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Abstract of Selected Papers

The role of hedonism, sociability and technical convenience as drivers of customer engagement among mobile app users

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Introduction

The increased use of smart phones with mobile applications (apps) along with the changing consumer behaviour persuade marketers to make effective marketing strategies for customer engagement through this platform which may enhance customer satisfaction. Companies have welcomed mobile apps as an additional communication channel to attract new customers and increase brand loyalty among existing ones (Wang, Kim, and Malt house 2016).

Where most of the mobile apps were developed as user friendly and information retrieval applications such as messengers, payment channels, ebook reader, currency converter, handheld gaming device, for GPS and weather information, the mobile app market has surged due to consumer demand and ease of accessibility. The difficulty in satisfying the end user has always been a challenge in market-driven software engineering, but due to huge competition among mobile apps, meeting the consumer expectations is become challenging for app developers (Lim *et al.* 2015). According to the statistics the age group that spends the most time on apps is 18-24 with a monthly average of 90.6 hrs on Smart phone apps, 34.7 hrs. on tablet apps. It shows how important are mobile apps for people when they live a really active social life. According to Van Doorn *et al.* (2010) a customer engagement behaviour acts as a basis for differentiating customers when pursuing long-term customer relationship. Many researchers indicate that customer engagement acts as an antecedent of customer perceived value, satisfaction and loyalty {e.g., Mollen and Wilson (2010), Brodie, Ilic, Juric, and Hollebeek (2013)}, meanwhile Kim and Wachter (2013a) argue that satisfaction with services is a precondition of customer engagement behaviour.

There is no affirmation of what persuades customer engagement in mobile applications, especially while considering specific factors while analysing the behaviour of mobile applications users. Thus, this research explores to contribute to the current body of knowledge by answering the following question: **What are the drivers of young consumers engagement in mobile applications?** Therefore, the aim of this research is to reveal factors influencing students' engagement in mobile applications, since they can be considered to represent young consumer's behaviour using this digital platform. The following review of literature will reveal that although CE dimensions are generic, constituting the three dimensions, "cognitive, emotional, behavioural", it can also be context specific. Therefore, this study is aimed at identifying the CE dimensions that drive student's engagement in the mobile app context.

Review of Literature

Customer engagement: Engagement has been interpreted with different meanings in various contexts. In the present business world scenario, engagement has been termed as a contract. In management literature, it has been discussed as an organizational activity with the internal stakeholders. In marketing, engagement has been discussed as an activity of the customer toward the firm and is termed as customer engagement (CE) (Kumar *et al ,.* 2010; Brodie *et al.,* 2011; Vivek *et al.*, 2012).We suggest that when a relationship is satisfied and has emotional bonding, it then progresses to the stage of engagement. Reinartz and Kumar (2002) echo the importance of engaging customers by noting that "to identify the true apostles, companies need to judge customers by more than just their actions" (p.4). So the focus of the research has been on important aspects like behavioral, emotional and cognitive metrics in measuring customer engagement. Customers today have the power of building or destroying a brand. They can promote, advocate or defend a brand (Christopher *et al.,* 1991).

It is very essential to understand, manage and manipulate every customer's expectations to an organizations benefit and this can best be achieved by exhibiting speedy, courteous and responsive behavior thereby enhancing customer engagement, which in turn will result in customer satisfaction (Rajah *et al.,* 2008). A satisfied customer will make repeat purchases, an engaged customer however, would go beyond purchases and provide referrals, talk about the brand on social media, and provide positive feedback about the company, all of which are components of CE (Anita Pansari & V. Kumar, 2016). Customer satisfaction has been linked to firm profits and shareholder value (Aiste Dovaliene et al.2016).Although the three generic dimensions namely, cognitive, behavioral and emotional are often cited to make up customer engagement, there are specific dimensions cited by researchers in varied contexts (Hollebeek, 2012).For example, Mollen and Wilson (2010) identify "active sustained cognitive processing", Higgins and Scholer (2009) "attention", and Hollebeek (2011b) "immersion" as specific dimensions of CE. These dimensions may stimulate the consumer to act, i.e., the consumer is not passive user, but an active user who increases the brand value. In a dynamic business environment, customer engagement enables sales promotion, product quality improvement, increase in customer satisfaction, decrease in costs and risk, and rise of competitive advantage (Brodie, Ilic, Juric & Hollebeek, 2013) whereas other authors (e.g., Rajah et al., 2008) stress the indirect influence that customer engagement has in value creation and distinguish the relationship between intermediate factors such as satisfaction, trust and CE and the strength of relationship.

Factors of customer engagement in mobile applications: The main challenges companies face in today's mobile environment is to find out how to acquire and retain customer attention Zhao and Balague (2015). In such circumstances achieving customer engagement is a tough task, especially among students. However, younger users and their usage of mobile devices may demonstrate behavioural engagement. In reference with the various research (e.g., Van Doorn, *et al.,* 2010; Gambetti, & Graffigna, 2010), it could be stated that individual customer characteristics and company efforts may both lead to different levels of customer engagement.

Bellman *et al.* (2011) analyse branded apps and indicate two categories of those apps: informational and experiential. Informational app content, referring to Kim, Lin, Sung (2013b), provides utilitarian or functional experiences, letting consumers to achieve their goals more easily

(for example, to save money, to pay for services, get coupons, etc.). In contrast, "experiential content offers experiential-based incentives (e.g., games, chat rooms), provides intrinsic enjoyment and entertainment" (Kim *et al.,* 2013b, p. 56). It was suggested that "hedonic properties can themselves contribute to engagement strength" (Higgins & Scholer, 2009), i.e. a customer may in advance anticipate pleasure from particular activity, and those expectations may lead to a greater engagement. According to Zhang *et al.* (2014), customer sociability occurs through mutual interactions in social/ mobile environments, which could be treated as a platform for customers with similar interests, where they may recommend and comment on various services. Many researchers have propounded satisfaction as a consequence of customer engagement, however many researchers have proved it as an antecedent of customer engagement behaviour (e.g. Van Doorn *et al.,* 2010, Kim *et al.,* 2013a).

In reference with the above literature analysis, factors of customer engagement in mobile applications are grouped into three groups, similar to suggestions of Kim *et al.* (2013a).

i) Technical convenience: User friendly and the quality of information (Mollen & Wilson, 2010); Accessibility of technology (Mollen & Wilson, 2010; Zhang *et al.,* 2014); Design and functionality (Kim *et al.,* 2013a); Communication of company (Kim *et al.,* 2013b); Practical side of problem solving (Higgins & Scholer, 2009; Kim *et al.,* 2013a) **ii) Hedonism**: The pursuit of pleasure; sensual self-indulgence and Experienced pleasure (Kim *et al.,* 2013b; Kim *et al.,* 2013a; Mollen & Wilson, 2010); Relaxing (Ho & Syu, 2010); Feeling of winner (Krishna *et al.,* 2013) **iii) Customer sociability**: Social interactivity; Personal integrity and personal identity (Zhang *et al.,* 2014); Social skills (Zhang *et al.,* 2014; Hollebeek *et al.,* 2014; Kim *et al.,* 2013a); The need of feedback (Krishna *et al.,* 2013); Personal competencies (Banyte *et al.,* 2014)

Research Methodology: Data was gathered from 135 students in the age group of 17-25 using a five point like scale using scales from the extant literature for the constructs under study. The questionnaire contained two parts, part 'A' collected general demographic information and part 'B' contained the statements for the constructs under study. A factor analysis was performed to identify whether the three dimensions of CE and the three factors of CE in mobile app context loaded into separate factors. Correlation and regression analysis were later performed to understand which the strongest predictors of CE in this context are. ANOVA was also performed to understand if demographic factors caused difference in its associations with the constructs under study.

Findings: All three dimensions of CE namely "cognitive, behavioural and emotional" loaded separately with a factor loading of more than 0.5 and likewise the factors of mobile app CE namely, "hedonism, technical convenience, and customer sociability". It was found that 'hedonism' was the strongest predictor of CE followed by 'technical convenience' and thereafter 'customer sociability' differing from previous findings. It was also found that there is a significant difference caused by gender on the perceptions about mobile app CE factors.

The study reveals the important dimensions that young users look for in mobile apps and can benefit marketers to better engage with them using this platform in order to enhance customer engagement.

Keywords: Customer engagement, mobile apps, students, hedonism, technical convenience, customer sociability.

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Nostalgia in Crisis: Understanding Nostalgia Advertising and Consumer-brand Relationship after a Crisis

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Post-crisis communication is pivotal to the sustenance of a company that has recently faced a crisis. Prior research informs us that when a crisis strikes a company, customers tend to evaluate their relationship with the company. Based on their evaluation, they either choose to continue or head in another direction; In fact, studies have shown that when crisis hits the company, then wrongdoing/attributions of wrongdoing is likely to affect consumers' purchase of the company's products and services (see Brian K. Jorgensen, 1996). Though post-crisis communication is so important for the sustenance of a company, most companies struggle to communicate with customers after a crisis. Firstly, companies are ill-prepared to handle crisis (Dawar and Pillutla, 2000). Secondly, what makes it worse is that they are even lesser prepared with their post-crisis communication strategy. For example, the food conglomerate, Nestle India, was recently in the eye of a storm when its market-leading noodles called Maggi was banned in India because of its excessive levels of lead and monosodium glutamate. Eventually, the ban on Maggi was lifted, but not before the company recalled the products for fear that consumers' trust had been compromised (The Economist, June 30, 2015)[1]. When Maggi was reintroduced into the market, the company first adopted an advertising approach that focused on highlighting "safety". After a few months, in the light of reduced revenues, Nestle India shifted to 'nostalgia advertising' as part of recovery management that focused on 'memories, good times, and fond moments with Maggi'.[2] The case of Maggi begs the following question: Is nostalgia advertising the mantra to handle crisis in all crisis situations?

Research findings indicate that one way of engaging and communicating with consumers is to make advertising content personally relevant to them by using situations or events that they experienced in the past (Merchant et al., 2013). Nostalgia, a collection of fond and meaningful memories that makes individuals feel sentimental, tender or happy (Lasaleta, Sedikides, & Vohs, 2014) is used extensively in advertisements (Latour et al., 2013; Sullivan, 2009) to positively impact consumers. Specifically, studies have shown that nostalgia advertisements created positive reactions and attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand; it was also shown to increased purchase intentions (see Sprott and Meuhling, 2002). Also, nostalgia advertisements led to positive and emotional factors that increased consumer preference for the brand (Reisenwitz, Iyer, and Cutler, 2004; Sierra and McQuitty, 2007). Despite the immense array of empirical work on nostalgia and advertisement research, surprisingly, the use of nostalgia advertisements during post-crisis communication has not been examined until now; this research aims to bridge this gap. Knowing that companies struggle with their post-crisis communication, greater academic and practical insights into a nuanced understanding of how and when nostalgia advertisements can help in crisis situations, is warranted in order to offer practical implications for marketers.

This study suggests that the use of nostalgia advertisements in post-crisis communication can effectively influence consumers' evaluations of their relationship with the brand because of the following three reasons:

- Nostalgia helps consumers evaluate past events favorably and connect the past events' relevance to the present event (see Lasaleta, Sedikides, & Vohs, 2014). This positive favorable evaluation of the past and its subsequent relation to the present can be of utmost importance during a post-crisis when the consumer's trust has been shaken. Nostalgic advertisements help in downplaying the negative effect of the crisis in the minds of consumers by focusing on the emotional connection that consumers enjoyed with the brand all along.
- The appeal of nostalgia will be greater in a crisis because an external reference is not used: consumers are comparing their present with their own past. As consumers tend to trust their personal lived memories more than vicariously learned ones, nostalgia is more likely to lead to positive evaluation of the consumers' relation with the brand (Bartier, 2011).
- Nostalgia is a coping mechanism (see Bambauer-Sachse and Gierl, 2009) that helps consumers come to terms with the present crisis circumstances or uncertainties about the future.

What is not clear at this point is whether all nostalgia-based advertisements result in positive customer-brand relationships. Though research findings (see Reisenwitz, Iyer, and Cutler, 2004) show that nostalgia-based advertisements positively influence consumers' attitudes towards the product and product intention, it needs to be examined if these findings will hold true in post-crisis communication as well. It is not clear whether nostalgia-based advertisement will have the same positive effect on consumer evaluations in all crisis situations. On the one hand, because nostalgia advertising appeals to the emotions of the consumer, it is likely to enhance the emotional bonding that the consumer has with the brand. On the other hand, nostalgia advertisements could also be subtle reminders of how the brand breached consumer trust in times of crisis ---in which case, the effect of nostalgic advertisements will negatively influence consumer-brand relationship evaluations. An important concept that researchers have been examining in relation to consumer-brand relationship is whether the company has committed a transgression that has led to a crisis. The research findings on consumer-brand relationship in the context of a transgression (or a crisis) remains inconclusive (see Chung and Beverland, 2006). Some studies demonstrated that crisis do not affect consumer-brand relationships negatively (Mattila, 2001), while other studies showed consumer-brand relations did suffer in case of crisis (Aaker et al. 2004). These findings are of particular interest to this study because they help understand how customer-brand relationships can be positively or negatively affected by transgressions or crisis. Combining nostalgia advertisements, transgression research and consumer-brand relationship will provide a nuanced understanding of the role of nostalgia advertising on customer-brand relationship. This study suggests that one reason for positive or negative consumer-brand relationship evaluations by the consumer: whether the company has indeed committed a transgression. This study proposes that the asymmetry between committing a transgression and not committing a transgression leads to a moderation of nostalgia advertising, such that the effect is positive when the company has not committed a transgression and negative when the company has committed a transgression.

This study proposes that the use of nostalgia in advertising will have a positive effect on the consumers' evaluation of the company when the company has not committed a transgression. Because nostalgia reminds consumers of a past good bonding, it is more likely to cement future strong relations by increasing consumer trust and consumer loyalty. On the other hand, if the

company has committed a transgression, nostalgia-based-advertising will have a negative effect on the consumers' relationship with the company because it is likely to lower customer trust by signaling a breach of trust by the brand. In a series of experiments, the study attempts to examine the hypothesis, and to offer practical implications on how and when brands could effectively use nostalgia advertising to maximize consumer brand relationships, especially in fragile times as in a crisis.

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Effect of assortment on impulse buying: An empirical research

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The concept of Impulse buying as a marketing tool explores dating back to the 1950's.First to study impulse buying mix, Clovez (1950) pointed out that some product categories are better sold on impulse. However, Appenbaum (1951) first suggested that impulse purchasing may be dependent on the exposure customer gets while in the store, Nesbitt (1959) considered it as intelligent shopping which implied that smart shoppers usually do not plan their purchases, but look for in-store promotions and maximize their buying power.

Stern (1962) categorized a purchase into planned, unplanned, or impulse on the basic framework of impulse buying. Planned purchases involve more time-wastage and logical decision making, whereas impulse buying refers to all shopping decisions made without any advance planning. According to Engel and Blackwell (1982) impulse buying is referred as an action taken without being previously consciously recognized or without forming any intention prior to entering the store. Based on above descriptions, we conclude that impulse buying behavior involves hedonic purchase decisions which are made while a customer is inside a store.

Rook (1987) defined impulse buying as a sudden often powerful and persistent urge experienced by customer to buy something immediately. This is hedonically complex and is capable of stimulating emotional conflict". Similarly, Block and Morwitz (1999) enunciated impulse buying where customer experiences almost zero deliberation getting an item; as a result of a sudden, powerful urge. Kacen and Lee (2002) explained nature of impulsive buying as arousing and irresistible nature and far less deliberative than planned purchasing behavior.

The importance of Impulse Buying is massive and retailers have perceived the same quite a while ago. Truth be told, this is indeed a central point in numerous purchasing exercises. Impulse Buying is mostly considered synonymous with "spontaneous purchasing/Unplanned buying" – it essentially portrays any purchase a customer makes however has not been planned in advance. However, it is more of a narrower concept than unplanned purchasing. It is represented by a sudden urge in consumer to buy something immediately with no regards to the consequences.

The fundamental shifts in consumer spending patterns have expansive ramifications not just for retailers but for manufacturers and marketers of consumer products and services. The key lies in deciphering this change in consumer behavior patterns and thereby the change in the wallet-share of consumers. The objective of assortment planning is to specify an assortment that maximizes sales and profits subject to various limitations like, a restricted budget, limited rack space for showing items etc. The importance of assortments in with respect to consumers' impulse buying behavior has received minimal attention in the literature in the past.

However, nowadays assortment planning has become a matter of high priority for consultants, software providers and retailers. But, no proper and efficient solution has yet emerged for the same. Our aim is to overview the approaches to assortment planning used by several retailers and examine its effects

on impulse buying behavior of consumers; thus provide some suggestive directions for maximizing sales and profits.

Conceptual Framework

In this research, the independent variables are assortment factors and product factors and the dependent variable is the Impulse Buying Frequency

It is hypothesized that assortment size, low price, store size, special displays, hedonic score, density and entropy will impact the impulse buying behavior of the customer. Further, the Trait variable impulse buying tendency of customers also play a highly significant role in their buying decisions.

Earlier studies have stated that, when compared to assortments with fewer choices, larger assortments were preferred more (Broniarczyk, Hoyer and McAlister 1998, Chernev 2006, Hufman and kahn 1998).

In contrary, Chernev 2003, Iyengar and Leppar (2000), Schwartz (2004), Kristin Diehl and Cait Poynor, 2010 demonstrated that in certain instances too many options can often result in customers not choosing anything and remain unsatisfied instead.

Store assortment according to John T Gourville and Dilip Soman influences the customer choice. Their research 'over choice and Assortment Type: When and why Variety backfires' infers that more number of choices for customers and different assortment type make the customer to over choice. They choose only one construct "Assortment type" with two options Alignable and Non- alignnable, where the former assortment is a set of brand variants that differ along a single, compensatory dimension and later is one in which the brand variants vary along multiple, non-compensatory dimensions, such that while one alternative possesses one desirable feature, a second alternative possesses another desirable feature. From the journal it has been concluded that align able assortment tactics helps increase the impulsive buying nature of customer. A research by Erica Van Herpen and Rik Pieters (2002) 'The Variety of an Assortment: An Extension to the Attribute-Based Approach 'shows people always prefer variety in product categories.

As per the past researches density is inversely proportional to the attribute variability and thus creates more difficulty for the consumer to make a choice, Shugan (1980).Also it results in negating the attribute values of products. On basis of density, assortments can be categorized as High density assortments where differences in utility between products is less and Low density assortments- differences in utility between products is high. Dhār (1997) showed that the chances for consumers to face choice difficulty, significantly increases as and when the difference in attractiveness among products is decreasing. Research by Dittmar et al. (1995) states that emotionally appealing products have more chances to be impulsively purchased as compared to non-emotionally appealing products. It is easier to justify the choice of utilitarian needs and virtues as opposed to hedonic indulgences and vices (Kivetz 1999; Kivetz and keinan 2006, Bazerman, Tenbrunsel and Wade-Benzoni 1998 ;). Even though a study by McGoldrick (1982) has interpreted that price was not a prime criterion for impulsive buying. Cobb and Hoyer (1986) found that about 9% percent of impulsive buyers were influenced by price.Research in the past has enlightened the fact that the way in which any information is presented influences consumers' way of processing information about the brands .i.e. consumers rely on the information display format for decision-making. Morales et al. (2005) stated that there is high probability of consumer perceiving greater

variety when external structure of the shelf display matches with the consumer's internal structure of category. Abratt and Goodey (1990) defined impulse buying as a purchase decision which is made in-store with no explicit need for such a purchase prior to entry into the store. Assortments in organized retail stores are designed in such a manner so that it allures the senses of the consumers into making Impulse purchases. The increasing disposable share of wallet of the consumers is also an additional factor leading to the increase in Impulse purchases by the customers. (Kacen and Lee, 2002). There have been many studies (e.g., Kollat and willet.1967) on the influence of in-store stimuli on impulse behavior of consumers; however these studies do not consider how customer impulse purchase would vary across various store sizes. Small-sized retail stores, when compared to bigger stores are less capable of attracting customers for impulse purchase.

Methodology

In our study we collected our primary data by surveying shoppers and collecting assortment details in different retail stores. All variables were measured through different approaches.Our dependent variable is Impulse Buying Frequency. We requested the customers to show their bills or share the information of the purchases they have made. Among those purchases, we further asked them to identify the planned and reminded purchases. We termed these items as non-impulse purchases. Segregating these from the remaining set of products in their bill / shopping bags we were able to find the exact amount of impulse purchases made by them. For every respondent the number of items bought on impulse was termed as IB. And IB as a percentage of total purchases made by that respondent gave us our dependent variable (IBF). IB = Purchases made on Impulse

IBF % = (IB / Total Purchases) * 100 %.

