service engagement.

EWOM-Incentives from the Review-Reader's Perspective: Comparing monetary Rewards and altruistic-oriented Alternatives

Thomas Reimer, University of Rostock

Monetary incentives for writing online reviews entail the risk of credibility loss of the reviews from the perspective of review readers who are aware of monetary rewards. This study analyses alternative incentive programs for increasing recommendation likelihood, addressing altruistic motivation to overcome this drawback and compares the effects of the eWOM incentives from a review-reader's perspective.

The Student Learning Contract in a Team-Based Integrated Simulation Course

Quin Tran, University of South Australia
Peter Balan, University of South Australia
Greg Restall, University of South Australia
Mark Mackay, Flinders University

A "grounded" approach using qualitative data to establish a learning contract for a team-based course using a strategic integrated marketing simulation. This identifies desired behaviours of individual students, their allocated team members, and the educator. Results indicate that this helps to create a positive, productive and collaborative learning culture.

Examining the Moderating Role of Chinese Cultural Rules on the Relationship between Emotional Labour Acting Strategies and Micro-expressions

Ka-shing Woo, Lee Shau Kee School of Business and Administration, Open University of Hong Kong
Bobbie YL Chan, Lee Shau Kee School of Business and Administration, Open University of Hong Kong

Surface acting and deep acting are two emotional acting strategies commonly adopted by service employees, and are typically evaluated against specific micro-expressions in extant literature. This study highlights the importance of considering cultural rules and examines the impact of two specific Chinese cultural rules on emotional acting strategies and related micro-expressions.

Adopting an Entrepreneurial Mindset for Theorising about Markets and Marketing
Rod Brodie, University of Auckland

Being "entrepreneurial" has moved beyond what entrepreneurs do. In increasingly dynamic and interactive business environments competitive and collaborative actions occur together within business networks. Within these business networks, increasing attention is being given to an entrepreneurial mindset (i.e. creative, innovative, collaborative etc.) as the way to conduct business and understand markets. If markets and marketing are about value co-creation; businesses, organizations and even governments need to reflect on how else value can be derived/created for their stakeholders beyond traditional marketing perspectives. In this special session, we bring together a panel of scholars who will each present their view on Entrepreneurial Marketing and "Adopting an Entrepreneurial Mindset for Theorising about Markets and Marketing".

Panelists: *Prof Saras Sarasvathy, Prof Kai Storbacka, A/Prof Suvi Nenonen, Prof Rod Brodie and A/Prof Sussie Morrish*

Marketing in The Video Games Industry:
Emerging trends, research discoveries, and the future of gaming
Luke Butcher, Curtin University

This special "pop-up" session will be run as a panel / workshop discussion to explore emerging research areas in the video games industry. Consumer culture theory (CCT) will be investigated to address the following key areas:

- **East v West: the cultural divide in gaming**
- **Virtual Reality: the evolution of how we see gaming**
- **eSports: gaming as a spectator sport**

The session will explore the use of diverse qualitative and quantitative research methodologies targeted at trends in the industry including but not limited to gamer lifestyles, customer segmentation, product innovation, marketing communications, cultural and social factors, and social media. No academic papers are required to be submitted. Come prepared with your knowledge and experience, plenty of questions, and a desire to develop and share some new ideas!

Beyond tipping points: Phase transitions and complex systems
Professor Steven D'Alessandro Charles Sturt University, sdalessandro@csu.edu.au
Associate Professor Hume Winzar, Macquarie University, hume.winzar@mq.edu.au

This session will present current thinking, conceptualisation and modelling of phase transitions, often referred to as 'tipping points' which are occurring in many markets and industries today. Examples of phase transitions are the change in retail structures, stock market crashes, the digitalisation of content and the higher education sector. While these changes may appear at first to be chaotic and unexpected, this session will outline theoretical and methodological approaches in which such changes can be modelled, understood and perhaps predicted in the future.

SPECIAL SESSION PROGRAMME
- *Bossomaier, Terry and D'Alessandro, Steven. Theoretical paper. From tipping points to phase transitions in marketing: Modeling markets as complex systems.*
- *D'Alessandro, Steven and Bossomaier, Terry. Modelling paper. Using the simulation of ecological systems to explain the wheel of retailing*
- *Wilkinson, Ian and Young, Louise. Modelling paper. Computational Science and Complex Adaptive Marketing Systems*
- *Winzar, Hume. Teaching practice paper. Benefits and Challenges of Teaching Systems Thinking to Business School Students.*

Meet The Editors Session
Jörg Finsterwalder, University of Canterbury

- **Australasian Marketing Journal (R. Marshall)**
- **Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics (I. Phau)**
- **Business Horizons (L. Pitt)**
- **Current Issues in Tourism (M. Hall)**
- **International Journal of Wine Business Research (J. Bruwer)**
- **Journal of Business Research (P. Sharma)**
- **Journal of Consumer Behaviour (S. D'Alessandro)**
- **Journal of Product Innovation Management (A. Paladino)**
- **Journal of Services Marketing (L. Bove)**
- **Journal of Service Research (R. Brodie)**
- **Journal of Service Theory and Practice (M. Sigala)**
- **Marketing Theory (R. Brodie)**
- **Service Industries Journal (M. Sigala)**
- **Tourism Geographies (M. Hall)**
- **Wine Business Case Research Journal (A. Gilinsky)**

Consumers' Misbehaviour: What Are The Intervention Strategies?