Independent Variables were measured as follows:

a. Assortment Size: For every product listed in the consumers' bill, we collected the shelf inventory details. This gave us the assortment size of the products.
b. Entropy: For every product, we noted the number of variants in the product line. This included an extensive study of breadth and depth of each product.
c. Density: We further scrutinized to measure the differences among the various variants across the breadth and depth of the product line. The less difference among the variants, accounted to high density where as if the variants were widely separated, the density was termed as low. For instance, ice cream scored low on density due to flavors such as chocolate, vanilla, strawberry etc. But Chocolate cookies scored high due to flavors such choco-chips, choco-nuts, dark chocolate, choco-fantasy etc. Once we assigned a low/high density score to each product, we coded them as 0/1 respectively.
d. Hedonic Score: We rated the hedonic quotient of every product on a scale of 1 to 100. The scores of products varied both across the categories and within the categories. For example, between groceries and confectionaries, Groceries scored lesser Hedonistic. However within Groceries, between Rice and Basmati Rice, Basmati Rice was more hedonistic.
e. Display Scores: There were some products which had a separate visual layout displayed by their respective shelves. Display against such products was marked as Yes. And for remaining was marked as No. They were then coded as 1 and 0 respectively.

f. Price: The prices of the products were noted down either directly from the bill. For respondents who showed the items but did not share their bill's copy, we collected the product information such as weight (50g, 100g) or size (small, medium, large) flavour or fragrance, and then later identified the price from the products placed in the racks.

g. Store Size: In addition to the variables we had finalized after our literature review, we included an additional independent variable, store size. The store was scored on the scale of 1 to 10 on the basis of how large or small the store was in terms of area and space.

For measuring the trait variable, Impulse Buying Tendency - A structured questionnaire with a 5-point Likert Scale, was used to measure impulse buying tendency of customers. We approached the shoppers of store chain outlets on their exit from the store and request them to help us with our survey. This was done alongside measuring our DV through the list of the products they bought.

As each respondent had purchased multiple products, across different categories, we assimilated the data in following way.

Values of Assortment Size, Hedonic Scores, Density, and Price of all products were averaged to give Average assortment size, Average Hedonic Scores, Average Density, Average Price. However, for Display, we took a summation of different display scores that resulted in Average Display Score. These gave single values for each attribute against each respondent.

IBT (Impulse Buying Tendency measured through questionnaire) had a single value already. It was directly utilized as it is. Same held true for IB (number of impulse purchases), IBF (percentage of impulse purchase as a proportion of total purchase), and Store size too.

Results

In first phase, we accounted only the impulse purchases. Meaning, the planned and reminded purchases were not considered at all for statistical analysis.

The responses with 0% IBF were thus completely negated while performing the reliability analysis. The cronbach's alpha of the survey came out to be .783.

As per the regression output, only two attributes came out to be significant; Impulse Buying Tendency and Store Size. All other hypothesis, stand rejected as per this. It is a personality trait that would differ from customer to customer. As this has the highest beta coefficient, it strongly impacts the impulse buying frequency in a positive manner. While store managers do not have a control on this factor, studies like this can help them understand the buying patterns of such individuals who are high in IBT. The categories and products that these customers are interested in can be captured to make inventory and assortment decisions thereby. As per the results, bigger the store, more is the impulse buying. However we cannot conclude this confidently, as the data incorporated in this analysis is reflective of only two stores.

As we could not substantiate our findings satisfactorily, we checked the correlation matrix and felt the need to do factor analysis. As IBT is a trait variable, we treated it as a separate variable independent of these factors.

We were unable to name the factors. However, we ran a regression with the new factors and IBT as independent variables. This indicates that IBT remains a significant variable. And among the three factors, Factor 1 (Assortment Size, Price, Density and Store Size) and factor 3 (Display score) are significant.

As per our hypothesis, price negatively impacts the impulse purchase. Thus due to the ambiguity of our results, we removed price and conducted a factor analysis, followed by a regression. As per the second factor analysis results, apart from IBT, factor 2 (Assortment Size, Density, and Store Size) are significant. However, we again failed to name the factors. This is why we took another approach for our study.

In phase 2, the non-impulse purchases were also taken into account. Hence, we repeated all the steps of data collection and assimilation. But now, we did not negate the customers who did not buy anything on impulse. Cronbach's alpha of this survey came out to be .784

The regression results indicated that IBT, store size, entropy and hedonic score are significant variables. However, entropy and store size are impacting impulse buying negatively. The fact that our hypothesis with respect to hedonic products was accepted, can be accredited to the fact that even not hedonic categories like groceries have possibility of hedonic scores attached to them. Generally these categories are reflected in planned purchases and hence not many such products got enlisted in first analysis. Linear Regression was followed by running a correlation among independent variables, which stipulated the requisite of factor analysis. Leaving the IBT (as it is a trait variable), we ran a factor analysis on all other independent variables (as they can be contemplated as store variables). Three factors were recognized viz. assortment features, product features and store features. On running regression with IBT and these factors as independent variables, we find that apart from the IBT only store features are significant. As the assortment features are significant, which is of our prime interest, it is difficult to substantiate the output and make recommendations by that means. Hence, we make managerial implications only on the basis of linear regression. For finer factor analysis and interpretations, further research is required.

Contributions of the Study

The key managerial implications are

- As hedonic scores are significant with second phase analysis, store managers should store more hedonic products to promote sales.
- As IBT is significant in both phases, they should identify customers with high IBT scores and follow or track their buying patterns so as to consider those aspects while making assortment decisions.
- As assortment size is not significant in any of the phases, stores need not focus on increasing the shelf inventory. Rather should keep attractive products i.e. more hedonic products to boost the sales.
- Entropy is negatively impacting the impulse buying frequency. While this can be attributed to the choice overloading concept, further studies are required to make a recommendation as strong as lowering the entropy. Further, how much loading is over loading is what needs to be clarified.

- While our hypothesis of score size was accepted in Phase1, we cannot conclude it with sanguinity. Reason being, phase 2 exemplifies better heterogeneity. However, Phase 2 results, denote that store size negatively impacts impulse buying frequency. This can be traced to multiple reasons like
- In smaller stores, the products are in proximity to the consumer, which is why customer tends to buy more on impulse across various categories. On the other hand, in bigger stores there are separate counters for different categories. So the impulse purchases will be restricted to the shelves in the vicinity of the planned products/categories only.
- In larger stores, customer might find all items in the planned items in the list and hence the need/ time/money to do impulse purchase is reduced. However this might not be the case in smaller stores, as people may not find all the items of their list. So planned items will be lesser than impulse purchases, thereby reducing the IBF. However, it would be highly un-intelligent to advise the retail chain outlets to prefer lesser carpet area over larger. Probably an experiment on reshuffling of assortments can give better insights and understanding on the size aspect.

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Role of retailer equity and perceived risk on private label brand attitude

Manikandan. M.K.M & Ganesan.S

The Indian retail market is unique Compared to the western developed nations. In India, one can find small shops in every corner of the street stocking all type of goods required for a family. In contrast to the developed western countries where people travel certain distance to buy even the very basic items like medicine, the Indian retail market has stores close to residential locations making India the leading country with highest number of outlets (13448) per million. The total numbers of retail outlets in India are roughly around 13 million and almost 95 percent of these were less than 500 square feet size[1]. One of the strategies the Indian organized retailers embrace from the western countries for profitable operation is the use of private labels in their category mix. Private labels are preferred by all major retailers as it provides more margins compared to the national brand and hence they are stocked close to national brands.

American Marketing Association defines Private Label Brand (PLB) as "A brand that is owned by the product's reseller rather than by its manufacturer". Kumar and Steenkamp (2007) reports that private label accounts for one of every five items sold every day in US supermarkets and drug stores. PLB offers higher gross margin in the range of 25-50 per cent compared to manufactured brands (Keller, 1993). Even though huge number of researches were conducted on private label brands, not much study were conducted on the influence of retailer equity and perceived risk factors on PLB. The researchers are interested to the likely influence of these two factors on the PLB

Retailer equity is defined as the difference in the result of marketing activities focused on the brand compared to the result in the absence of the same brand (Aaker, 1991). Using the consumer based brand equity approach, Yoo and Donthu (2001) classified four dimensions to study the retailer equity. The variables studied by them are (1) retailer awareness, (2) retailer association, (3) retailer perceived quality and (4) retailer loyalty.

The perceived risk is the expected negative utility associated with the purchase of a particular brand. A study done by Jacoby and Kaplan (1972) identified five dimensions of perceived risk: namely financial, performance, physical, psychological, and social. Roselius (1971) classified perceived risk into four dimensions: time loss as time risk, hazard loss also called as physical risk, ego loss also called as psychological loss and money loss or financial risk. It was found that the consumer was willing to pay a price premium when there was insufficient information on the product. He tried to get the hierarchy of risk relievers for each dimension. He defined risk reliever as an action initiated by the consumer or marketer to reduce the perceived risk. Some of the risk relievers are loyalty, buying expensive brands, getting advice from others, consulting product studies, comparing products and brands, shopping around, word of mouth communication and others. Greatorex and Mitchell (1994) have categorized risks associated with purchase of a product into four groups namely Functional/ Physical, Psychosocial, Financial and Time related risks.

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[1] https://www.dnb.co.in/IndianRetailIndustry/overview.asp

Narasimhan and Wilcox (1998) postulated that consumers prefer national brands to PLB when the level of perceived risk in buying the PLB in that category is high. One of the determinants of risk is the degree of inconvenience of making a mistake (Dunn, Murphy and Skelly, 1986).

Objective:

A model is proposed with retailer equity and perceived risk factors as independent variables influencing the dependent variable attitude on private label brand. The fitness of the model is checked with the following hypotheses.

H_{A1} - The perceived risk elements influence in the consumer attitude on PLB.
H_{A2} - The retailer equity variables play an influencing role in private label brand attitude development.

Scope of the paper

The study will facilitate marketers to identify variables that influence PLB, paving way to optimize their strategy. This may lead to improved profitability to retail organizations.

Methodology

Data was collection to prove the proposed model in Coimbatore, Madurai, Tirupur – major urban conglomerates in Tamil Nadu, through a standardized structured questionnaire. The instrument was adopted from original contributors and consisted of three parts namely retailer equity (Pappu and Quester, 2006), perceived risk factors covering financial risk, functional risk and perceived social risk (Mieres et al, 2006) and private label brand attitude (Burton et al, 1998). Convenience sampling method was used to collect the details. A total of 630 responses were obtained from the survey. 592 responses were found to be filled completely and taken up for the analysis.

Results and Discussion:

The completed responses consisted of 56 per cent female and 44 per cent male respondents. 45 per cent were graduates and 28 per cent were post graduates remaining 27 per cent were educated at the school level. Majority of the respondents were falling in the age 21-50. Though the study was conducted by using pre-tested standardized questionnaire the reliability of each construct was tested separately and can be found from the table below.

Cronbach's Alpha

Factor	Cronbach's Alpha	No of items
Retailer Equity	.847	15
Perceived risk factors	.604	11
Private label brand attitude	.674	6

Correlation study among the variables show the financial and social risk dimensions were negatively correlated to the private label attitude. But the retailer equity variables were found to be influencing the private label brand attitude positively. Among them, retailer perceived quality and retailer loyalty were found to be strongly influencing the attitude. It is interesting to note here that the functional risk is not related with the retailer awareness and retailer association variables but was negatively correlated to the retailer perceived quality and retailer loyalty factors, though weakly. It denotes that the perceived quality of the store and customer loyalty towards the store reduces the functional risks associated with the product. The financial risk has no correlation with the retailer perceived quality and retailer loyalty. But the retailer awareness and retailer association has a negative correlation with financial risks although weakly. Contrary to the other two risks, social risk was found to be correlated negatively with all of the four variables of retailer equity variables.

Model Fit Analysis

Structural Equation Modeling was used to study the covariance of the variables. AMOS software was applied on the data set. Among the existing 30 plus indices available to check the fitness of the model, few indices were majorly used by researchers. Some of the model indices are, RMSEA, Chi Square to Degree of freedom, CFI, TLI, GFI, AGFI, and SRMR. Hair et al (2006), states that in evaluating SEM more than one indices is to be considered than relying on single indices. Hu and Bentler (1999) came out with two index presentation strategy, in which the fit indices TLI & SRMR, RMSEA & SRMR and CFI & SRMR combinations were recommended. SEM analysis has shown the variables retailer perceived quality and retailer loyalty having positive influence whereas the functional risk has negative influence. The retailer awareness and retailer loyalty variables influences the social risk negatively and the retailer perceived quality is negatively influencing functional risk.

Model Fitness indices (Hair et al, 2006)

Model indices	CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Significant Values	<3	>=.9	>=.9	>=.9	>=.9	<.05	<.09
Values in the model	2.880	.982	.836	.917	.974	.052	.0431

From the above table the model fit indices are proving that the overall model fits well as many indices are above the significant value. The CMIN /DF value at 2.88 (Kline, 2005) is well within the required 3:1, and GFI, CFI which are the measures of goodness of fit are in the acceptance levels with values above .9. RMSEA, SRMR are the indices for badness of fit and the values must be close to zero for better fit. RMSEA comes close to the required value and SRMR is less than .05 at .0431. The respective model indices in this model also fall within the acceptable level.
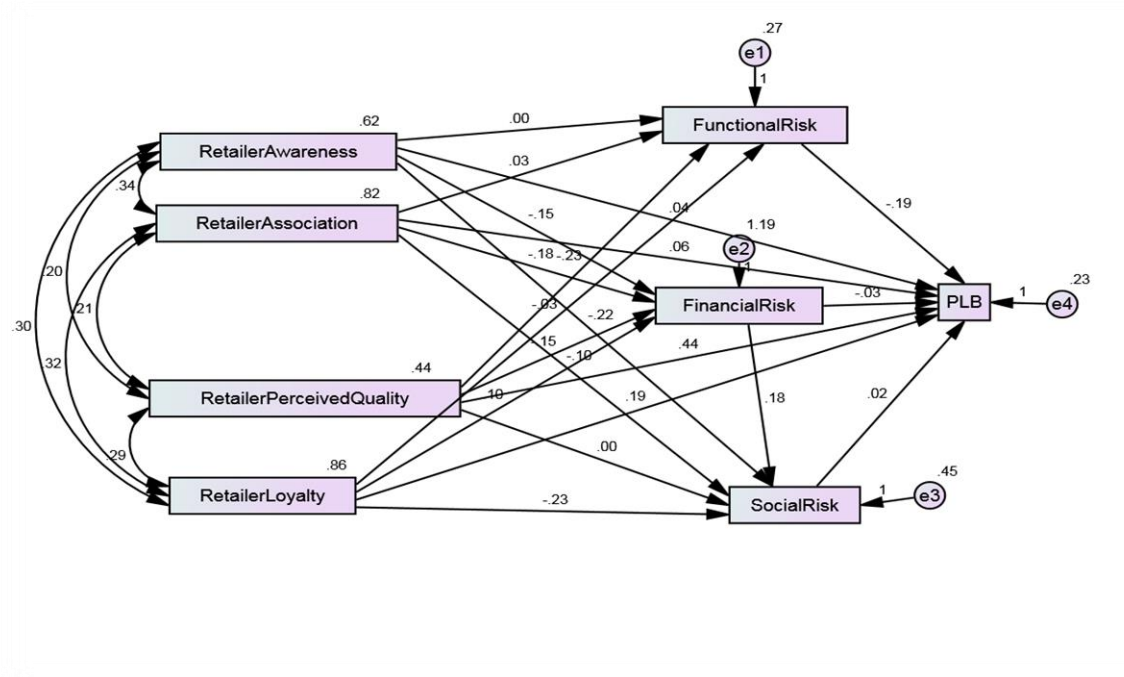
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An Empirical Analysis of Extrinsic Cues Imitations on Buyers' Quality Perceptions and Purchase Intentions of Private Labels

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Introduction

Private labels (PLs) are brands owned and exclusively sold by retailers in their own outlets (Kumar and Steenkamp 2007), primarily because of higher profit margins vis-à-vis selling national brands (NBs) (Sethuraman and Gielens 2014). PL's share of modern retail in India accounts for about seven percent of the total retail market and is growing annually. Of this, food and groceries segment is a key driver for growth, which accounts for 20-25 percent. Previous studies provide insights on consumers' responses to price promotions, brand and store name on perceived quality of NBs (Dodds et al., 1991). Earlier, Richardson et al. (1994) investigated the effect of extrinsic and intrinsic cues and suggested that perceptions of PL's quality are primarily driven by extrinsic cues like brand name, packaging and price. Consumers often fail to recognize PLs, probably due to insufficient efforts in marketing activities, especially in packaging (Hyman et al., 2010). This experiments aims to investigate the effects of packaging imitations (similar/dissimilar to NB) and pricing (similar/dissimilar to NB) on determining the perceived quality and purchase intention of PLs. The next research questions were discussed followed by methodology, summary of findings and conclusions.

Research Questions

Perceived quality indicated consumers' judgments concerning a product's overall excellence or superiority (Steenkamp, 1990). Cue utilization theory is the most applied framework to ascertain consumer perceptions of product quality. Products comprise of an array of cues that serve as quality indicators that are classified into intrinsic and extrinsic cues. Extrinsic cues are peripherally related to the product (price, brand name and packaging) and intrinsic cues (ingredients, taste and smell) are the characteristics of the core product itself (Collins-Dodd and Lindley, 2003). Earlier studies demonstrated that intrinsic and extrinsic cues are positively associated with perceived quality and perceived value, which finally leads to the purchase intention of a consumer. The success of PLs is mentioned through market share, individual purchase willingness, PL perception, attitudes and willingness to pay new PL.

Imitation strategy focuses on developing look-a-like brands that may make the consumers perceive that what they are looking at is the NB or that is a PL of similar quality (Aribarg et al., 2014). PL players take advantage of positive association with NBs by imitating their brand names, logos and packaging. Package similarity is expected to be an important cue for PL quality judgments and high levels of similarity can evoke feelings and may affect brand evaluation also. Eventually, it has been empirically tested that packaging is associated with perceived quality (Zeithaml 1988). Depending on the assumed intention of the retailer, such effects may be moderated by the degree of similarity and we hypothesize that:

H₁ₐ: *Packaging similarity of a PL to a NB will have higher perceived quality of PL vis-à-vis packaging dissimilarity.*
H₁ᵦ: *Packaging similarity of a PL to a NB will have higher purchase intention of PL vis-à-vis packaging dissimilarity.*

Price as an inference of quality has a long history in research (Rao and Monroe, 1989), and the price-perceived quality schema has even been tested directly as a construct. Large a price differentiation (Hoch and Lodish 1998) could adversely affect the perception of value and quality offered by the PLs. It is expected that a reduction in the price gap between the NB and PLs will influence perceptions of PL quality. Price similarity with NBs indicates high level of quality and high price dissimilarity indicates poor quality (Cudmore 2000) and we posit that:

H₂ₐ: *The higher the price similarity of a PL to a NB, the higher the perceived PL quality.*
H₂ᵦ: *The higher the price dissimilarity of a PL to a NB, the higher the purchase intentions of PL.*

Research has shown that the effects of some cues are moderated by the presence of other extrinsic cues. For example, the consumer's dependence on the price cue is determined by the availability of other salient quality cues (Dodds et al., 1991). The following are the additional hypotheses for consideration that represent interactions of the two main factors.

H₃ₐ: *The positive effect of package similarity on PL quality judgments is enhanced by higher price similarity.*
H₃ᵦ: *The positive effect of package similarity on PL purchase intention is enhanced by higher price dissimilarity.*

Methods and Data

We tested the hypotheses by using a 2×2 between-subjects factorial design with two packaging levels (similar and dissimilar) and two price levels (similar and dissimilar). Subjects were active shoppers (n=356) from metropolitan cities in India (mean age = 24, 69 percent male). On the table, along with a NB, a PL was displayed. Subjects were allowed to examine the package and read the label. The display boards were designed to mimic the information presented on the shelf labels for each brand like an actual retail outlet. Each subject evaluated only one combination at a time and the average elapsed time was between four to five minutes. After evaluating the brand pair, subjects completed a questionnaire. The level of the extrinsic cue (packaging) was manipulated by showing each subject a packet from one of the three different cookies brands. Two PLs were from two different hypermarket chains and the third brand represented an established NB (market leader in that category). The NB and one PL were similar in packaging and another was dissimilar in packaging. Considering different pricing labels, PL prices were manipulated by giving each sample, one of the two different price levels (similar or dissimilar to NB). Perceived quality was measured using Dodds et al. (1991) and Richardson et al. (1994). Both DVs were measured on 7-point Likert scale.

Summary of Findings

Cronbach's Alpha was .88 for perceived quality (three-items) and .91 for purchase intention (five-items). The manipulation check for packaging ($F_{1,354}$= 99.992, p<.001, mean similar = 5.12, mean dissimilar =4.23, PES =.310) and price ($F_{1,354}$= 81.775, p<.001, mean similar = 5.03, mean dissimilar =4.19, PES =.220) were significant. The two-way MANOVA result (refer Table 1) testing the interaction between packaging (similar/dissimilar) and price (similar/dissimilar) was significant (Pillai's Trace =.023; Wilks' lambda =.977; Hotelling's Trace and Roy's Largest Root =.024, $F_{1,354}$=4.170, p<.01, PES=.023). The follow-up ANOVA results for the dependent variables are discussed below.

Table 1. MANOVA Table

Source	Dependent Variable	df	Mean Sq.	F	Sig.	PES
Packaging	Perceived quality	1	8.017	5.702	.017	.016
	Purchase intention	1	7.215	3.111	.079*	.009
Price	Perceived quality	1	1.882	1.339	.048	.004
	Purchase intention	1	8.378	3.612	.058*	.010
Packaging × Price	Perceived quality	1	8.240	5.860	.016	.016
	Purchase intention	1	17.772	7.662	.006	.021

*p<.10

H_{1a} predicted that the perception of PLs quality would be judged to be better, when similar packaging were adopted instead of dissimilar packaging. The main effect of packaging imitations on perceived quality (H_{1a}) and purchase intention (H_{1b}) were statistically significant ($F_{1,354}$=5.702, p<.05 & $F_{1,354}$ =3.111, p<.05*, *p<.10). The ANOVA results of the main effects of price imitations on buyer's perception of quality (H_{2a}, $F_{1,354}$=1.339, p<.05) and purchase intention (H_{2b}, $F_{1,354}$ =3.612, p<.05) were statistically significant. Finally, the interaction between packaging and price imitations (H_{3a}) was highly significant for perceived quality ($F_{1,354}$=5.860, p<.05). This implies that the effect of packaging similarity on perceived quality of PLs may be enhanced by price similarity. Interestingly, packaging similarity on purchase intention of PLs is enhanced by price dissimilarity and the hypothesis H_{3b} was also accepted ($F_{1,354}$=7.662, p>.05).

Conclusions

This study looks at the main and interaction effects of two important extrinsic cues (packaging and pricing) on perceived quality and purchase intention of PLs. PL with similar packaging with the NB was found to have significantly higher quality judgments than the PL with dissimilar packaging. Additionally, the price similarity to a NB enhances the buyers' perception about PL product quality. Adversely, the price dissimilarity (higher price gap) to a NB increases the purchase intention of PL. Overall, we found that packaging (similarity) has a significant effect on perceived quality and purchase intention of PLs. When another extrinsic cue was present (price) along with packaging, we got significant result for perceived quality and purchase intention for food (cookies) products.

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Mobile subsistence retailer in rural India: Issues and Challenges

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Small retail dominate the retail scenario in emerging economies like India, and more so in villages. And it has been acknowledged that extant research on retail has ignored small retailers. (Runyan and Droge, 2008; Lenartowicz and Balasubramanian, 2009). This study makes an attempt to study a sub-set of small retailers in rural India – the mobile retailer. The paper here makes an attempt to map out the broad issues which these mobile retailer encounter in their day-to-day life which includes their constraints under which they operate, their buying and selling habits, brand preference, and their customers.

The broad objectives of the paper, firstly, to understand the mobile subsistence retailer in terms of his entrepreneurial journey, daily life and the role he plays in the village. Second, understand his buying and stocking preferences and lastly also profile the customers who buy from him.
Though traditionally the domain of retailers in the rural areas have been more less ignored but there has been some recent interest which has been shown by some researchers who have made an attempt to understand their purchase behavior (Sarkar et al., 2016), impact of their buying behavior on channel length (2012, Aithal) and their economic and social importance (Sarkar & Kundu, 2016). And in the literature there has been some attention being given to the periodic markets (Kashyap, 2012). But the mobile retailers have been ignored and they do form a substantial part of retail in villages. The study would attempt to bridge this gap.

The methodology adopted for the study was exploratory in nature with a series of over twenty qualitative interviews were conducted in a village had (periodic market) in near the city of Lucknow in Uttar Pradesh in India. The interviews were semi-structured in nature and were of between half an hour to forty five minutes in length. The interviews were later transcribed and then an attempt was made to identify broad themes which were emerging from the interviews.
The findings of the study show that these mobile subsistence retailers face many challenges, starting from issues of shortage of working capital, storage space and credit issues. There buying habits and customers are also different. But then they form a section of the village which is engaged in an entrepreneurial activity and should ideally be targeted for many schemes which operate in the rural areas in the villages. Most of the retailers who were interviewed had no access or intention to avail credit to expand their businesses. The challenges that they face is very different from what the typical small retailer would face and thus the

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***The Impact of Destination Competitiveness and Destination Attractiveness on Tourists'
Accommodation Choice: A Study of Rural Homestays in Uttarakhand***

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Introduction

Tourism destinations rely on the basic resources of the destination, both natural and man-made, such as the tourist attractions, climate, scenic beauty, cultural and historical sites etc. in order to attract visitors. The ability to draw more tourists in comparison to other similar destinations give such make such destinations competitive and profitable. But, such efforts also need to be sustainable from the environmental perspectives as well as the perspective of local communities. Rural homestays have come up as an alternative form of tourist accommodation that enables the tourists to have a unique cultural experience and allows host communities to showcase their culture as well as serves a livelihood option for them. Therefore, such homestays assist in the sustainable development of tourism.

The state of Uttarakhand in India also encourages the development of such alternate forms of community based tourism that may enhance the destination appeal and tourism development without adverse effects on the environment and host cultures. However, the success of such models would depend on the competitiveness and attractiveness of such destinations. It is imperative to gain an understanding of how tourists perceive such accommodation and the factors that affect this choice. Therefore, the aim of this study is to explore the relationship between destination competitiveness, destination attractiveness and accommodation choice, particularly in the context of rural homestays in Uttarakhand.

Literature Review

1.1 Destination competitiveness

With the vast array of options available to a tourist while planning a vacation, each destination vies for the attention for the prospective visitor. Destinations need to have a distinctive appeal, develop and maintain certain competitive advantages and stay competitive by ensuring that the resources are managed well (Tanja et al, 2011).Hasan (2000, cited in Dwyer and Kim, 2003) define competitiveness as "…the destination's ability to create and integrate value-added products that sustain its resources while maintaining market position relative to competitors". In the words of d'Hartserre, (2000, cited in Tam, 2016), competitiveness is "…the ability of a destination to maintain its market position and share and/or to improve upon them through time". According to a well-known definition, the competitiveness of a tourism destination may be defined as "…its ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfying memorable experiences and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations" (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; cited in Gruescu et al., 2009). Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao (2000) argue that "tourism competitiveness ix`s a general concept that encompasses price differentials coupled with exchange rate movements, productivity levels of various components of the tourist industry and qualitative factors

affecting the attractiveness or otherwise of a destination. "Broadly, these definitions describe destination competitiveness as the ability of destinations to develop and maintain a competitive advantage in through a sustainable use of destination resources.

The concept of destination competitiveness has received considerable attention from researchers. In one of the earlier works in this area, Ritchie and Crouch (1993, cited in Crouch, 2007) developed the Calgary model of destination competitiveness. Dwyer et al. (2003, cited in Wilde and Cox, 2008) integrated the various aspects of competiveness and destination competitiveness literature to propose a model of destination competitiveness which was used to assess the competitiveness of Australia as a tourist destination. In their study of a mature Australian destination, Wilde and Cox (2008) tried to examine the relevance of competitiveness variables for destinations at different stages of development. Another article reports the use of a destination competitiveness framework from the perspective of employees' contribution and the impact of ICT on destination promotion (Gruescu et al., 2009). The competitiveness of Serbian destinations has been assessed using the Integrated model of destination competitiveness proposed by Dwyer et al., 2003 (Tanja et al., 2011). Santos et al. (2014) studied mature tourism destinations with a different approach wherein they identified specific factors that affect destination competitiveness based on the stage in the life cycle of the destination.

1.2 Factors affecting destination competitiveness

The concept of destination competitiveness has been studied from various perspectives in the literature. Certain studies have focused on the identification of factors influencing the competitiveness of destinations. Santos et al. (2014) suggest that in the case of mature destinations some of the factors that may influence the competitiveness of a destination are: infrastructure, environmental impacts, destination management and loss of economic vitality. Kozak (n.d) has outlined a few factors affecting destination competitiveness as: (a) socio-economic profile of tourism demand and changes in markets, (b) access to tourist markets (distance), (c) mature tourist destinations and consumer psychology, (d) influences of tourist satisfaction, (d) marketing by tour operators and their perceptions of destinations, (e) prices and costs, (f) exchange rates (g)use of information technologies, (h) safety, security and risk, (i) product differentiation (positioning), (j) adequacy and quality of tourist facilities and services, (k) quality of environmental resources and (l) human resources.

1.3 Destination attractiveness

While the concept of destination competitiveness includes primarily those elements from the supply side, destination attractiveness factors deal are derived from the demand side of tourism (Vengeseyi, 2003). A destination may be perceived to more attractive compared to other if it fulfills the needs and expectations of tourists. According to Mayo and Jarvis (1980, cited in Vengeseyi, 2003), attractiveness refers to "the perceived ability of the destination to deliver individual benefits". Again, Kresik and Prebezak (2011) constructed and tested a methodology for assessing destination attractiveness using a tool called index of destination attractiveness.

In a study of immature tourist destinations, Tam (2012) used a contextual approach for measuring destination attractiveness for three types of vacation experiences.

1.4 Rural Homestays

Like all consumers, tourists engage in a decision-making process with regard to various aspects of the travel product. One of the important decisions taken by tourists in relation to the trip is the choice of accommodation. As tourists look for an authentic experience during their vacations, rural homestays are increasingly emerging as an alternative choice of accommodation in countries such as India (TOI, 2013; The Hindu, 2015). According to Mapjabil et al. (2015), "a homestay refers to the experience of tourists or visitors living together with a selected host family while interacting and experiencing the day to day life of the family, including their cultural lifestyle". While tourists get to engage in a genuine experience that provides an opportunity to imbibe the local culture and heritage, at the same time economic benefits accrue to the host communities making it an attractive option for them (Ranasinghe, 2015).

Homestays have been examined in the tourism literature from various perspectives. Hsu and Lin (2011) assessed the factors influencing the choice of homestay accommodation among college students in Taiwan. Using both functional and experiential dimensions, Jamal et al, 2011 examine tourists' perceived value with regard to community-based homestay tourism. In a study regarding the homestay program in Malaysia, Salleh et al. (2014) explored the factors influencing the participation and perception of homestay operators regarding the effect of homestay development on local communities. In another study of homestay operators, Ranasinghe (2015) studied their perceptions regarding homestay accommodation. Again, Amin and Ibrahim (2016) have proposed a conceptual framework based on their study of the relationship between community participation, attitude and sustainable development in the homestay program. In a study of local communities from AnnahRais Longhouse homestay in Malaysia, Chin et al. (2014) assess the impact of multiple environmental constructs on destination competitiveness from the perspective of local communities.

Study Rationale and Objectives

As discussed above, the concepts of destination competitiveness and destination attractiveness have received considerable attention from travel and tourism researchers. Besides, the link between these two aspects has also been examined by Vengesayi (2003) in a paper that proposes a model called TDCA (Tourist Destination Competitiveness and Attractiveness). However, the impact of these attributes of the destination on travel decision-making has not been studied so far. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to investigate the influence of the constructs of destination competitiveness and destination attractiveness on a specific aspect of the vacation decision, that is, accommodation choice. Specifically, the study proposes to examine this issue with regard to rural homestays in Uttarakhand. The state of Uttarakhand in India abounds in natural and cultural attractions. The tourism policy of the state also lays emphasis on the development and promotion of rural homestays. However, it is difficult to find studies that examine the attractiveness or competitiveness of its tourist destinations. Therefore, the present study attempts to fill this gap.

Study Methodology

At the outset, the various elements and components of both of the constructs 'destination competitiveness' and 'destination attractiveness' would be identified through a thorough review of extant literature. It is proposed that some of the dimensions or components that are relevant specifically to the study context would be ascertained through qualitative research based on interviews of tour operators dealing with homestays in Uttarakhand. The subsequent quantitative research would utilize surveys of homestay visitors in Uttarakhand to gain an understanding of the influence of the study constructs on their travel accommodation choice.

Implications and Conclusion

Destination management organizations are increasingly looking towards more sustainable options of tourism development in order to obviate the adverse effects on destination resources, the environment and the local communities. This is in keeping with the need to preserve the destination's natural attractions as well as local culture for the benefit of future generations. Rural homestays may be promoted as such an alternative form of accommodation choice by destination marketers. Various states including the state of Uttarakhand in India provide opportunities for rural homestays. However, so far there are hardly any studies exploring the influence of destination competitiveness and destination attractiveness on the travel accommodation choice specifically in the context of rural homestays in Uttarakhand. Therefore, the present study intends to examine these concepts in greater detail with a view to suggest effective strategies to destination marketers of Uttarakhand. Hopefully, a conceptual model examining the relationships between destination competitiveness, attractiveness and accommodation would be developed and tested empirically to provide meaningful insights and direction for framing of destination management strategies.

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Social justice in retail queues of emerging markets

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Extant literature on queuing has identified service queues as social systems where social justice is an important factor for service evaluation. While first order justice, defined as a first come first served (FCFS) process, has been found to a necessary condition of social justice and positive evaluation, second order justice, defined as equal waiting time, has been found to be an additional factor which comes in to play only when first order justice is fulfilled. We show that in emerging market situation, the above definitions of justice and the above order does not work. We have focused on equitable wait and not equal wait, i.e., waiting duration is in sync with the level or quantity of service asked for. We found that FCFS is not the necessary condition as it was in extant literature and can be relaxed sometimes to get higher service evaluation by ensuring justice from equitable wait. Based on the two competing theories, namely fairness heuristic theory and two-factor theory, we try to predict two different types of interaction effects of the two types of social justice on service evaluation. Moreover, the impact of justice from equitable wait on service evaluations is expected to be moderated by perceived personal connect of the service provider and the consumer, perceived importance of system and process and perceived ability of the service provider of capacity improvement and mediated by perceived control of service provider on providing justice of equitable wait. Along with better theoretical understanding of social justice in queuing context, the study also contributes in the understanding of social queue management concepts of the retail managers in emerging market context.

How service quality stimulates passenger's attitudinal loyalty? An integration of social exchange and stimulus -organism- response theories

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Introduction

Service quality has received considerable attention from academics and practitioners to survive and remain competitive. Service quality has always been the main study for transport sector, in today's very competitive environment lot of travel options are available for customers. Most of the transport related studied have studied SERVQUAL scale to assess the service quality. In the past literature researchers have tested the relationship between service quality, customer trust, customer satisfaction and attitudinal loyalty (Cronin Jr, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Hutchinson, Wagner & John, 2000; Taylor, Nicholson, Milan, & Martinez, 1997; Wallace, Giese, & Johnson, 2004). However, the strength of these relationships was found to be different from one study to another in terms of direction, statistical significance, and magnitude of service quality effects on its outcome variables. But, no study has developed a scale to measure passenger's service quality in the context of public transport and tested the serial mediation effect of customer trust and customer satisfaction between service quality and loyalty. In the present study we have developed a new scale to measure service quality and empirically validated the scale by testing the proposed model presented in the present study. It is important to understand the underlying mechanism between service quality and attitudinal loyalty through customer trust and customer satisfaction.

Theoretical background and hypotheses development

In the present study, we use social exchange theory (SET) and Stimulus-Organism-Response(S-O-R) model to test the proposed theoretical model (Emerson, 1976; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). SET theory is originated in the 1950s and based on psychology. Based on reciprocity assumption SET theory states that the benefits (quality of the service) received by the customers will positively react towards the service provider (building trust), which in turn it involves the long-term exchange of relationship with the service provider (loyalty). Based on this assumption we posit that quality of service leads to building customer trust which in turn leads to long-term association with the service provider. This long-term association is considered as repurchase intention or attitudinal loyalty. Second we use S-O-R model to link service quality on customer satisfaction and attitudinal loyalty. S-O-R model proposes that, S (the environmental stimuli) influences O (individuals' processing of environmental cues received and individuals' responses—emotional states: pleasure, arousal, and dominance), and individual's emotions then drive individuals to different R (responses or behaviors such as approach or avoidance behaviors) (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Based on this notion we posit service quality as a stimulus, customer satisfaction as an organism and attitudinal loyalty as a response.

Based on the SET theoretical notions we propose that customer trust mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty. Similarly based on the S-O-R model we propose that customer satisfaction mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty.

Finally, we integrate this two theoretical frameworks using serial mediation approach by proposing that customer trust and customer satisfaction will serially mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty (Hayes, 2013). Based on the above mentioned key theoretical notions we propose the following hypotheses:

H1: Service quality positively related to attitudinal loyalty.
H2: Customer trust mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty.
H3: Customer satisfaction mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty.
H4: Customer trust and customer satisfaction serially mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty.

Methods

Data collection

An on-site survey was conducted at the central bus stand of the state capital Tamil Nadu in India on both weekdays and weekends using the purposive sampling technique. This technique was employed, as the population of public transit passengers was not available (Lai & Chen, 2011). Of the 800 questionnaires that were distributed, 631 were returned; that accounted a response rate of 78.88%.

Measures

Service quality (22 items) was measured in the context of public transport corporation by adopting the SERVQUAL scale (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988; Wen, Lan, & Cheng, 2005) and this scale was anchored between 1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Customer Satisfaction (four items) measures were adopted from Brady and Cronin (2001) . In each case, 10-point bipolar scales (eg. happy/unhappy) were employed. The scale used to measure customer trust (three item) was based on the scale proposed by Doney and Cannon (1997) and Wen et al. (2005) with subsequent modification and the scale was anchored between 1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Attitudinal loyalty (four items) was measured using behavioral intention of the respondents (Brady & Cronin, 2001) and the scale was anchored between 1= very unlikely to 7 = very likely.

Data analysis

In this study Smart PLS 3.0 is used to test the path model (Ringle, Sarstedt, Schlittgen, & Taylor, 2013). The serial mediation effect was tested using PROCESS macro available with SPSS software (Hayes, 2013). The psychometric properties of the scale items were tested using confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS v21.

Results

Table 1 shows the mean, standard deviation, Cronbach alpha values, composite reliability and average variance extracted (AVE) values. The discriminant validity of the proposed theoretical

model is assessed using (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The construct correlations were compared with the square root of the AVE. In this approach the construct correlations should be less than the square root of AVE values. In this study results shows that all the constructs correlations were less than the square root of AVE values. So the discriminant validity of the model is proved.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics, correlations, Composite reliability, AVE, Cronbach Alpha values and Discriminant validity

Constructs	Mean	S.D.	α	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4
1.Service quality#	3.62	0.89	.89	0.80	0.45	0.67			
2.Customer trust	4.29	1.15	.85	0.86	0.68	0.65**	0.82		
3.Customer satisfaction	5.37	1.52	.90	0.91	0.71	0.58**	0.55**	0.84	
4.Attitudinal loyalty	4.36	1.08	.77	0.78	0.55	0.59**	0.60**	0.59**	0.74

Note: S.D.- Standard Deviation, α - Cronbach alpha, CR – Composite reliability, AVE - Average variance extracted. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Diagonal values are representing the square root of AVE values. #-Over all service quality which includes the following dimensions: i. Bus stand quality, ii. Bus service, iii. Empathy, iv. Reliability and v. Staff behavior.

In the present study all the factor loadings were significant at 0.001 level and loadings ranges between 0.60 and 0.87. To assess the psychometric properties of the scale we have performed confirmatory factor analysis by considering service quality as a second order construct and we found good fit ($\chi2/df=1.98$, GFI=.91, CFI=.95, RMSEA=.03). The first order dimension to second order factor loadings were significant at 0.001 level and the loadings ranges between 0.58 and 0.69.

Table 2
Two Stage Serial Mediation Analysis Result

Indirect Paths	Indirect effect	BootSE	LLCI	ULCI	Decision
SQ→ CT → AL satisfaction	0.43	0.04	0.35	0.51	Supported
SQ→ CS → AL satisfaction	0.13	0.02	0.09	0.18	Supported
SQ → CT → CS → AL	0.06	0.01	0.04	0.09	Supported

Note: SE-Standard error, LLCI-Lower Limit Confidence Interval, ULCL-Upper Limit Confidence Limit. Indirect effects were tested using the bootstrapping procedure with 5000 bootstrap samples. SQ-Service equality, CT-Customer Trust, AL- Attitudinal Loyalty, CS-Customer Satisfaction.