Ian Phau, Curtin University
Riza Casidy, Deakin University
Michael Lwin, Curtin University

The Consumers' Misbehaviour: What Are The Intervention Strategies? This special session will discuss key issues surrounding consumers' unethical and deviant behaviour. The literature highlights that fraudulent, deviant, unethical and illegal behaviour is more prevalent than ever as modern consumers are more market savvy than ever before (e.g. Abdelhadi et al., 2014). And for the marketing managers and policy makers it is a major challenge to understand how they can effectively combat these issues. Scholars and practitioners will be invited to discuss effective intervention strategies to alleviate consumers from misbehaving. Key discussion points for the special session are intervention strategies for the following topics: (1) digital piracy, (2) counterfeits and (3) retail borrowing.

SPECIAL SESSION PROGRAMME
Ian Phau   (Curtin University)
Riza Casidy   (Deakin University)
Michael Lwin   (Curtin University)
Denni Arli   (Griffith University)
Fandy Tjiptono (Monash University)

What Happens When Retail Meets Research?

Anita Radon, University of Borås
Pia Johansson, University of Borås

We are witnessing the beginning of a seismic shift in retail due to digitalization. However, what is meant by digitalization is less clear. Sometimes it is understood as means for automatization and sometimes it is regarded as equal to e-commerce. Sometimes digitalization is considered being both automatization and e-commerce trough new technology. In recent years there has been an increase in Internet and mobile devise usage within the retail sector and e-commerce is growing, encompassing both large and small retailers. Digital tools such as, new applications are developing rapidly in order to search for information about products based on price, health, environmental and ethical considerations, and also to facilitate payments. Also the fixed store settings are changing due to digitalization and at an overall level; digitalization will lead to existing business models being reviewed, challenged and ultimately changed. More specifically, digitalization has consequences for all parts of the physical stores including customer interface, knowledge creation, sustainability performance and logistics. As with all major shifts, digitalization comprises both opportunities and challenges for retail firms and employees, and these needs to be empirically studied and systematically analysed. The Swedish Institute for Innovative Retailing at University of Borås is a research centre with the aim of identifying and analysing emerging trends that digitalization brings for the retail industry.

Customer Experience – Past, Present and Future

Prof Piyush Sharma, Curtin University (Piyush.Sharma@curtin.edu.au)
Dr Russel PJ Kingshott, Curtin University (R.Kingshott@curtin.edu.au)

This special session will address the above needs by examining the past, present and future of customer experience as a research topic that has emerged in recent times. As this aspect of marketing is still in its early growth stage, this special session will have papers presented on different aspects of the customer experience, from the perspectives of the customers, and the managers firms. We will also examine the recent trends in managing customer experience such as online marketing, social media and omni-channel 24 X 7 retailing and its extension to B2B services in addition to other B2C services such as banking, education, healthcare etc.

SPECIAL SESSION PROGRAMME

"Antecedents and Consequences of Ambidextrous Relationship in B2B Markets", Namwoon Kim (Hong Kong Polytechnic University), Soonhong Min (Yonsei University) and Jae H. Pae (Ewha Womans University)

"Impact of friendship among customers on their perceived value from consumption", Diptiman Banerji, Ramendra Singh and Prashant Mishra (Indian Institute of Management)

"Consumer empowerment in the digital age", Sonia Dickinson, Russel Kingshott, Piyush Sharma and Ram Ramaseshan (Curtin University)

"Can a delightful experience be created? A three-factor model of service delivery", Kenneth K. Kwong (Hang Seng Management College) and John W. K. Leung (City University of Hong Kong)

"Impact of customer reviews on key experience variables of satisfaction and loyalty in the context of online shopping", Nursyazean Mohd Daud, Ravi Bhat (Unitec Institute of Technology), Sanjaya S. Gaur (Sunway University Business School), Agung Yoga Sembada (Monash University)

ANZMAC Strategic Review

Ian Wilkinson, Chair, University of Sydney; Laszlo Sajtos (President, ANZMAC and University of Auckland; Rob Aitken, University of Otago and Yelena Tsarenko Monash

ANZMAC is now nearly 20 years old and a lot has been achieved but we now live in an era in which the nature, role and context of a marketing academic has changed. It is time to reexamine the role and purpose of ANZMAC and to set down future directions. To this end ANZMAC established a Working Party to carry out a strategic review and propose directions for the future. The central questions addressed are:

1. How can ANZMAC best create and deliver value to its various types of members?
2. What additional kinds of services and activities should it consider?
3. Are there any existing activities and structures that should be changed?