The direct relationship among the constructs and R square values are depicted in figure 1. All the direct relationships proposed in the present study are significant. To test the simple and serial mediation effect we have used PROCESS macro. The results are presented in table 2 and it shows that all the three mediational hypotheses including the serial mediation effects were significant. In the mediational model the direct relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty was significant. So there exist a partial mediation effect.

Figure.1 Serial mediation model with parameter estimate values and R square values
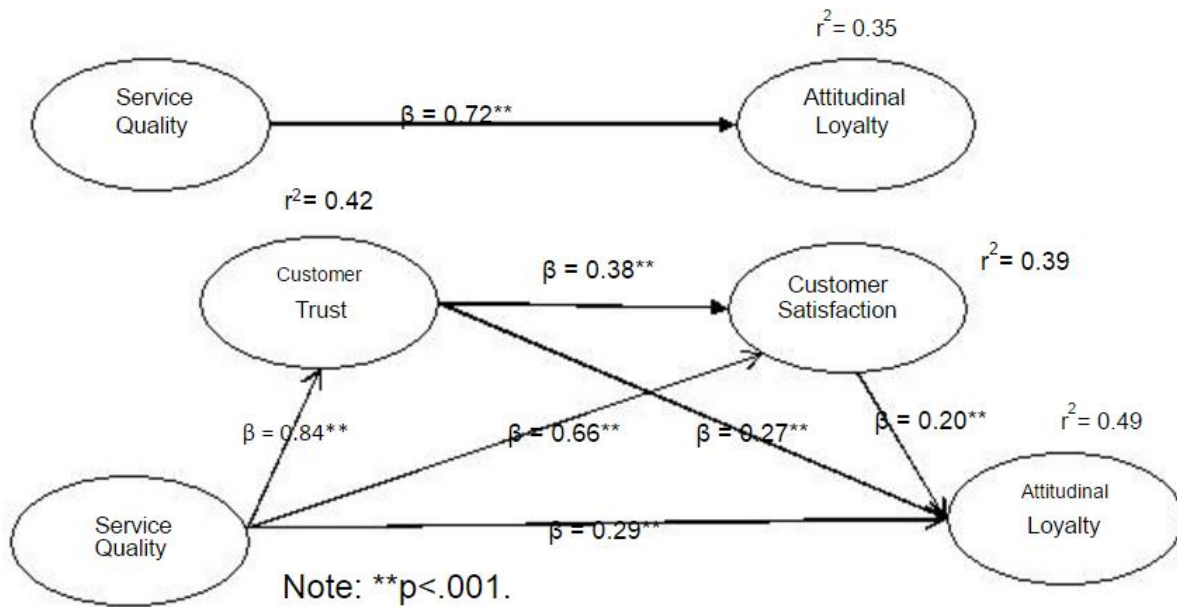
Discussion

The aim of the present study is to test the serial mediation effect of customer trust and customer satisfaction in the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty. Based on the passenger's perception towards the Tamilnadu state transport, service quality is related to attitudinal loyalty through customer trust and customer satisfaction. This serial mediation or theory integration was done using the two theoretical notions i.e., social exchange theory and stimulus-organism-response model. We have found a positive relationship among the constructs proposed in the theoretical model, including the two simple mediational hypotheses (Emerson, 1976; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). In the first simple mediational hypotheses we found that the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty is mediated by customer trust. Similarly in the second simple mediational hypothesis the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty is mediated by customer satisfaction. The present study is advanced the past

literature by integrating two theories using serial mediation approach. Despite this contribution the present study have few limitations. First, testing the mediational hypotheses in cross-sectional data is not advisable and it may not depict the true picture of the causality. However past studies have used cross sectional data to test the mediation hypothesis. Second in the present study we have found partial mediation effect for the proposed serial mediational hypotheses. Future studies may identify other mediators which can be included between service quality and attitudinal loyalty (e.g., value, image, commitment).

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***The Impact of Destination Competitiveness and Destination Attractiveness on Tourists'
Accommodation Choice: A Study of Rural Homestays in Uttarakhand***

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Introduction

Tourism destinations rely on the basic resources of the destination, both natural and man-made, such as the tourist attractions, climate, scenic beauty, cultural and historical sites etc. in order to attract visitors. The ability to draw more tourists in comparison to other similar destinations give such make such destinations competitive and profitable. But, such efforts also need to be sustainable from the environmental perspectives as well as the perspective of local communities. Rural homestays have come up as an alternative form of tourist accommodation that enables the tourists to have a unique cultural experience and allows host communities to showcase their culture as well as serves a livelihood option for them. Therefore, such homestays assist in the sustainable development of tourism.

The state of Uttarakhand in India also encourages the development of such alternate forms of community based tourism that may enhance the destination appeal and tourism development without adverse effects on the environment and host cultures. However, the success of such models would depend on the competitiveness and attractiveness of such destinations. It is imperative to gain an understanding of how tourists perceive such accommodation and the factors that affect this choice. Therefore, the aim of this study is to explore the relationship between destination competitiveness, destination attractiveness and accommodation choice, particularly in the context of rural homestays in Uttarakhand.

Literature Review

Destination competitiveness

With the vast array of options available to a tourist while planning a vacation, each destination vies for the attention for the prospective visitor. Destinations need to have a distinctive appeal, develop and maintain certain competitive advantages and stay competitive by ensuring that the resources are managed well (Tanja et al, 2011).Hasan (2000, cited in Dwyer and Kim, 2003) define competitiveness as "…the destination's ability to create and integrate value-added products that sustain its resources while maintaining market position relative to competitors". In the words of d'Hartserre, (2000, cited in Tam, 2016), competitiveness is "…the ability of a destination to maintain its market position and share and/or to improve upon them through time". According to a well-known definition, the competitiveness of a tourism destination may be defined as "…its ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfying memorable experiences and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations" (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; cited in Gruescu et al., 2009). Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao (2000) argue that "tourism competitiveness is a general concept that encompasses price differentials coupled with exchange rate movements, productivity levels of various components of the tourist industry and qualitative factors affecting the attractiveness or otherwise of a destination." Broadly, these definitions describe destination competitiveness as the ability of destinations to develop and maintain a competitive advantage in through a sustainable use of destination resources.

The concept of destination competitiveness has received considerable attention from researchers. In one of the earlier works in this area, Ritchie and Crouch (1993, cited in Crouch, 2007) developed the Calgary model of destination competitiveness. Dwyer et al. (2003, cited in Wilde and Cox, 2008) integrated the various aspects of competiveness and destination competitiveness literature to propose a model of destination competitiveness which was used to assess the competitiveness of Australia as a tourist destination. In their study of a mature Australian destination, Wilde and Cox (2008) tried to examine the relevance of competitiveness variables for destinations at different stages of development. Another article reports the use of a destination competitiveness framework from the perspective of employees' contribution and the impact of ICT on destination promotion (Gruescu et al., 2009). The competitiveness of Serbian destinations has been assessed using the Integrated model of destination competitiveness proposed by Dwyer et al., 2003 (Tanja et al., 2011). Santos et al. (2014) studied mature tourism destinations with a different approach wherein they identified specific factors that affect destination competitiveness based on the stage in the life cycle of the destination.

1.5 Factors affecting destination competitiveness

The concept of destination competitiveness has been studied from various perspectives in the literature. Certain studies have focused on the identification of factors influencing the competitiveness of destinations. Santos et al. (2014) suggest that in the case of mature destinations some of the factors that may influence the competitiveness of a destination are: infrastructure, environmental impacts, destination management and loss of economic vitality. Kozak (n.d) has outlined a few factors affecting destination competitiveness as: (a) socio-economic profile of tourism demand and changes in markets, (b) access to tourist markets (distance), (c) mature tourist destinations and consumer psychology, (d) influences of tourist satisfaction, (d) marketing by tour operators and their perceptions of destinations, (e) prices and costs, (f) exchange rates (g)use of information technologies, (h) safety, security and risk, (i) product differentiation (positioning), (j) adequacy and quality of tourist facilities and services, (k) quality of environmental resources and (l) human resources.

1.6 Destination attractiveness

While the concept of destination competitiveness includes primarily those elements from the supply side, destination attractiveness factors deal are derived from the demand side of tourism (Vengeseyi, 2003). A destination may be perceived to more attractive compared to other if it fulfills the needs and expectations of tourists. According to Mayo and Jarvis (1980, cited in Vengeseyi, 2003), attractiveness refers to "the perceived ability of the destination to deliver individual benefits". Again, Kresik and Prebezak (2011) constructed and tested a methodology for assessing destination attractiveness using a tool called index of destination attractiveness. In a study of immature tourist destinations, Tam (2012) used a contextual approach for measuring destination attractiveness for three types of vacation experiences.

1.7 Rural Homestays

Like all consumers, tourists engage in a decision-making process with regard to various aspects of the travel product. One of the important decisions taken by tourists in relation to the trip is

the choice of accommodation. As tourists look for an authentic experience during their vacations, rural homestays are increasingly emerging as an alternative choice of accommodation in countries such as India (TOI, 2013; The Hindu, 2015). According to Mapjabil et al. (2015), "a homestay refers to the experience of tourists or visitors living together with a selected host family while interacting and experiencing the day to day life of the family, including their cultural lifestyle". While tourists get to engage in a genuine experience that provides an opportunity to imbibe the local culture and heritage, at the same time economic benefits accrue to the host communities making it an attractive option for them (Ranasinghe, 2015).

Homestays have been examined in the tourism literature from various perspectives. Hsu and Lin (2011) assessed the factors influencing the choice of homestay accommodation among college students in Taiwan. Using both functional and experiential dimensions, Jamal et al, 2011 examine tourists' perceived value with regard to community-based homestay tourism. In a study regarding the homestay program in Malaysia, Salleh et al. (2014) explored the factors influencing the participation and perception of homestay operators regarding the effect of homestay development on local communities. In another study of homestay operators, Ranasinghe (2015) studied their perceptions regarding homestay accommodation. Again, Amin and Ibrahim (2016) have proposed a conceptual framework based on their study of the relationship between community participation, attitude and sustainable development in the homestay program. In a study of local communities from AnnahRais Longhouse homestay in Malaysia, Chin et al. (2014) assess the impact of multiple environmental constructs on destination competitiveness from the perspective of local communities.

Study Rationale and Objectives

As discussed above, the concepts of destination competitiveness and destination attractiveness have received considerable attention from travel and tourism researchers. Besides, the link between these two aspects has also been examined by Vengesayi (2003) in a paper that proposes a model called TDCA (Tourist Destination Competitiveness and Attractiveness). However, the impact of these attributes of the destination on travel decision-making has not been studied so far. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to investigate the influence of the constructs of destination competitiveness and destination attractiveness on a specific aspect of the vacation decision, that is, accommodation choice. Specifically, the study proposes to examine this issue with regard to rural homestays in Uttarakhand. The state of Uttarakhand in India abounds in natural and cultural attractions. The tourism policy of the state also lays emphasis on the development and promotion of rural homestays. However, it is difficult to find studies that examine the attractiveness or competitiveness of its tourist destinations. Therefore, the present study attempts to fill this gap.

Study Methodology

At the outset, the various elements and components of both of the constructs 'destination competitiveness' and 'destination attractiveness' would be identified through a thorough review of extant literature. It is proposed that some of the dimensions or components that are

relevant specifically to the study context would be ascertained through qualitative research based on interviews of tour operators dealing with homestays in Uttarakhand. The subsequent quantitative research would utilize surveys of homestay visitors in Uttarakhand to gain an understanding of the influence of the study constructs on their travel accommodation choice.

Implications and Conclusion

Destination management organizations are increasingly looking towards more sustainable options of tourism development in order to obviate the adverse effects on destination resources, the environment and the local communities. This is in keeping with the need to preserve the destination's natural attractions as well as local culture for the benefit of future generations. Rural homestays may be promoted as such an alternative form of accommodation choice by destination marketers. Various states including the state of Uttarakhand in India provide opportunities for rural homestays. However, so far there are hardly any studies exploring the influence of destination competitiveness and destination attractiveness on the travel accommodation choice specifically in the context of rural homestays in Uttarakhand. Therefore, the present study intends to examine these concepts in greater detail with a view to suggest effective strategies to destination marketers of Uttarakhand. Hopefully, a conceptual model examining the relationships between destination competitiveness, attractiveness and accommodation would be developed and tested empirically to provide meaningful insights and direction for framing of destination management strategies.

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How service quality stimulates passenger's attitudinal loyalty? An integration of social exchange and stimulus -organism- response theories

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Introduction

Service quality has received considerable attention from academics and practitioners to survive and remain competitive. Service quality has always been the main study for transport sector, in today's very competitive environment lot of travel options are available for customers. Most of the transport related studied have studied SERVQUAL scale to assess the service quality. In the past literature researchers have tested the relationship between service quality, customer trust, customer satisfaction and attitudinal loyalty (Cronin Jr, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Hutchinson, Wagner & John , 2000; Taylor, Nicholson, Milan, & Martinez, 1997; Wallace, Giese, & Johnson, 2004). However, the strength of these relationships was found to be different from one study to another in terms of direction, statistical significance, and magnitude of service quality effects on its outcome variables. But, no study has developed a scale to measure passenger's service quality in the context of public transport and tested the serial mediation effect of customer trust and customer satisfaction between service quality and loyalty. In the present study we have developed a new scale to measure service quality and empirically validated the scale by testing the proposed model presented in the present study. It is important to understand the underlying mechanism between service quality and attitudinal loyalty through customer trust and customer satisfaction.

Theoretical background and hypotheses development

In the present study, we use social exchange theory (SET) and Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) model to test the proposed theoretical model (Emerson, 1976; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). SET theory is originated in the 1950s and based on psychology. Based on reciprocity assumption SET theory states that the benefits (quality of the service) received by the customers will positively react towards the service provider (building trust), which in turn it involves the long-term exchange of relationship with the service provider (loyalty). Based on this assumption we posit that quality of service leads to building customer trust which in turn leads to long-term association with the service provider. This long-term association is considered as repurchase intention or attitudinal loyalty. Second we use S-O-R model to link service quality on customer satisfaction and attitudinal loyalty. S-O-R model proposes that, S (the environmental stimuli) influences O (individuals' processing of environmental cues received and individuals' responses—emotional states: pleasure, arousal, and dominance), and individual's emotions then drive individuals to different R (responses or behaviors such as approach or avoidance behaviors) (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Based on this notion we posit service quality as a stimulus, customer satisfaction as an organism and attitudinal loyalty as a response.

Based on the SET theoretical notions we propose that customer trust mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty. Similarly based on the S-O-R model we propose that customer satisfaction mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty. Finally, we integrate this two theoretical frameworks using serial mediation approach by proposing that customer trust and customer satisfaction will serially mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty (Hayes, 2013). Based on the above mentioned key theoretical notions we propose the following hypotheses:

H1: Service quality positively related to attitudinal loyalty.
H2: Customer trust mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty.
H3: Customer satisfaction mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty.
H4: Customer trust and customer satisfaction serially mediates the relationship between service quality and attitudinal loyalty.

Methods

Data collection

An on-site survey was conducted at the central bus stand of the state capital Tamil Nadu in India on both weekdays and weekends using the purposive sampling technique. This technique was employed, as the population of public transit passengers was not available (Lai & Chen, 2011). Of the 800 questionnaires that were distributed, 631 were returned; that accounted a response rate of 78.88%.

Measures

Service quality (22 items) was measured in the context of public transport corporation by adopting the SERVQUAL scale (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988; Wen, Lan, & Cheng, 2005) and this scale was anchored between 1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Customer Satisfaction (four items) measures were adopted from Brady and Cronin (2001) . In each case, 10-point bipolar scales (eg. happy/unhappy) were employed. The scale used to measure customer trust (three item) was based on the scale proposed by Doney and Cannon (1997) and Wen et al. (2005) with subsequent modification and the scale was anchored between 1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Attitudinal loyalty (four items) was measured using behavioral intention of the respondents (Brady & Cronin, 2001) and the scale was anchored between 1= very unlikely to 7 = very likely.

Data analysis

In this study Smart PLS 3.0 is used to test the path model (Ringle, Sarstedt, Schlittgen, & Taylor, 2013). The serial mediation effect was tested using PROCESS macro available with SPSS software (Hayes, 2013). The psychometric properties of the scale items were tested using confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS v21.

Results

Table 1 shows the mean, standard deviation, Cronbach alpha values, composite reliability and average variance extracted (AVE) values. The discriminant validity of the proposed theoretical model is assessed using (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The construct correlations were compared with the square root of the AVE. In this approach the construct correlations should be less than the square root of AVE values. In this study results shows that all the constructs correlations were less than the square root of AVE values. So the discriminant validity of the model is proved.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics, correlations, Composite reliability, AVE, Cronbach Alpha values and Discriminant validity

Constructs	Mean	S.D.	α	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4
1.Service quality#	3.62	0.89	.89	0.80	0.45	0.67			
2.Customer trust	4.29	1.15	.85	0.86	0.68	0.65**	0.82		

3.Customer satisfaction	5.37	1.52	.90	0.91	0.71	0.58**	0.55**	0.84	
4.Attitudinal loyalty	4.36	1.08	.77	0.78	0.55	0.59**	0.60**	0.59**	0.74

Note: S.D.- Standard Deviation, α - Cronbach alpha, CR – Composite reliability, AVE - Average variance extracted. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Diagonal values are representing the square root of AVE values. #- Over all service quality which includes the following dimensions: i. Bus stand quality, ii. Bus service, iii. Empathy, iv. Reliability and v. Staff behavior.

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When does Negative turn out to be as good as Positive (and even better)? : Impact of Celebrities' Gossip stories on their Effectiveness as Endorsers

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Introduction

Most of the existing research in the area of negative information transference from celebrities to their endorsed brand has demonstrated that negative publicity about celebrities is harmful for the endorsements they feature in (Edwards & Ferle 2009; Till & Shimp, 1998; White, Goddard, & Wilbur, 2009). Recently, it has been shown that this negative information transference effect is so strong that it also spills over to other competing brands in the same product category, especially those which are themselves celebrity endorsement intensive (Knittel & Stango, 2014; Carrillat, d'Astous & Christianis, 2014). With respect to the effect on just the endorsed brand, it has been found that the negative effect is weaker, but not insignificant or positive, for product categories with low "match-up" with the celebrity (Thwaites et al., 2012).

Within the same stream of literature, some studies have identified exceptions wherein the impact of negative information turns out to be positive for the endorsed brand under certain conditions - when the celebrity's culpability (with respect to the negative information) is perceived to be low or when the information is presented as self-oriented rather than other-oriented (Louie, Kulik, & Jocobson, 2001; Money, Shimp, & Sakano, 2006). These studies established that this positive impact is due to greater sympathy generated toward the celebrity after receiving the negative information. But, no research in our knowledge has examined the switching off (and potentially positive effect) of negative information transference from celebrity endorser for situations where the negative information is "in sync" with the product category image, or more generally with the image being communicated through the advertising campaign.

Similarly, there is a stream of research on positive information transference from celebrities to their endorsed brands which has provided empirical evidence that the information is beneficial for the endorsed brands (Mathur, Mathur, & Rangan, 1997; Nicolau & Santa-Maria, 2013). Farrell et al. (2000) probed the role of celebrity's "match-up" with the product category on this relationship and found a significant positive effect only for categories which are seen to be compatible with the celebrity's image. Here also the role of a possible "mismatch" between the positive information and category/brand image hasn't yet been explored which could lead to switching-off of this effect and probably even changing its direction.

The current research aims to identify a set of celebrity story - endorsement deal scenarios for which negative stories about celebrities turn out to be equally good (and even better) relative to the positive stories. We propose a "match-up" between the story and the category/brand image as a moderator for the relationship between the story and the celebrity's effectiveness as an endorser. It is important to clarify that our identified scenarios include categories with both high and low "match-up" with the overall image of the celebrity about whom the stories are shown. Thus, our findings are distinct from those of Thwaites et al. (2012) and Farrell et al. (2000), as per which the expected effect (positive impact of positive story and negative effect of negative one) should exist strongly only for categories with high fit with celebrity. Thus, our criterion of "match-up" of celebrity story with category/brand image as moderator in the story-endorser effectiveness relationship is a novel one which has not been studied before.

We would like to note that the stories in our scenarios are presented as gossip stories which are likely to appear in gossip magazines or websites. Thus, this research also makes an important contribution to the gossip literature, in which no direct empirical investigation has been done on

the downstream consequences of celebrity gossip with respect to image of the subject of the gossip. Additionally, we also explore the role of individual personality traits, such as moral identity and fascination with celebrities, which could further enhance the proposed effect of "match-up" between gossip story and category/brand image on endorser effectiveness.

Method

126 graduate students from ISB completed the study in exchange for a chance to be entered in a drawing for twelve cash prizes of INR 1000 each. They were told that they will be taking part in two "unrelated" studies - one on evaluation of magazine articles and a personality assessment. First study was divided into two parts so that they don't evaluate endorsement deals just after they have read the gossip stories. Even the personality study was broken into two parts so that the sensitive questions on individual moral attentiveness and fascination with celebrities are asked at the end of the study. This is to ensure that they don't correctly guess the actual purpose of our research while doing the endorsement evaluation.

The study followed a 2 (Gossip Story: Positive vs. Negative) X 2 (Category: high (low) match-up vs. low (high) with positive (negative) story) design across three scenarios. The stories were adapted from actual gossip articles but fictitious celebrity names were used so that participants' attitudes about real celebrities don't confound the effects we wish to measure. In order to ensure believability of the scenarios, the subjects were told that "the names in the articles have been changed to protect the identities of those concerned."

The three scenarios used in the study were: fashion, relationship and public conduct. In the fashion scenario, we described the celebrity as a "fashionista" TV actress who was either praised (positive story) or criticized (negative story) for her recent dressing style; and then in the next part we asked subjects to evaluate her suitability for either a beauty cream (high match-up with positive story) or government's "save the girl child" campaign (low match-up with positive story). Similarly, for relationship scenario, we described a "playboy" movie star who was either proposing marriage to his girlfriend (positive story) or was cheating on his girlfriend with another actress (negative story); and in the next part his suitability for either a cookware brand (high match-up with positive story) or a condom brand (low match-up with positive story) was asked. Finally, in the public conduct scenario, we described a "hot-headed" cricketer to be either spending his birthday in an orphanage (positive story) or abusing a journalist while exiting a pub (negative story); and in the next part his suitability for either a kids' fruit beverage (high match-up with positive story) or a whisky (low match-up with positive story) was asked. We ensured that the initial image of the celebrity appeared to be same in both positive and negative stories so that the observed effects can't be attributed to the category's match-up with their overall image rather than with the stories.

For the first part of article evaluation, measures of celebrity credibility (attractiveness, trustworthiness and expertise) were adapted from Ohanion (1990) and the measures of their morality and warmth were taken from Goodwin, Piazza, & Rozin (2014). For the endorsement deal evaluation (second part of the same study), brand attitude and celebrity-brand compatibility measures were taken from White et al. (2009). For the personality assessment, the measure of moral identity was taken from Aquino & Reed (2002) while fascination with celebrities scale was adapted from McCutcheon, Lange & Houran (2002).

Results & Discussion

For the fashion scenario, we observed a halo effect of positive story on some other traits of the celebrity, apart from attractiveness. The celebrity was not only seen as more attractive (p=0.000) in positive story condition but also significantly more trustworthy (p=0.028), more knowledgeable (p=0.000) and more talented (p=0.000) than in negative story condition. She was also perceived as, with slight significance, more reliable (p=0.076) and more friendly (p=0.091).

On running ANOVA on perceived brand-celebrity fit with story and category as factors, we found a main effect of category (p=0.025) such that the celebrity (irrespective of positive or negative story) was seen as a better fit for beauty cream (M=4.96) than for "save the girl child" campaign (M=4.36). We also found a slightly significant (p=0.063) interaction effect of story and category such that, for beauty cream (p=0.025), in positive story condition she (M=5.33) was seen as a better fit than in negative story condition (M=4.55), but for the social campaign (p=0.618) she was seen as a slightly better fit in negative story condition (M=4.45) than in positive story condition (M=4.25). This non-significant effect in opposite direction shows that the extreme positive effect of the positive story which we observed for beauty cream (also for her credibility in general) gets switched off and even changes sign for the social campaign.

Further, when we took participants' individual moral identity into account, the interaction between category and story became more significant (p=0.010) for high moral identity respondents such that, for "save the girl child" campaign, the effect approached significance (p=0.117) - the celebrity in negative story condition (M=4.85) was seen as a better fit than in positive story condition (M=3.92). Interestingly, for high moral identity respondents there was also a main effect of story (p=0.070) on the celebrity's honesty such that she was perceived as more honest in negative story condition (M=5.65) than in positive story condition (M=4.10). This could be due to people high on moral identity perceiving a more attractive celebrity as vain and egotistical (Dermer & Thiel, 1975), thus reducing her suitability for the social cause.

For the relationship scenario, we again observed a halo effect of positive story on all the celebrity traits including attractive, knowledgeable, friendly and talented (p<0.01 for all but talented; p=0.097 for talented). On running ANOVA on perceived brand-celebrity fit with story and category as factors, we found a main effect of category (p=0.000) such that the celebrity (irrespective of positive or negative story) was seen as a better fit for condom (M=4.98) than for cookware (M=3.74). We also found a significant (p=0.003) interaction effect of story and category such that he was seen as a better fit for cookware (p=0.000) in positive story condition (M=4.53) than in negative story condition (M=2.99), but he was seen as very slightly better fit for condom (p=0.748) in negative story condition (M=5.05) than in positive story condition (M=4.93). This non-significant effect in opposite direction shows that the extreme positive effect of the positive story which we observed for cookware (also for his credibility, morality and warmth in general) gets switched off and even changes sign for condom.

When we took participants' fascination with celebrities into account, the interaction effect of story and category became more significant (p=0.002) for high celebrity-fascination respondents such that the celebrity was seen as a better fit for condom (p=0.050) in negative story condition (M=5.40) than in positive story condition (M=4.33). This is probably because people fascinated with celebrities, being used to reading such scandals, don't find it highly immoral and thus can look practically at the story's fit with the image of a condom brand. Similar overall effects were

found with public conduct scenario as well, but the positive effect for negative story was insignificant even after taking personality measures into account.

These findings successfully establish match-up between gossip story and category image as a criterion which can switch off (and even change direction) in the story-endorser effectiveness relationship. Further studies are planned to replicate these findings with a set of real celebrities and to explore the moderating effect of celebrity's initial image/reputation (clean vs. controversial image) and that of the source of gossip (credible vs. non-credible source).

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Do Cross-cultural Differences Exist in Online Reviews? A Thematic Analysis using Leximancer

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Introduction

Consumers like to share information, opinion and experiences of the products and services with others. Such interpersonal communication is described as word of mouth or WOM (Berger 2014). The role of traditional WOM and social influence on purchase-related decision-making has been firmly established in extant literature (Godes and Mayzlin 2004). However, with the increase in Internet activity and proliferation in our day to day lives, the Internet-based opinion mechanisms or electronic word of mouth (eWOM) is altering consumer behavior and decision-making (Lee, Park and Han 2008). Research has found that both online and offline consumer buying and decision-making behavior is influenced by eWOM. Online reviews are a type of eWOM and comprise of the majority of research done in this domain. However, in extant research, disproportionate focus has been given to only a few characteristics of eWOM like valence, volume and source trust/credibility that directly influence the effectiveness/persuasiveness of eWOM and subsequent product purchase intention and sales. Researchers have also looked at the motivations to post and seek eWOM. However, very few studies look at the moderating role of cross-cultural differences in eWOM content or outcome.

Culture influences consumer behavior (De Mooij and Hofstede 2011). It mold's customer perceptions and choice evaluation process. Hence, it is expected that cross-cultural differences may exist in consumers' eWOM content and other related behaviors, which can affect their effectiveness/persuasiveness. However, the recent literature syntheses on eWOM/online reviews (King, Racherla and Bush 2014; Cheung and Thadani 2012) highlight that there is a lack of investigation on how consumers from different cultures write, seek and process eWOM. Hence, in this study, we explore the differences in the content of online reviews based on the cultural orientation of the reviewer using Leximancer tool. In particular, we intend to do a preliminary investigation of how the message content of online reviews varies with the cultural orientation (High vs. Low-context) of individuals posting reviews.

Theoretical Background

Culture is defined as "shared perceptions of the social environment" (Triandis 1972). It affects both communication and consumer behavior and encompasses language, social behavior and interactions, knowledge and beliefs. Research shows that consumers' communication preferences are also affected by their cultural values (Pentina, Sharmanska and Lampert 2015). There are only a handful of studies that investigate differences in the content or linguistic style of online reviews due to differences in cultural orientation of the reviewer/sender (Lam, Lee and Mizerski 2009; Tsang and Prendergast 2009; Fong and Burton 2008). Most of these have adopted the Hofstede's (1991) Individualism vs. Collectivism (IC) framework for understanding cross-cultural communications (Sharma 2010). Individualists are direct and tacit. In contrast, members from collectivist cultures communicate in an indirect or implicit way (Hofstede 1991).

Edward Hall's (1976) High-context and Low-context classification of culture also facilitates the understanding of cross-cultural communication differences. In High-context cultures, communication tends to be indirect, formal and with background context. They value relational and intangible aspects. In contrast, Low-context cultures are logical, linear, individualistic, and action-oriented. Since communication characteristics, including language, writing styles and use of emotions and arguments vary by culture (Hofstede 1991); the content of online reviews by individuals from different cultural background is likely to be different. The

reviews by members of Low-context are more likely to provide relevant information on the subject matter and sufficient evidence for critiques (Hall, 1976, p. 91). They are also more likely to discuss different attributes of the product/service in order to provide comprehensive information. In addition, High-context cultures are more likely to emphasize upon intangible aspects like staff behavior, norms, practices, group comfort in their reviews. As the High-Low communication context has not been explored in the online context, we adopt this framework to understand the differences in argument styles while posting online reviews depending upon the reviewers' cultural values. Hence, our research question is framed as follows:

How does the content and quality of online reviews differ by the cultural orientation (High- vs. Low-context) of the reviewers?

Data and Methodology

The manual content analysis is sometimes limiting in the fact that the data is coded to support/ reject existing assumptions and made to fit into a pre-existing coding frame or the researcher's analytic preconceptions (Braun and Clarke 2006). Since this was an exploratory study to get insights into cross-cultural communication in the online reviews domain, we conducted thematic analysis. Thematic analysis has been widely used to analyze textual content. Leximancer (www.leximancer.com) uses machine learning to discover keywords and associated concepts to perform thematic analysis. Leximancer has been used in a wide range of domains including analyzing social marketing conversations and online consumer conversations about brands and advertisements (Dann 2010; Campbell et al. 2011). We used Leximancer to analyze 200 online hotel reviews on TripAdvisor of a top and a mid-ranking hotel in Istanbul.

Results and Discussion

As we can see in the Leximancer output below, the Low-context reviews have more concepts within the themes. They also appear more comprehensive and relevant as they have not only included information on the website indicated parameters (service, staff, room/sleep quality, cleanliness, value, location and F&B) but also added additional information that they found important. The sentences that were picked up by Leximancer as indicative of the content show that reviews from High-context cultures are primarily focused on relational and intangible aspects. On the other hand, members of Low-context cultures discuss tangible aspects more. These insights directionally validate our assumptions that there are differences in terms of comprehensiveness, relevance and actual product/service related content between members of different cultural background.

The results of this study provide useful marketing implications for managers of these hotels/other experience-based product categories who must acknowledge that people from different cultures value different attributes, which is reflected in their reviews. Managers must therefore customize their offerings to meet needs of different cultural backgrounds. In addition, since different cultures report complementary things, effort must be made to increase the WOM/eWOM contribution from members of different cultural orientations.
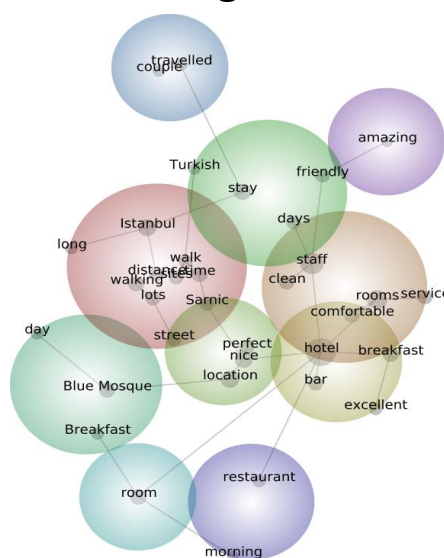
Low-context
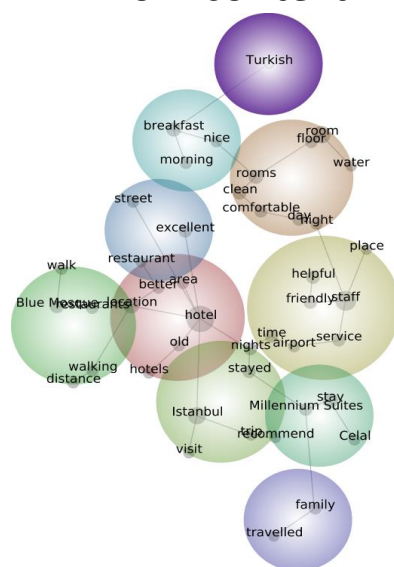
High-context

Table : 1 Key Sentences identified by Leximancer for Low-context and High-context

Low Context

"This hotel is in a great location, and very easy to get around. In addition, being next to the blue mosque was a great landmark."

"The rooms are a bit small and offered a little less privacy. You can literally hear whatever the sound from the next room"

"The room was tastefully furnished with all the facilities (the free mini bar was much appreciated). The bed was enormous and comfortable and we slept well"

"This is a Clean & Comfortable genuine Turkish Hotel with friendly Staff who are keen to help and advice. This is where the Millennium Suites excel."

"The room was air-conditioned, large, clean & comfortable with free wifi & a free mini-bar"

"The breakfasts were quite delightful and while a Turkish breakfast was on offer, many other delicacies were available including pastries, fruit, toast cereal and even freshly cooked eggs available on request."

High Context

"We-have-arrived-back-in-south-africa-feeling-like-we-have-a-family-in-istanbul-from-the-moment-we-arrived-there-we-were-greeted-with-huge,-genuine-smiles_and_were-treated-like-royalty-for-the-rest-of-our-stay.Celal,and his staff-were-quite-amazing"

"All of the staff are very helpful and are happy to chat with you as long as you wish."

"Seriously, their hospitality is unbelievable. I have never experienced such a friendly and helpful staff as I have here."

"We were offered breakfast when we first came, not included in our booking... a testament to the generous spirit of the people from the hotel

"The location is ideal, not just for the well known, but its street is named for a small, quiet mosque and courtyard. A treat to visit at the end of the day."

"Room: The biggest I have seen in my travels in Europe. Free wifi (thank you), a room safe, and plenty of personal care products"

Limitations and Future Research

This exploratory study gives us useful insights on differences in online cross-cultural communications. The study can be extended in a number of ways, e.g., using machine learning and sentiment analysis to get a more nuanced understanding of differences in argument variables like valence, volume and source credibility/trust features; complementing the results with detailed manual content analysis; using surveys and experiments to get statistical differences, among others. In addition, in this study, the country of the reviewer has been used as a proxy for his/her

cultural orientation, which is a limitation (Sharma 2010). However, the information available on TripAdvisor is inconclusive to identify the personal cultural orientation of the reviewer. This can also be an interesting extension of the work.

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Exploring the influence of online pricing strategies on buying behavior

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Business-to- Consumer (B2C) market in India generates the bulk of revenues across the consumer-facing modes of e-Commerce. Major e-commerce players in India like Flipkart, Amazon and Snap deal are increasingly adopting newer technological strategies to gain a competitive edge over the

competition. One of the ways they have embraced is automated dynamic pricing. In this study we have tried to measure the impact of dynamic pricing strategies, adopted by e-commerce companies in India on the consumer behavior. Different category of consumers perceive differences in prices due to dynamic pricing differently. We have identified such segments of consumers who are more likely to buy products during low prices and discounts than others. Further, we have also studied the impact of price differences on feelings and repeat purchase for different category of consumers based on their purchase involvement level.

Introduction

Since the inception of e-Commerce, the companies have adopted different discount procedures so as to pull in shoppers. It is an extraordinary practice that amid intense competition, companies drop costs to invigorate request against contenders and to make the best trade stream conceivable for money in the short turn. Among distinctive pricing methods, on the other hand, organizations have a tendency to support dynamic pricing, and purchasers appear to acknowledge the same. The success of dynamic pricing depends on the accuracy of customer segmentation to distinctively identify varying levels of readiness to pay (Dimicco, Maes and Greenwald, 2003). Specifically, the airline businesses have progressively utilized dynamic pricing and have been able to do so profitably because their inventories are perishable. Hotel businesses were next to follow the suit and off lately online retailers have also started to increasingly adopt similar pricing strategies.

From shoppers' point of view, they appear to acknowledge the application of dynamic pricing where they are charged varying costs for the same product or service (Elmaghraby and Keskinocak, 2003) since this pricing strategy empowers shoppers to settle on a decision over the cost. Dynamic pricing has been utilized as a tool to assist promotional campaigns; for instance, buyers get reduced rates when they accept limitations (terms and conditions), or on the off chance that they pre-order a certain product. Also, studies have shown that purchasers respond contrastingly to discounts of the same items or services (Elmaghraby and Keskinocak, 2003). The idea of 'consumer involvement' plays a noteworthy role here. Consumers can be segmented into low, moderate and high involvement categories based on which different promotional strategies can be adopted for different groups. Additionally, the involvement level of the consumers may impact their attitude toward discounts or dynamic prices, for example, high involvement buyers exhibiting more positive sentiments from getting a markdown price, etc., This study inspects how dynamic pricing strategies adopted by Indian e-tailers impact consumes' behaviour; in case of a popularly perceived high involvement product – a branded D-SLR Camera.

Literature Review

Most of the companies generally use simple methods to decide prices for their products or services: uniform pricing model, cost plus model, or competitive pricing model. Dynamic pricing, also called real-time pricing, is an approach to setting the price for a product or service that is highly flexible. The goal of dynamic pricing is to allow a company that sells goods or services over the Internet to adjust prices on the fly in response to market demands. Changes are controlled by pricing bots, which are software agents that gather data and use algorithms to adjust pricing

according to business rules. Typically, the business rules take into account such things as the customer's location, the time of day, the day of the week, the level of demand and competitors' pricing. With the advent of big data and big data analytics, however, business rules for price adjustments can be made more granular. By collecting and analyzing data about a particular customer, a vendor can more accurately predict what price the customer is willing to pay and adjust prices accordingly. Dynamic pricing is legal, and the general public has learned to accept dynamic pricing when purchasing airline tickets or reserving hotel rooms online. The approach, which is sometimes marketed as a personalization service, has been less successful with online retail vendors.

Customers' viewpoints of the fairness of dynamic pricing rely on upon the amount of information revealed to shoppers (Elmaghraby and Keskinocak, 2003). A purchaser may see a circumstance as unfair when he or she pays more for a comparable product or service and can't see a distinction in the product or service. In the event that buyers see dynamic pricing as unfair, the increased incomes coming about because of dynamic pricing may just be short term. Considering this argument, buyers are more likely to acknowledge dynamic pricing when they are more involved in the pricing process. They react more positively to a dynamic pricing process than a uniform pricing process if they are more involved in the buying situation. Hence, consumers' reactions toward two different types of pricing, dynamic and uniform pricing, may vary according to the level of involvement in obtaining a discount.

Level of Involvement

In past studies, the idea of consumer involvement has been widely studied. Zaichkowsky (1985) gave far reaching ideas of 'involvement' in consumer behavior. At the point when buyers seem to be involved in advertisements, they are usually influenced by promotions; hence they are roused to react to the commercials. At the point when buyers seem to be involved in products, they are pre-occupied with product information focused around their needs and qualities. Therefore, at the point when buyers are concerned with accepting a markdown or a discount, they seem, by all accounts, to be motivated in receiving a discount; consequently, shoppers will be inspired to make a watchful quest for bargains.

High involvement purchasers are characterized as the individuals who invest additional time, exertion, and money to hunt down better deals (Schindler, 1998). Various studies propose that the level of involvement could be measured based on the time spent in product search, the energy spent, the number of alternatives examined, and the extent of the decision process. Alternately, low involvement customers are viewed as aloof to value bargains (Farahmand and Chatterjee, 2008). Low involvement customers may acquire discount bargains when they inadvertently experience them. Some studies demonstrated that customers' information search practices and buying choices could be impacted by demographics, for example, an explorer's age and gender. Therefore, this study looks at the role of gender and age in impacting shoppers' level of involvement in obtaining a discount.