Members of the working party were: Ian Wilkinson, Chair, University of Sydney; Laszlo Sajtos (President, ANZMAC and University of Auckland; Rob Aitken, University of Otago and Yelena Tsarenko Monash. In carrying out its work the working party invited submissions and conducted interviews and group discussions at a number of universities in Australia and New Zealand.

The purpose of this special session is to report the results emerging and to discuss the future directions of ANZMAC. The session will consist of an opening presentation by members of the committee. This will be followed by a panel discussion and Q and A involving members of the Working Party plus the Convener of the Fellows Mark Uncles, UNSW. One the basis of the results of their interviews and feedback the Working Party will prepare a Green Paper summarizing their findings and recommendations to be presented and discussed by the ANZMAC Executive. On the basis of these discussions and feedback a final White Paper will be developed by the ANZMAC Executive outlining future directions for ANZMAC.

2ᴺᴰ CCT & INTERPRETIVE WORKSHOP

A/Prof Jan Brace-Govan, Monash University, jan.brace-govan@monash.edu
Dr. Shelagh Ferguson, Otago University, shelagh.ferguson@otago.ac.nz

The *Second ANZMAC Consumer Culture Theory and Interpretive Research Workshop* follows on from the very successful and well-attended first workshop at ANZMAC 2014. Drawing from that first workshop's audience feedback and discussion a more practical, 'hands on' event has been designed. Two key issues emerged as having strong general interest: firstly, how to design a project and secondly, how to connect interpretive data analysis to theory. The 2ⁿᵈ CCT & Interpretive Workshop is a half day event comprising two presenter led sessions, a session for small discussion groups, each led by a CCT researcher, and a final panel session. The timing shown below is indicative and aims to remain in step with the ANZMAC conference program.

WORKSHOP PRESENTERS

A/Professor Diane Martin's academic research employs ethnographic methods in examining relationships between consumers, communities and culture. She has focused one stream of her research on gender issues, demonstrating among other things, ways the world looks different from a non-privileged, non-male position, both in the workplace and in market spaces. Her previous work as a small-business owner has prompted her to study entrepreneurship and market creation. Her scholarship is published in numerous journals in marketing and communication, including *Consumption, Markets and Culture*, the *Journal of Business Ethics*, the *Journal of Applied Communication Research, Journal of Macromarketing, Journal of Marketing Management, Review of Marketing Research and the Journal of Consumer Research.*

Professor Michael Beverland's research explores the nexus between consumption and production with a particular emphasis on the management of brands, design of innovations and how consumers find meaning through consumption or anti-consumption acts. His focus is on deriving practical models and tools for managers to build brand value and excite consumers through the use of qualitative research methods. Michael is an Associate Editor of the *Journal of Marketing Management* and author of over 140 refereed publications in international journals and conferences.

Service Research Retreat (SSR) Workshop

Jörg Finsterwalder, University of Canterbury
Alistair Tombs, University of Queensland

This inaugural SRR will consist of a half-day, research ideas and writing workshop held in conjunction with ANZMAC 2016. The key purpose of this "retreat" is to bring together small teams of like-minded individuals to discuss cutting edge ideas and topics within service research. This retreat has two objectives: first, to provide an interactive and 'hands on' opportunity for participants to enhance the development of new research themes within the service research domain; and second, to help develop these ideas into cohesive, publishable papers. This inaugural SRR will have an overarching theme applied to different research streams. The key theme of this retreat is: "Psychological Ownership in a Service Context".

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Case Teaching, Research, and Publishing Workshop
Dr. Armand Gilinsky, Sonoma State University, gilinsky@sonoma.edu
Dr. Mary Barrett, University of Wollongong, mbarrett@uow.edu.au
Dr. Marlene M. Reed, Baylor University, Marlene_Reed@baylor.edu

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WORKSHOP INFORMATION

Part I

Case Teaching: Choices and Tradeoffs

Tired of your students acting like codfish (open mouth, no sound comes out) during case discussions? Unsure what constitutes a good opening question for a case discussion? Do you have concerns about issues such as: how to deal with "dead air" or "chip shots", class participation or contribution grading, using whiteboards or other visual and multimedia aids effectively, teaching cases on-line, and more? To answer these questions, this interactive session will give participants an opportunity to participate in an actual case discussion and debrief what happened. This three-phase case discussion demonstration and facilitated roundtable critique of the discussion process offers opportunity for experienced case teacher participants to hone their skills and for novice case instructors to learn from experienced case discussion facilitators. The phases include: a) a demonstration case discussion, b) facilitated critique and discussion at roundtables, and c) reflection on the session's learning outcomes for participants. Intended audience: academics and lecturers interested in using discussion-based learning via case discussions in the classroom.

Part II

How to Write and Publish Cases

Are you interested in developing exciting interactive learning materials for the classroom or for publication? This workshop provides a hands-on practice in and describes the key elements of developing an outstanding written or multimedia teaching case and instructor's manual that together contribute to achieving mastery of program and course learning outcomes. Guidance for developing successful course projects involving student-created cases that can be used for publication or for outcomes assessment will also be provided. Intended audience: academics and doctoral students interested in developing and publishing outstanding products of field case research.

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