Hence we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Female consumers are more prone to be involved in getting a discount than male consumers.
Hypothesis 2: Younger consumers are more prone to be involved in getting a discount than the older consumers.

Furthermore, Campo and Yague (2007) examined how a purchase at a markdown value influences the customer's view of price as a function of his or her individual attributes; they found that people with distinctive characteristics see the price in a different way. However, buyers are significantly more accepting of dynamic pricing when they are more involved in the pricing process. Their participation represents an acceptance of the practice; for example, an auction always has a higher degree of acceptance. Hence, involvement plays a significant moderating role in the purchase decision; in most cases the relationships are stronger for consumers with higher involvement. Hence the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Consumers with a high level of involvement experience more positive feelings from a discount, compared to low involvement consumers.
Hypothesis 4: Consumers with a high level of involvement are more likely to tell others, compared to low involvement consumers.
Hypothesis 5: Consumers with a high level of involvement are more likely to make repeat purchases, compared to low involvement consumers.

 Methodology:

A primary research was conducted to study the effect of dynamic pricing strategies by online retailers on the consumer behavior; feeling, response, propensity to tell others and likeliness to make repeat purchase. Also, how the consumer behavior varies with the varying involvement in buying process was studied. Data was collected using a questionnaire survey that gauges respondents' level of involvement, behavioral and emotional responses to a scenario. A total of 132 survey responses were finalized after data cleaning.

The first two questions of the questionnaire capture the demographic profile of the respondents (Age and Gender). The questions from 3 to 8 were based on a scenario pertaining to dynamic pricing. For the given scenario, five questions were served as dependent variables to understand how a respondent feels in that particular situation and how he or she reacts in the wake of having gotten the markdown: feelings; pride; appreciation; tell others; and, repeat purchase. These variables were adopted from Schindler (1989). Questions concerning feelings, pride, and appreciation were assembled together to investigate emotional reactions. Regarding behavioral reactions, the probability of word-of-mouth/telling others concerning the markdown and the probability of repeat purchase were measured.
Each response was captured on a 7 point Likert scale. Zaichkowsky's (1985) Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) was used to capture information pertaining to the level of involvement of the respondents. Zaichkowsky's PII was used to classify respondents into three groups on the basis of the involvement scores. From 132 involvement scores, which ranged from 10 to 70, the top 50 responses were classified as high involvement consumers and the bottom 50 as low involvement consumers, with the middle forty were excluded. Then, five dependent variables were measured to see how high involvement consumers reported to dynamic pricing. Dependent variables

concerning good feelings, pride, and gratitude were grouped together (sum 1 to 3) to explore emotional responses. (Emotional and behavioural response scores served as dependent variables.). To test the hypotheses, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used.

Results:

In the sample of 132 respondents, 70.45% belonged to the group of ages below 30 and 29.55% to the group of ages 35 years or older. The sample size was considered adequate for the number of independent variables.

The proposed hypothesis 1 was tested using ANOVA. Figure 1 exhibits the result of ANOVA test on hypothesis 1

Descriptives

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	26	47.46	7.229	1.418	44.54	50.38	29	60
1	106	42.34	8.208	.797	40.76	43.92	22	60
Total	132	43.35	8.255	.719	41.93	44.77	22	60

Anova Table

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	547.735	1	547.735	8.497	.004
Within Groups	8380.235	130	64.463		
Total	8927.970	131			

0: Female
1: Male

Figure 1: ANOVA results for Hypothesis 1

Results in the above figure 1 refer to the means and standard deviations of involvement scores based on gender. The results revealed that the mean of female group was higher than that of male group at 5 % level of significance (M0 = 47.46 vs. M1= 42.34, F=8.497, sig< .05). Thus female consumers show more involvement in saving using dynamic pricing and would prefer to buy at cheaper rates. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported that female consumers are more prone to be involved in getting a discount than male consumers.

The proposed hypothesis 2 was also tested using ANOVA. Figure 2 below shows the result of ANOVA test on hypothesis 2.

Descriptive

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	93	45.60	8.155	.846	43.92	47.28	22	60
2	39	37.97	5.645	.904	36.14	39.80	27	50
Total	132	43.35	8.255	.719	41.93	44.77	22	60

ANOVA Table

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1598.716	1	1598.716	28.357	.000
Within Groups	7329.254	130	56.379		
Total	8927.970	131			

1: Young Respondents
2: Old Respondents

Figure 2: ANOVA results for Hypothesis 2

Results in figure 2 refer to the means and standard deviations of involvement scores based on age groups. The results revealed that the mean of younger group was higher than that of older group at 5 % level of significance (M1 = 45.60 vs. M2= 37.97, F=28.357, sig< .05). Thus younger consumers show more involvement in saving using dynamic pricing and would prefer to buy at cheaper rates Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported that younger consumers are more prone to be involved in getting a discount than the older.

Figure 3 below exhibits the result of ANOVA test on hypothesis 3.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	50	13.98	3.217	.455	13.07	14.89	5	20
2	50	12.06	3.622	.512	11.03	13.09	6	20
Total	100	13.02	3.542	.354	12.32	13.72	5	20

ANOVA Table

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	92.160	1	92.160	7.855	.006
Within Groups	1149.800	98	11.733		
Total	1241.960	99			

1: High Involvement
2: Low Involvement

Figure 3: ANOVA results for Hypothesis 3

Results in figure 3 refer to the means and standard deviations of emotional response scores based on level of involvement. The results revealed that the mean of high involvement group was higher than that of the low involvement group at 5 % level of significance (M1 = 13.98 vs. M2= 12.06, F=7.855, sig< .05). Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported that consumers with a high level of involvement experience more positive feelings from a discount, compared to low involvement consumers.

Figure 4 below is the result of ANOVA test on hypothesis 4.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	50	4.20	1.591	.225	3.75	4.65	1	7
2	50	3.44	1.567	.222	2.99	3.89	1	7
Total	100	3.82	1.617	.162	3.50	4.14	1	7

ANOVA Table

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14.440	1	14.440	5.792	.018
Within Groups	244.320	98	2.493		
Total	258.760	99			

1: High Involvement
2: Low Involvement

Figure 4: ANOVA results for Hypothesis 4

Results in figure 4 refer to the means and standard deviations of behavioral response (tell others) scores based on level of involvement. The results revealed that the mean of high involvement group was higher than that of the low involvement group at 5 % level of significance (M1 = 4.20 vs. M2= 3.44, F=5.792, sig< .05). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported that consumers with a high level of involvement are more likely to tell others, compared to low involvement consumers.

Figure 5 below exhibits the result of ANOVA test on hypothesis 5.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	50	4.52	1.681	.238	4.04	5.00	1	7
2	50	3.50	1.374	.194	3.11	3.89	1	7
Total	100	4.01	1.611	.161	3.69	4.33	1	7

ANOVA Table

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	26.010	1	26.010	11.036	.001
Within Groups	230.980	98	2.357		
Total	256.990	99			

1: High Involvement
2: Low Involvement

Figure 5: ANOVA results for Hypothesis 5

Results in figure 5 refer to the means and standard deviations of behavioral response (repeat purchase) scores based on level of involvement. The results revealed that the mean of high involvement group was higher than that of the low involvement group at 5 % level of significance (M1 = 4.52 vs. M2= 3.50, F=11.036, sig< .05). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported that consumers with a high level of involvement are more likely to make repeat purchases, compared to low involvement consumers.

Conclusion

Given today's competitive e-Retailing landscape, companies are encouraged to use pricing strategies effectively to influence consumers, and online environment enables them to dynamically manage prices. Moreover, studies have suggested that individuals with different characteristics perceive the price differently, and individual consumers show different reactions to price of the same product in different situations, channels, and occasions of use.

The current study also examined the role of gender and age in influencing consumers' level of involvement in obtaining a discount. The results of ANOVA indicated that female and younger consumers are more involved in obtaining a discount. The fundamental purpose of this study is to investigate how consumers' emotion and behavior are influenced by dynamic pricing, given the level of involvement of consumers. The results of the study indicate a significant interaction between the levels of consumers' involvement in obtaining a discount and the levels of emotional and behavioral reactions. As compare to low involvement consumers, high involvement consumers significantly showed more positive feelings from a discount, and were more likely to tell others and to make repeat purchases.

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A study on antecedents and outcomes of customer perception towards luxury brands products

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Introduction:

Luxury brands are considered as the most profitable brand segments in recent days. Luxury industry has become more adequate and its market has been tripled when compared to the late 1990's. The attention of researches in analysing the luxury products has been tempted because of the global appetite for this luxury items. It has to be noted that, in spite of increasing popularity, luxury industry faces critical like the risks of brand over-extensions and counterfeiting (Atwal and Williams, 2009). As such, the rising demand for luxury in modern days, a insightful understanding of the luxury concept is essential. Though luxury brands compete based on a close relationship with customers, an integrative and clear understanding of what are the variety of values that are highly considered as essential in the consumer's perspective. This would help in assisting the three main aspects of brand management, namely, satisfaction, trust and loyalty.

Most of the existing literatures found that the desire for consumption of luxury brands involves customer perceived values including functional, financial, and social consumer perceptions. However, the study regarding clear understanding of customer perception towards luxury and related behavioural outcomes are scarce. Therefore, this study focuses on examining the antecedents and behavioural outcomes of customer luxury value perception incorporating applicable theoretical and empirical findings. Hence the research objective of this study is,

1. To analyse the potential factors influencing consumer perception of luxury brands in Indian context.
2. To identify and explore the latent outcomes of consumer perception towards luxury brands.

Literature Review

Luxury brands constitute of various functional and psychological needs (Nia and Zaichkowsky, 2000) and get highly influenced by the consumer's perception towards it (Phau and Prendergast, 2000). Customer's perception is stated as "a consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given" (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 14). In a recent study, it has been explored that the qualities of a luxury brand must emphasize the customer value orientation and needs of consumer touch points (Kim and Kim, 2014). It is still an issue that what constitutes the value creation in luxury consumption. Therefore this study has reviewed and adapted concepts from previous findings in order to assess the antecedents and outcomes of customer's perceptions of luxury brand as illustrated in the conceptual model below (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Smith and Colgate, 2007; Wiedmann et al., 2009).

As found by Wiedmann et al. (2011), the major antecedents that influences customer perception of luxury brands include financial value like direct monetary aspects, functional value like basic product performance, social value such as status and prestige and the individual value like consumer personal orientation toward luxury. This in turn helps in understanding the emotional needs, materialistic attitudes, sensory pleasure, etc., (Wiedmann et al., 2009).

The above mentioned antecedents are highly correlated and act as important drivers of consumer's behavioural outcomes of luxury brand perception. The domain of luxury is associated with aspect of exclusivity like scarce materials and limited accessibility that enhances the consumer's preference for them highly denotes their level of purchase intention (Pantzalis, 1995). As the customer perception becomes more positive, there comes the place for positive word-of-mouth especially among the consumers who are status-conscious (Tellis and Gaeth, 1990). Another viewpoint is that, luxury brands also are associated with willingness to pay a price premium because of its high levels of prestige and status (Keller, 2009).
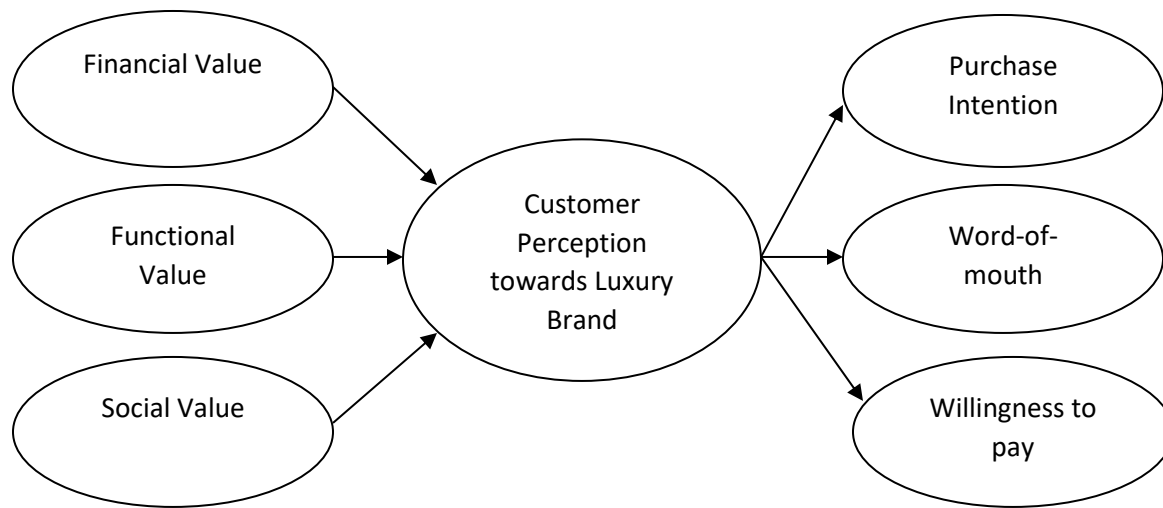
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  ┌──────────────┐                              ┌──────────────┐
  │  Financial   │                              │   Purchase   │
  │    Value     │                              │  Intention   │
  └──────────────┘                              └──────────────┘
  ┌──────────────┐     ┌──────────────┐         ┌──────────────┐
  │  Functional  │ ──▶ │   Customer   │ ──▶     │  Word-of-    │
  │    Value     │     │  Perception  │         │    mouth     │
  └──────────────┘     │ towards Luxury│        └──────────────┘
  ┌──────────────┐     │    Brand     │         ┌──────────────┐
  │ Social Value │ ──▶ └──────────────┘         │Willingness to│
  └──────────────┘                              │     pay      │
                                                └──────────────┘
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Fig 1. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Research Methodology

To measure the antecedents and outcomes of customer perception towards luxury brand, the existing and tested measures will be used. As mentioned earlier, study by Sweeney and Soutar (2001) will be adapted for examining the relationship between the financial, functional and social dimensions of luxury and customer perception towards it and study by Hung et al., 2011; Wiedmann et al., 2011; Hieke, 2010; Miller and Mills, 2012 will be adopted for measuring the outcomes. All items will be rated on five-point Likert scales. For the purposes of proper execution of this study, exploratory research and convenience sampling technique will be used to obtain a balanced set of data.

Implications and Conclusion

This study will help in understanding the significance of luxury brand management and influence future research in the area of luxury industry. By addressing the various antecedents and outcomes of customer perception towards luxury brands, the luxury company can strategize appropriate

marketing campaigns that help in preserving the important value aspects throughout the supply chain.

Also this study helps in balancing the act between brand growth and brand over-exposure by reassuring the true standards of the luxury concept. In this context, the significant antecedents and outcomes of customer perception towards luxury brands is well understood through covering all relevant criteria were investigated. Also it would support the postulation that the desire for luxury brands involves dimensions like financial, functional, social and customer perceptions. Besides, this study also supports that customer perception is significantly related in terms of three major outcomes such as purchase intention, word-of-mouth and the willingness to pay a premium price. Furthermore, luxury brand managers in recent days face several challenges in the luxury market and thus all its relevant measures need to be secured right from production to distribution. As a consequence of potential loss in brand equity, the identification of the needs and desires of consumers stands as a key success factor.

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Examining the definitions and conceptualizations of customer experience as a construct

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Understanding customer experience and the customer journey over time is critical for firms. Customers now interact with firms through various touch points in multiple channels and media, and customer experiences are more social in nature. These changes require firms to integrate multiple business functions, and even external partners, in creating and delivering positive customer experiences. In this, the author aim to develop a stronger understanding of customer experience in this era of increasingly complex customer behavior. In order to achieve this goal, the author examines existing definitions and conceptualizations of customer experience as a construct, and provide a historical perspective of the roots of customer experience within marketing. Next, the author attempts to bring together what is currently known about customer experience, customer journeys and customer experience management.

Creating a strong customer experience is now a leading management objective. According to a recent study by Accenture (in cooperation with Forrester, 2015), improving the customer experience received the most number one rankings when asking executives about their top priorities for the next twelve months. Multiple firms, such as KPMG, Amazon, and Google, now have Chief Customer Experience Officers, Customer Experience Vice Presidents, or Customer Experience Managers responsible for creating and managing the experience of their customers. Schmitt (1999) was one of the first scholars to emphasize the importance of customer experience, and Pine and Gilmore (1998) specifically addressed the importance of experiences in today's society and the opportunities for firms to benefit from creating strong and enduring customer experiences. Marketing science, and specifically customer management, has been slow to adopt these developments in the marketing literature. Attention in customer management has mainly centered on customers' value creation for firms with a focus on metrics such as customer lifetime value (CLV) (Gupta, Lehmann, and Stuart 2004; Kumar and Shah 2009) instead of value creation for customers (Bügel 2010; Kumar and Reinartz 2016).

The increasing focus on customer experience arises because customers now interact with firms through myriad touchpoints in multiple channels and media, resulting in more complex customer journeys. Firms are confronted with accelerating media and channel fragmentation, and Omni channel management has become the new norm (Brynjolfsson, Hu, and Rahman 2013; Verhoef, Kannan, and Inman 2015). Moreover, customer-to-customer interactions through social media are creating significant challenges and opportunities for firms (Leeflang et al. 2013; Libai et al. 2010). Customer experiences are more social in nature, and peer customers are influencing experiences as well. Firms also have much less control, overall, of the customer experience and the customer journey, resulting in behaviours such as showrooming (e.g., Brynjolfsson, Hu, and Rahman 2013; Rapp et al. 2015). The explosion in potential customer touch points and the reduced control of the experience require firms to integrate multiple business functions, including information technology, service operations, logistics, marketing, human resources, and even external partners, in creating and delivering positive customer experiences. Thus, it has become increasingly complex for firms to create, manage, and attempt to control the experience and journey of each customer (e.g., Rawson, Duncan, and Jones 2014; Edelman and Singer 2015).

To date, researchers have mainly focused on exploratory attempts to conceptualize and measure customer experience (e.g., Brakus, Schmitt and Zarantonello 2009; Verhoef et al. 2009; Grewal, Levy, and Kumar 2009; Pucinelli et al. 2009). The Marketing Science Institute (2014, 2016) views customer experience as one of its most important research challenges in the coming years, likely because of the increasing number and complexity of customer touchpoints, and the belief that creating strong, positive experiences within the customer journey will result in improvements to the bottom line by improving the performance in the customer journey at multiple touchpoints (i.e., higher conversion rates) and through improved customer loyalty and word of mouth (Court et al. 2009; Edelman 2010; Homburg, Joziç, and Kuehnl 2015).

Given the relatively nascent state of the customer experience literature, there is really limited empirical work directly related to customer experience. There is, however, a broad and deep set of research investigating specific facets of what is now being called customer experience. Thus our goal in this paper is to bring together the research that does exist on customer experience, to understand its origins and roots, and to place it in context. Through this process, we aim to develop a stronger understanding of customer experience in an era of increasingly complex customer behavior. As customer experience has recently become one of the major buzzwords in marketing, it is useful to attempt to bring together what we know to provide a solid theoretical perspective on this concept. To do so, author defines customer experience, examines existing definitions of customer experience as a construct, and discusses the limited extant findings on customer experience.

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How Cultural Capital Structures Preferences for Flamboyance and Subtlety in Sensory Choices in India

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"While driving back to the apartment, I looked into the rearview mirror. Mr. Ashok was wearing a t-shirt. It was like no t-shirt I would ever choose to buy at a store. The larger part of it was empty and white and there was a small design in the center. I would have bought something very colorful, with lots of words and designs on it." -Balram Halwai, driver, observing the clothing preferences of his employer in the Man-Booker Prize-winning novel "The White Tiger" by Aravind Adiga

We use possessions and make brand choices to construct and signal our self-identity to others (Levy 1959; Belk 1988; Belk, Bahn and Meyer 2001). Veblen (1899) defined conspicuous consumption as the use of possessions to demonstrate or claim social status. Costa and Belk (1990) found that the American nouveau riche consumers indulge in conspicuous consumption of possessions and leisure activities in an attempt to distance themselves from those now beneath them economically. While the relationship between status, power and conspicuous consumption of branded products has been studied in some depth, limited research has looked at preferences for high versus low sensory intensity stimuli such as bright colors, loud music, and strong tastes and fragrances. The opening quote depicts an Indian driver who is low in social status and caste, who favors "louder," more visually prominent product designs (i.e., flashier, gaudier) clothing than his employer who is higher in social status, caste, and cultural capital (Holt 1998; Bourdieu 1984). Could preferences for different intensities of sensory consumption be another form of symbolic consumption, and another outcome of taste distinctions by cultural capital? If so, what accounts for such consumption patterns?

Consumer culture theory encourages a contextual approach to theory development leading to more precise and powerful explanations. In analyzing status consumption strategies among upper middle-class women in Turkey, Üstüner and Holt (2010) revised three key constructs in Bourdieuian (1984) status consumption theory -- cultural capital, habitus and social field. Similar to these authors and Holt (1998), we extend Bourdieu's (1984) original analysis of taste and cultural capital, updating the framework to reflect important parameters in the Indian context.

28 depth interviews were completed with female informants who were classified as low cultural capital (LCC) or high cultural capital (HCC) as determined by Holt's (1998) procedure. Sensory intensity preferences were assessed with the help of visuals of clothing, jewelry, purses, shoes, and watches, samples of clothing material and fragrances and participant observation in participants' natural environments of homes. We devised a projective technique called "Dress-Up" based on the "Jennifer's Wardrobe" technique described in Belk, Fischer and Kozinets (2012; Fig1). In this task, informants were asked to dress a paper figurine described to be a girl with a similar background as theirs, for different occasions such as a family wedding, a distant relative or friend's wedding, or a birthday party.

In contrast to HCCs, LCC consumers preferred more intense sensory experiences; more visually conspicuous (gaudy clothes and accessories, brightly painted homes etc.; Fig2), and more intense experiences along other sensory domains such as sound (loud music, cell-phone ringtones), smell (strong fragrances in perfumes, use of flowers and incense) and taste (higher levels of spices used in cooking, sugar used in beverages). Their consumption choices were largely driven by family expectations and desire for conformity with their in-group, true to their collectivistic nature (Holt 1998). Dressing for weddings was particularly ritualistic, with socially-specified regulations with respect to attire. They believed that not adhering to traditional norms would be seen as insulting to the hosts. The closer the relationship with the hosts, the more it was necessary to "dress up" and bring out the gold jewelry and grand clothing and accessories. Others guests at the wedding were also expected to assess the status of the bride and groom based on how their relatives were dressed. For HCCs, consumption choices were related to their own preferences and by what would make them distinct from others in their in-group. They gave more importance to the cut, shape, and fabric material of the clothes in their selections and cited "comfort" as being an important factor (a factor not mentioned by LCC informants). They reacted negatively to clothing with shine and glitter, identifying such items as uncomfortable to wear, associated with those belonging to lower classes, or people wanting to attract attention in a vulgar way.

It was evident that symbolic capital, an important consideration in a hierarchical society like India (Vikas, Varman and Belk 2015) was low for the LCC informants. Nearly all of them elaborated on the absence of "choice" with respect to their daily activities, and their limited power in making decisions. Almost as if to offset these feelings of low power, LCC informants repeatedly displayed a preference for articles of clothing that were brighter, more voluminous, and synonymous with what they believed that royalty would wear. For instance, they unanimously preferred childrens' dresses with frills, and women's salwar kameez's in the flared "anarkali" design, rather than straight cut designs. They perceived such clothes to have a grander, weightier or more powerful look. "Such frocks look big. They make children look big and noticeable. They look like they are from rich homes;" "Such frocks give a royal look, like a queen;" "Anarkalis give a grand look -- the cut, the flare, the frill," were some sample statements.

Much like Üstüner and Holt's (2007, 2010) findings in Turkey, and Vikas et al (2015) in India, we too find the existence of a consumption field in which classes compete to mobilize their economic, cultural and symbolic capital resources via consumption, in this case using the unique currency of sensory intensity. We find that different classes rely on different sensory intensity strategies -- either flamboyant (high intensity) or subtle (low intensity) -- that align with their cultural and symbolic capital. Specifically, those with lower cultural capital prefer more sensorial intense consumption experiences, which can be a way to compensate for their lower power within their habitus and consumption field.

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Effects of Show Windows on Young Indian Female Consumers' Shopping Behavior

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Introduction

The in-store retail business is getting more complex and volatile with the entry of online retailers and with the increasing use of retail apps, especially by young consumers. Therefore, in-store retailers depend on an array of promotional strategies, including visual merchandising to gain competitive advantage (Jain *et al.,* 2014). What was earlier routine merchandising activities in retail outlets, have since evolved to become "more absorbed, specialized and specific" (Cant and Hefer, 2014). Show windows are one of the elements of visual merchandising used to attract shoppers inside the store (Diamond and Diamond, 2007). The shoppers experience and engagement may be enhanced through visual merchandising and motivate them to make planned or planned purchases (Levi & Weitz, 2009). Effect of show windows on the shopping behavior of female consumers in an US context has been studied by Jain et al., (2014). The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of show windows on the shopping behavior among young female consumers in an Indian context.

Review of Literature

Store environment and shopping behavior: The effects of store environment on shopping behavior can be studied at elementary level, which may include individual environmental factors, for example music, furnishing etc., (Lam, 2001). At an aggregate level, group factors may be studied, which may include ambient, design and social factors (Baker 1986). In order to trigger consumers sensory perceptions and create pleasing experiences , in-store retailers may manipulate either the individual elements such as sight; sound and group factors, namely the overall ambience ; design & visual appeal; friendly staff & behavior of other customers inside the store (Backstrom and Johansson, 2006; Lam, 2001; Soars, 2009)

Visual merchandising and shopping behavior: Visual merchandising "entails creating displays and organizing elements within a store to spark consumers' curiosity and interest, increase footfalls and enhance the appeal of the store's brand and its products, for the ultimate purpose of increasing sales" (Jain *et al.,* 2014). It can be seen to have a priming effect on the consumer's decision to enter the store and subsequently make purchase decision or gain positive in-store experiences. Thus it acts as a "silent salesperson" (Diamond & Diamond, 2007) and may encourage spending (Bhalla and Anuraag, 2010).

Shows windows and shopping behavior: Show windows encompass several elements in their design, such as "color" (Morgon, 2010); "lighting" (Opris and Bratucu, 2007). Other elements that could make the windows more visually interesting include "mannequins", "graphics and photography", "props or scenery" (Jain et al., 2014). Show windows are not only used to attract shoppers but allows a retailer to "portray fashion trends " and exhibit how products might be used, thereby educating consumers about latest products etc.,(Jain et al., 2014)

Shopping behavior among females: Shopping is an enjoyable leisure activity for female consumers (Laroche et al., 2000; Prendergast and Lam, 2013). However, it may vary across

different shopping environments' For example, in the context of apparel shopping behavior, women are classified into four types: bargain apparel, decisive apparel, confident apparel and appearance-conscious apparel (Moye and Kincade, 2003). Depending on the value proposition that female consumers look for, show windows can become an effective medium for in-store retailers to silently communicate with their consumers.

Design/methodology/approach – A survey developed by Jain et al., 2014 in addition to few other items obtained through literature search was used to collect data from the participants for this study. Participants were final year MBA students who viewed these images projected on a screen and then answered the survey. Data was collected from 5 different groups in a laboratory setting. Participants were shown images of show windows of retail outlets showcasing wrist watches from popular shopping malls located in Chennai and Bangalore. 5 windows were shortlisted, two moderately expensive and three very expensive outlets. Each group was randomly assigned to a show window. 181 women in the age group 22 to 25 responded to the survey.

Findings – After removing items with factor loadings less than 0.5 or cross loadings of more than 0.4, using factor analysis, six components loaded significantly, namely, social, hedonic, utilitarian, informational, image and "feel-good" factors. Of this, the first five are the same as the study done in the US context, by Jain et al. These factors are shown to influence purchase intention, measured by a single item. The first five factors are aggregated into a "show window" metric, and is shown to influence purchase intentions. However, 'feel good factor' does not fully mediate the influence of show window on purchase intention as shown in the previous study, but only a partial mediation of 'feel good factor' exists between show window's influence upon purchase intention. The image factor and hedonic factors alone significantly influence the feel-good factor. Social factor does not significantly influence feel good factor as in the previous study.

Theoretical implications – The main aim of this study was to test the findings of an earlier study conducted in an US context. Though the product category was different, it was not still used by similar consumers as the product chosen for this study was a women's' fashion accessory. Findings reveal that demographic and cultural variables cause differences in purchase intentions and also in feel good factor.

Practical Implications- Visual Merchandisers, brand managers and retail managers will find the results of this study useful to reach out to their consumers; to increase footfalls to their stores and in turn convert purchase intention to sales.

Originality/value – This study identifies six factors that make up consumers' perceptions of show windows in this context. It shows that exposure to a show window affects consumers' purchase intentions, and that this influence is only partially mediated by feel good factor about the store.

Keywords Consumer behavior, Female shopping behavior, Show window, India

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Happy is the one who judges not others, nor himself

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Wal-Mart, the world's largest mass merchandiser/supermarket chain, whose marketing slogan is, "Low Prices, Always!" is facing challenges to its low price leadership position from discount stores like Aldi's and from Dollar Stores. CVS Pharmacy on the other hand, a leader in pharmacy retailing, is disappointed that consumers consider Wal Mart to be the low price leader in of Pharmaceutical goods when its own prices are lower than that of Wal Mart on many prescription and non-prescription drugs. More generally, managers wonder whether Every Day Low Price is a good strategy for sustaining low price store image or whether the strategy needs to be replaced or supplemented by discounts to sustain a low price image. If discounts are a good way to create lower price image, in what categories should the discounts be offered and by how much?

In this research, we attempt to address some of the above questions related to Overall Store Price Impression or Image (OSPI). Specifically, we investigate the following questions:

1. What is the effect of price discounts on store price image?
2. In what categories and for what SKUs are lower prices effective in creating favorable (low) overall store price image?
3. How does store price image translate into store choice?

We have collected data using an online survey/choice experiments. To each respondent, we showed three choice scenarios across four product categories (12 choice scenarios) that they typically purchase. In each of the choice scenarios, we showed 5 to 12 items of different brands in the category – their description and prices as being available in a hypothetical store. These items accounted for nearly 85% market share for the category in USA. We also manipulated prices of these items to be 0%, 10% and 15% off regular price. We then asked for each choice scenario whether the respondents perceive the store to be low price store or not on a 0 to 11 point scale. We also asked if the respondent would switch from their regular store to the hypothetical score with manipulated prices.

We have collected data from 5569 consumers residing across a wide range of geographic regions in USA for 12 choice scenarios. Thus the total number of observations for data analysis is 66828 (5569x12). We also collected data on category characteristics such as purchase frequency, purchase price and household demographic and psychographic characteristics.

Preliminary model-free analysis indicate some interesting insights:

- Shoppers as a whole indicate that they have a high degree of price familiarity.
- Not surprisingly, shoppers indicate that the "fresh" product categories have the greatest quality variation across retailers.
- Diapers, Fresh Meat and Face Cleansers are cited as the categories that have the most price variation across retailers.

- Fresh Fruits, Milk and Eggs are the top three product categories that influence shoppers' overall store price perceptions.

- Milk, Fresh Meat, Frozen Juice, Cereal and Yogurt are the product categories that induce the highest retailer switching rates at -10% (from EDLP), whereas Canned Tomatoes, Pasta and Diapers induce shoppers to switch retailers at -15% discount.

- Store brands represent 16% of the top 100 SKUs at 10% discount that signal lower prices in consumer minds.

- There are a number of product categories (e.g., Face Cleansers, Deodorants, Batteries, Razor Blades) which may require rather acute discounts (>15%) in order to influence shopper retailer choices.

Further modeling and analysis are currently underway to gain insights into category and consumer characteristics where price discounts influence overall store price impression and store switching.

The complaining customers and repeat purchase behavior

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Introduction

Online shopping has seen a significant growth across the world. In India too, the internet channel has continued to grow steadily with a CAGR of 65% over the 2010-15 period (Euromonitor International 2016). According to a CRISIL report, India is likely to be the 3rd largest e-commerce market in the world, after US and China, by the 2018. According to CRISIL and Ken Research, the Indian online grocery market is likely to reach $ 25 billion mark by the end of 2020 while the food and grocery business in general is currently worth $383 billion in India.

Reibstein (2002) observed "Many businesses on the internet in the late 1990s spent wildly, doing whatever it may take to attract customers to their sites. It soon become clear that the challenge was not simply to bring the customers in the door but also to retain these customers for future purchases…."

Reibstein's observation may perfectly explain the current situation in the Indian e-tail space.

A May 24, 2016 report in Mint quoted Sachin Bansal, the CEO of Flipkart, India's largest e-commerce company "Customer satisfaction and execution are now the important metrics that Flipkart looks at". An April 26, 2016 report in Economic Times quoted Kunal Bahl, the CEO of Snapdeal, the 3rd largest player as saying – "GMV by itself is not a good metric, will aim to add and retain high quality users".

We look to address this gap. In specific, we would like to understand the impact of the complaining behavior on the repeat purchase behavior in this paper.

Literature Review

Haubl and Trifts (2000) found after delivery satisfaction to be the significant indicator of repeat purchase intention. Koufaris, Kambil and Labarber (2000) suggested that web companies need to focus on providing system functionality that increases perceptions of control and engaging designs in order to convert new customers in to repeat buyers. The authors also found that repeat customers sought higher levels of product involvement than new customers. While developing the e-s-qual scale, Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Malhotra (2005) found efficiency and fulfillment to have a positive and significant correlation with loyalty intentions. The loyalty intentions were defined as having the following - positive word of mouth, recommend to others, encourage others to use, first choice for future, do more business in the future. According to these authors, loyalty had more to it than just repeat purchase.

Jiang and Rosenbloom (2005) found that the customers did the summation of all the service encounters during the transaction for the purpose of service quality evaluation. Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996) found that effective service recovery significantly improves all facets of behavioral intentions except for the pay- price- premium dimension. Negative performance on an attribute of service will have a greater impact then positive performance according to Mittal, Ross,

Baldasare (1998). Transaction specific satisfaction determined by the quality of delivery, post-delivery support and return policies are the strongest determinants on the repeat purchase intention according to Iconaru (2012). Failure of 'core service', failed service encounter, pricing and inconvenience of the service and the response to the failed service were other factors that caused customers to change the service providers. Attraction by competitors was another important reason for the switching behavior.

Summary of literature

According to the comprehensive literature, selected reference of which is provided above, there is indeed a positive and significant impact of the quality of service on the repeat purchase behaviour/ loyalty.

Literature also clearly indicated that while repeat purchase is a necessary condition for loyalty, repeat purchase alone does not imply loyalty.

Summary of identified gaps in literature

- Most studies have focused on consumer profiles and segmenting consumers and not the actual behavior in stores. Most studies have used perceptual measures obtained with mail surveys, in-store/out-store surveys, and individual or focus interviews - Shim (2001), (Ngobo 2011), Jiang and Rosenbloom (2004)
- Motivation to switch to online stores has been very well researched. But repeat purchase and modelling the repeat purchase behavior has not yet been extensively researched.
- Very limited studies in the Indian context - Sinha and Uniyal (2005) developed clusters of customers based on shopping motivation. Gerth, Rajan (2012) developed shopping orientation based clusters for online shoppers.

Research scope

The research is limited to the study of repeat purchases of an online grocery store of customers located in Bangalore, Hyderabad, and Mumbai and on the impact of complaint on the repeat purchase behavior.

Data and Methodology

This study is based on internal transactions records collected from a leading online grocer for a sample of 8000 customers and contains the transaction history of these customers between December 2013 and December 2014.

Research Question

1. Is there a statistical difference between the order value before and after a complaint is raised by a customer.
2. How does the presence of a negative invoice (product return) and presence of a complaint impact the order value, number of days between orders and customer churn?

Statistical Methods

- Welch t-test and linear regression model for question 1
- Survival analysis for question 2.

Analysis and Results

The welch t test found a significant difference between the order values before and after a complaint was raised by the customer. (t=-7.289, df = 1307.4, p-value = 5.389e-13)

The mean in the group with before complaint was found to be Rs 1301 and that after complaint was found to be Rs.1646 after complaint.

- The customers who have raised complaints have a tendency to have higher order value in the next purchase.

- Since this was counter intuitive, we also did a non-parametric test (Wilcox-rank sum test with continuity correction) which was also significant at p-value of 1.272e-15.

- The linear regression model also showed us that the complaint was a significant predictor variable for order value with a positive beta coefficient.(p of complaint =8.9e-09, beta of complaint = 1.43; F : 1553 on 6 and 4214 DF, model p - <2.2e-16; adjusted r squared = 0.6881)

We then lagged the complaint and the returns and built a linear model to understand the impact of a complaint and a negative invoice (product returns) on the number of days between the complaint/return and the subsequent order. Both complaint and returns were found to be insignificant predictors of the number of days between purchases (p=0.697 and p=0.968).

The survival plot of the complaining and the customers with returns is given below:
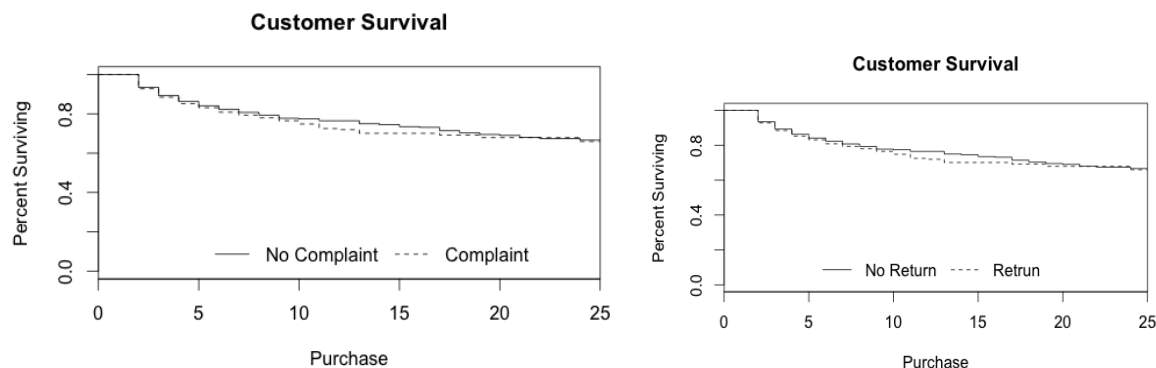
Customers who have raised a complaint tend to come back less often – statistically, the difference between customers with a complaint and without a complaint is not significant (p = 0.449), therefore complain does not influence the rate of returning customers.

Similarly as with complaints, customers who return products seem to come back less – however also here, the difference between customer churn with returning a product and without returning a product is not statistically significant (p = 0.0816). Therefore, returning of a product does not influence the rate of returning customers.

Scope for future work

We further need to investigate the reason for the paradoxical results that we have obtained. While we could explain that the redressal mechanisms of the e-grocer is satisfactory, this needs to be probed further.

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Emotional intelligence on Relationship Marketing: an exploratory study on banking industry

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Emotional intelligence (EI) relates to the ability to perceive, understand, use and manage one's own, and others', emotions. Over the past 20 years, entering the emotional intelligence to the field of management and leadership is very evident. But the growth of this concept in field of business and marketing is very slow and a little scientific work has been performed in this field. Relationship marketing is a facet of customer relationship management (CRM) that focuses on customer loyalty and long-term customer engagement rather than shorter-term goals like customer acquisition and individual sales. Relationship marketing is about forming long-term relationships with customers. Many customers leave a company not because they didn't like the product, but because they were frustrated with the customer service. If a business streamlines its internal operations to satisfy all service needs of their customers, customers will be happier even in the face of product problems.

Purpose – The aim of the study is to explore the links between emotional intelligence and relationship marketing in the banking industry.

Methodology – This paper draws on a non-probability quota sample of 100 employees which includes the employees of different branches of Union Bank of India belonging to Chennai and Kerala region.

Findings – The present study shoes that emotional intelligence has some relevant effect on effective relationship marketing. Employees with high emotional intelligence support relationship marketing as compared to employees with low Emotional Intelligence. It has been computed that the demographic factors also do not impact the emotional quotient level of the targeted employees.

Research limitations/implications – It is recognized that the study focus is on the regions of Chennai and Kerala; hence it cannot be generalized for the whole industry. Further studies can explore the different dimensions in other regions.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, Relationship marketing, banking industry

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MBAs in the C-Suite: The Value of the Management Education of Top Executives

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In this paper, we investigate the value of the management education of top executives. This is an interesting line of inquiry because past research has been unable to document a link between the MBA education of CEOs and firm performance.   Following recent research in the strategy literature, we conceptualize that the value, to firms, of having an executive with an MBA does not accrue broadly; rather, such enhanced cognition is particularly valuable when associated with individuals charged with managing novel and complex domains. We test this broad hypothesis in the specific context of MBA attainment by top executives in the face of the novelty and complexity introduced via investments in advertising. In a sample of over 24,000 firm-years between 2000 and 2011, we find that among firms that do utilize advertising, the presence of a top marketing executive with an MBA generates annual abnormal returns of 2.4%, is associated with larger positive earnings surprises, and increases operating ROA by 0.7%. These effects are absent in firms with top marketing executives that employ MBAs but do not utilize advertising. Notably, these effects are also absent for all other top executives. Overall, our empirical findings suggest that the beneficial effects of the enhanced cognition afforded by MBA education is restricted exclusively to those executives managing novel and complex environments. As such, our findings validate the past null results while at the same time demonstrating the value of MBA attainment.

Although there are many certifications associated with management education, the Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree is generally considered to be the gold standard (Yeaple 2012). It is also a very popular degree. The United States produces approximately 175,000 MBA graduates every year and the number of master's degrees conferred in the field of business is second only to those granted in the field of education.2 This popularity of the MBA degree is well-justified; a study by the Graduate Management Admission Council reports that an MBA degree provides "stellar" return on investment (ROI). Specifically, graduates typically recoup one-third of their investment in one year and enjoy returns of 100% and 200% four and after ten years out, respectively. Moreover, these highly positive results emanate from a wide swath of business schools and not just the top-ranked institutions.3 Given the primacy and visibility of the MBA, our analysis in this paper focuses on this aspect of business education.

Curiously, despite these favorable assessments of the MBA for the degree holders, academic research has found little or no positive association between firm performance and the presence of executives with MBAs. Bhagat, Bolton, and Subramanian (2010), for example, analyze the attainment of the MBA among CEOs and conclude that "there is no systematic relationship between CEO education and firm performance" (p. 4). Similarly, Gottesman and Morey (2006) find that firms managed by CEOs with an MBA or a graduate degree perform no better than firms managed by CEOs without a graduate degree. Jalbert, Furumo, and Jalbert (2010) find that the impact of graduate education of the CEO on return on assets and return on equity is insignificant. This work extended an earlier study (Jalbert, Rao, and Jalbert, 2002) that found little evidence to suggest that firm performance is impacted by the CEO's educational background.

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2 (National Center for Education Statistics: http://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=37).
3 (Byrne 2012: http://poetsandquants.com/2012/01/11/mba-still-worth-it-absolutely-say-alums/)

In contrast to the lack of a broad positive effect for the MBA degree, other research unequivocally demonstrates the value of education in some specific contexts. Chevalier and Ellison (1999), for example, demonstrate that fund managers who attended higher-SAT undergraduate institutions systematically generate enhanced risk-adjusted excess returns. Similarly, Chaudhuri, Ivkovic, Pollet, and Trzcinka (2013) find that institutional money management companies that employ Ph.D. qualified managers generate superior performance relative to companies that do not employ Ph.D. qualified mangers. These superior outcomes hold even after controlling for a host of factors that include size and past performance. Chaudhuri et al. (2013) argue that individuals who successfully complete the requirements for the Ph.D. degree may exhibit substantial intrinsic ability as suggested in the screening model of Spence (1973). These individuals may also exhibit substantial knowledge acquisition. In effect, the "sorting" and "substance" roles of education yields human capital which, in turn, translates to superior firm performance.

The inconclusive findings in the research of Bhagat, Bolton, and Subramanian (2010), Gottesman and Morey (2006), Jalbert, Furomo, and Jalbert (2010) and Jalbert, Rao, and Jalbert (2002), and the contrasting and more conclusive findings in the research of Chevelier and Ellison (1999) and Chaudhuri, Ivkovic, Pollet and Trzcinka (2013) suggest that the value of employee education needs to be examined in a more nuanced manner. In this regard, recent research by Gavetti, Levinthal, and Rivkin (2005) in the strategy literature suggests that the cognition and analogical reasoning skills imparted via MBA education may be particularly valuable in novel and complex environments. In effect, upon encountering a novel and complex environment, MBA trained managers are able to identify the features of the new setting that are most pertinent, think back through their experiences in other settings with similar features, and recall the broad policies that worked well in those settings – a process dubbed as analogical reasoning. Indeed, the case method, perhaps the most popular form of management education, is designed in part to give students a rich base from which to draw analogies. Accordingly, the fundamental thesis of our research is that the value of management education will not accrue broadly; rather, it will be pronounced for those individuals charged with managing novel and complex environments

Undoubtedly, there are many environments that can be classified as novel and complex. However, in our work, we adopt a focused approach and classify firms that invest in advertising as operating in novel and complex environments. In our view, the novelty associated with advertising stems from the fact that the response to advertising is unique to a particular firm and industry (idiosyncratic). Indeed, the meta-analysis of Lodish, Abraham, Kalmenson, Livelsberger, Lubetkin, Richardson, and Stevens (1995), conducted across many industries and many time periods, reveals that: (i) there is no simple correspondence between increased advertising expenditures and increased sales, regardless of whether the increased spending is compared to competition or not, (ii) advertising is more likely to work when there are changes in brand/copy/media strategy, and (iii) standard measures of recall and persuasion are unlikely to impact the sales effectiveness of the copy. Lodish, Abraham, Kalmenson, Livelsberger, Lubetkin, Richardson, and Stevens (1995) conclude that "there are many aspects of advertising sales effectiveness that seem to be unique to a particular brand, competitive situation, copy strategy and execution, and media strategy and tactics" (p. 138). These observations make a good case for our assertion that advertising investments are characterized by novelty.

The complexity associated with advertising stems from the fact that advertising investments are often characterized by interactions with other marketing mix elements. Gatignon

and Hanssens (1987), for example, note that there is substantial empirical support for interaction effects between advertising and other elements of the marketing mix. In one direction, advertising effectiveness increases with product quality (Kuehn 1962), prior salesperson contact, (Swinyard and Ray 1977), and retail availability (Kuehn 1962; Parsons 1974). In the reverse direction, advertising induces higher or lower price sensitivity depending on the content of the message (Kaul and Wittink 1995) as well as the amount of competitive reaction (Gatignon 1984). Advertising also enhances the impact of personal selling efforts (Gopalakrishna and Chatterjee 1992).

These documented interactions between advertising and various other elements of the marketing mix strongly suggest that the presence of advertising investments introduces substantial complexity into the business environment. This is because senior executives have to incorporate bi-directional interactions with advertising as they conceptualize and execute their responsibilities. Crucially, this complexity arises over several aspects of marketing such as product quality, retail availability, personal selling efforts, and pricing. Thus, we conclude that the interactions induced by the presence of advertising investments generally increases the complexity associated with business environment.

In assessing the association between the education of top marketing executives and firm performance, we employ three measures of firm performance: abnormal stock returns, earnings surprises and enhancements in operating return on assets (ROA). Abnormal stock returns are primarily a market-based measure of the improvements in long-term firm value created by marketing investments, while improvements in operating ROA are primarily an accounting measure of firm operating performance. Earnings surprise is a hybrid measure that represents the difference between an accounting measure (actual reported earnings) and a market measure (the consensus analysis forecast prior to the release of earnings numbers). Our sample, which covers 24,000 firm-years between 2000 and 2011, includes publicly traded U.S. companies for which we were able to determine the educational attainment of top executives.

Our empirical findings pertaining to value of the management education of top executives can be summarized as follows. When we consider all the firms in our sample, the presence of a CEO, top marketing officer, or any other top officer with an MBA has no impact on risk-adjusted abnormal returns or earnings surprises. Neither does the presence of a CEO, top marketing officer, or other top officer with an MBA have any impact on operating ROA. These null findings are consistent with our premise that the value of the MBA does not accrue broadly, and further validates the null results found in prior literature that has focused only on the broad association between MBA-holding executives and firm performance.

However, when we incorporate the utilization of advertising in the execution of the marketing function, these results change in predicted ways. In particular, we find that that the presence of top marketing officers with MBAs has a significant impact on risk-adjusted abnormal returns. Specifically, the presence of a top marketing officer with an MBA in a firm that utilizes advertising yields annual abnormal risk-adjusted returns of 2.42% over our sample period, and is associated with positive earnings surprises. Furthermore, the presence of a top marketing executive with an MBA improves operating ROA by 0.73% in these firms that utilize advertising. Notably, among this same sample of firms that employ advertising, the presence of a CEO or other top (non-marketing) officers with an MBA has no impact on changes in ROA, earnings surprises, or abnormal stock prices. In other words, it is only the presence of a top marketing officer with an MBA that improves firm outcomes among firms that utilize advertising. This pattern of findings

lends strong support to our notion that the value of the MBA arises only in specific contexts. Specifically, the complexity introduced by the utilization of advertising makes the MBA degree critical for those executives responsible for the marketing function but not so for the CEO and other (non-marketing) top executives.

One concern that arises from our empirical results is the possibility of reverse causality. For example, firms expecting future success may begin to hire or attract individuals that hold the MBA degree, and this reverse causality may explain our results. However, this concern is allayed somewhat by noting that the presence of CEOs or other top (non-marketing) officers with MBAs has no impact on changes in operating ROA, earnings surprises, or abnormal returns. A related concern pertains to endogeneity arising from omitted variables. For example, unobservable constructs such as scale effects or opportunities available to the firm may impact future firm performance. These unobservable constructs may also be correlated with the hiring of top marketing executives with an MBA degree. As such, omitted variables can bias our inference. To alleviate concerns of endogeneity, we conduct a matched sample analysis where we match a firm employing a marketing executive with an MBA (treatment firm) to the most similar firm (i.e., its "nearest neighbor" based on several variables such as size, market-to-book, capital expenditures, concentration, and stock price volatility) that does not employ a top marketing executive with an MBA (control firm). Then, comparing treatment and control firms, we still find that among firms that advertise, the presence of top marketing executive with an MBA is associated with significant abnormal stock returns, positive earnings surprises, and improvements in operating performance (ROA). As in our regression analysis, we find no effects among firms that do not utilize advertising investments.

We also carry out two stage instrumental variable (IV-2SLS) and self-selection regressions. We exploit the fact that local labor supply, and local similarities in hiring and employee retention practices suggest that a firm is more likely to have a top marketing executive with an MBA if other firms in the same area do as well. However, the mere presence of an executive with an MBA in a firm that just happens to be geographically close to a given firm should have no impact on its own performance. Thus, we use the presence (and number) of firms within sixty miles of a given firm's headquarters that have marketing executives with MBAs as an instrument for the presence of an MBA at that firm. The inference from IV-2SLS regressions and self-selection regressions are similar to those from our OLS regressions: there is a significant positive association between performance (both earnings surprises and ROA) and having a top marketing executive with an MBA only in the sample of firms that advertise. These findings further minimize concerns of endogeneity and reinforce the validity of our key findings.

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Modes of University Technology Commercialization: A Review and Contingent Factors

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Firms must proactively pursue innovation to sustain and grow in today's high velocity markets (Yusuf 2008). But, traditional basic research activities going on in corporate R&D centers are inadequate to deal with the constant pressure to decrease time-to-market for new inventions and to solve specific and identifiable customer needs (Carayannis et al. 2000). This compels firms to often acquire technologies from external sources to achieve increased scale and scope of activities, improve ability to deal with complexity and share cost and risk (Dodgson 1994). Suppliers, competitors, firms in other industries, universities and research organizations are some of the external sources of the technologies (Chen et al. 2011). Though the role of universities, as a partner in business value creation is not a new phenomenon, emergence of a global knowledge economy has shaped university-industry (UI) partnerships to be more of strategic in nature (Santoro and Betts 2002). Government, universities and industry – all have recognized the need to strengthen UI linkages to build strong state economies (Tornatzky 2000; Etzkowitz 2008). However, barriers restrain the formation and maintenance of university-industry collaboration (Hall, Link and Scott 2001; Gilsing et al. 2011). Even in the US, only a small fraction of technologies produced in say less than 100 universities is really utilized by firms (Atkinson and Blanpied 2008). Comparing it with an emerging economy (e.g. India), this number is even lesser.

As stated by Bozeman (2000), the mode of technology commercialization has a critical role in the outcome of university technology commercialization. Prior researches have made considerable effort to explore the nature and importance of university technology commercialization (UTC) and identified different modes of UI collaboration such as: research partnerships (collaborative or sponsored research and research centers), research services (contract research and consulting), academic entrepreneurship (startup companies), human resource transfer (student/ faculty), informal interaction (social relationships and networks at conferences), commercialization of intellectual property (IP) rights (licensing patents) and scientific publications (Thursby, Jensen, and Thursby 2001; Hall 2001; Siegel et al. 2003; Perkmann and Walsh, 2007). A review of extant literature suggests that appropriateness of a channel for UTC is contingent upon various factors, viz., type of industry, field of research, and nature of knowledge etc. (Bekkers and Freitas 2008; Lautenschläger, Haase and Kratzer 2014). Despite these efforts, there is no study that compares and differentiates these modes based upon some of the important considerations that might be critical to a firm's decision for UTC (Andersén 2011; Acar 1993). Thus, we argue that choosing the right mode of UTC will have implications for successful technology acquisition and firm performance. This exploratory study is first of its kind to present a detailed and comparative study of various modes of UTC. This would help in understanding the suitability of each channel option to build sustainable and profitable UI partnerships. We conclude with a matrix of contingent factors and modes of UTC in the light of extant literature, implications and future directions.

Methodology

For this exploratory study we performed a systematic review of extant literature on channels of university based technology commercialization. We followed the methodology mentioned by Tranfield, Denyer, and Smart (2003). The journal articles studied are published between 1989 and

2015. We searched for relevant research articles in EBSCO and Science Direct, using relevant keywords (university industry linkage, technology transfer, university technology commercialization, etc) which yielded 69 journal articles. We analyzed each paper based on research question, data, methodology and results. Majority of papers reviewed are from: Research Policy, Journal of business venturing, Management Science and Techno ovation that have business and innovation focus. We discarded articles that discussed about socio-economic impacts on university/industry, international collaboration, patenting process and IPR regulations. Using content analysis we explored the link between the firm's internal factors and modes for UTC.

Major results

Extant literature discussed about several channels for UTC. However, in the current study, we have categorized university based technology commercialization four broad modes, viz., 1) research partnerships (collaborative or sponsored research), 2) commercialization of IP (patent licensing), 3) research services (contract research and consulting), and 4) open channels (informal interaction, conferences and scientific publications).

The transaction cost framework is a widely used theory to explain inter-organizational collaboration (Cassiman and Veugelers 1998). Though companies need to invest into and acquire latest technologies to gain competitive advantage they tend to seek the lower costs between performing R&D internally and contracting to another party so that it reduces the financial risk involved in new product development (Daniels et al, 2007: 489). Besides, some channels of UTC are high on relational involvement (partnership-based) and some are low (open channels). The success of UTC will depend on firms' experience with collaboration processes (Kogout et al. 1989). Wider experience leads to: 1) better ability to extend existing collaboration relationships and 2) enter into future collaborations (Park and Ungson 1997). Conflicts between the university and business cultures may increase costs because of the need for coordination and can depress company performance (Cyert and Goodman 1997). A large sector consists of large firms which possess higher degree of absorptive capacity, R&D capabilities and innovation capabilities to exploit external technology and develop innovative solutions (Zhao et al. 2005). Further, consulting and contract research requires extensive human resource involvement for knowledge transfer which necessitates the parties to be located in closer vicinity as against research joint ventures which can utilize some of the advanced information exchange and communication systems. A summary of our characterization of four modes of UTC has been presented in the table below:

	Commercialization of IP	Open channels	Research services	Research partnership
Differentiation based on	Media through which information is transferred between university and industry – patents or publications or conferences		Social process or configurations involving actions and inputs from both parties involved search as contracting or joint ventures	
Objective	Technical competence leveraging	Technical competence building	Technical competence leveraging	Technical competence building
NPD Phase	Engineering	Idea generation	Product differentiation and improvement	Concept Development

Type of Innovation	Incremental innovation	Both	Incremental innovation	Scientific breakthrough
Exploration/ Exploitation	Exploitation	Exploration	Exploration	Exploitation
Time span	Short	Short	Short to Medium	Long
Financial risk	Low	Low	Medium	High
Cost of managing IOR	Low	Low	Medium	High
Size of sector	Large	Large	Small	Large
Technological uncertainty	Low	High	Low	High
Geographical Proximity Hindrance	Low	Low	High	Medium

Implications

This paper explores the contingent factors affecting the relative importance of channels for university based technology commercialization. These results however need to be strengthened through empirical analysis. Our exploratory study suggests that firms define their strategy of interaction with a university based on their business objectives and resource constraint. Moreover, this paper has a number of implications for policy makers. We observe that a wide variety of UTC channels matched with a given context. Therefore, any policy should allow for a wide range and should not overemphasize one single channel (e.g. patents, spin-offs or contract research). A wide availability of scientific journals and participation in scientific conferences could be effective in building firms' awareness of university inventions. The universities can segment potential firms based on these contingent factors and organize targeted open houses or train their technology transfer office staff to position new research and inventions accordingly.

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A Study on Consumer Behavior of Mobile Gaming Applications Using PACMAD Model

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Introduction:

The usefulness of mobile devices has increased greatly in recent years allowing users to perform multiple tasks in the mobile context. Advances in mobile technology have enabled a wide range of applications to be developed that can be used by people on the move. According to Reliance Gaming Report 2015, India's mobile gaming market is worth \$214 million, and is dominated by arcade, puzzles and racing games. Eighty-five per cent of gamers are below 44 years[i]. Mobile application developers sometimes overlook the fact that users will want to interact with such devices while on the move. Earlier models of usability is usually measured in terms of three attributes; effectiveness, efficiency and satisfaction. But, by using PACMAD (People At the Centre of Mobile Application Development) Usability Model (Harrison (2013) which was designed to address the limitations of existing usability models when applied to mobile gaming application will tell us which gaming applications is best in terms of seven different attributes. PACMAD brings together significant attributes such as satisfaction, Learnability, Memorability, Errors & Cognitive load in order to create more comprehensive model.

According to Shintaro Okazaki (2008), 'enjoyment' is the significant factor in e-commerce literature driving mobile gaming applications. Thalemann (2007) proves that gaming has a habit-forming potential that is also mirrored by addiction-related cognitive component. But there is no strong evidence to prove that gaming will result in to aggressive behavior. Skoric (2009) has used PACMAD model to capture the complexities of how these applications interact in the mobile platform. This usability model also integrates the already available usability models in terms of mobile apps. The PACMAD Usability model has been taken to identify all the attributes which have more impact in mobile application. Those attributes are Effectiveness, Efficiency, satisfaction, learnability, memorability, errors and cognitive load. This research tries to understand each attribute of PACMAD Usability model in particular gaming application and also to identify which of the mobile gaming application perform task more efficiently. This study also captures how users are connected to mobile gaming application.

Research Methodology:

Descriptive Research design is adopted in this study and samples are selected based on snow-ball sampling. 234 users of mobile gaming are interviewed for this study. Out of the sample of 234, there are 188 male and 46 female respondents .Factor analysis is used to validate the PACMAD model. Factor analysis has resulted into six factors. Variables which have higher Eigen value of 0.5 are considered for this study.

Analysis and Findings:

This study identifies the six factors influencing mobile gaming applications: Satisfaction, Errors, Effectiveness, Durability, Learnability & Cognitive load. According to this study, memorability is not the significant factor with respect to mobile gaming applications. Subway Surfers is the most playing game among respondents, and then there are other three games like candy crush saga, clash

of clans and 2048 which are most playing games other than subway surfers. Fifa ultimate and temple run are the least played game among respondents. The research also shows the interesting results in terms of their preferences on playing games and the type of city they live i.e. metropolitan, tier I, tier II cities. It shows that respondents from metropolitan area enjoy playing subway surfers a most, respondents from tier I cities enjoy playing 2048 and respondents from tier II cities enjoy playing clash of clans. This result also shows that people from tier II cities not play much games either they might find it difficult to play or they might not be familiar with that games. But people from metropolitan cities enjoy playing different varieties of games based on their usability of playing. As result also that there is a significant difference between male and female on their preferences of playing games. Most of the males enjoy subway surfers playing most but female like to play candy crush more. Hence male enjoy playing different games but female only sticks with 4-5 particular games. Also, both of them enjoy playing 2048. This study shows that people from the age group between18-24 and between25-35 both of these group enjoy subway surfers playing most. As we can also say that there is also the significant difference between this two age groups in playing candy crush saga. People in age group of 18-24 enjoy playing candy crush more & research also shows that most of the games are played between these two age groups. Results also give an interesting finding that out of all these games on which we have done a research, 2048 is the most difficult games to play. Mean analysis reveals that respondents no need to re-learn game when they play game after some time. Different games appeal to different audiences. Some games can garner attention from the masses, while others cater to a niche segment of gamers. In fact gamers' preferences are significantly different among the different types of cities. Marketers should continuously work on identifying new target audience in this dynamic mobile gaming market.

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